

**MIGRANT WORKERS AND URBAN LABOUR MARKET: A
COMPARATIVE STUDY OF KOHIMA AND DIMAPUR
DISTRICTS OF NAGALAND**

by

**LACHONG H PHOM
Regd.No. PhD/Eco/00106**



Submitted to

NAGALAND UNIVERSITY

In Fulfilment of the Requirement for Award of the Degree

of

DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY IN ECONOMICS

DEPARTMENT OF ECONOMICS

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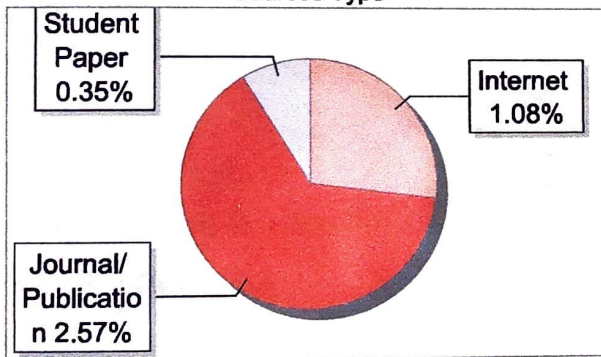
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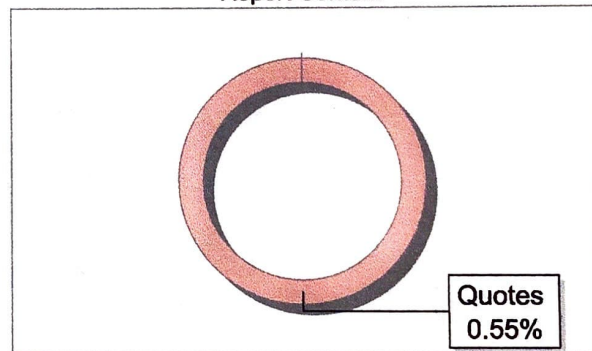
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ACRONYMS

BEFR	Bengal Eastern Frontier Regulation
CAGR	Compound Annual Growth Rate
CII	Combined Integration Index
DMC	Dimapur Municipal Corporation
EII	Economic Integration Index
GDP	Gross Domestic Product
HSLC	High School Leaving Certificate
HSSLC	Higher Secondary School Leaving Certificate
ILO	International Labour Organization
ILP	Inner Line Permit
KMC	Kohima Municipal Council
MIRAB	Migration, Remittances, Aid, Bureaucracy
NELM	New Economics of Labor Migration
NSS	National Sample Survey
NSSO	National Sample Survey Organisation
PAP	Protected Area Permit
PDS	Public Distribution System
PLFS	Periodic Labour Force Survey
SC	Scheduled Caste
SII	Social Integration Index
ST	Scheduled Tribe
UT	Union Territories

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CHAPTER 1

1.1 INTRODUCTION

Migrant workers are individuals who relocate from their original place of residence to new urban or rural destinations in search of better economic opportunities, improved living conditions, or social security (International Labour Organization, 2018). Internal migration has long been central to India's urbanization story and labour market dynamics. Large number of workers from poorer, less industrialized or agrarian states move to more urbanized centres in search of livelihood, even when those livelihoods are located in the informal, unregulated segments of city's economy. Internal migrant workers especially low skilled and semiskilled are not only a labour force but they are also a mechanism by which cities reproduce themselves every day, by supplying essential services, physical labour, and petty entrepreneurship at wages that local labour alone often cannot sustain. Internal migration is, therefore, not just a demographic phenomenon but an economic strategy through which people move to survive, and Indian cities absorb this movement to function (Srivastava, 2011).

In India migration is shaped by regional inequalities in employment opportunities, wages and access to basic infrastructure. Historically, outmigration has been higher from states and districts marked by agrarian distress, underemployment and low levels of industrial diversification, and immigration has been higher towards commercial and administrative hubs that offer a denser labour market in sectors such as construction, transport, small trade, retail services, hospitality, manufacturing and repair work (Srivastava, 2011). Scholars have repeatedly shown that wage differentials and the promise of steady work continue to be major economic "pull" factors drawing migrants toward urban centres, while unemployment, landlessness, declining agricultural viability, and limited nonfarm opportunities in the place of origin act as "push" factors

(Massey et al., 1993). Internal migration in India, then, cannot be separated from the labour market: the journey itself is a labour market decision (Taylor, 1999).

Within the Indian context, the Northeast region occupies a particular and often under discussed position. The region is politically sensitive, geographically distinct, and historically characterized by limited large scale industrialization, land based ethnic claims, and a strong presence of regulatory regimes governing entry, settlement, and economic participation. Despite this, towns and emerging urban nodes in the Northeastern states function as regional service hubs and logistics corridors especially in border trade, transport, storage, security services, construction, and retail activities. These urban centre's are not isolated. They connect to labour circuits that span beyond the Northeast region, drawing in workers from other Indian states who fill the gaps in local labour supply, particularly in low wage and labour intensive occupations (Srivastava, 2011). Migrant workers from outside the region are visible in almost every segment of the urban informal economy as daily wage construction workers, porters and loaders, transport helpers, hotel and restaurant staff, mechanics, carpenters, petty vendors, barber services, household repair workers, and other support roles in which a flexible and expendable workforce is preferred.

Nagaland, in this wider Northeastern frame, is an important case. Although it is a relatively small state in demographic terms, its urban centre's notably Dimapur and Kohima play an outsized role in the circulation of goods, services, and people. Dimapur in particular has evolved into a key commercial hub, not only for Nagaland but also as a gateway between Nagaland and the rest of mainland India. It is a main point of entry by rail and road, and it hosts wholesale and retail networks that extend supply chains deep into the interior districts. Kohima, the state capital, while more administrative and political in character, also depends on migrant labour for essential urban services, public facing commerce, repair and maintenance work, and informal subcontracting in construction and transport related activity. The presence of migrant workers from

outside Nagaland in these towns is therefore not incidental; it is structurally embedded in how these urban economies operate on a day to day basis.

A core feature of the urban labour market in Nagaland is that it is segmented. There is, on one hand, a relatively protected local workforce with stronger social rootedness, community networks, and, in some cases, regulatory protection. On the other hand, there is a large set of jobs considered hard, dirty, irregular, or exposed, where wages are negotiable, hours are long, and the expectation of social protection is minimal. It is in this second segment that out of state migrant workers are most prominent. They are hired quickly, often informally without written contracts, and mostly through networks of contractors, relatives, or village level contacts that operate across states. This informal matching process lowers the transaction cost for employers, who can obtain reliable workers at short notice, and it provides migrants with an immediate foothold in the city economy even if they lack local identity documents or formal recognition. This dynamic reflects migration research that shows how social and kinship networks reduce the cost and risk of migration, help migrants access employment niches on arrival, and reproduce migration streams over time (Massey et al., 1993; Taylor, 1999).

For Nagaland, however, this process unfolds within a distinctive regulatory environment of the Inner Line Permit (ILP) system, a framework under the Bengal Eastern Frontier Regulation, 1873. The ILP regime historically governs the entry of non-indigenous populations into several Northeastern states. In practice, it shapes who can legally reside, work, or conduct business, and under what conditions. While the ILP is intended to protect the interests and demographic balance of the indigenous population, it also has practical consequences for labour markets, because it influences the visibility, bargaining power, and vulnerability of migrant workers from outside the state. Workers from other states who are able to enter and remain do so in a space that is both economically dependent on them and politically sensitive about them. That tension of

economic reliance versus sociopolitical resistance is part of what makes the study of migrant labour in Nagaland urgent and distinct from other Indian urban labour markets.

As per the provisional census 2011, the total population of Nagaland stood at 1,980,602. Out of this, rural population stands at a total of 1,406,861 and the urban total population with 573,741. Dimapur district has the highest urban population with 34.38% of the total urban population of Nagaland. All the districts of Nagaland comes under the ILP (Inner Line Permit) Regulations 1873, except for a certain area of Dimapur. But following the 9 December 2019 notification extending ILP to the entire Dimapur district, the system transitioned to a fully online regime in 2025, with district level guidelines and periodic verification drives indicating on ground enforcement. It being the only district in Nagaland with connectivity of airways and railways and highest urban settlement steps are taken to regularly keep a check on the ILP regulation.

Another striking feature in Nagaland's urban labour market is informality. Much of the work available to migrant labourers from outside the state is informal in contract, irregular in hours, and unstable in income. The informal sector, in the Indian context, has been shown to absorb a substantial share of internal migrants, particularly recent arrivals, because it demands limited formal qualifications and can accommodate workers quickly at low cost to employers (Srivastava, 2011). The same logic operates in Dimapur and Kohima: construction sites, loading points, small workshops, roadside retail, transport support, local eateries, small hotels, hair salons and repair kiosks are all spaces where out of state workers can immediately enter and begin earning. This insertion into informal labour is not merely "temporary work until something better appears." For many migrants, it becomes the long-term labour market. It is the source of income, of remittances to the place of origin, of support to dependents, and, in some cases, of eventual settlement in the destination (Adams & Page, 2005; Taylor, 1999).

The present study is positioned directly in that gap. It focuses specifically on migrant workers coming from outside Nagaland (that is, from other Indian states or

country) and examines their participation in the urban labour markets of Dimapur and Kohima. By doing so, this study contributes to three levels of understanding. First, at the national level, it adds to the wider literature on internal migration and informal labour in India by providing evidence from a frontier urban economy rather than only from metropolitan “core” cities (Srivastava, 2011). Second, at the regional level, it clarifies how the Northeast, and Nagaland in particular, is not only a site of protectionist discourse around outsiders but also a site of demand for those very outsiders in order to sustain urban services and commerce. Third, at the city level, it documents the structure of employment, earnings, duration of stay, and perceived competition or complementarity between migrant workers and local labour. In doing so, it brings empirical clarity to debates that are often emotional, politicized, or anecdotal.

Together, the study argues that migrant workers from other Indian states are not peripheral to Nagaland’s urban labour market they are constitutive of it. Any serious discussion of urbanisation, labour regulation, wage bargaining, or livelihood security in towns like Dimapur and Kohima must therefore take these interstate migrants into account, not as an external disturbance but as part of the internal economic logic of the city.

1.2 CONCEPT OF MIGRANTS

A “migrant” is generally understood as a person who moves from one area to another and changes their usual place of residence, either temporarily or permanently. The core reason for this movement is usually economic (work, wages, livelihood), but it can also involve social, environmental, or political reasons (Srivastava, 2011; Massey et al., 1993).

In the context of the Indian labour market, migration is strongly linked to survival and opportunity. Individuals (often from poorer or economically stagnant regions) move towards places where there is higher demand for labour typically urban centres, to access income, employment security and upward mobility. This movement is

not random. It reflects wage gaps, lack of decent work at the place of origin, and the pull of better earnings at the destination (Srivastava, 2011; Taylor, 1999).

1.2.1 Types of migrant workers

According to Census of India (2011) migrant workers may be classified into:

- a. Short-term / Seasonal / Circulatory migrants: Migrants who comes for a short period (weeks, months or less than a year).
- b. Medium-term migrants: Who stay for a few years (15 years) but still see themselves as temporary.
- c. Long-term migrants: Remains for many years (510 years), sometimes bring family and become embedded in the local labour market.
- d. Very long-term / Settled migrants: Stays for more than 10 years, functionally part of the destination's economy and society, but still seen as an outsider.

1.3 CONCEPT OF LABOUR MARKET

The labour market can be defined as the system or arena in which employers demand labour and workers supply labour, and in which employment, wages, working hours, and conditions of work are determined through that interaction. The labour market is not a single uniform place but segmented. Different groups of workers are absorbed into different “segments” of work that offer very different levels of pay, stability, dignity, and protection (Fields, 2011). One segment is more formal like stable hours, regular salary, some recognition under labour law. The other is informal with daily wage or pie cerate work, long or irregular hours, verbal hiring, and almost no enforceable rights. Most interstate migrant workers, especially recent arrivals, enter this informal segment initially because it is the only part of the urban labour market that allows fast entry without local documents or prior credentials (Srivastava, 2011).

Labour is defined as human activity (physical or mental) that counts as work which is performed to produce goods or provide services for others or for own use according to International Labour Organization (ILO, 2019).

1.3.1 Types of urban labour market:

Labour market may be classified into:

- a. Daily wage physical labour (construction, loading/unloading, transport assistance),
- b. Salaried low wage services (hotel/restaurant work, small retail, repairs, salons, mechanic work),
- c. Self employment (tea stalls, roadside vending, tailoring, mobile repair),
- d. Semiskilled technical work (plumbing, carpentry, welding, electrical work).

1.4 THEORETICAL BACKGROUND OF THE STUDY

Understanding migration requires a multidimensional analytical lens, as the phenomenon intersects with economic, social, political, and regulatory structures. Several classical and contemporary theories of migration provide the foundation for examining the motivations, processes, and consequences of migratory movements. This section outlines the major theoretical perspectives relevant to this study, offering a framework for interpreting the movement of migrant workers into the urban labour markets of Kohima and Dimapur.

1.4.1 Push-Pull Theory of Migration

One of the earliest and most enduring models of migration is the Push-Pull Theory, popularized by Everett S. Lee (1966). According to this theory, migration is the result of a combination of push factors (conditions at the place of origin that drive people away) and pull factors (attractions at the destination that draw people in). Push factors usually include poverty, unemployment, environmental degradation, or political

instability, whereas pull factors may involve availability of jobs, higher wages, improved living standards, and greater social freedom. Lee also emphasized intervening obstacles such as distance, transport costs, legal restrictions, and social barriers, all of which can influence whether migration occurs.

In the context of Nagaland, migrants are often pushed from economically stagnant rural areas in the neighboring states due to poverty or lack of employment and are pulled towards places like Dimapur and Kohima due to the expanding construction sector, retail, and informal service sectors. However, legal mechanisms such as the Inner Line Permit serve as intervening obstacles, shaping the extent and manner in which migration occurs.

1.4.2 Harris-Todaro Model of Rural-Urban Migration

The Harris-Todaro Model (1970) offers an economic explanation of rural to urban migration by focusing on expected income differentials. The model proposes that migration decisions are based not just on current wage gaps, but on *expected* income differences, factoring in the probability of obtaining employment in the urban labour market. A key insight of the model is that rural workers may continue to migrate to urban areas even when urban unemployment is high, so long as the *expected wage* (adjusted by the chance of employment) is greater than rural earnings.

This theory is especially relevant for understanding migration into cities like Dimapur, where informal employment is readily available, and even low-paying, insecure jobs in the urban economy may offer better expected income than rural subsistence agriculture or daily wage labour in states like Assam or Bihar.

1.4.3 Neoclassical Economic Theory

Rooted in labour economics, neoclassical theories of migration (Todaro, 1969; Sjaastad, 1962) view migration as an individual decision made to maximize income or

utility. Migration is conceptualized as a form of human capital investment, where individuals migrate to locations where their productivity is better rewarded. This approach emphasizes wage differentials, labour market conditions, and individual cost benefit analyses.

While applicable to urban migration trends in Nagaland, the neoclassical model is somewhat limited in capturing the institutional and regulatory constraints like ILP or the role of social networks in shaping migration.

1.4.4 The New Economics of Labour Migration (NELM)

The New Economics of Labour Migration emerged as a response to the limitations of neoclassical theory. Scholars such as Stark and Bloom (1985) argue that migration is not merely an individual decision but a household strategy to diversify income, spread risk, and manage access to credit and insurance. According to NELM, remittances are a central component of migration, and decisions are influenced by household dynamics rather than just wage gaps.

This theory helps explain why many migrants from poorer regions send money back to their families, and how their migration decisions are often embedded in broader family economic strategies. In the Nagaland context, many migrants remit a portion of their income to rural households in Bihar, Assam, and West Bengal to support education, health, or home construction.

1.4.5 Segmented Labour Market Theory

The Segmented Labour Market Theory (Piore, 1979) provides a sociological lens to migration by emphasizing that the labour markets in advanced economies including urban centers in developing countries are segmented into primary and secondary sectors. The primary sector offers stability, high wages, and security, while the secondary sector is characterized by low wages, informal conditions, and insecurity. Migrants are

typically confined to the secondary sector due to their lack of local identity, limited rights, and weaker bargaining power.

In cities like Dimapur, where the informal sector dominates, migrant workers are overrepresented in construction, retails, and other low status occupations. This theory helps explain their marginalization despite their crucial economic contributions.

1.4.6 Migration Network Theory and Social Capital

This theory posits that migrant networks and social capital play a crucial role in sustaining migration flows. As one member of a community successfully migrates and establishes themselves in a destination area, they create a path for others to follow by sharing information, providing temporary shelter, or helping with job placement. These networks reduce the costs and risks of migration and are self reinforcing.

In this study, social capital among migrants especially ties to community networks, intermediaries, and labour contractors plays a significant role in enabling access to the labour market in both Kohima and Dimapur. Despite legal barriers like ILP, such networks help migrants navigate settlement and employment, even if informally.

This theoretical foundation guides the analytical framework of the present research. By drawing from both economic and sociological perspectives, the study seeks to understand not just the factors motivating migration, but also the mechanisms through which migrants adapt to the urban labour market and the broader impact of their presence on local employment conditions.

1.5 MIGRATION IN INDIA

Migration in India is primarily internal and shaped by movements for work, education, marriage, and access to services. Most mobility occurs within states, with streams from slower growing regions toward major towns and cities. Women comprise a

large share due to marriage related moves, while circular and seasonal workers support construction, manufacturing, and services. In Nagaland, migration reflects close ties with neighboring states and nearby countries, combining long term settlers with recent arrivals across districts. The following tables present the national and state context that frames these patterns.

Table : 1.1 Trends of Migration in India, 1981-2011 (in millions)

Census Year	Sector/ Rural/ Urban	Male		Female		Person		% to total population
		Freq	% to total migrants	Freq.	% to total migrants	Freq.	%	
1981	Total	62.4	30.1	145.2	69.9	207.7	100	30.4
	Rural	32.9	15.8	113.6	54.7	146.5	70.5	21.4
	Urban	59.6	14.2	31.6	15.2	61.2	29.5	9.0
1991	Total	64.3	27.7	167.8	72.3	232.1	100	27.4
	Rural	32.8	14.1	129.7	55.9	162.5	70	19.2
	Urban	31.5	13.6	38.2	16.5	69.7	30	8.2
2001	Total	93.4	29.7	221.2	70.3	314.6	100	30.6
	Rural	43.9	13.9	166.5	52.9	210.4	66.9	20.5
	Urban	49.5	15.7	54.7	17.4	104.2	33.1	10.1
2011	Total	146.2	32.1	309.6	67.9	455.8	100	37.7
	Rural	64.7	14.2	213.4	46.8	278.2	68	22.9
	Urban	81.4	17.9	96.1	21.1	177.6	39	14.7
CAGR	Total	32.8		28.7		29.9		

Source: Computed from census of India, 1981, 1991, 2001 and 2011.

(Note: Census data available only till 2011, one of the limiting factor for the study)

From the table 1.1, we see that, between 1981 and 2011, India's migrant population nearly doubled from 207.7 million to 455.8 million, and migrants rose from 30.4% to 37.7% of the total population. Women consistently made up about two thirds of all migrants (largely due to marriage related moves), though male migrant numbers also increased. Rural origin migrants remained the majority (about 67–71%), even as urban origin migrants grew substantially from 61.2 million to 177.6 million. Overall growth was steady, with an approximate CAGR of 2.7% for total migrants.

Table 1.2. State wise Migration by Last Usual Place of Residence in India (in %)

State/UTs	Last usual place of residence in					Total
	Same State		Other State	Other country	Unclassified	
	Same district	Other district				
Jammu & Kashmir	72.2	21	5.52	1.26	0.02	100
Himachal Pradesh	69.29	13.22	14.94	2.28	0.27	100
Punjab	50.86	29	18.12	2.02	0.01	100
Chandigarh	4.53	0	93.48	1.93	0.06	100
Uttarakhand	51.09	18	28.97	1.9	0.04	100
Haryana	33.79	30.42	30.48	5.29	0.01	100
Delhi	9.36	0	87.62	2.46	0.55	100
Rajasthan	60.5	26.68	11.8	0.74	0.28	100
Uttar Pradesh	61.64	30.47	7.2	0.63	0.06	100
Bihar	68.21	26.23	4.08	1.46	0.02	100
Sikkim	51	16.65	24.76	7.48	0.12	100
Arunachal Pradesh	61.16	15.52	21.56	1.73	0.03	100
Nagaland	49.66	29.49	19.65	1.17	0.02	100
Manipur	76.91	19.76	2.93	0.39	0.02	100
Mizoram	54.74	30.6	10.68	3.97	0.01	100
Tripura	65.44	10.71	6.72	17.12	0.01	100
Meghalaya	74.8	9.97	14.21	1.01	0.02	100
Assam	74.21	20.07	4.66	1.04	0.03	100
West Bengal	68.27	18.59	7.12	6	0.03	100
Jharkhand	55.48	21.43	22.73	0.33	0.02	100
Odisha	72.29	21.66	5.54	0.48	0.03	100
Chhattisgarh	60.62	24.38	14.26	0.71	0.03	100
Madhya Pradesh	59.53	28.99	11.09	0.37	0.02	100
Gujarat	52.69	31.93	14.56	0.32	0.5	100
Daman & Diu	14.18	0.58	83.8	1.16	0.28	100
Dadra & Nagar Haveli	24.95	0	72.11	0.79	2.16	100
Maharashtra	52.23	31.3	15.84	0.57	0.07	100
Andhra Pradesh	74.8	20.68	4.15	0.36	0.01	100
Karnataka	59.32	27.98	12.27	0.4	0.03	100
Goa	64.94	9.86	23.64	1.32	0.24	100
Lakshadweep	69.46	0	29.79	0.64	0.11	100
Kerala	77.97	17.49	3.66	0.86	0.01	100
Tamil Nadu	62.09	31.76	5.28	0.86	0	100
Puducherry	48.61	2.82	47.72	0.83	0.01	100

Andaman & Nicobar Islands	44.9	15.7	37.56	1.81	0.01	100
All India	60.89	25.92	11.91	1.2	0.08	100

Source: Census of India, 2011. D2.

(Note: Census data available only till 2011)

From the table 1.2, it shows that at the all India level, migration is mainly within the state, with 60.9% moving within the same district and 25.9% to another district of the same state, while 11.9% are from other states and 1.2% are international. Union territory and metro hubs such as Delhi and Chandigarh show very high shares from other states around 88% to 93%, and industrial or port territories like Daman and Diu and Dadra and Nagar Haveli also draw mostly from other states. Several coastal or border units have notable international components, including Andaman and Nicobar Islands at about 37.6%, Lakshadweep at about 29.8%, Goa at about 23.6%, Sikkim at about 24.8%, Arunachal Pradesh at about 21.6%, Nagaland at about 19.7%, and Jharkhand at about 22.7%. Large states such as Maharashtra, Gujarat, Karnataka, and Tamil Nadu show mixed patterns with strong within state movement around 52% to 62% along with meaningful inflows from other states around 12% to 32%, while heartland states like Uttar Pradesh, Bihar, Odisha, and Assam remain dominated by movement within the same state.

Table 1.3. State wise by Duration of Migration in India (in %)

State/UTs	Total migrants (Indian format)	Total migrants (number)	< 1 year	14 years	59 years	1019 years	20+ years	Not stated
Jammu & Kashmir	28,09,629	2809629	5.03	12.56	11.92	19.33	30.66	20.51
Himachal Pradesh	26,47,067	2647067	5.25	15.84	13.7	20.39	38.11	6.7
Punjab	1,37,35,616	13735616	3.85	11.67	11.74	19.46	32.06	21.22
Chandigarh	6,78,188	678188	4.91	17.74	15.8	24.72	29.96	6.86
Uttarakhand	42,33,690	4233690	5.62	17.19	14.8	20.39	31.53	10.47
Haryana	1,05,85,460	10585460	4.91	14.94	14.4	22.02	33.16	10.56
Delhi	72,24,514	7224514	3.93	15.51	16.56	25.83	32.02	6.15

Rajasthan	2,20,71,482	22071482	4.39	14.49	13.83	22.37	37.24	7.68
Uttar Pradesh	5,64,52,083	56452083	2.64	11.13	11.76	21.21	35.76	17.5
Bihar	2,72,44,869	27244869	1.88	10.98	12.5	23.22	36.72	14.7
Sikkim	2,47,049	247049	7.59	19.26	14.63	19.46	24.89	14.17
Arunachal Pradesh	6,30,831	630831	5.29	19.49	15.36	19.87	19.78	20.21
Nagaland	5,49,618	549618	8.09	21.28	16.97	19.15	21.54	12.97
Manipur	6,86,935	686935	3.15	12.75	12.6	18.53	24.54	28.44
Mizoram	3,87,370	387370	4.49	16.85	13.84	19.19	28.32	17.32
Tripura	12,99,623	1299623	4.45	11.11	11.68	20.55	35.92	16.29
Meghalaya	7,59,554	759554	3.8	12.96	10.72	15.42	21.35	35.75
Assam	10,64,4,234	10644234	2.76	12.06	12.39	19.75	29.55	23.49
West Bengal	3,34,48,472	33448472	2.69	11.65	12.37	21.68	35.64	15.97
Jharkhand	96,59,702	9659702	2.65	13.94	14.45	23.67	38.11	7.17
Odisha	1,54,21,793	15421793	3.47	13.49	11.92	18.77	33.79	18.55
Chhattisgarh	88,88,075	8888075	4.19	15.34	14.25	21.79	39.24	5.18
Madhya Pradesh	2,47,35,119	24735119	3.87	14.41	13.86	22.51	36.21	9.15
Gujarat	2,68,98,286	26898286	4.66	16.17	14.57	22.05	31.06	11.49
Daman & Diu	1,48,592	148592	15.27	36.03	20.51	14.93	8.5	4.76
Dadra & Nagar Haveli	1,88,057	188057	13.13	32.1	17.57	15.63	11.5	10.07
Maharashtra	5,73,76,776	57376776	5.32	16.23	14.38	20.45	30.62	12.99
Andhra Pradesh	3,83,60,644	38360644	3.3	13.47	12.16	17.94	25.41	27.72
Karnataka	2,64,63,170	26463170	4.62	16.12	14.02	17.4	27.07	20.77
Goa	11,40,690	1140690	6.87	16.34	14.93	19.4	29.03	13.43
Lakshadweep	20,401	20401	26.22	35.53	14.13	9.05	3.89	11.19
Kerala	1,78,63,419	17863419	4.68	15.06	13.91	22.29	27.86	16.21
Tamil Nadu	3,12,74,107	31274107	4.38	15.99	13.29	19.09	26.51	20.75
Puducherry	7,12,401	712401	4.8	17.26	16.79	22.59	26.65	11.91
Andaman & Nicobar Islands	2,16,341	216341	8.43	20.96	15.16	18.49	31.1	5.85
All India	45,57,87,621	4.56E+08	3.86	14.02	13.26	20.78	32.12	15.96

Source: Computed from migration data, D Series. Census of India, 2011

(Note: Census data available only till 2011)

Table 1.3 above shows that at the all India level in 2011, migrants are predominantly long duration, with 32.12% reporting stays of 20+ years and 20.78% in the 10 to 19 year band, while recent movers are smaller at 3.86% for less than 1 year and 14.02% for 1 to 4 years, and 13.26% for 5 to 9 years; 15.96% did not state duration. Large states such as Uttar Pradesh 35.76%, Bihar 36.72%, Rajasthan 37.24%, Jharkhand 38.11%, and Chhattisgarh 39.24% have very high 20+ year shares, indicating settled migration. Growth hubs show stronger recent inflows, for example Daman and Diu

15.27% under 1 year and 36.03% in 1 to 4 years, and Dadra and Nagar Haveli 13.13% under 1 year and 32.10% in 1 to 4 years, consistent with short term labour migration. Delhi combines mid to long duration with 16.56% in 5 to 9 years, 25.83% in 10 to 19 years, and 32.02% in 20+ years.

In the Northeast, Nagaland shows relatively higher medium bands 21.28% in 1 to 4 years and 16.97% in 5 to 9 years, while Manipur, Meghalaya, and Assam have large not stated shares at 28.44%, 35.75%, and 23.49% respectively, which suggests caution in interpreting precise duration patterns. Overall, the national total of about 45.58 crore migrants reflects a migration profile that is more settled than transitory, with notable pockets of short duration migration in industrial and union territory enclaves.

1.6. MIGRATION IN INDIA (PLFS based)

Table 1.4: Share of migrants by last usual place of residence (Persons) in India

Last UPR location	Share of migrants (%)
Rural areas	73.4
Urban areas	25.9
Other countries	0.7
Total	100.0

Source: MoSPI, 'Migration in India (PLFS-based), report 2020–21

Table 1.4 shows the distribution where most migrants originated from rural areas (73.4%), about one quarter from urban areas (25.9%), and a very small share from abroad (0.7%). This confirms that India's migration is overwhelmingly internal and predominantly rural to urban (or rural to rural), with international migration forming only a marginal fraction

Table 1.5: Migrants by same state / another state / other countries in India (Persons; rural/urban splits)

Category	Rural+Urban (%)	Rural (%)	Urban (%)
Same state	87.5	92.1	79.0
Another state	11.8	7.3	19.8

Other countries	0.7	0.6	1.0
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0

Source: MoSPI, 'Migration in India (PLFS-based)', report 2020–21

The table 1.5 output shows that most migrants moved within the same state in 2020–21 with 87.5% overall (R+U), where rural areas even more intrastate (92.1%) than urban (79.0%). Interstate migration is higher in urban areas (19.8%) than rural (7.3%), and the share from other countries is small but slightly larger in urban (1.0%) than rural (0.6%); totals sum to 100% across rural, urban, and combined.

Table 1.6: Reasons for migration (%) by sex in India

Reason for migration	Male (%)	Female (%)	Persons (%)
In search of employment / better employment	22.8	0.6	4.8
For employment/work (incl. business, transfer, proximity, better job)	20.1	0.7	4.4
Loss of job / closure / lack of opportunities	6.7	0.4	1.6
Migration of parent / earning member	17.5	7.3	9.2
To pursue studies	4.7	0.6	1.4
Marriage	6.2	86.8	71.6
Natural disaster	0.6	0.1	0.2
Social/political problems	0.6	0.1	0.2
Displacement by project	0.4	0.1	0.2
Health related reasons	2.5	0.3	0.7
Acquisition of own house/flat	3.2	0.5	1.0
Housing problems	4.8	0.8	1.5
Postretirement	1.6	0.1	0.4
Others	8.4	1.7	3.0

Source: MoSPI, 'Migration in India (PLFS based)', report 2020–21

From the table 1.6 above, it is seen that marriage overwhelmingly dominates as the reason for migration in 2020–21 with 71.6% of all migrants, driven by 86.8% among females versus 6.2% among males. Work related motives are concentrated among males with “in search of employment/better employment” accounts for 22.8% for males (0.6% females and 4.8% persons), and “for employment/work (incl. business/transfer/proximity/better job)” adds 20.1% for males (0.7% females and 4.4% persons). “Loss of job/closure/lack of opportunities” is 6.7% among males (0.4% females; 1.6% persons). Family linked moves (“migration of parent/earning member”) constitute 9.2% overall (17.5% males and 7.3% females). Other reasons like studies (1.4% persons), housing, health, disasters, social/political issues, and project displacement each contributes small shares.

1.7 MIGRATION IN NAGALAND

Migration in Nagaland is shaped by links with neighboring states and nearby countries. Flows include both long term settlers and shorter duration workers, with social networks easing entry into construction, small manufacturing, retail, transport, and household services. Regulatory context, terrain, and housing constraints influence where migrants live and work, while remittances and local labour demand connect rural origins to urban centers. Overall, migration contributes to city growth and service provision while highlighting needs for affordable housing, documentation, and access to welfare.

Table 1.7: Migrant Population by Sex in Nagaland (1981–2011)

Year	Male – Migrant population	Male – % to total population	Female – Migrant population	Female – % to total population	Persons – Total migrant population	Persons – % to total population
1981	71,475	9.2	57,310	7.4	128,785	16.6
1991	75,437	6.2	52,467	4.3	127,904	10.5

2001	211,705	10.6	169,107	8.5	380,812	19.1
2011	281,119	14.4	268,499	13.9	549,618	27.8
CAGR	57.9		67.3		62.2	

Note: CAGR refers to Compound Annual Growth Rate

Source: Census of India. 1981, 1991, 2001 and 2011. Migration data, D Series

(Note: Census data available only till 2011)

The table 1.7 above signifies that, Nagaland's migrant population rose strongly from 128,785 in 1981 to 549,618 in 2011, and the share in total population increased from 16.6% to 27.8%. Male migrants grew from 71,475 to 281,119 with their share rose from 9.2% to 14.4%, while female migrants rose from 57,310 to 268,499 with their share increased from 7.4% to 13.9%, narrowing the gender gap. The table reports higher long period growth for females than males based on the given CAGR values 67.3 for females and 57.9 for males, with total at 62.2. The higher female CAGR implies that female migration rose faster than male migration, which helps explain the narrowing gap between male and female migrant counts by 2011. The CAGR measure smoothes the 1991 dip and captures the sustained long run momentum that accelerated through 2001 and 2011, alongside rising migrant shares in the total population.

Table 1.8. Migration from other States/UTs and other Countries to Nagaland, 2011

State/UT/Country	Persons	% to total immigrants	State/UT/Country	Persons	% to total immigrants
Andhra Pradesh	407	0.36	Sikkim	145	0.13
Arunachal Pradesh	900	0.79	Tamil Nadu	412	0.36
Assam	51391	44.92	Tripura	2923	2.56
Bihar	17539	15.33	Uttar Pradesh	4076	3.56
Gujarat	103	0.09	West Bengal	3746	3.27
Haryana	442	0.39	Uttrakhand	751	0.66
Himachal Pradesh	309	0.27	Jharkhand	1283	1.12
Jammu & Kashmir	375	0.33	Chhattisgarh	138	0.12
Karnataka	540	0.47	Goa	21	0.02
Kerala	1165	1.02	Union Territories (UTs)	57	0.09

Madhya Pradesh	249	0.22	Bangladesh	132	0.12
Maharashtra	498	0.44	Myanmar	338	0.3
Manipur	14093	12.32	Nepal	4690	4.1
Mizoram	386	0.34	Pakistan	20	0.02
Odisha	1236	1.08	Other countries (unspecified)	1674	0.46
Meghalaya	1792	1.57	Other Countries (Total)	6433	5.62
Punjab	470	0.41	Total (All Sources)	114402	100
Rajasthan	2480	2.17			

Source: Census of India, 2011. D Series.

(Note: Census data available only till 2011)

Table 1.8 shows that in 2011, most immigrants to Nagaland came from nearby Indian states. Assam accounts for the largest share at 44.92%, followed by Bihar at 15.33% and Manipur at 12.32%. Streams from Uttar Pradesh at 3.56%, West Bengal at 3.27%, Tripura at 2.56%, and Rajasthan at 2.17% are also notable, with smaller contributions from Meghalaya, Odisha, Kerala, and others. International inflows together form 5.62%, led by Nepal at 4.10%, with Myanmar and Bangladesh each contributing small shares. Union territories contribute only 0.09%. The total number of immigrants was 114402 persons, indicating that migration to Nagaland is primarily from adjoining and economically linked Indian states, with a modest presence of migrants from neighboring countries.

Table 1.9. Distribution of Migrant population in Nagaland (1981-2011)

Year	Rural	Urban	Unclassified	Total
1981				118833
1991	62196(48.4)	65708(51.2)	459(0.4)	127904(100)
2001	166870(43.8)	84039(22.1)	129903(34.1)	380812(100)
2011	323516(57.7)	180660(32.3)	55847(10)	549618(100)

Note: Figure in the parenthesis represents the percentage to total migrants

Source: Census of India. Migration data, D Series 1981-2011

(Note: Census data available only till 2011)

Table 1.9 shows the distribution of migrant population in Nagaland from 1981 till 2011 shifts toward rural areas. In 1991, migrants were roughly balanced between rural at 48.4% and urban at 51.2%, with only 0.4% unclassified. In 2001, a very large unclassified share at 34.1% makes interpretation difficult, leaving rural at 43.8% and urban at 22.1%. By 2011, the pattern is clearer again, with rural rising to 57.7% and urban at 32.3% and unclassified reduced to 10.0%. The jump in the unclassified category in 2001 likely depresses the recorded urban share for that year, but the overall picture points to a growing rural share of migrants by 2011.

Table 1.10: District wise by Duration of Migration in Nagaland (in %)

District/State	< 1 year (%)	1–4 years (%)	5–9 years (%)	10–19 years (%)	20+ years (%)	Not stated (%)
Mon	9.63	17.81	14.32	16.84	22.01	19.38
Mokokchung	8.6	24.69	15.77	17.81	26.85	6.28
Zunheboto	16.5	18.24	17.49	17.43	21.73	8.61
Wokha	4.58	18.25	19.96	20.3	22.8	14.12
Dimapur	6.33	22.32	17.92	21.21	21.62	10.59
Phek	10.37	21.76	18.1	17.55	17.66	14.56
Tuensang	8.53	19.89	19.28	20.12	23.1	9.09
Longleng	12.65	20.6	13.73	13.46	14.25	25.31
Kiphire	7.22	14.24	14.73	18.05	14.9	30.87
Kohima	8.11	23.23	15.67	18.97	18.41	15.6
Peren	8.18	20.53	14.58	17.43	26.09	13.19
Nagaland	8.09	21.28	16.97	19.15	21.54	12.97

Source: Migration data, D-Series. Census of India, 2011

(Note: Census data available only till 2011)

The district wise distribution of migration in Nagaland in the table 1.10 above shows that at the state level, migration duration clusters in the medium duration, with 1 to 4 years at 21.28%, 5 to 9 years at 16.97%, 10 to 19 years at 19.15%, and 20 plus years at 21.54%, while less than 1 year is 8.09% and not stated is 12.97%. Districts with stronger long duration profiles include Mokokchung at 26.85%, Peren at 26.09%, Tuensang at 23.1%, Wokha at 22.8%, Zunheboto at 21.73%, Dimapur at 21.62%, and Mon at 22.01%. Short terms are relatively higher in Zunheboto at 16.5%, Longleng at

12.65%, and Phek at 10.37%. Medium duration movement is prominent in Mokokchung at 24.69%, Kohima at 23.23%, and Dimapur at 22.32%. Not stated shares are large in Kiphire at 30.87% and Longleng at 25.31%.

1.8 MIGRANT WORKERS AND URBAN LABOUR MARKET

Migrant workers from other states form an essential component of the urban labour market in Nagaland. They move into towns such as Dimapur and Kohima in search of earning opportunities that are either unavailable or unstable in their places of origin, and they are quickly absorbed into the most labour intensive parts of the city's economy (Srivastava, 2011). Their presence is highly visible in construction, loading and unloading, transport assistance, small repair and workshop activities, hotel and restaurant work, retail handling, petty vending, and other informal services that keep the urban system running on a daily basis which is not a marginal contribution. Employers in these sectors rely on migrant workers because they are available at short notice, willing to work long and often irregular hours, and able to accept tasks that are physically hard, low status, or high turnover. In this way, migrant labour's from outside the state directly sustains the functioning of trade, mobility, and everyday services in these cities.

At the same time, the position of these migrant workers in the labour market is structurally vulnerable. Most of the work available to them is informal, it is cash based, often without written contracts, social security, or enforceable protections, and it is governed by verbal arrangements with employers, middlemen, shop owners, transport operators, or contractors (Srivastava, 2011; Fields, 2011). This places interstate migrants in the lower segment of the urban labour market, which labour economists describe as the secondary or precarious segment where bargaining power is weak, replacement is easy, and exposure to exploitation is high. In Nagaland, there is also an added regulatory layer, because labour from outside the state is filtered through systems of local control, including permit requirements and social narratives about outsiders. As a result, the

urban economy depends on these workers, but does not fully recognise them. The tension between economic dependence and social political resistance is at the heart of migrant labour in Nagaland's urban labour market (Srivastava, 2011).

1.9 STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

Migration is a central feature of India's development process, as individuals and households move in search of work, income security, and better opportunities. However, most migration research in India focuses on large metropolitan cities, and much less is known about smaller northeastern urban centres like Dimapur and Kohima in Nagaland, where migrant workers from other Indian states play a visible role in construction, retail, transport support, services, and informal urban activity. Nagaland is a special case because labour mobility is regulated indirectly by the Inner Line Permit (ILP), a framework under the Bengal Eastern Frontier Regulation, 1873, which is a regulatory system designed to protect indigenous populations and control the entry and settlement of outsiders. This creates a distinctive labour market environment in which migrant workers are economically needed, but regulated and also a politically sensitive subject. Despite this, there is very limited systematic evidence on who these migrant workers are, what factors push and pull them into Nagaland, how they gain access to jobs, how ILP shapes their ability to work and remain, and how they are positioned in terms of wages, job stability and social security. There is also little empirical clarity on their broader impact whether they complement or displace local workers, whether they depress or stabilize wages in key sectors, and how their earnings, savings, and remittances affect both the destination economy and their households in the place of origin.

This study addresses these gaps by examining the socioeconomic profile of interstate migrant workers in Dimapur and Kohima, their labour market outcomes, the role of social networks in accessing work, and the implications of ILP for labour absorption and local tensions.

1.10 OBJECTIVES OF THE STUDY

Overall, the present study aims to examine how well the interstate migrant and immigrant labours integrate to the urban labour market in Nagaland, guided by a set of clear and focused objectives that aim to systematically address the key issues surrounding migrant workers and the urban labour market in Nagaland. The purpose of this study is to analyze the factors and the consequences of the major streams of migration that have been taking place in Nagaland through the following objectives:

1. To examine the factors of migration and the choice of location.
2. To explore the impact of Inner Line Permit (ILP) Regulation on the inflow of migrant workers.
3. To analyze the ways in which migrant workers' social capitals determines their economic outcome in the labour market.
4. To analyze how the migrant labour integrated to the urban labour market in Nagaland.

1.11 HYPOTHESES

1. Poor facilities at the place of origin significantly push migrants to urban centres in Nagaland.
2. ILP regulation significantly impacts migration in the urban labour market of Nagaland
3. The social capital and economic outcome of migrant workers are significantly related.
4. The Economic and Social Integration Index of Dimapur is higher than Kohima.

1.12 AREA OF THE STUDY

The present study focuses on two important urban centers in Nagaland namely Dimapur and Kohima which serve as hubs of economic activity, migration, and cultural interaction in the state. Both cities, while geographically proximate, differ significantly

in their historical development, socioeconomic profile, demographic composition, and role within Nagaland, making them ideal for comparative analysis of migrant workers and urban labour market dynamics. Kohima falls under ILP Regulation 1873, whereas Dimapur was not bounded by this regulation or permit practically prior to 2025 which made an easy access for the outsiders to enter having a significant impact in the labour market outcome in particular and the economy in general.

Dimapur

Dimapur is the largest urban centre in Nagaland, functioning as the state's main commercial and logistics hub and primary gateway to the rest of India through its road and transport links with Assam. With over 122,000 people (Census 2011), the city has grown from a transport corridor into a diversified urban economy based on trade, retail markets, transport services, construction, hospitality, and small manufacturing. Because of this economic dynamism and its relatively open labour environment, Dimapur attracts a large number of migrant workers from other Indian states such as Assam, Bihar, and West Bengal, who are absorbed mainly into low wage, informal, and high turnover work in construction sites, transport support, shops, hotels, and small service establishments. The city's demographic profile is more heterogeneous than most of Nagaland, with a visible non indigenous population (including Assamese, Bengali, Nepali, and other communities), which makes Dimapur both an economic magnet and a social contact zone where questions of labour, identity, and local control are constantly negotiated.

Kohima

Kohima is the capital of Nagaland and the state's political and administrative centre. Located in the hills at about 1,444 meters elevation, it is smaller and more regulated than Dimapur, with a population of about 99,000 across 19 wards (Census 2011). Unlike Dimapur's commercially driven economy, Kohima's urban economy is dominated by government administration, education, and small scale local commerce. The city is socially more homogeneous, with a predominantly indigenous Naga population and a strong emphasis on cultural identity and control over land and

employment. Migration from other states into Kohima is more limited and closely monitored, shaped by regulatory instruments such as the Inner Line Permit (ILP), and incoming workers are generally absorbed in support services, petty trade, and low end urban work under tighter social and political scrutiny.

Comparative Importance

Dimapur and Kohima together provide a useful comparative setting for studying migrant labour in Nagaland. Dimapur is an economically driven, commercially active city with high in migration from other states and a labour market that absorbs outside workers into trade, transport, construction, workshops, and services. Kohima, in contrast, is more administrative, politically sensitive, smaller in scale, and socially more regulated, which makes access to work and settlement more controlled for migrants. This difference is shaped by the Inner Line Permit (ILP): Kohima has long enforced ILP as a gate keeping mechanism for non locals, while Dimapur historically functioned as an open entry point for migrant labour but is regulated since 2025. Comparing these two spaces shows how the same category of interstate migrant workers must negotiate very different regulatory climates, levels of acceptance, and labour market opportunities within the same state.

1.13 RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

For the present study the methodological approach combines both quantitative and qualitative techniques to ensure comprehensive and reliable findings.

1.13.1 Sources of data:

The study is based on both primary data and secondary data, each serving a different purpose in understanding migrant workers and the urban labour market in Dimapur and Kohima. In combination, the primary data captures the lived realities of migrant workers in Dimapur and Kohima, while the secondary data provides the structural, legal, and economic context within which those realities are produced.

(i) Secondary Data

Secondary data was used to provide broader demographic, economic, and policy context. Secondary sources included Census of India data (especially 2011 because beyond 2011 census, data is not available which has limited the study) and earlier rounds for population size and distribution of urban population across districts and Statistical Handbooks and state government publications for district level indicators on economic activity, urban workforce characteristics, and the functional roles of Dimapur and Kohima in Nagaland's economy. In addition, policy documents and official notifications relating to the Inner Line Permit (ILP) were consulted to understand how access, monitoring, and regulation of outsider's shapes labour market entry and settlement. Academic books, journal articles, working papers, and credible web based sources were also used to build the theoretical background on migration, informal labour markets, remittances, labour market segmentation, and social networks.

(ii) Primary Data

Primary data was collected through sample survey in the two selected urban centres, viz; Dimapur and Kohima. Structured Questionnaires and schedules were used for a comprehensive survey instrument containing sections on the following:

- Demographic information: age, gender, education, family background.
- Migration history: place of origin, reasons for migration, duration of stay.
- Employment details: sector, type of work, income, job stability.
- Awareness and experience with ILP regulation.
- Saving and remittances: frequency, amount, usage.
- Social capital: networks, associations, support systems.

1.13.2 Sample Design

For the sample survey, the study adopted a multi stage stratified random sampling technique. In the first stage, out of 26 urban centers in Nagaland, two centers viz, Kohima and Dimapur were purposively selected which with and without Inner Line Permit (ILP) Regulation, respectively. In the second stage, Dimapur and Kohima cities were further stratified into well defined wards and selected purposively four (4) wards from each city, those wards having high concentrations of migrant households. From each ward, 50 migrant households (interstate) were selected at random. So, a total of 400 sample households were selected and the list of selected urban areas and sample units are presented in the table below.

Table 1. 11 List of sample areas and households

Name of the districts	Ward number	Name of the urban wards	Number of respondents
DIMAPUR	Ward no. 6	Railway Gate area	50
	Ward no. 11	River Belt Colony	50
	Ward no. 17	Old Market, Jain Temple area	50
	Ward no. 22	Burma Camp Market area.	50
KOHIMA	Ward no. 4	Naga Bazaar	50
	Ward no. 8	New Market	50
	Ward no. 13	Lower Chandmari	50
	Ward no. 9	Midland	50
TOTAL	8 wards		400 respondents

Further, the sample respondents were classified according to their duration of stay namely, Short term migrants (0-1 year), Medium term migrants (1-5 years), Long term migrants (5-10 years) and Very long term migrants (more than 10 years).

1.13.3 DATA ANALYSIS

The collected data was processed and analyzed using both quantitative and qualitative techniques.

- Quantitative Analysis:
 - Data cleaning and coding were done using software such as Excel.
 - Descriptive statistics (frequencies, percentage) were used to profile migrant demographics and economic factors.
 - Inferential statistics, including regression analysis, were performed to examine relationships between variables such as education, social capital, and income.
- Qualitative Analysis:
 - Interview method was transcribed verbatim.
 - Thematic analysis was conducted to identify recurring patterns related to migration motivations, regulatory challenges, and socioeconomic integration.
 - Triangulation was applied by comparing qualitative insights with quantitative findings to validate and enrich interpretations.
- The data has been analyzed using appropriate and simple statistical tools and techniques which are presented below:

i) **Compound Annual Growth Rate (CAGR)**

The Compound Annual Growth Rate has been used to estimate the average annual growth rate of a value over a period of time expressed in percentage. It is calculated by using the formula:

$$\text{CAGR} = (\text{Ending Value} / \text{Beginning Value})^{(1 / n)} - 1$$

Where: Beginning Value = value at the start year; Ending Value = value at the end year; n = number of years

ii) Tabular representation and descriptive analysis

The data was collected, compiled and presented in a tabular form. To analyse the data, descriptive statistical measures such as frequency, percentages were worked out wherever necessary.

iii) Multiple Linear Regression

Multiple linear regression was used to estimate the relationship between one dependent variable and several independent (explanatory) variables. The regression equation is given as;

$$Y = a + b_1X_1 + b_2X_2 + \dots + b_nX_n + \epsilon$$

Where:

a = intercept (constant term).

Y = dependent (response) variable

b_1, b_2, \dots, b_n = coefficients for each independent variable

X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n = independent (predictor) variables

ϵ = error term

iv) Economic Integration Index (EII) and Social Integration Index (SII)

EII, SII were calculated using the given formula as follows:

The Equal Weight Method was used to calculate the mean of the indicators, with the formula:

$$X_i = \frac{X_1 + X_2 + X_3 + \dots + X_n}{n}$$

Where

X_i = the mean score of the i^{th} city on social and economic indicators,
 X_1 to X_n are the individual indicator values, and n is the total number of indicators.

The resulting scores are expressed on a scale of 0 to 100, making comparisons across cities or indicators meaningful.

Thus, EII and SII were calculated as follows:

$$EII = (X_1 + X_2 + \dots + X_n) / n$$

$$SII = (X_1 + X_2 + \dots + X_n) / n$$

Combined Integration Index (CII)

A comprehensive measure was derived by merging Economic Integration Index (EII) and Social Integration Index (SII) as follows:

$$CII = 0.5 (EII) + 0.5 (SII)$$

Categorize EII, SII and CII into levels as follows:

Range	Category
00–33	Low Integration
34–66	Moderate Integration
67–100	High Integration

1.14 CHAPTERIZATION

The thesis is organized into seven chapters, each addressing specific aspects of the study on migrant workers and the urban labour market in Kohima and Dimapur districts.

Chapter 1: Introduction

This chapter sets the stage for the study by presenting the introduction, conceptual framework, theoretical perspectives, statement of the problem, research objectives and hypotheses, methodology, study area and an overview of the thesis structure.

Chapter 2: Review of Literature

It contains the relevant review of literatures and research works undertaken on the topic related to the present study highlighting the research gap.

Chapter 3: Socio Economic Profile of the Migrants

This chapter provides a detailed analysis of the demographic and socioeconomic characteristics of migrant workers in the study areas. It examines age, gender, educational qualifications, skill levels, and other relevant attributes, highlighting differences and similarities between Kohima and Dimapur migrants.

Chapter 4: Push factors Determining Migration.

This chapter focuses on the push factors influencing migrants' decision in the urban labour market of Nagaland.

Chapter 5: Pull Factors Determining Migration and Choice of Location

This chapter examines the key pull factors that draw migrants to the urban labour market of Nagaland.

Chapter 6: Inner Line Permit Regulation

This chapter critically assesses the impact of the Inner Line Permit (ILP) regulation on the inflow and settlement of migrant workers.

Chapter 7: Migrant Workers and Economic Outcomes

This chapter analyzes the economic integration of migrants in the urban labour market. It examines the role of migrants' social capital (education, skills, networks) on income and employment. The chapter also evaluates migrants' saving and remittances. In conclusion the Economic and Social Integration Indices were worked out to make comparisons of integration of migrants in the cities.

Chapter 8: Conclusion

This chapter summarizes the key findings and also highlights some suggestions.

1.15 LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY

While the study strives for accuracy and comprehensiveness, certain limitations must be acknowledged. Some migrant workers may have underreported income, work conditions, or legal issues because of fear of scrutiny under the Inner Line Permit (ILP) and general hesitation to share sensitive information. The use of purposive sampling made it possible to reach interstate migrant workers in Dimapur and Kohima, but it also limits how far the findings can be generalized to all migrants in Nagaland. In addition, the most vulnerable daily wage and informal workers especially those in highly unstable or undocumented forms of work were difficult to access and may be underrepresented in the sample. Also, secondary data on census report is limited, since beyond 2011 the report is yet to be published, which has limited the analysis. These limitations are acknowledged, but triangulation of survey data and field observations has been used to enhance the reliability of the results.

CHAPTER 2

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

Migration has long attracted attention in economics and the social sciences because it is a complex choice shaped by conditions at both origin and destination. Prospective migrants weigh jobs, wages, living costs, and services alongside the structure of urban labour markets especially the balance between formal and informal sectors. A large body of theory and evidence examines the links between mobility and urban labour market dynamics. The brief review that follows distills the main themes from the literatures on key theories, push–pull mechanisms, and typical urban outcomes such as employment type, wages, informality, job search channels, and remittances to provide a concise backdrop for the analysis.

2.1 TRENDS OF MIGRATION

Bhagat (2011) analyses the emerging pattern of urbanization and migration in India using census data. It highlights that migration, natural growth, and reclassification of settlements are the three main drivers of urbanization, though their relative contribution differs across states. Bhagat argues that rural to urban migration continues to play a significant role, but its intensity varies according to regional economic opportunities. The paper points out that disparities in urban growth are linked with broader inequalities in infrastructure, employment generation, and state level policies. The article contributes to debates on urbanization and migration by highlighting the structural constraints shaping India's urban transition. For migration studies, it provides a useful framework to understand how urban labour markets are expanding unevenly across space. Overall, his work is valuable in contextualizing the linkage between urbanization and the dynamics of migrant workers in Indian cities.

Tumbe (2012) synthesizes census and survey evidence to show that internal migration in India has exhibited remarkable path dependence across the twentieth

century, with specific sending–receiving corridors displaying long run continuity rather than episodic surges. Drawing on recent national surveys and unique district level census tabulations, he documents that in regions covering roughly one fifth of India’s population, mobility has been persistently high, predominantly male, remittance based, and circular in character for over a century, indicating durable social and economic institutions that reproduce migration over time. This historical regional perspective reframes debates that treat migration as short run shock driven, instead emphasizing network pathways and labour market linkages that sustain remittance flows and seasonal or repeat movements. For migration studies and policy, the article’s contribution lies in demonstrating that contemporary mobility patterns are embedded in longstanding corridors so interventions around employment, social protection, and financial inclusion need to account for these entrenched circuits rather than assume one off, permanent relocations.

Deshingkar & Akter (2009) provides a comprehensive analysis of migration's role in India’s human development trajectory. Their study illuminates how conventional data sources such as the Census and NSS severely underestimate migration, especially short-term, seasonal, and circular forms prevalent among the marginalized population. The authors estimate that India has nearly 100 million circular migrants, who together contribute approximately 10% to the national GDP. These migration flows are particularly pronounced among historically disadvantaged groups such as SCs and STs, and serve as critical livelihood strategies in the absence of local opportunities. Migration brings not only economic gains but also vulnerabilities, as migrants often face inadequate legal protection and harsh working conditions not inherent issues of migration but consequences of weak policy implementation. The paper concludes by urging policymakers to strengthen data systems, enact social protection measures, and view migration through the lens of development rather than as a policy threat.

Sanyal & Maity (2018) presents a concise survey of India’s labour migration, combining Census/NSSO evidence with sectoral studies to map permanent, semi-

permanent and seasonal/circular flows. They argue that uneven regional development and labour market dualism underpin persistent outmigration from poorer states and immigration to urban/industrial hubs, while informal intermediaries and social networks structure access to jobs. The paper highlights gendered and caste linked vulnerabilities, notes undercounting of short-term circulation in official data, and synthesizes evidence on remittances' roles in consumption smoothing and human capital spending. Policy suggestions centre on improving migration statistics, portability of entitlements, enforcement of labour standards at destination, and investing in sending area livelihoods to reduce distress driven mobility positioning migration as both a coping strategy and a development lever when supported by inclusive institutions.

Bhattacharya (2021) in his paper uses unit level data from the Periodic Labour Force Survey (PLFS) to study the dynamics of labour market transitions among urban workers in India. Bhattacharya highlights that employment in urban areas is marked by considerable instability, with workers frequently moving between formal and informal sectors. The analysis indicates that factors such as education, gender, and age significantly influence the probability of transitioning to more secure and better paying jobs. The study also shows that informal employment remains the dominant form of work in urban India, limiting the upward mobility of many migrants and low skilled workers. By examining panel data, the paper provides a nuanced understanding of how urban labour markets function beyond static cross sectional snapshots. It stresses that vulnerable groups, particularly women and younger workers, face higher risks of unemployment and underemployment. The findings underscore the need for policy interventions to improve job security, skill development, and access to formal sector employment. This contribution is highly relevant for migration research, as it demonstrates the barriers that migrant workers encounter while integrating into urban economies.

Sahasranaman & Bettencourt (2024) examines the relationship between urbanization, economic development, and income distribution in India by drawing on

both national data and city level income distributions. The authors argue that India, despite having relatively low overall levels of urbanization compared to many countries, exhibits strong development gains as its cities expand. Their findings suggest that urbanization has contributed significantly to improvements in economic and human development outcomes, particularly through the growth of opportunities in large cities. Importantly, the paper highlights that income growth has been most pronounced for the poorest deciles in urban areas during 2015–2019, leading to notable reductions in poverty. The analysis further suggests that cities reducing inequality tend to attract more migrants, linking urban income distribution dynamics with migration flows. Overall, the authors conclude that India’s pathway to equitable development is strongly tied to urban centered growth, but achieving resilience against future crises is critical for sustaining these gains.

Mishra (2025) investigates how internal migrants contribute to the agrarian to industrial transition in peri-urban India, using qualitative data from Noida and Greater Noida. The paper introduces the concept of “migrant capital,” where migrants not only provide cheap labour but also stimulate local economies as tenants and consumers catering to inward migration. These roles help receiving communities manage the structural shift from agriculture to industry. The study contextualizes this dynamic within regions undergoing rapid industrialization, where locals often lose farmland and find alternate livelihoods through service and rental economies. By focusing on interactions between migrants and host communities, Mishra offers a novel perspective on migration that extends beyond remittances and origin focused narratives. The research enriches the literature on internal migration and structural transformation by highlighting how migrants facilitate economic adaptation in destination zones.

2.2 FACTORS OF MIGRATION AND THE CHOICE OF LOCATION

Lee, E. S. (1966) in his article introduced one of the most influential theoretical frameworks in migration studies, commonly known as the *push–pull theory of*

migration. In this work, Lee explained that migration decisions are shaped by factors operating at both the origin and the destination. Conditions at the place of origin may create pressures that “push” people to leave, while opportunities and advantages at the destination “pull” them to move. He also emphasized the importance of *intervening obstacles* (such as distance, policies, or costs of movement) and *personal factors* (individual perceptions, aspirations, and family circumstances) that mediate the decision to migrate. Lee’s theory provided a systematic model to understand migration flows, recognizing that the same set of conditions can be perceived differently by individuals and lead to varied outcomes. This framework has had a lasting influence and continues to serve as a foundational reference in migration research, particularly in explaining the causes and dynamics of internal as well as international migration.

Todaro (1969) proposed one of the most influential economic models of migration, focusing on the paradoxical relationship between rural to urban migration and persistent urban unemployment in less developed countries. His model challenged the simplistic assumption that migration flows are solely determined by wage differentials between rural and urban areas. Instead, Todaro argued that migration decisions are guided by *expected income differentials* that is, potential migrants weigh rural earnings against the probability of securing an urban job multiplied by higher urban wages. This perspective explained why migrants continue to move to cities even when urban unemployment remains high, as the perceived long-term gains outweigh immediate risks. The model also emphasized the role of imperfect information and government policies in shaping migration patterns. Todaro’s theoretical contribution has had lasting significance, forming the foundation of the “Harris–Todaro model” (1970) and influencing debates on rural development, urban labour markets, and migration policy in developing economies. It remains a cornerstone in migration economics, particularly in understanding structural causes of rural urban migration under conditions of economic dualism.

Zelinsky (1971) introduced the influential *mobility transition hypothesis*, which links patterns of population movement to stages of socioeconomic development and demographic transition. He argued that just as societies pass through phases of fertility and mortality decline, they also undergo systematic changes in the intensity and types of migration over time. In pre-modern societies, mobility is relatively low and limited mainly to local circulation. With the onset of modernization and industrialization, rural to urban migration intensifies, accompanied by significant international outflows. At more advanced stages, internal migration becomes more complex, involving urban to urban movements, suburbanization, and increased circulatory mobility, while international migration shifts towards receiving immigrants rather than sending them. His framework was groundbreaking because it provided a temporal and developmental perspective on migration, showing how mobility evolves in tandem with broader socioeconomic transformations. Although later research has critiqued its universal applicability, the hypothesis remains a cornerstone in migration theory for understanding the relationship between modernization and population movement.

Lucas (1987) examines the large scale emigration of workers to South Africa's mining sector, particularly focusing on the economic determinants and impacts of this labour migration. The study highlights how wage differentials and employment opportunities in the mines acted as powerful pull factors attracting workers from neighboring countries, while poverty and limited rural opportunities in sending regions served as push factors. Lucas develops an econometric framework to analyze the volume and direction of migration flows, demonstrating how relative wages, recruitment systems, and institutional arrangements influenced migration decisions. He also notes the role of remittances in supporting household incomes and local economies in migrant sending areas, while simultaneously pointing out the dependency such systems create. Importantly, the paper links international labour flows to broader issues of economic dualism, inequality, and regional development. By situating South Africa's mines as a hub of cross border migration, Lucas's work provides valuable insights into how

resource based industries shape migration dynamics, making it a key contribution to both migration economics and development studies.

Massey et al. (1993) map the main theories of international migration and show how they answer two big questions as to what starts migration and what keeps it going. For initiation, they summarize neoclassical wage gap ideas, the Harris–Todaro expected income model, new economics of labour migration (household risk sharing), dual/segmented labour market demand in destination countries, and world systems/structural accounts. For persistence, they highlight how migrant networks, social capital, cumulative causation, and institutions lower future costs and risks, creating self reinforcing flows even when initial wage gaps narrow. The article’s value is its clear structure organizing diverse models, stating their assumptions, and pointing to how each can be tested making it a foundational guide for linking push–pull factors with longer run path dependence in migration systems.

Kearney (1995) provides a critical overview of the anthropology of globalization and transnational’s, highlighting how these processes reshape migration patterns and identities. The paper argues that globalization has blurred the boundaries between sending and receiving societies, creating transnational social fields where migrants maintain economic, social, and cultural ties across borders. Kearney critiques earlier migration theories for focusing narrowly on one way movements and assimilation, instead emphasizing multidirectional flows, hybrid identities, and the persistence of connections to the homeland. The article also explores how local communities are transformed by global economic restructuring, linking micro level household decisions with macro level global dynamics. By framing migration as part of transnational networks rather than isolated national processes, Kearney expands the analytical scope of migration studies and contributes to understanding the cultural and social implications of globalization. This work is widely cited for shifting migration scholarship towards transnational perspectives and remains a foundational reference in anthropological and sociological research on globalization and mobility.

Bhagat (2010) asks whether disadvantaged social groups in India especially Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes are moving more than others and how economic change shapes those patterns. Using census and NSS evidence, he shows that internal migration is closely tied to structural transformation: states with higher per capita income and a larger nonagricultural share tend to have both higher in and out migration. Within this, underprivileged groups are highly represented in short-term and circular streams that connect poor rural districts to urban and industrial destinations, often via informal contractors. The analysis suggests that migration is a livelihood strategy for the poor but its benefits depend on labour market conditions and access to services at destination areas where migrants face disadvantages due to informality and non portable entitlements. The paper therefore reframes migration not as an anomaly but as an integral part of development, with policy implications for social protection portability and improved data on short duration moves.

Srivastava (2011) provides a comprehensive analysis of labour migration in India, focusing on its recent trends, structural patterns, and the policy challenges that arise from them. The study emphasizes that migration in India is complex and predominantly characterized by short-term, circular, and seasonal movements, rather than permanent relocations. These flows are heavily shaped by regional inequalities, agrarian distress, and the absence of stable rural livelihoods, pushing workers towards urban centers and more developed states. The paper shows how migrants, particularly from poorer states, are often absorbed into insecure and informal sector employment, where they face poor working conditions, low wages, and limited access to welfare schemes. Srivastava also highlights the role of caste, class, and gender in shaping mobility patterns, with marginalized groups being disproportionately represented among vulnerable migrants. Importantly, the article critiques policy frameworks for neglecting the welfare and rights of migrants, pointing out that most state interventions fail to address issues such as social protection, portability of entitlements, and integration in urban labour markets. The paper concludes that migration is a vital livelihood strategy

and an integral part of India's development process, but without inclusive policy responses, its benefits remain uneven and its burdens fall disproportionately on the poor.

Kundu (2011) provides an authoritative account of the changing nature of urbanisation in India, analyzing both demographic trends and the socioeconomic processes underlying urban growth. The study emphasizes that India's urbanisation has been relatively slow compared to other developing countries, shaped not only by natural growth and rural urban migration but also by administrative reclassification of settlements. Kundu highlights the uneven distribution of urban growth, with metropolitan cities experiencing rapid expansion while smaller towns lag behind, leading to spatial and regional imbalances. He also points to the growing informalisation of employment in urban areas, which absorbs a large share of migrants but perpetuates insecurity and poverty. Importantly, the paper critiques state policies that often restrict migration through instruments like the Public Distribution System (PDS) and inadequate housing provisions, which indirectly discourage the inflow of rural migrants into cities. Kundu concludes that without inclusive policies focusing on employment creation, infrastructure, and social protection, India's urbanization is likely to deepen inequalities rather than act as a driver of equitable development. This work is widely cited for linking urbanization trends with migration dynamics and policy shortcomings in India.

Ghosh & Chakraborty (2022) apply linear regression techniques to identify the socioeconomic determinants of internal migration in India. Using large scale secondary datasets, the study investigates how factors such as education, employment opportunities, income disparities, and demographic characteristics shape migration flows. Their results show that higher education levels and better employment prospects in destination regions act as strong pull factors for migration. Conversely, lack of job opportunities and agrarian distress in rural areas serve as push drivers. The authors find that age and gender also play important roles, with younger males dominating the migration stream. Interestingly, the analysis indicates that migration is positively associated with states having more diversified labour markets. The study contributes to

empirical migration research by offering quantitative evidence on household decision making in migration. While acknowledging limitations of secondary data, the authors emphasize the importance of regression based approaches for policy analysis. Overall, the paper highlights the multidimensional nature of migration and its dependence on both individual characteristics and structural economic conditions.

Nag & Rajan (2024) examines how destination specific attributes influence internal migrant workers' decisions when they face multiple destination choices. Using primary data collected from Surat (Gujarat) and Kochi (Kerala), and employing exploratory factor analysis alongside qualitative methods, the study finds distinct pull factors: migrants gravitate to Gujarat for abundant job opportunities and easier employment access, while Kerala attracts them with comparatively higher wages. These variations are explained by differing economic structures, demographic profiles, and cultural contexts of the two regions. The article highlights the importance of understanding locational dynamics in migration beyond traditional push–pull models. Its insights are valuable for policymakers aiming to develop targeted strategies in regional labour markets and migration governance.

2.3 INNER LINE PERMIT (ILP) REGULATION.

Baruah (2008) offers a critical analysis of the complex relationship between territoriality, indigeneity, and rights in Northeast India. The paper highlights how colonial legacies and postcolonial state policies have shaped the institutional frameworks of belonging, exclusion, and citizenship in the region. He argues that indigeneity is politically constructed and is often used as a tool to claim territorial rights and protect local populations from perceived external threats, including migrants. This has produced exclusionary practices, such as the Inner Line Permit system, which regulates the entry and settlement of non indigenous groups. The study shows that while these measures aim to safeguard cultural identities, they also create structural tensions between locals and migrants. By framing territorial control as an essential aspect of indigeneity, he

illustrates how rights to land, resources, and employment are negotiated within contested spaces. The paper further explains that such politics of exclusion deepen ethnic divides and complicate national integration in the region. Overall, the work is significant in understanding how institutionalized indigeneity intersects with migration policies, influencing both governance and labour market dynamics in Northeast India.

Singh (2009) presents a robust investigation into illegal immigration in Nagaland, situating it as both a demographic challenge and a catalyst for sociopolitical upheaval in Northeast India. Grounded in fieldwork, surveys, and stakeholder interviews, the study warns that current deportation trends are woefully insufficient projecting a millennium long timeline for resolving immigration pressures at existing speeds. Singh highlights the alarming demographic shifts in districts like Dimapur and Wokha, linking them to broader anxieties around cultural dilution and indigenous marginalization. The study contends that only comprehensive, practical, short-term policy interventions can stave off further destabilization, making it a vital contribution to discourse on migration management and regional stability. Positioned centrally within debates on migration governance, Singh's work underscores the urgency of reconciliation between border permeability and cultural preservation. However did not address to the issues of migrants' Economic and social integration in the host cities in the state.

Neba (2015) examines the Inner Line Permit (ILP) in Arunachal Pradesh as a colonial legacy of the Bengal Eastern Frontier Regulation, 1873, arguing that its original protective intent shielding indigenous communities and colonial commercial interests continues to shape post Independence governance. Anchoring the discussion in Nehru's "tribal panchsheel" (respect for tribal land/forest rights, cultural autonomy, and people centric development), the paper traces how ILP has been defended as a cultural safeguard yet criticized for constraining constitutional freedom of movement and dampening integration and investment. Neba documents contemporary flashpoints, including the mixed public response to the April 2014 rail service and its subsequent

suspension amid ILP protests, to illustrate tensions between mobility, security, and identity. The article concludes that outright removal is neither feasible nor desirable; instead, it calls for better enforcement, clearer rules, and calibrated reforms that protect indigenous interests without unduly impeding movement and economic opportunity

Suman (2018) offers a strongly revisionist reading of the Inner Line Permit (ILP) in Arunachal Pradesh, arguing that many of the popular justifications for retaining the regime cultural protection, security, and economic insulation rest on a romanticized view of history and an overestimation of its present efficacy. Using a historical lens, the paper traces ILP to the Bengal Eastern Frontier Regulation (1873) and contends that its original purpose was colonial order and commercial control rather than altruistic protection of tribal culture; on this basis, the author questions why a colonial instrument should continue to structure contemporary mobility and markets (historical section and abstract). Against claims that ILP is indispensable for safeguarding identity, the paper maintains that culture endures through social commitment and institutions, not isolation, and that more targeted safeguards land laws, employment protections, and community rights can protect vulnerable groups without cordoning off the entire state. Turning to development, Suman argues that relaxing movement restrictions could expand tourism, education, and investment, especially under India's Act East policy, and recommends revisiting older restrictive regimes (ILP, PAP, RAP) to enable fuller regional integration while building stronger, non exclusionary protections for tribal interests (development discussion and concluding pages). Overall, the paper's contribution is to reframe ILP as a blunt, symbolic barrier that is ill suited to current objectives; the author urges gradual, rules based dilution alongside alternative legal and administrative instruments that safeguard land and livelihoods yet permit economic permeability.

Singh (2021) examines the policy dynamics of the Inner Line Permit (ILP) in Nagaland by tracing its historical roots, legal basis, and contemporary implications. Introduced under the Bengal Eastern Frontier Regulation of 1873, the ILP was designed to protect indigenous communities and their land from external encroachment, and later

reinforced by Article 371A of the Indian Constitution. In Nagaland, the permit system serves as both a legal and symbolic mechanism to safeguard tribal identity, cultural practices, and demographic balance against the pressures of migration. While it has helped prevent large scale land alienation and maintained the distinctiveness of Naga society, Singh highlights several challenges in its implementation, including administrative loopholes, corruption, and earlier exemptions of urban hubs like Dimapur. These weaknesses have often diluted its effectiveness, allowing unchecked inflows of migrants. At the same time, critics argue that the ILP can hinder tourism, investment, and broader economic opportunities, creating a dilemma between protection and development. Recent reforms such as online application portals aim to improve transparency and accessibility, though digital exclusion remains an issue. Singh concludes that ILP continues to be a vital safeguard for Nagaland, but its success lies in balancing identity protection with inclusive growth and fair enforcement mechanisms.

Devi & Chakma (2023) offer a concise historical institutional account of the Inner Line Permit (ILP) in Manipur, tracing popular mobilization since the 1980s and the policy's formal rollout on 1 January 2020, then assessing how the current framework operates in practice. Drawing on secondary sources and the text of state guidelines, they argue that the regime's effectiveness is constrained less by intent than by design and capacity: core terms such as "indigenous" remain under specified, categories and exemptions generate loopholes, and day to day enforcement is uneven. The article also notes how recurring civil society pressures (e.g., JCILPS campaigns) keep the policy politically salient but do not by themselves resolve administrative ambiguities or implementation gaps. Their conclusion frames ILP as a necessary protective instrument amid rapid demographic change, yet one that requires clearer definitions, streamlined procedures, and stronger administrative systems if it is to regulate mobility credibly without producing arbitrary barriers.

Maibam & Singh (2025) analyze Manipur's ILP demands alongside the Meitei community's push for Scheduled Tribe status, arguing that both agendas are braided

through identity politics, perceptions of demographic/economic insecurity, and state policy shifts since ILP implementation on 1 January 2020. Using recent legislative texts, civil society statements, and secondary data, they map how categories like “indigenous” are contested, how exemptions and administrative discretion create uneven enforcement, and how ST status debates reconfigure claims to land, jobs, and political representation. The paper contends that without precise definitions and consistent administration, ILP risks symbolic closure while leaving core distributive conflicts unresolved; it recommends clearer criteria, transparent permitting, and better coordination with employment and land policies to avoid exclusionary outcomes.

2.4 SOCIAL CAPITAL AND ECONOMIC OUTCOME.

Granovetter (1973) introduced the influential concept of the ‘strength of weak ties,’ arguing that weak social connections such as acquaintances and distant colleagues often play a more crucial role in spreading new information and opportunities than close friends or family members. Unlike strong ties, which operate within tightly knit groups and often circulate redundant information, weak ties act as bridges between otherwise unconnected social circles, facilitating the diffusion of ideas, resources, and job opportunities. His empirical findings, particularly in job search contexts, revealed that individuals frequently relied on acquaintances rather than close contacts to secure employment. This insight reshaped the understanding of social networks, social capital, and community structure, showing how broader but weaker connections enhance mobility and access. The theory has since been widely applied across disciplines such as sociology, economics, migration studies, and organizational research, highlighting that the diversity and reach of connections often matter more than their intimacy in shaping individual and collective outcomes.

Granovetter (1985) advances the concept of embeddedness to challenge both under socialized and over socialized views of economic action. He argues that economic behavior is not conducted in isolation, nor is it determined entirely by cultural norms;

instead, it is embedded in ongoing networks of social relations. Trust, cooperation, and information exchange are made possible through these networks, which reduce uncertainty and transaction costs in markets. By examining how social ties shape economic outcomes, Granovetter demonstrates that networks can foster innovation, facilitate job matching, and support entrepreneurship, while also enabling malfeasance or exclusion. His analysis emphasizes the dual nature of embeddedness enables economic actors to coordinate effectively but can also constrain them within closed networks. This article has become a cornerstone in economic sociology, influencing research on labour markets, migration, organizational studies, and the role of social capital in development. It situates markets not as abstract mechanisms but as socially structured arenas shaped by trust, reciprocity, and the architecture of human connections.

Coleman (1988) provides one of the foundational theoretical treatments of social capital, situating it within the broader study of how resources embedded in social relations contribute to the creation of human capital. He defines social capital as a variety of entities characterized by aspects of social structures such as obligations, expectations, trustworthiness, and information channels that facilitate individual or collective action. Drawing on examples from family and community contexts, Coleman argues that social capital enables parents, schools, and neighborhoods to enhance children's educational attainment by fostering trust, shared norms, and cooperative networks. Unlike physical or human capital, social capital inheres in the structure of relationships rather than in individuals, making it both a private and public good. The article demonstrates that cohesive communities with high levels of trust and reciprocity are better able to generate and transmit human capital across generations. By articulating a clear conceptual framework and linking it to empirical evidence, Coleman's work remains a cornerstone in sociology, education research, and policy debates on the importance of community networks for social and economic development.

Zhou & Logan (1989) examine how human capital yields different returns within the context of ethnic enclaves, focusing on Chinese immigrants in New York

City's Chinatown. Their study challenges the mainstream assimilation perspective by showing that immigrant workers embedded in ethnic enclaves may not experience the same returns on education, skills, or language proficiency as those who integrate into the mainstream labour market. Within the enclave economy, wages and mobility are shaped less by individual human capital and more by social networks, ethnic solidarity, and enclave specific labour dynamics. While enclaves provide opportunities for employment, community support, and protection against discrimination, they can also restrict upward mobility by trapping workers in low wage, ethnic owned businesses. The authors highlight the dual role of enclaves as both protective and limiting structures, emphasizing that returns on human capital are socially contingent rather than universally determined. This work is widely cited in migration and labour market studies for demonstrating how social context mediates the value of human capital among immigrant groups.

Aldrich & Waldinger (1990) provide a seminal review of research on ethnic entrepreneurship, integrating sociological, economic, and cultural perspectives to explain why and how immigrant and minority groups establish businesses. They argue that ethnic entrepreneurship emerges at the intersection of opportunity structures, group characteristics, and strategies of resource mobilization. Opportunity structures are shaped by market conditions, competition, and government policies, while group characteristics include cultural traditions, migration histories, and patterns of solidarity. Immigrants often mobilize resources through family labour, rotating credit associations, and ethnic networks, allowing them to overcome barriers in mainstream labour markets. The review also highlights the dual nature of ethnic businesses: while they provide mobility and self employment opportunities, they can also limit entrepreneurs to niche markets and reinforce dependency on co-ethnic labour. Their framework has been highly influential, laying the foundation for subsequent studies on immigrant economies, enclave development, and the role of social capital in entrepreneurship.

Portes & Sensenbrenner (1993) extend Granovetter's notion of embeddedness to the context of immigration, examining how social structures shape immigrants' economic behavior. They argue that immigrant economic action cannot be understood solely through market logic but must be seen within networks of trust, norms, and community expectations. The article identifies four main sources of social capital; value introjections, where norms encourage cooperative behavior; bounded solidarity, where shared experiences of adversity foster mutual support; reciprocity exchanges, where obligations and favors are sustained within networks; and enforceable trust, where community sanctions ensure compliance. Through these mechanisms, immigrant communities generate resources that support entrepreneurship, employment, and survival strategies, particularly in the early stages of settlement. At the same time, the authors stress that these same mechanisms can constrain individuals by imposing obligations, limiting autonomy, and reinforcing insularity. Their framework demonstrates that social capital is a double edged resource empowering but also restrictive, providing one of the most influential analyses of immigrant economies and their embedded social dynamics.

Portes (1998) presents a critical review of the concept of social capital, tracing its intellectual roots and examining its uses in contemporary sociology. He highlights how the notion of social capital emerged from the works of Bourdieu and Coleman, focusing on the ways relationships, trust, and networks generate resources that individuals and groups can mobilize. The paper distinguishes between positive functions of social capital such as facilitating information flow, strengthening norms, and supporting collective action and its negative consequences, including exclusion of outsiders, excessive demands on group members, and the restriction of individual freedom. Portes also reviews empirical applications of the concept in areas like community studies, immigrant networks, and economic development, showing how social ties can both enhance mobility and reproduce inequality. Importantly, he calls for greater conceptual clarity and more systematic measurement to prevent the term from being overextended or misused. This article remains one of the most widely cited works

on social capital, offering a balanced assessment of its analytical power and limitations in sociological research.

Woolcock (1998) develops one of the most influential theoretical frameworks linking social capital to processes of economic development. He argues that social capital should not be treated as a single, uniform resource but rather as a multidimensional concept that combines different types of social relations bonding within groups, bridging across diverse groups, and linking ties to formal institutions. The article synthesizes insights from sociology, economics, political science, and development studies to show how varying configurations of social capital can promote or hinder development. Woolcock emphasizes that while dense bonding networks provide solidarity and mutual support, they must be complemented by bridging and linking ties to foster innovation, access to markets, and institutional accountability. He also highlights the dangers of “perverse” social capital, where networks are captured by elites or used for exclusionary purposes. By presenting a comprehensive theoretical model and a policy oriented framework, Woolcock’s article has become a cornerstone in debates on how to operationalize social capital in development research and practice, widely cited across both academic and policy circles.

Lin (1999) provides a comprehensive review of the role of social networks in the process of status attainment, integrating sociological theories of social capital with empirical findings. The paper argues that individuals’ positions within networks influence their access to resources, opportunities, and information, which in turn affect educational achievements, occupational mobility, and income levels. Lin distinguishes between instrumental actions, where networks provide access to valuable new opportunities, and expressive actions, where networks offer social support and reinforcement. He emphasizes that weak ties can be crucial for reaching higher status individuals and accessing scarce resources, while strong ties provide stability and trust. The review synthesizes research showing that network resources are unequally distributed, often reflecting and reinforcing broader inequalities of class, gender, and

ethnicity. By framing networks as mechanisms through which social capital is mobilized, Lin's work underscores the importance of relational structures in shaping life chances and social mobility, making it a foundational contribution to the sociology of inequality and stratification.

Putnam (2000) presents one of the most influential analyses of social capital in contemporary sociology and political science, documenting the decline of civic engagement and community life in the United States during the late twentieth century. Drawing on extensive survey data, he shows that Americans have become less involved in traditional forms of association such as clubs, unions, and neighborhood groups, symbolized by the metaphor of "bowling alone" rather than in leagues. This decline in participation is linked to weakening networks of trust, reciprocity, and collective action core dimensions of social capital. Putnam argues that generational shifts, television and electronic media consumption, suburbanization, and changing work patterns are key drivers of civic disengagement. While the book highlights the negative consequences of eroding social capital for democracy, public health, and economic prosperity, it also outlines possibilities for revival through new forms of community building, volunteering, and civic innovation. Widely cited across disciplines, the book remains a cornerstone for understanding how social connections influence social and economic outcomes, and it continues to inform debates on civic life, migration, and social integration.

Woolcock & Narayan (2000) provide a comprehensive discussion of social capital within the field of development studies, highlighting its analytical relevance and policy implications. They argue that social capital defined through networks, norms, and trust plays a critical role in shaping development outcomes by influencing access to resources, reducing transaction costs, and fostering cooperation. The article distinguishes between different dimensions of social capital: bonding (close ties within groups), bridging (ties across diverse groups), and linking (connections to institutions and authority structures). The authors emphasize that successful development requires a

balance of these forms, where bonding ties provide solidarity, bridging ties foster inclusivity and innovation, and linking ties connect communities to state and market institutions. They also warn against romanticizing social capital, noting that it can reinforce exclusion, clientelism, and inequality when captured by elites. By linking theory to policy, the paper shows how understanding social capital can inform poverty reduction strategies, community driven development, and institutional reform, making it a landmark contribution to both sociology and development economics.

Woolcock (2001) explores the role of social capital in shaping both social and economic outcomes, arguing that networks of trust, reciprocity, and civic engagement are central to development and governance. He emphasizes that social capital operates at multiple levels within families, communities, markets, and states each influencing how resources are accessed and opportunities are distributed. The paper highlights the importance of distinguishing between bonding social capital (closeknit ties that provide solidarity and support) and bridging social capital (looser connections that link groups to broader networks and institutions). Woolcock contends that effective societies balance these dimensions, using bonding ties for cohesion and bridging ties for innovation and mobility. He also notes that while social capital can yield positive benefits, such as reducing transaction costs and fostering collective action, it can also reinforce exclusion, inequality, and parochialism if not complemented by inclusive institutions. The article contributes to policy debates by positioning social capital as a vital, though complex, factor in understanding development trajectories and social wellbeing.

Sandu (2006) investigates the role of social capital in shaping the migration experiences of Romanian immigrants in Germany, highlighting how networks and social ties influence both opportunities and constraints. The study distinguishes between different forms of social capital bonding within ethnic communities and bridging with host society networks and shows how each contributes differently to migrants' integration and mobility. Bonding capital provides immediate support such as housing, job referrals, and emotional assistance, but can limit exposure to broader opportunities

by keeping migrants within enclave structures. Bridging capital, by contrast, facilitates access to mainstream institutions, higher quality jobs, and long-term settlement prospects. Sandu demonstrates that successful migration outcomes often depend on migrants' ability to combine both forms of capital strategically. The paper also emphasizes that the value of social capital is context dependent, shaped by migration policies, labour market structures, and the migrants' legal status. This study contributes significantly to the literature by offering an empirically grounded analysis of how social networks mediate integration and status attainment for East European migrants in Western Europe.

Sha (2021) examines migration through the lens of social capital, arguing that migrants' networks constitute a layered "social infrastructure" that organizes information, trust, and reciprocity across the entire migration process. She distinguishes how bonding ties within co-ethnic communities provide immediate support and risk sharing, while bridging ties connect migrants to employers, services, and new opportunities, and linking ties mediate access to formal institutions and authorities. The analysis situates these networks at multiple levels households, neighborhoods, labour markets, and governance regimes showing how they shape job search, housing, care, and legal navigation, but also how brokerage, obligations, and status hierarchies can reproduce exclusion and dependency. Digital platforms intensify these dynamics by accelerating trans local flows of knowledge and assistance, yet they may also amplify homophily and misinformation without inclusive intermediaries. Sha concludes that effective policies should not romanticize "community" but aim to convert dense enclave connections into bridging and linking pathways through fair recruitment oversight, trusted mediators, and welcoming civic spaces so that social capital enhances mobility and wellbeing rather than entrenching inequalities.

Sahai & Bailey (2022) examine the role of social networks in shaping spatial mobility across India using large scale, de identified Facebook data. They first document how social capital measured through friendship connections is unevenly distributed,

being concentrated among wealthier, more educated individuals and among migrants. The study finds that mobility and network connections are more pronounced toward financially better off areas. Central to their analysis is a migration model in which individuals value social connectedness nearly as much as wage gains equating a 10% increase in destination wages with a 12–16% increase in destination social networks. Accounting for social networks reduces the usual "distance effect" on migration by 19%. Through spatial equilibrium modeling, they find that equalizing social ties across areas raises average wages by 3%, and by as much as 24% for the lowest wage quartile. They also uncover both economic and emotional support roles of networks, supported by evidence: economic improvements reduce dependence on social ties, and college attendance increases social network size and diversity by approximately 20%, further lowering effective costs of migration.

Zhang et. al (2023) map how migrants' community participation shapes social integration in urban settings through a scoping review of 28 studies (2011–2021). They identify three recurring elements: social capital (bonding, bridging, linking), the modes through which migrants participate (formal associations, volunteering, everyday neighborhood activities), and the contexts in which participation occurs (public spaces, institutions, and digital environments). Across cases, participation tends to build bonding ties that provide immediate support and identity, while inclusive, place based initiatives, e.g., mixed civic projects, mentorships, and coproduced neighborhood programs are most likely to convert participation into bridging capital and improved psychosocial integration. At the same time, the review cautions that participation in segregated or biased environments can reinforce enclave networks and limit access to opportunities, underscoring the role of urban design and meso level institutions in mediating outcomes. Methodologically, the evidence base is fragmented, dominated by cross sectional designs and heterogeneous measures; the authors call for longitudinal, mixed methods studies that track changes in network composition and tie quality alongside integration indicators. Overall, the review positions community participation as a mechanism that can expand migrants' network resources and sense of belonging, provided cities invest in

inclusive spaces and intermediaries that translate bonding ties into bridging and linking pathways.

2.5 SAVING AND REMITTANCES

Lucas & Stark (1985) investigate the reasons why migrants remit money back home, using empirical evidence from Botswana. They challenge the assumption that remittances are driven purely by altruism, instead proposing a broader framework that incorporates self interest, household strategies, and contractual arrangements. Their findings show that remittances often function as part of an implicit family contract: households support migration costs, and in return, migrants remit to ensure continued access to inheritance, maintain social status, or secure family support in case of return. The study also highlights the role of risk sharing within families, where remittances act as insurance against income shocks in rural households. Importantly, they show that remittance behavior varies depending on the socioeconomic background of households, suggesting that remittances are not uniform transfers but shaped by strategic interactions. This article is foundational in the New Economics of Labour Migration (NELM) literature and continues to inform both theoretical and empirical studies on remittances, household decision making, and rural development.

Stark & Lucas (1988) present a seminal contribution to the new economics of labour migration (NELM) by analyzing migration as a household strategy rather than merely an individual decision. They argue that families often send members abroad or to urban centers not only to increase income but also to diversify risk, particularly in contexts where credit and insurance markets are underdeveloped. Remittances, in this framework, are not just altruistic transfers but contractual exchanges within families migrants remit in return for prior support and to maintain long-term ties with their households. The paper shows how migration and remittances serve as mechanisms of mutual insurance, stabilizing household income against market failures, crop failures, or unemployment shocks. This perspective shifts attention away from wage differentials

alone and toward the broader social and economic functions of migration. By highlighting the interdependence between migrants and their families, Stark and Lucas provide a theoretical foundation that has shaped decades of research on remittances, household decision making, and rural development, making the article a cornerstone in migration studies. Stark and Lucas's pioneering work on migration and remittances also argues that migrants send money home to compensate for lost labour in their households, as a form of investment in family welfare. The study highlights that remittances serve as a vital source of income for rural households, often exceeding local incomes. Their research also emphasizes how migrants' savings behavior is influenced by family obligations and economic conditions both at origin and destination.

Taylor (1999) elaborates the New Economics of Labour Migration (NELM) framework, shifting the focus from individual wage maximization to household level strategies. He argues that migration decisions are made collectively within families to overcome market failures such as lack of access to credit, insurance, or investment capital in developing countries. Within this framework, remittances are not merely byproducts of migration but central to household risk diversification, income smoothing, and investment in education, health, and productive assets. Taylor emphasizes that remittances influence both sending and receiving communities, creating feedback loops that shape subsequent migration decisions and local development outcomes. The article highlights the dual role of remittances; they can promote long-term development by financing productive investment, but they may also reinforce dependency and inequality under certain structural conditions. By linking remittances to broader household strategies and rural development, this paper helped establish NELM as a dominant perspective in migration studies and remains a key reference for understanding the developmental role of remittances.

Connell & Conway (2000) examine the dynamics of migration and remittances in small island microstates, particularly in the South Pacific and the Caribbean. They argue that in these contexts, remittances form the backbone of the MIRAB model

(Migration, Remittances, Aid, Bureaucracy), where economies become structurally dependent on migration and external inflows. The study highlights how remittances serve as vital household income, stabilizing consumption, reducing poverty, and financing education, but also notes their role in sustaining dependency and inhibiting productive diversification. Importantly, the authors challenge earlier stereotypes of “remittance societies” as entirely passive, showing instead that migration and remittances contribute positively to social change, transnational networks, and cultural development. Their comparative approach underscores how geographic isolation and limited local opportunities shape unique reliance on external earnings, making remittances indispensable for household and national survival in microstates.

Kandel & Massey (2002) advance the concept of a “culture of migration” by examining how social norms, expectations, and intergenerational experiences shape migration behavior in Mexican communities with longstanding ties to the United States. Drawing on empirical evidence from Zacatecas, they show that young people in households with prior migration history are significantly more likely to aspire to work abroad, often prioritizing migration opportunities over continued schooling. Migration, in such contexts, becomes normalized as a rite of passage and an integral part of community identity, reinforcing a self-perpetuating cycle of movement. The authors argue that this cultural embedding of migration explains its persistence even when economic incentives fluctuate. Importantly, they highlight that remittances are not merely financial transfers but also sustain the prestige of migration within origin communities, further motivating subsequent flows. Their study bridges economic and sociological perspectives, emphasizing that decisions to migrate cannot be understood solely through wage differentials or household strategies but must also consider how collective norms and cultural expectations institutionalize migration as a social practice.

Adams & Page (2005) conduct a large cross-country econometric study to test whether international migration and the remittances that follow have measurable impacts on poverty reduction in developing countries. Using household survey data from 71

developing nations, they find robust evidence that both higher levels of international migration and remittance inflows are associated with significant declines in poverty headcount ratios, poverty gap, and poverty severity. The authors show that, on average, a 10 percent increase in per capita official remittances leads to a 3.5 percent decline in the share of people living in poverty. Their findings also suggest that remittances have a more powerful impact on poverty reduction than other types of international financial flows, such as foreign direct investment or official development assistance. However, they caution that remittances are not a substitute for sound development policy; rather, they should complement efforts to improve governance, financial access, and investment opportunities. This paper has become a cornerstone in migration and development literature, frequently cited in policy debates on the role of remittances in achieving poverty reduction goals.

Adams (2006) provides an empirical analysis on how both internal and international remittances affect poverty outcomes in Ghana, using nationally representative household survey data. His analysis shows that remittances reduce the level, depth, and severity of poverty, but the effects differ sharply between domestic and international flows. International remittances have a much stronger impact on poverty reduction than internal ones, largely because poorer households rely more heavily on income from abroad. The study reports that international remittances reduce the squared poverty gap by nearly 35 percent, while internal remittances reduce it by just over 4 percent. These results indicate that migrants' transfers from overseas disproportionately benefit the poorest groups, playing a critical role in alleviating extreme poverty. At the same time, the findings highlight that domestic remittances, though smaller in effect, remain important for smoothing income and supporting rural livelihoods. By distinguishing between the two types of flows, Adams provides valuable empirical evidence on the nuanced role of remittances in reducing poverty and promoting household welfare in Sub-Saharan Africa.

de Haas (2007) offers a careful conceptual review showing that migration and remittances affect “social development” through multiple, interacting channels rather than a simple good–bad dichotomy. Framed within risk spreading household strategies, he argues that remittances can relax liquidity constraints and raise wellbeing (consumption smoothing, better housing, schooling, and health), while also financing small enterprises and community projects but the same flows may widen inequalities, fuel price pressures, or entrench status hierarchies if local institutions and markets are weak. He cautions against the common habit of dividing expenditures into “productive” (e.g., enterprise) versus “unproductive” (e.g., housing, ceremonies), noting that these categories blur in practice and that many so called consumption outlays have longer term social returns (health, education, social capital). The review synthesizes divergent empirical findings by emphasizing lifecycle dynamics and integration: remitting practices, uses of funds and development effects shift with migrants’ duration abroad, income, and attachment to origin, implying nonlinear relationships over time. The policy implication is not to instrumentalize migrants as development agents, but to build enabling contexts secure property rights, financial intermediation, lower transfer costs, and inclusive local governance so that households’ remittance backed choices can translate into broader social benefits. Overall, de Haas redirects the debate from remittance optimism or pessimism toward institutional and temporal conditions that mediate outcomes.

Osili (2007) investigates remittance and savings behavior among Nigerian migrants in the United States using a unique matched dataset linking migrants with their origin households in Nigeria. This methodological innovation allows for a clearer understanding of remittance motives by addressing selection bias and measurement issues that often constrain migration research. The study finds evidence for altruistic motives, as migrants tend to remit larger amounts to poorer households, thereby supporting welfare and consumption smoothing in contexts of economic vulnerability. At the same time, the analysis reveals strong investment driven behavior, with migrants allocating more resources to origin country savings when their families are wealthier,

highlighting remittances as a channel for asset accumulation and long-term security. By disaggregating remittances into family transfers, community contributions, and savings, Osili demonstrates that remittance practices are multidimensional, combining altruism, self interest, and strategic household planning. This work contributes significantly to the New Economics of Labour Migration (NELM) literature by showing how remittances embody both social obligations and forward looking investment strategies, reinforcing their dual role in household welfare and development finance.

Yang & Choi (2007) investigate whether remittances serve as an informal insurance mechanism for households in the Philippines. Using rainfall shocks as an external instrument for income variation, they provide robust evidence that migrant remittances help households cope with adverse economic conditions. The study finds that when households suffer income losses due to negative rainfall shocks; remittances increase significantly, compensating for around 60 percent of lost income. As a result, households with migrant members are able to stabilize their consumption levels despite shocks, while those without migrants face noticeable declines in welfare. This demonstrates that remittances act as a substitute for missing or incomplete credit and insurance markets, functioning as a household level risk management strategy. The findings highlight the broader developmental role of remittances, not only in raising living standards but also in providing resilience against external shocks, thereby reducing household vulnerability in contexts of economic uncertainty.

Fajnzylber & López (2008) compile extensive cross country and household level evidence on the role of remittances in Latin America and the Caribbean, offering one of the most detailed regional analyses of their economic and social impact. The study finds that remittances contribute positively to reducing poverty, improving education and health outcomes, and strengthening financial development, though their effect sizes are generally moderate. Importantly, the book demonstrates that the developmental benefits of remittances are highly dependent on the institutional and policy environment of the receiving countries, with stronger effects where financial

systems are better integrated. It also highlights potential risks, such as exchange rate pressures and dependency effects that can offset some of the benefits. The authors conclude with policy recommendations to maximize gains from remittances, including reducing transfer costs, fostering financial inclusion, and channeling remittances into productive investments. By balancing empirical evidence with policy analysis, this volume has become a central reference for understanding how remittances shape development trajectories in Latin America and beyond.

Gupta, Pattillo & Wagh (2009) provide compelling regional evidence that remittances enhance both poverty alleviation and financial development in Sub-Saharan Africa, a region often sidelined in remittance research. Utilizing a panel dataset of African countries over several decades, the authors show that remittance inflows directly bolster household consumption and reduce poverty, while simultaneously promoting formal financial inclusion by providing unbanked populations with entry points into banking systems. Their rigorous approach accounts for bidirectional causality, strengthening the argument that remittances not only support immediate welfare but also catalyze financial sector development. This study discusses how remittances can lead to increased household saving and investment, but cautions that the impact depends on the financial environment and policy framework. The authors stress that reducing remittance transfer costs and improving banking access can enhance saving outcomes, important considerations for migrant sending regions like Nagaland.

Mohapatra et al. (2011) provide one of the most comprehensive examinations of migration and development in Africa, emphasizing how remittances, skills, and diaspora investments can be strategically leveraged to foster growth. The report shows that remittances already represent a vital source of household income across African economies, often exceeding foreign direct investment or aid in several countries. Beyond immediate poverty reduction, these inflows are highlighted as critical for financing education, housing, and small businesses, thereby promoting long-term welfare improvements. The study also discusses the challenges of skilled emigration or “brain

drain,” proposing policies to convert it into “brain gain” through diaspora engagement, knowledge transfer, and circular migration. Innovative financing tools such as diaspora bonds and securitization of remittance flows are proposed to attract investment capital for infrastructure and institutional development. By combining empirical evidence with policy oriented recommendations, the report reframes migration as a development opportunity, underscoring the need for African states to integrate migration more fully into their economic strategies.

Yang (2011) provides a comprehensive view on migrant remittances, synthesizing evidence from both micro and macro level studies. He highlights the resilience of remittance flows compared to other financial streams, noting their stability during economic downturns. At the household level, remittances are shown to improve welfare by increasing consumption, reducing poverty, and enabling investments in education, health, and small businesses. The paper also emphasizes the insurance role of remittances, where migrants support families during adverse shocks such as crop failures or unemployment. At the macroeconomic level, remittances contribute significantly to foreign exchange reserves and balance of payments in many developing countries, although Yang cautions that they may also reduce labour supply or create dependency in the long run. The article situates remittances within the broader framework of development economics, stressing the need for policies that reduce transfer costs, encourage financial inclusion, and channel remittances into productive uses. This work is widely cited for providing both a clear synthesis of existing evidence and practical policy insights.

Ratha (2013) offers a compelling policy oriented synthesis on the role of remittances in promoting economic development and reducing poverty. The brief underscores that remittances not only increase household incomes but also support broader social outcomes including improved healthcare, educational attainment, and gender parity while delivering community level spillovers. These findings reinforce the resilience of remittances as a development tool, especially during economic downturns.

More importantly, Ratha outlines practical policy levers such as lowering remittance transfer costs and integrating remittance flows into formal financial systems to enhance their impact. By translating empirical evidence into strategic policy recommendations, this brief serves as a critical resource for scholars and practitioners aiming to harness migration driven remittances as a force for sustainable development.

Amega (2018) examines whether remittance inflows translate into better education and health outcomes across Sub-Saharan Africa using a dynamic panel of 46 countries (1975–2014) in five year intervals and estimating system GMM models to address persistence and endogeneity. The study finds that higher remittances are positively and significantly associated with improvements in both sectors, and crucially that education and health reinforce each other (gains in one feed into the other), highlighting a complementary human capital channel rather than isolated effects. Policy implications follow directly: lowering transfer costs, widening access to formal financial services, and stabilizing macro conditions can strengthen the translation of private remittance flows into public good outcomes in schooling and health systems. The paper thereby updates the “remittance as development” debate with region wide evidence that is robust to common panel biases and offers a clear mechanism household investment in human capital through which remittances can enhance welfare over time.

Chintamani & Kulkarni (2023) examine international remittances in a rural Indian setting using primary survey data from villages in Ratnagiri district (Maharashtra) to identify both the determinants of emigration/remitting and the effects on household wellbeing. Employing binary choice models (logit/probit), they show that inward remittances are positively associated with recipient households’ economic welfare as reflected in expenditure patterns, consistent with remittances easing liquidity constraints and supporting subsistence as well as welfare enhancing outlays. On the sending side, they report a negative association between households’ education and the likelihood of emigration, suggesting that migration from this context may be driven more by limited local opportunities among less educated households than by “high skill” selection. The

study thereby complements macro-level evidence by providing micro foundations from a remittance dependent rural economy, and it underscores the importance of local financial and policy environments to translate remittance inflows into sustained livelihood gains.

2.6 RESEARCH GAP

Several studies were made on migration especially illegal immigration as a demographic and sociopolitical challenge for Nagaland, there is no systematic analysis on the socioeconomic implications of the migrants in the host cities. The present study fills this gap by examining how migrants integrate economically and socially in Dimapur and Kohima, using standardized indices such as the EII, SII, and CII. By shifting the focus from threat perception to development outcomes, the study provides updated, evidence on labour market participation, social inclusion, and settlement patterns of the migrant workers. These insights will generate actionable inputs for the short-term, practical interventions, thereby strengthening migration governance in the state.

There is a severe shortage of reliable migration data for Nagaland and virtually no comprehensive study on the determinants of migration or literature dedicated to the state's urban labour markets. The Inner Line Permit (ILP) is discussed mainly in descriptive terms, with little quantitative measurement of costs, processing, or enforcement and how these shape migrants' entry, employment, earnings, savings, and remittances are not dealt at all. Empirical work rarely integrates social network channels and duration of stay into micro econometric models, and there is minimal triangulation of secondary statistics with primary survey micro data. This thesis addresses these gaps by compiling a focused review for Nagaland, generating city level evidence, constructing quantitative ILP indices, and linking scarce secondary sources with original field data. Despite substantial work on Indian migration, key gaps remain for Nagaland's urban labour market. Thus the present study aims to fill these lacunas.

CHAPTER 3

SOCIO ECONOMIC PROFILE OF THE MIGRANTS

3.1 INTRODUCTION

The socioeconomic profile of migrant workers refers to the composite picture of their demographic characteristics (such as age, sex, marital status, and family structure) and their economic conditions (employment type, income levels, savings, housing, and access to amenities). By systematically analyzing these attributes, it is possible to capture not only the *individual and household realities* of migrant workers but also their collective role in the urban labour market.

In migration studies, profiling is essential for linking the “push” and “pull” dynamics of migration with actual livelihood outcomes. For instance, low agricultural productivity or unemployment in the place of origin often pushes migrants to urban areas, while the demand for cheap and flexible labour pulls them into cities. Yet the socioeconomic profile reveals how migrants adjust to urban life, the kinds of jobs they take, and the extent to which they experience upward or downward mobility after migration.

The socioeconomic profile of migrant workers provides crucial insights into their living and working conditions, and helps in understanding how migration shapes both the labour market and the livelihoods of those involved. Migration is not merely a physical movement from one place to another; it represents a transformation in the social and economic status of individuals and households. For migrant labourers in particular, socioeconomic characteristics such as age, sex, education, skill levels, marital status, income, occupation, and housing conditions are fundamental in determining their opportunities and vulnerabilities in the urban labour market.

In the context of Nagaland, and specifically in rapidly urbanizing districts such as Dimapur and Kohima, the presence of migrant workers has become a defining feature of the urban economy. These migrants often take up employment in construction, trade, transport, services, and other informal sector activities, contributing significantly to the growth and functioning of the local economy. At the same time, their socioeconomic status reflects the multiple challenges they face, ranging from irregular income and limited access to secure housing, to lack of social protection and marginalization within the host society.

The socioeconomic profiling of migrant workers is therefore essential for three reasons. First, it helps to document the demographic background and economic circumstances of the workforce that drives urban growth. Second, it reveals the disparities and insecurities that exist between migrants and non-migrants, and within different groups of migrants themselves. Third, it provides a basis for formulating policies aimed at inclusive development, labour rights, and social welfare.

Accordingly, this chapter seeks to analyze the socioeconomic profile of migrant labourers in Dimapur and Kohima by examining their demographic composition by religion and place of origin, educational attainment, occupational structure, income distribution, housing conditions, access to basic amenities, and remittance practices. The findings are drawn primarily from field survey data, and are presented with comparative insights between the two districts on how migrants participate in and adapt to the urban labour markets of Nagaland. Also offers a detailed account of the socioeconomic characteristics of migrant workers in Dimapur and Kohima. The findings are presented through tables and figures, accompanied by interpretive explanations that highlight the patterns, contrasts, and implications for urban labour dynamics. By doing so, the chapter highlights not only the economic significance of migrant workers but also their social realities and lived experiences in the urban centers of Nagaland.

3.2 DEMOGRAPHIC PROFILE OF THE STUDY AREA

According to Census 2011, Nagaland's population is 19,78,502, with urban residents forming roughly 29% of the total about 5.7 lakh people indicating a predominantly rural state with a small but significant urban labour market where migrant inflows can have visible effects on specific occupations and wards. Recent state statistical reports (Economic Survey 2022–23/2023–24) underscore services and construction as key urban absorbers of labour, while the Inner Line Permit (ILP) regime shapes entry and documentation for non locals.

3.2.1 Kohima

Kohima, situated approximately 75 kilometers southeast of Dimapur, is the capital city of Nagaland and serves as the political and administrative center of the state. Nestled in the hilly terrain of the Naga Hills at an elevation of about 1,444 meters, Kohima is smaller in size and population, with around 99,000 inhabitants according to the 2011 Census. The city is divided into 19 wards with a total population of 99,039 of which 51,626 are male while 47,413 are female as per census report of India 2011. The population density of the city is 183 persons per square kilometer.

3.2.2 Dimapur

Dimapur is the largest city in Nagaland with a total area of 927 sq. Km. It has a population of 122,834 comprising of 64,300 males and 58,534 females. It has 23 wards and is the only commercial hub around which the economic and developmental activities of the districts are centered. It is one of the fastest developing urban centers of the North East region in India. It serves as the main gateway to Nagaland, with strategic connectivity to Assam and other northeastern states. Historically, Dimapur developed as a trade and transportation center due to its location on major routes, attracting businesses and migrants from surrounding regions. The city has experienced rapid urbanization over recent decades, transforming from a modest town to a bustling urban hub with a population exceeding 122,000 (Census 2011). Dimapur's economy is diverse, featuring

retail markets, manufacturing units, construction activities, hospitality services, transportation, and government offices.

Table 3.1. Demographic Profile of Kohima and Dimapur district and Nagaland

Particulars	2001			2011		
	Kohima	Dimapur	Nagaland	Kohima	Dimapur	Nagaland
Population	3,10,084	3,09,024	19,88,636	3,78,811	2,67,988	19,78,502
Decadal growth rate	49.96	73.3	64.41	22.9	21.7	0.6
Urban decadal growth rate	49.81	48.69	64.62	72.7	57.2	66.6
Population Density	150	332	120	409	183	119
Urban population	77,030 (35)*	1,14,600 (37.2)*	3,42,787 (17.2)**	1,97,869 (52.2)*	1,21,088 (45.2)*	5,70,966 (28.9)**
Sex Ratio	898	854	900	919	928	931
Urban Sex Ratio	870	764	809	903	934	908
Literacy Rate	78	76.9	66.6	84.8	85.2	79.6
Urban Literacy Rate	86.7	79.1	84.7	87.4	90.1	89.6

Sources: Census of India, 2011

** percentage to total population of the district; ** percentage to total population of the State*

Table 3.2. Name of the Wards and Colonies under Kohima Municipal Corporation

Ward No.	Name of the wards	Ward No.	Name of the wards
1	High School Colony	11	P.W.D. Colony
2	Bayavu Ward	12	Chandmari Lower
3	North Block Ward	13	Chandmari Upper Ward
4	Naga Bazaar Ward	14	Dzuvuru
5	Kitsovozou Ward	15	A.G. Colony

6	D Block Ward	16	New Ministers Hill
7	Dakelane Ward	17	AgriElectricalForest Colony
8	New Market Ward	18	Para Medical Ward
9	Midland Ward	19	P.R. Hill Ward
10	Officers Hill		

Source: Kohima Municipal Council (KMC), Kohima

Table 3.3. Name of the Wards and Colonies under Dimapur Municipal Corporation

Ward No.	Colonies / Areas
1	N.S.T Colony; Chakhesang Colony; Rajbari; part of Khermahal
2	Zakeisatuo Colony; Gorapatti; Public Ground Colony; Kulhoulie Punyu colony
3	United North Block A; United North Block B; Naga United Colony; Sunrise colony; Ashuhe Mon colony
4	Northern Angami Colony; Rengma Colony; Rangailong Colony; Chukaizu Colony; Zeliangrong Colony
5	Dr.Haralu Colony SectorI; Dr.Haralu Colony SectorII; Police Colony; Bank Colony
6	Old Over Bridge Colony; Rly. Gate Area; Hazi Park Area; Marwari Patti; Railway Bazaar Area
7	Westyard Colony; Chatteswari Colony; Xuvihe Colony; Sematilla; Surja Gaubora (Rana) Colony
8	Rly.Colony; Netaji Colony; Hospital Colony
9	Nepali Bosti; Supply Colony; Forest Colony; Fellowship Colony; Colliery Colony
10	Neisatuo Colony; LRC Colony; Lake View Colony; Khermahal; Naga Cemetery & Island Colony
11	River Belt Colony; Duncan Bosti
12	Lengrijan; Ao Kashiram; Nepali Kashiram; Veterinary Colony; Industrial Estate; Hill View Colony
13	Midland Colony; PWD Colony; Kyong Colony; Residency Colony; Landmark Colony
14	Oriental Colony; SubJail Colony; Lotha Colony; Rio Colony (Sewak Gate); K.Sachu Colony; HMC; Midland
15	Lhomithi Colony
16	Signal Bosti; Kevijau Colony; B.L Kachari Colony
17	DMC Area; Ramjanaki Thakur Bari; Old Market; Kalibari area; Jain Temple area
18	Zeliangrong Village; Dhobinala Area

19	New Market; Naga Bazar area
20	Govt. Higher Secondary School Colony; S.M Colony; New Circuit House Area; Development Authority Market
21	Lotha Church area; Nyamo Lotha Colony; Notun Basti; Khermahal
22	Niu Colony; Veterinary Colony; Burma Camp Market Area; Ragailong Colony
23	Rio Colony; Mehta Colony; Forest Treating Plant; Viola Colony; Y. Zhimo

Source: Dimapur Municipal Corporation, Dimapur

3.3. DISTRIBUTION OF MIGRANT WORKERS

This section discusses the distribution of migrant workers by country, state and district of origin and by duration of stay.

3.3.1 Distribution by Country of Origin

Table 3.4 Migrant Worker Distribution by Country of Origin

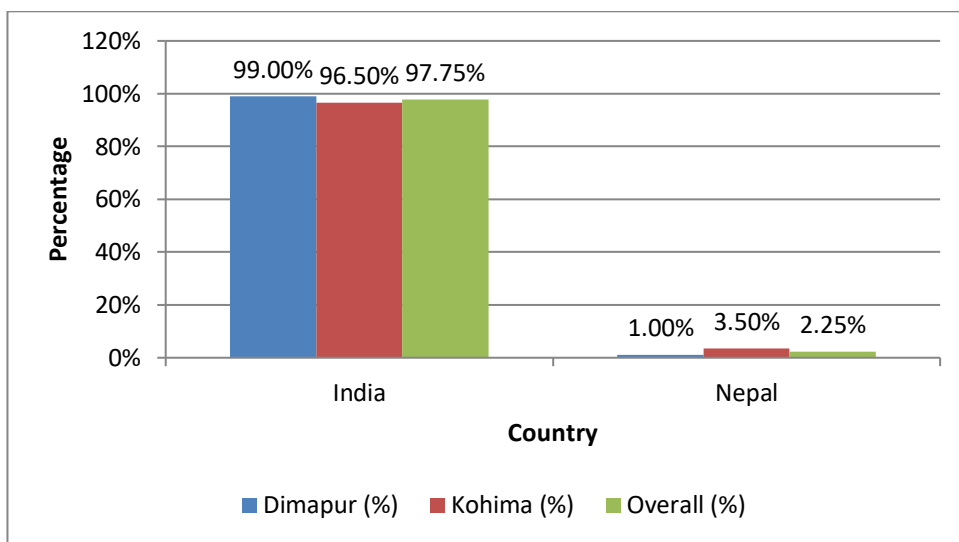
Country	Dimapur		Kohima		Overall	
	No. of respondents	Percentage	No. of respondents	Percentage	No. of respondents	Percentage
India	198	99	193	96.50	391	97.75
Nepal	2	1	7	3.50	9	2.25
Total	200	100	200	100	400	100.00

Source : Field Survey 2020-21

Table 3.4 presents the country wise distribution of respondents, which shows that the overwhelming majority of migrant workers in Dimapur and Kohima are of Indian origin. In Dimapur, 99% (198 respondents) are from India, while only 1% (2 respondents) hails from Nepal. In Kohima, the proportion of migrants from Indian is 96.5% (193 respondents), and 3.5% (7 respondents) are originating from Nepal. Overall, the Indian migrants account for 97.75% (391 respondents), while Nepali migrants form a very small minority at 2.25% (9 respondents).

This pattern highlights that interstate migration from within India is the dominant source of the migrant workforce in Nagaland, while international migrants (from Nepal) are very limited in numbers. The small Nepali presence reflects historical migration flows into Northeast India, but the labour market in Dimapur and Kohima remains overwhelmingly shaped by Indian interstate migrants.

Figure 3.a: Country of origin:



Source: Table 3.4

3.3.2 Migrant Workers by State of Origin

Table 3.5: Distribution of Migrant Workers by State of Origin

State	Dimapur		Kohima		Overall	
	Respondents	Percentage	Respondents	Percentage	Respondents	Percentage
Assam	167	83.50	37	18.50	204	51
Bihar	23	11.50	146	73	169	42.25
Tripura	5	2.50			11	2.75

Nepal	2	1	6	3	8	2
Jharkhand	1	0.50			1	0.25
Manipur	1	0.50	2	1	3	0.75
West Bengal	1	0.50	3	1.50	4	1
UP			6	3	6	3
Rajasthan	2	1	1	0.5	3	1.5
Total	200	100	200	100	400	100

Source: Field Survey, 2020-21.

The distribution of migrant respondents by state of origin at table 3.5 reveals a highly uneven pattern between Dimapur and Kohima. In Dimapur, the migrant population is overwhelmingly dominated by those from Assam, who account for 83.5 % of the total respondents. This can be attributed to the district's geographical proximity to Assam, its role as Nagaland's commercial hub, and the historical labour and trade linkages that facilitate easy movement across the border. Migrants from Bihar constitute the second largest group in Dimapur at 11.5 %, while smaller shares are observed from Tripura (2.5 %) and Nepal (1 %). The presence of migrant workers from Jharkhand, Manipur, Rajasthan and West Bengal is negligible, each contributing only 0.5 % of the total sample population.

In Kohima, however, the pattern shifts significantly. Migrants from Bihar form the overwhelming majority, constituting 73 % of the total respondents, while those from Assam account for 18.5 %. This reflects a labour demand structure that is distinct from Dimapur, with Bihari migrants traditionally engaged in construction, manual work such as porters, and other informal labour sectors. Smaller migrant groups are observed from Uttar Pradesh (3 %), Nepal (3 %), West Bengal (1.5 %), and Manipur (1 %), showing a slightly more diversified composition compared to Dimapur but still dominated by Bihar.

Overall, when combining the two districts, the migrant population of Nagaland is overwhelmingly drawn from two states viz., Assam and Bihar, which together account for more than 93 % of the total respondents. Assam contributes 51 %, while Bihar accounts for 42.25 %. Other states such as Tripura (2.75 %), Nepal (2 %), West Bengal (1 %), Manipur (0.75 %), and Jharkhand (0.25 %) together make up only a marginal share. This indicates that migration into Nagaland is not broadly spread across India but is highly concentrated, reflecting both regional proximity in the case of Assam and longstanding labour migration traditions in the case of Bihar.

3.3.3 Migrant Worker by District of Origin

Details of the migrant workers by their place of origin (district) are shown in the table given below:

Table 3.6: Distribution of respondents by their place of origin to Dimapur

Country /State	District	Dimapur		Kohima		Overall (Nagaland)	
		No. of respondents	Percentage	No. of respondents	Percentage	No. of respondents	Percentage
NEPAL	Kathmandu	2	1	4	2	6	1.5
ASSAM	Karimganj	66	33	22	11	88	22
	Morigaon	44	22	0	0	44	11
	Nagaon	27	13.5	2	1	29	7.25
	Kamrup	3	1.5	0	0	3	0.75
	Golaghat	1	0.5	0	0	1	0.25
	Sarupathar	1	0.5	0	0	1	0.25
	Sonitpur	1	0.5	1	0.5	2	0.5
	Jamunamukh	1	0.5	0	0	1	0.25
	Guwahati	2	1	2	1	4	1
	Hojai	6	3	3	1.5	9	2.25
	Hatigarh	6	3	0	0	6	1.5
	Cachar	4	2	0	0	4	1
	Karbi Anglong	4	2	2	1	6	1.5

	Julipari	0	0	1	0.5	1	0.25
	Silchar	0	0	5	2.5	5	1.25
BIHAR	Madhubani	3	1.5			3	0.75
	Champanan	14	7	8	4	22	5.5
	Patna	1	0.5	8	4	9	2.25
	Katihar	1	0.5			1	0.25
	Muzaffarpur	3	1.5	3	1.5	6	1.5
	Motihari	0	0	107	53.5	107	26.75
	Chhapra	0	0	13	6.5	13	3.25
	Buxar	0	0	1	0.5	1	0.25
	Sitamarhi	0	0	3	1.5	3	0.75
	Gulni	0	0	2	1	2	0.5
	Gaya	0	0	1	0.5	1	0.25
TRIPURA	North Tripura	3	1.5	0	0	3	0.75
MANIPUR	Imphal	1	0.5	1	0.5	2	0.5
	Jaribam	0	0	1	0.5	1	0.25
WEST BENGAL	Cooch Behar	1	0.5	0	0	1	0.25
	Siliguri	1	0.5	0	0	1	0.25
	Howrah (Ghat)	1	0.5	0	0	1	0.25
	Darjeeling	0	0	2	1	2	0.5
	Murshidabad	0	0	1	0.5	1	0.25
JHARKHAND	Ranchi	1	0.5			1	0.25
RAJASTHAN	Sewar	0	0	1	0.5	1	0.25
	Udaipur	2	1			2	0.5
Total		200	100	200	100	400	100

Source: Field Survey, 2020-21

The table 3.6 shows that origin profile for Dimapur is overwhelmingly of Assam driven, where 83% of respondents (166/200) hail from Assam. District wise it is led by Karimganj (33%), a district in southern Assam directly borders Bangladesh. This is followed by Morigaon (22%) and Nagaon (13.5%), with smaller shares from Kamrup (1.5%), Hojai and Hatigarh (3% each), Cachar and Karbi Anglong (2% each), and other localities ($\leq 1\%$ each). Bihar contributes 11% (Madhubani 1.5%, Champaran 7%, Patna and Katihar 0.5% each, Muzaffarpur 1.5%), while Tripura accounts for 2.5% (Tripura 1.5%, Udaipur/Gomati 1%), West Bengal 1.5% (Cooch Behar, Siliguri, Howrah/Ghat 0.5% each), and Nepal, Manipur, and Jharkhand contribute 1%, 0.5%, and

0.5% respectively. This spatial concentration, particularly the 68.5% drawn from just three Assam districts, signals strong chain migration and recruiter/kin networks along well connected corridors into Dimapur, consistent with proximity, transport linkages, and occupational niches that lower entry costs and channel new migrants into specific neighborhoods and sectors.

The place of origin profile for Kohima reveals high concentration of Bihar which contributes 73% of all respondents (146/200), driven overwhelmingly by Motihari (East Champaran) at 53.5% alone, with additional inflows from Chhapra/Saran totaling 6.5% (3% + 3.5%), Champaran (4%), Patna (4%), Muzaffarpur (1.5%), Sitamarhi (1.5%), Gulni (1%), Buxar (0.5%), and Gaya (0.5%). Assam forms the secondary corridor at 19% (38/200), led by Karimganj at 11%, and followed by Silchar (2.5%), Nagaon (1%), Guwahati (1%), Hojai (1.5%), Karbi Anglong (1%), Sonitpur (0.5%), and Julibari (0.5%). Smaller streams come from Nepal (2%), Uttar Pradesh (3%; Deoria 2.5% and Ballia 0.5%), West Bengal (1.5%; Darjeeling 1% and Murshidabad 0.5%), Manipur (1%; Imphal 0.5% and Jiribam 0.5%), and Rajasthan (0.5%). This distribution indicates chainmigration dynamics in which dense Bihar and Assam based networks, and recruiter or co-villager channels with lower migration costs and shape settlement into specific neighborhoods and job niches in Kohima.

Migration to Dimapur is primarily short distance and regionally networked, dominated by Assam's bordering districts, enabled by geographic proximity and transport corridors. In contrast, Kohima draws predominantly from northern Bihar, shaped by long distance labour migration sustained through dense kinship and recruiter networks.

Thus, Dimapur reflects a cross border regional migration system, while Kohima embodies a national scale labour corridor linking eastern India with Nagaland's urban labour market. In sample total, 51% of the migrants are from Assam and 42% from Bihar.

3.3.4 Distribution of Migrant workers by duration of Stay

The duration of stay indicates migrants' adjustment, employment stability, and attachment to the host city, serving as a key measure of their socioeconomic integration.

Table 3.7: Duration of stay of the respondents

Duration of stay	Dimapur	Kohima	Overall
Short term (< 1 year)	53(26.5)	47(23.5)	100(25)
Medium term (1-5 years)	64(32)	61(30.5)	125(31.25)
Long term (5-10 years)	53(26.5)	58(29)	111(27.75)
Very long term (> 10 years)	30(15)	34(17)	34(8.5)
Total	200(100)	200(100)	400(100)

Source: Field survey 2020-21

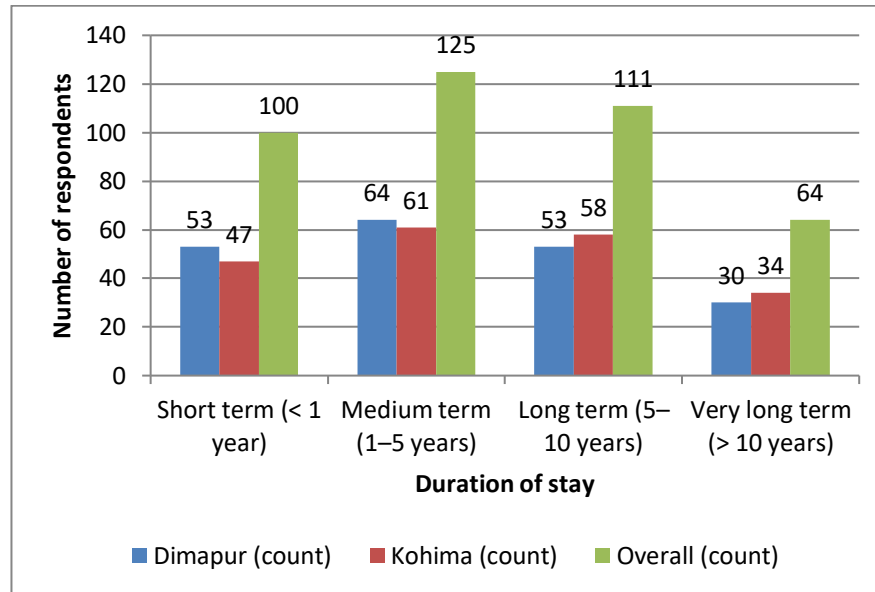
Note: Figure in the parentheses indicates the percentage of the total respondents.

The empirical data in table 3.7 shows that migrant workers in both Dimapur and Kohima have a fairly balanced distribution across different durations of stay, indicating both recent and long-term settlement trends as well. In Dimapur, 26.5% of respondents are short-term migrants, 32% medium-term, and 26.5% long-term, while 15% have stayed for very long periods. In Kohima, 23.5% are short-term, 30.5% are medium-term, and 29% long-term, with 17% reporting very long-term residence. At the sample aggregate, about 31.25% of migrants fall under the medium-term category, followed by 27.75% long-term, 25% short-term, and 8.5% very long-term residents.

These figures suggest that while migration to Nagaland includes a significant number of short and medium-term workers, a considerable share has settled for longer periods, reflecting increasing permanence and gradual socioeconomic integration of migrants within the urban fabric of Dimapur and Kohima cities in Nagaland. The findings further suggest that a substantial proportion of migrants have stayed in Dimapur and Kohima for medium to long durations, indicating gradual economic and social integration within the host cities. Longer duration of stay reflects improved familiarity with local conditions, stable employment, and stronger community networks, marking a

shift from temporary labour migration toward semi permanent or settled urban residence in Nagaland.

Figure 3.b Migrants duration of stay distribution



Source: 3.7

3.4 DEMOGRAPHIC CHARACTERISTICS OF MIGRANTS

Studying the demographic characteristics of migrants, such as age, gender, marital status, education, and religion etc. is essential for understanding migration patterns, labour market participation, and socioeconomic needs, providing critical insights for policy planning, welfare provision, and targeted interventions for migrant populations.

Table 3.8 Demographic profile of the respondents

Particulars	Dimpur		Kohima		Overall (Nagaland)	
	No. of respondents	Percentage	No. of respondents	Percentage	No. of respondents	Percentage

Age group (in years)	Below 14	8	4	0	0	8	2
	15–17	13	6.5	0	0	13	3.25
	18–25	23	11.5	29	14.5	52	13
	26–30	22	11	27	13.5	49	12.25
	31–35	15	7.5	34	17	49	12.25
	36–40	19	9.5	17	8.5	36	9
	41–45	29	14.5	25	12.5	54	13.50
	46–50	17	8.5	22	11	39	9.75
	51–55	18	9	26	13	44	11
	56–60	18	9	20	10	38	9.5
	60 and above	18	9	0	0	18	4.5
	Total	200	100	200	100	400	100
Gender	Male	172	86	178	89	350	87.50
	Female	28	14	22	11	50	12.50
	Total	200	100	200	100	400	100
Qualification	Illiterate	66	38	27	13.50	93	23.25
	Primary	76	33	40	20	116	29
	Middle School	58	29	35	17.50	93	23.25
	High School			32	16	32	8
	HSLC			32	16	32	8
	HSSLC			34	17	34	8.5
	Total	200	100	200	100	400	100
Marital Status	Single	99	49.5	73	36.5	172	43
	Married	101	50.5	65	32.5	166	41.5
	Divorced/ widowed			62	31	62	15.5
	Total	200	100	200	100	400	100
Religion	Buddhist	1	0.5	1	0.5	2	0.50
	Christian	1	0.50	2	1.00	3	0.75
	Hindu	58	29.00	168	84.50	226	56.50
	Muslim	140	70.00	29	14.50	169	42.25
	Total	200	100	200	100	400	100

Source: Field Survey, 2020-21

3.4.1 Migrant workers by Age Group

Table 3.8 presents the age distribution of the migrant workers reveal that migration is mainly concentrated among individuals belonging to the active working age population. The largest proportion of respondents falls in the age group of 41–45 years, accounting for 14.5 % (29 respondents). This is followed by younger adults in the 18–25 years group (11.5 %, 23 respondents) and the 26–30 years group (11.0 %, 22 respondents). Significant shares are also found in the 36–40 years (9.5 %), 51–55 years (9.0 %), 56–60 years (9.0 %), and 60 years and above (9.0 %) categories. In contrast, the representation of children below 14 years (4.0 %) and adolescents aged 15–17 years (6.5 %) is relatively small, suggesting that under aged migrants form only a marginal section of the sample population.

The overall pattern indicates that the bulk of migrants are within the productive age range, which has direct implications for the labour market of Dimapur and Kohima. The dominance of prime age groups enhances urban labour supply and productivity, as these migrants are typically more capable of performing physically demanding and economically motivated work. At the same time, the presence of middle aged and older migrants points towards long-term settlement and continuity of migration over life cycles, rather than a purely temporary movement. The comparatively low share of children and adolescents further suggests that migration into these urban centres is driven largely by labour demand rather than family migration. From the perspective of the dependency ratio, the concentration of working age individuals reflects a favourable scenario, since most migrants contribute directly to economic activity rather than adding to the dependent population. Overall, the predominance of migrants in their active years highlights their crucial role in sustaining the urban economy and meeting the workforce needs of Dimapur and Kohima.

3.4.2 Migrants workers by Gender

The gender distribution data in table 3.8 shows a clear male predominance among migrants in both Dimapur and Kohima. In Dimapur, 86% of respondents are male and 14% female, while in Kohima, 89% are male and 11% female. Overall, males constitute 87.5% of the migrant population, indicating that migration in Nagaland is largely male driven, reflecting labour oriented mobility. This pattern aligns with typical trends in internal migration, where men often migrate first for work, leaving women at home or migrating in smaller numbers, highlighting the gendered nature of economic migration and its implications for household dynamics, remittances, and social integration.

3.4.3 Migrants workers by Educational Qualification

Table 3.8 presents the educational profile of migrant workers in Dimapur shows the largest share of migrants are illiterate, constituting 38.0 % (66 respondents), followed closely by those with primary education at 33.0 % (76 respondents) and middle school at 29.0 % (58 respondents). No respondents in Dimapur were recorded with education beyond the middle school level, reflecting a low educational base among migrants in the city.

In Kohima, the distribution is more balanced across educational levels. Illiterates make up 13.5 % (27 respondents), which is far lower than in Dimapur. Migrants with primary education account for 20.0 % (40 respondents), while those with middle school education comprise 17.5 % (35 respondents). Importantly, a significant proportion of Kohima's migrants have achieved higher schooling: 16.0 % (32 respondents) each are recorded with high school and HSLC qualifications, and 17.0 % (34 respondents) with HSSLC. This demonstrates that Kohima attracts a relatively more educated migrant population compared to Dimapur.

When the two districts are combined, the overall data shows that illiterates and middle school educated migrants each constitute 23.25 % (93 respondents each), while primary education accounts for the largest share at 29.0 % (116 respondents). Migrants with high school and HSLC education each represent 8.0 % (32 respondents), and those with HSSLC comprise 8.5 % (34 respondents). The absence of graduates or respondents with higher education in the combined sample suggests that migration into Dimapur and Kohima is predominantly composed of individuals with low to midlevel educational attainment.

Overall, the analysis highlights a sharp contrast between the two urban centres; in Dimapur migrant population is dominated by illiterates and those with only primary or middle school education, whereas Kohima shows a relatively higher concentration of migrants with secondary and higher secondary education. This suggests that the urban labour markets of Dimapur and Kohima attract migrants with different levels of educational capital, reflecting differences in occupational structure and employment opportunities between the two towns.

3.4.4 Migrants workers by Marital Status

Table 3.8 presents the distribution of migrant workers by marital status in Dimapur, Kohima, and combined. In Dimapur, the respondents are almost evenly divided between single and married individuals, with 49.5 % (99 respondents) being single and 50.5 % (101 respondents) being married. No cases of divorced or widowed respondents were reported in Dimapur, indicating that the migrant flow to this urban centre is largely composed of young singles and family men.

In Kohima, however, the pattern is more diverse. Singles account for 36.5 % (73 respondents) and married migrants represent 32.5 % (65 respondents). What stands out in Kohima is the relatively high proportion of divorced or widowed migrants, constituting 31.0 % (62 respondents). This contrasts sharply with Dimapur, where such cases are entirely absent. The presence of divorced and widowed migrants in Kohima

suggests a distinctive demographic composition, possibly reflecting personal circumstances, social factors, or coping strategies that influence migration decisions.

At the aggregate level, the combined sample data shows that 43.0 % (172 respondents) are single, 41.5 % (166 respondents) are married, and 15.5 % (62 respondents) are divorced or widowed. This distribution highlights that the migrant workforce in the State is not exclusively young and unmarried but also includes a sizeable proportion of married and formerly married individuals, demonstrating migration as a livelihood strategy cutting across different life stages and family situations.

Overall, the findings reveal an important contrast between Dimapur and Kohima. Dimapur is dominated by single and married migrants in almost equal measure, while Kohima stands out for its significant share of divorced or widowed migrants. This distinction underscores the diverse socio demographic composition of migrants in the two urban centres, reflecting differences in social networks, opportunities, and the personal trajectories of migrants in the labour markets of Nagaland.

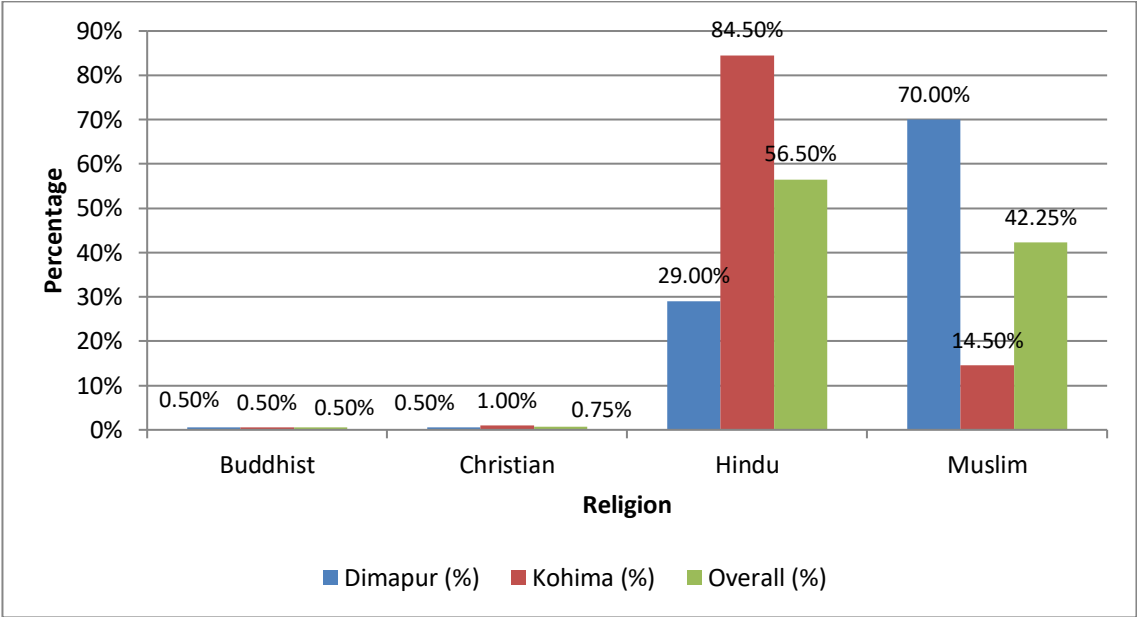
3.4.5 Migrants workers by Religion

Table 3.8 presents the religious composition of the sampled migrant workers in Dimapur and Kohima and sample total. The distribution of respondents by religion indicates a sharp contrast between Dimapur and Kohima. In Dimapur, migrants are predominantly Muslim, which accounted for 70 % of the respondents (140). Hindus accounted for 29 % while Buddhists and Christians are represented only marginally (0.5 % each). A reverse trend is observed in Kohima, where majority of the migrant workers are Hindu, comprising 84.5 % (168 respondents). Muslims comprised a smaller share of 14.5 %, while Christians (1 %) and Buddhists (0.5%) appear only minimally.

Thus in sample total, Hindus form the majority with 56.5 % (226 respondents), followed by Muslims at 42.25 % (169 respondents). Christians and Buddhists together

make up less than 2 % of the total migrant working population in the sample. This religious composition suggests that migration patterns into the two urban centers are shaped by different socio cultural and economic linkages. Dimapur is dominated by Muslim migrants mostly associated with trade, petty business, and service related occupations, whereas in Kohima, the higher concentration of Hindu migrants reflects higher migrant labour inflows connected with construction and service sectors. The very small presence of Buddhists and Christians shows that migration is largely concentrated among specific religious groups, influenced by community networks and occupational niches in the host towns.

Figure 3.c : Distribution of Respondents by Religion (%)



Source: Table 3.8

3.5 HOUSEHOLD PROFILE

The distribution of migrant workers according to number of dependents, types of housing, tenure status and number of rooms, factors that reflect their condition in the host places, in Dimapur and Kohima, and the combined sample is presented below.

Table 3.9: Household Profile of the Respondents

Particulars		Dimapur		Kohima		Overall	
		Total	Percentage	Total	Percentage	Total	Percentage
No. of dependents	0	33	16.5	47	23.5	80	20
	1	28	14	38	19	66	16.5
	2	36	18	41	20.5	77	19.25
	3	28	14	36	18	64	16
	4	41	20.5	38	19	79	19.75
	5	34	17			34	8.5
	Total	200	100	200	100	400	100
Type of Housing	Kutcha	92	46.0	103	51.5	195	48.75
	Semipucca	78	39.0	41	20.5	119	29.75
	Pucca	29	14.5	55	27.5	84	21
	Other	1	0.5	1	0.5	2	0.50
	Total	200	100	200	100	400	100
Residence Type	Rented	114	57.0	169	84.5	283	70.75
	Employers house/godown	2	1.0	7	3.5	9	2.25
	Taxed/ Others	58	29.0	0	0	58	14.5
	Construction site/ Farm	26	13.0	24	12	50	12.5
	Total	200	100	200	100	400	100
Number of Rooms	1	118	59.0	124	62.0	242	60.50
	2	65	32.5	69	34.5	134	33.50
	3	9	4.5	7	3.5	16	4
	4	3	1.5			3	0.75
	5	3	1.5			3	0.75
	6	2	1.0			2	0.50
	Total	200	100	200	100	200	100

Source: Field Survey, 2020-21

3.5.1 Distribution of migrant workers by number of dependents

Table 3.9 presents the distribution of migrant workers by number of dependents in Dimapur, Kohima, and the combined sample representing the state. In Dimapur, the highest proportion of migrants, 20.5 % (41 respondents) reported having four dependents. This is followed closely by 18.0 % (36 respondents) with two dependents, and 17.0 % (34 respondents) with five dependents. Equal proportions of 14.0 % (28 respondents each) were found with either one or three dependents, while 16.5 % (33 respondents) reported having no dependents at all. The distribution reflects a relatively broad spread of dependents among Dimapur's migrants, with a sizeable share supporting larger family sizes of four or five members.

In Kohima, the pattern differs to some extent. The largest share, 23.5 % (47 respondents) consists of migrants without dependents, suggesting that Kohima attracts a relatively higher proportion of single or independent workers. Migrants with two dependents account for the highest (20.5 %) followed by one dependent and four dependents categories with 19.0 % each. Those with three dependents constitute 18.0 % (36 respondents). Notably, no respondents in Kohima reported having five dependents, which stands in contrast to Dimapur where this category represented a significant group.

At the aggregate level (for Nagaland), 20.0 % (80 respondents) of migrants reported having no dependents, while 19.75 % (79 respondents) had four dependents and 19.25 % (77 respondents) had two dependents. Migrants with one dependent account for 16.5 % (66 respondents), while those with three dependents make up 16.0 % (64 respondents). The smallest share, 8.5 % (34 respondents), is observed among migrants with five dependents.

Overall, the findings show that while both Dimapur and Kohima include migrants with varying family responsibilities, Dimapur has a higher share of migrants with larger dependent loads (four to five), reflecting family linked migration patterns. In contrast, Kohima records a much higher share of migrants with no dependents,

suggesting that the city attracts more individual migrants who are likely motivated by work opportunities rather than family settlement. This contrast underlines the differentiated socioeconomic dynamics between the two cities, with Dimapur drawing more family based migration flows and Kohima reflecting a stronger presence of independent or smaller household migrants.

3.5.2 Distribution of migrant workers by Type of Housing

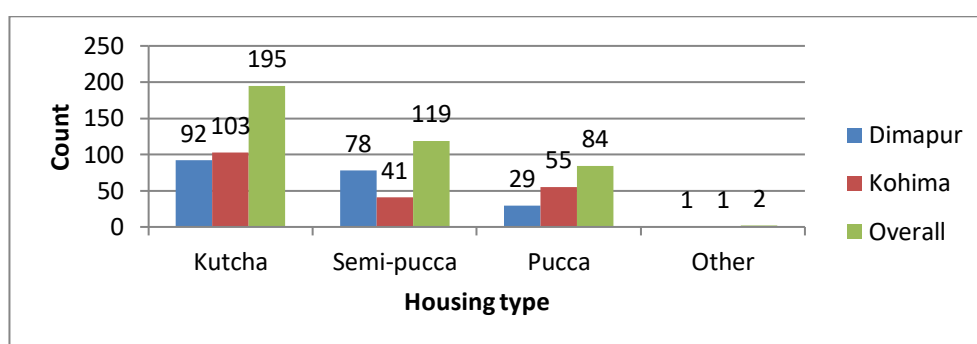
The housing condition of migrant workers in Nagaland in table 3.9, as reflected in the survey, shows significant variation across Dimapur and Kohima. In Dimapur, majority of migrants are found to reside in kutchha houses, which account for 46 % of the respondents. This is followed closely by semi-pucca houses at 39 %, while a smaller share resides in pucca houses (14.5 %). Only a negligible proportion (0.5 %) lives in other forms of housing. This distribution suggests that a large section of migrants in Dimapur live in relatively temporary or less durable structures, reflecting their economic vulnerability and the often transitional nature of their settlement.

In Kohima, on the other hand, the trend shifts slightly, with kutchha houses again dominating at 51.5 %. However, unlike Dimapur, Kohima records a much higher share of migrants residing in pucca houses, at 27.5 %, indicating comparatively better access to durable housing among some segments of the migrant population. The share of semi-pucca houses is much lower in Kohima (20.5 %) compared to Dimapur. A very small fraction (0.5 %) resides in other types of housing. This distribution highlights that while kutchha housing is the most common, Kohima accommodates a relatively larger section of migrants in more permanent structures compared to Dimapur.

Overall, when the figures from both districts are combined, kutchha houses remain the most common type of housing for migrants, accounting for 48.75 % of the total respondents. Semi-pucca houses follow with 29.75 %, while pucca houses account for 21 %. Other housing types constitute just 0.5 %. These figures reveal that nearly half of the migrant workers continue to reside in kutchha structures, underscoring the precarious

living conditions and limited access to secure housing among this group. The distribution also reflects that while some migrants have managed to access pucca housing, particularly in Kohima, the overall scenario is one of vulnerability, where temporary and semi-permanent structures dominate the migrant housing profile in Nagaland.

Figure 3.d: Type of Housing



Source: Table 3.9

3.5.3 Distribution of migrant workers by Residence status

The residence status of the migrant workers in Nagaland reflects distinct variations between Dimapur and Kohima, while at the overall level it underlines the overwhelming reliance of migrants on rented accommodation. In Dimapur, a little over half of the respondents (57 %) live in rented houses. A sizeable share (29 %) resides under *taxed or other arrangements*, which suggests occupancy in temporary or informal setups where rent is collected without formal contracts. In addition, 13 % of the respondents in Dimapur live at construction sites or farms, reflecting the vulnerability and transient character of their residence. Only 1 % reported staying at the house of the employers or in godowns, which indicates no ownership of housing among the migrant population in this district.

In Kohima, the dominance of rental housing is even more pronounced, where as many as 84.5 % of the migrants are tenants, highlighting the city's dependence on rental markets for migrant accommodation. A smaller proportion, 12 %, live at construction sites or farms, while 3.5 % report staying in owner operated houses or godowns. Interestingly, no respondent in Kohima reported living under the taxed/other tenure category, which marks a clear difference from Dimapur. This contrast shows that while migrants at Dimapur often depend on informal taxed or shared accommodations, Kohima's migrant population is primarily concentrated in formal rented units.

On the whole, nearly three fourths of migrant workers (70.75 %) reside in rented accommodation in the state. Construction sites or farms account for 12.5 % of the respondents, reflecting direct residence at places of work. About 14.5 % stay in taxed/other types of accommodation, while only 2.25 % report living in at the house of employers or in godowns. These figures highlight the general absence of housing ownership among migrants, reinforcing their dependence on rental markets and temporary housing solutions. The high incidence of construction site residences and informal arrangements also underlines the precariousness of housing security for this population.

3.5.4 Distribution of migrant workers by number of rooms

The distribution of migrant households by number of rooms (table 3.9) provides important insight into the living space and overall housing conditions of workers in Dimapur, Kohima, and Nagaland as a whole. In Dimapur, majority of the respondents (59 %) reported living in single room accommodations. A further 32.5 % occupied two room units, while only a very small proportion of migrants have access to three rooms (4.5 %) or more. Households with four, five, and six rooms each accounted for only 1.5 %, 1.5 %, and 1 %, respectively. This distribution clearly points to the predominance of overcrowded, single room arrangements, often shared by families or groups of migrants.

In Kohima, a similar pattern emerges, with an even greater proportion of migrants living in one room dwellings. About 62 % of respondents reported residing in single room units, while 34.5 % had two room accommodations. Only 3.5 % of the sample reported access to three rooms, and no household reported having four rooms or more. Compared to Dimapur, Kohima appears even more congested, as the absence of larger dwellings and the high concentration in one or two room units show limited availability of spacious housing for migrant households.

Overall, combining both districts, more than three fifths of migrant workers (60.5 %) reside in single room accommodations. A further 33.5 % stay in two room units, while only 4 % live in three room houses. Households with four, five, or six rooms are extremely rare, together accounting for just about 2 % of the total. This overall distribution reflects the precarious housing conditions of migrants in Nagaland, where single room or small two room dwellings dominate, pointing to issues of congestion, lack of adequate housing, and the economic constraints faced by migrant workers in accessing more spacious accommodation.

These facts indicate that migrant workers in Nagaland, particularly in Dimapur and Kohima, face poor living conditions, characterized by small, often overcrowded rooms, reliance on rented or informal housing, and limited access to durable pucca houses. Dimapur shows a higher share of family based migrants with larger dependency households, while Kohima attracts more independent workers, highlighting city specific migration and settlement patterns.

3.6 OCCUPATIONAL PROFILE

The occupational profile of migrant workers reveals their economic participation and livelihood strategies in destination areas. It highlights the main sectors of employment, skill levels, and mobility within the urban economy, offering insights into income stability, job security, and integration into the local labour market.

Table 3.10: Occupational structure of the migrant workers

Particulars		Dimapur		Kohima		Overall	
		Total	Percentage	Total	Percentage	Total	Percentage
Activity wise Employment	Self employed	67	33.5	60	30	127	31.75
	Salaried	66	33	66	33	132	33
	Casual worker	67	33.5	74	37	141	35.25
	Total	200	100	200	100	400	100
Skills	Unskilled	85	42.5	60	30	145	36.25
	Semi skilled	56	28	75	37.5	131	32.75
	Skilled	59	29.5	65	32.5	124	31
	Total	200	100	200	100	400	100
Working hours per day	4	24	12			24	6
	5	31	15.5	41	20.5	72	18
	6	26	13	40	20	66	16.5
	7	36	18	42	21	78	19.5
	8	22	11	38	19	60	15
	9	32	16	39	19.5	71	17.75
	10	29	14.5			29	7.25
	Total	200	100	200	100	400	100

Source : Field Survey, 2020-21.

3.6.1 Distribution of migrant workers by Activity wise Employment

Table 3.10 shows that migrant workers in both Dimapur and Kohima are fairly evenly spread across self employment, salaried work, and casual labour. In Dimapur, 33.5% are self employed, 33% salaried, and 33.5% casual workers, while in Kohima,

30% are self-employed, 33% salaried, and 37% casual workers. Overall, casual labour constitutes the largest share (35.25%), followed closely by salaried (33%) and self-employed (31.75%). This indicates that migrants are predominantly engaged in informal and semiformal occupations, with a slightly more in casual labour in Kohima.

Migrant workers are primarily engaged in informal and semiformal occupations, including self employment, sales and service roles, casual and manual labour (Annex.3.1). Dimapur shows a higher concentration in construction and street vending, while Kohima has more sales, porters and casual service workers, reflecting differences in local economic structures. Overall, casual labour constitutes a significant share, highlighting migrants' dependence on temporary, low security, and physically demanding work. These patterns underscore the vulnerability and flexibility of migrant labour in urban labour market in Nagaland.

3.6.2 Distribution of migrant workers by Skill

Table 3.10 shows that in Dimapur, 42.5 % (85 respondents) of migrants are unskilled, making this the largest category. Semiskilled workers account for 28.0 % (56 respondents), while skilled workers constitute 29.5 % (59 respondents). This indicates that migrant population in Dimapur is skewed towards unskilled labour, though a notable share possesses semiskilled and skilled capabilities.

In Kohima, the distribution is more balanced, with semiskilled workers forming the largest group at 37.5 % (75 respondents), followed closely by skilled workers at 32.5 % (65 respondents). Unskilled workers make up 30.0 % (60 respondents), which is significantly lower than in Dimapur. This reflects Kohima's attraction of a relatively higher proportion of migrants with some degree of training or skill, likely linked to the occupational opportunities available in the district.

When combined, the sample data shows that 36.25 % (145 respondents) of migrants are unskilled, 32.75 % (131 respondents) are semiskilled, and 31.0 % (124

respondents) are skilled in the State. The nearequal distribution across the three categories highlights that while a considerable portion of migrants continue to belong to the unskilled category, there is also a strong presence of semiskilled and skilled migrants in the urban labour market of Nagaland.

Overall, the comparison reveals that Dimapur relies more heavily on unskilled migrant labour, whereas Kohima attracts a larger share of semiskilled and skilled migrants. This difference underscores the structural variation in labour market demand between the two urban centres; Dimapur being dominated by informal and low skill occupations, while Kohima demonstrates a demand for relatively higher skill jobs.

3.6.3 Distribution of migrant workers by working hours

Table 3.10 shows the distribution of migrant workers according to their daily working hours in Dimapur, Kohima, and overall (Nagaland). In Dimapur, the largest share of respondents, 18.0 % (36 workers) has reported to work for 7 hours a day, followed by 16.0 % (32 workers) working for 9 hours, and 15.5 % (31 workers) working for 5 hours. A further 14.5 % (29 workers) were working for 10hour per day, while 13.0 % (26 workers) and 12.0 % (24 workers) reported 6hour and 4hour working/day, respectively. Only 11.0 % (22 workers) reported working for 8 hours. This indicates that working hours in Dimapur varies widely, with a considerable number of migrants engaged in long shifts of 9–10 hours in average.

In Kohima, the distribution reflects a somewhat different pattern. The highest proportion, 21.0 % (42 workers), are employed in 7hour per day, closely followed by 20.5 % (41 workers) in 5hour and 20.0 % (40 workers) in 6hour/day. Another 19.5 % (39 workers) reported working 9 hours, and 19.0 % (38 workers) were engaged in 8hour. Unlike Dimapur, no respondents reported working 4 hours or 10 hours in Kohima. This suggests that migrants in Kohima experience more uniform working hours, concentrated within the 5–9 hour range, compared to the wider spread in Dimapur.

At the aggregate, the sample data for Nagaland reveals that the largest category is 7hour work/day (19.5 %, 78 respondents), followed by 5hour (18.0 %, 72 respondents), and 9hour (17.75 %, 71 respondents). Those working 6 hours account for 16.5 % (66 respondents), while 15.0 % (60 respondents) reported 8hour shifts. Shorter working time of 4 hours constitute 6.0 % (24 respondents), and extended work time of 10 hours represent 7.25 % (29 respondents).

Overall, the comparison highlights that migrants in Dimapur are more likely to experience longer work hours, including 910 hour shifts, reflecting the city's labour demand in physically intensive occupations. In contrast, Kohima shows greater uniformity, with working hours concentrated between 59 hours, indicating a relatively more regulated or standardized labour environment. The combined results for Nagaland emphasize that the majority of migrants work between 5 and 9 hours daily, with smaller proportions at the extreme ends of 4hour and 10hour schedules.

3.7 INCOME, SAVING AND REMMITANCES

3.7.1 Income distribution of the migrants before and after migration

Table 3.11: Salaries of the migrants before and after migration

Particulars		Dimapur		Kohima		Overall	
		Total	%	Total	%	Total	%
Before migration Salary (in ₹. monthly)	None (0.00)	50	25	46	23	96	24
	Below 5000	52	26	43	21.50	95	23.75
	500110,000	42	21	46	23	88	22
	100001500 0	56	28	65	32.5	121	30.25
	Total	200	100	200	100	400	100
After migration Salary (in ₹. monthly)	Below 10,000	67	33.5	67	33.5	134	33.5
	100002000 0	66	33	66	33	132	33
	Above 20000	67	33.5	67	33.5	134	33.5

	Total	200	100	200	100	400	100
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Source: Field Survey, 2020-21

(i) Before Migration:

Table 3.11 shows that before migration, 25% and 23% of migrants in Dimapur and Kohima, respectively had no income. While, 26% in Dimapur and 21.5% in Kohima have earned below ₹5,000, 21% in Dimapur and 23% in Kohima have earned ₹5,001–10,000. At the highest spectrum of income distribution, 28% in Dimapur and 32.5% in Kohima have earned ₹10,001–15,000 before they migrated to Nagaland.

Overall, the sample data reveals that nearly half the migrants have earned below ₹5,000-10,000, and about 24.30% had no or low income, indicating limited earning opportunities in the areas of origin. This distribution suggests that in Dimapur, a significant section of population who has migrated were from the lower end of the wage spectrum, with a notable presence of unpaid or zero income workers, possibly dependents or those engaged in family based informal activities. On the other hand, Kohima too, has a large share of low wage workers; the distribution is somewhat more balanced, with fewer migrants reporting no earnings and a stronger presence in the midrange wage category at the place of origin.

(ii) After Migration:

In both Dimapur and Kohima, income distribution became more balanced with 33-33.5% earn below ₹10,000, and 33% earn ₹10,000-20,000. The remaining proportion 33-33.5% earn above ₹20,000. On the whole, migration significantly improved income levels, with the workforce now more evenly spread across income categories and a substantial share income above ₹20,000.

From the empirical data, it is evident that migration to Nagaland has enhanced earnings for migrant workers in the sample districts, reducing pre-migration zero or low-income prevalence and expanding access to higher paying jobs, while showing a similar

pattern across Dimapur and Kohima. At the sample aggregate level, the combined distribution mirrors uniformity, with 33.5 % (134 respondents) each in the low and high income groups, and 33.0 % (132 respondents) in the medium income group. This equal representation across the three categories is striking, as it suggests that migrant workers in both Dimapur and Kohima are almost evenly distributed between low, middle, and high income group. None of the migrant was with zero income.

The findings indicate a dual reality of migrant livelihoods. On one hand, a substantial proportion of migrants remain concentrated in the low income category, reflecting the persistence of informal, casual, and poorly paid labour. On the other hand, an equally strong presence in the high income category suggests that a section of migrants have successfully integrated into better paying occupations, such as skilled construction work, trading, transportation, or supervisory roles. The middle income group, though slightly smaller in proportion, highlights those engaged in semiskilled or moderately stable employment.

Overall, the distribution demonstrates that migrant workers in Nagaland are not confined to the lowest income bracket but are spread fairly evenly across income levels, reflecting both the vulnerabilities and opportunities within the urban labour markets of Dimapur and Kohima.

3.7.2 Distribution of migrant workers by saving

Table 3.12: Savings of the Respondents

Saving (in Rs./monthly)	Dimapur		Kohima		Nagaland	
	Total	Percentage	Total	Percentage	Total	Percentage
Zero	40	20	40	20	80	20
Below 5000	40	20	40	20	80	20
5000-10000	40	20	40	20	80	20
10000-20000	40	20	40	20	80	20
Above 20000	40	20	40	20	80	20

Total	200	100	200	100	400	100
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Source: Field Survey, 2020-21

Table 3.12 presents the distribution of savings among the migrant workers in Dimapur and Kohima. The findings reveal a uniform distribution across all categories, with each savings group accounting for 20 % of the respondents in both districts.

- a) **Zero savings:** One-fifth of the migrants in both Dimapur and Kohima are unable to save, reflecting the precarious economic situation faced by low income workers.
- b) **Low savings (Below ₹5,000):** Another 20 % of migrants fall in this group, suggesting that their earnings are barely sufficient to cover living expenses, with limited surplus for saving.
- c) **Medium savings (₹5,000–10,000 and ₹10,000–20,000):** Together, these two categories represent 40 % of the respondents in each district, indicating that a substantial share of migrants manage to set aside moderate amounts of savings, possibly due to stable employment or pooling of household resources.
- d) **High savings (Above ₹20,000):** The remaining 20 % of migrants reported relatively high savings, likely reflecting higher educational qualifications, skilled occupations, or more secure wage employment.

At the sample aggregate level, the pattern is identical since the sample is evenly distributed. This balanced distribution highlights the wide socioeconomic diversity within migrant groups, from those struggling without any savings to those with strong saving capacity in the State.

3.7.3 Distribution of migrant workers by remittances to place of origin

Remittances sent by migrant workers to their place of origin reflect the economic linkages between destination and source regions. They signify migrants' financial contribution to household welfare and local development, while also indicating their

degree of economic integration in the host economy, where stable earnings enable regular transfers that sustain livelihoods and strengthen interregional economic ties.

Table 3.13: Remittances of the Respondents

Particulars		Dimapur		Kohima		Nagaland	
		Total	%	Total	%	Total	%
Remittances (in Rs./ monthly)	Zero	1	0.50	29	14.50	30	7.50
	Below 5000	18	9	28	14	46	11.50
	5000-10000	59	29.50	29	14.50	88	22
	10000-15000	68	34	28	14	96	24
	15000-20000	28	14	29	14.50	57	14.25
	20000-25000	22	11	28	14	50	12.50
	Above 25000	4	2	29	14.50	33	8.25
	Total	200	100	200	100	400	100
Purpose of Remittances	Food and basic needs	27	13.50	34	17	61	15.25
	Food and basic needs & Health	40	20	28	14	68	17
	Food and basic needs & Children's education	22	11	31	15.50	53	13.25
	Food and basic needs & Social obligations (marriage/birth/death)	19	9.50	31	15.50	50	12.50
	Food and basic needs & Land purchase/ Building of house/ Vehicle	25	12.50	24	12	49	12.25
	Food and basic needs & Investment	29	14.50	23	11.50	52	13

	Food and basic needs & Personal use/reasons	38	19	29	14.50	67	16.75
	Total	200	100%	200	100%	400	100%

Source: Field Survey, 2020-21

The distribution of remittances among migrant workers in Dimapur and Kohima in table 3.13 reveals important variations:

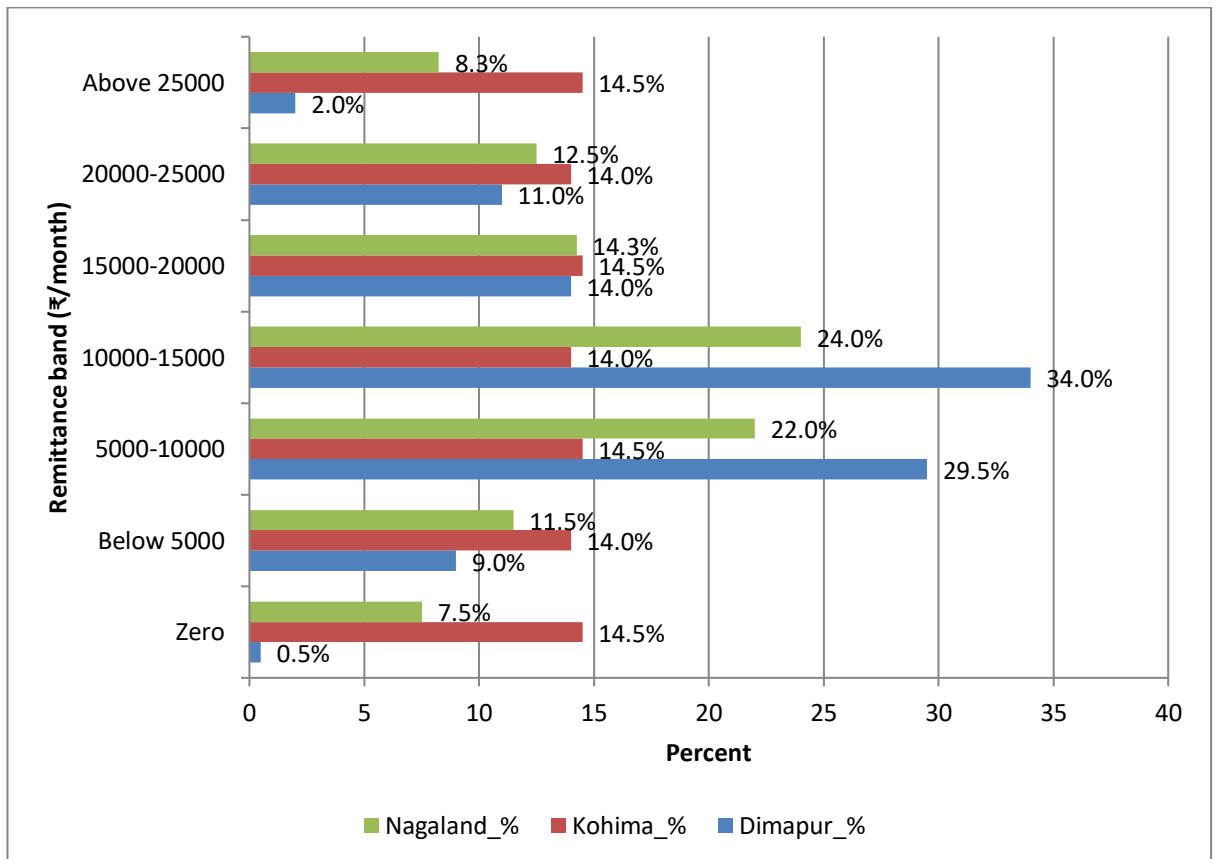
- a) Zero remittances: A negligible share in Dimapur (0.5%) reported no transfers, versus a much larger share in Kohima (14.5%). In the combined sample, 7.5% did not remit.
- b) Low remittances (below ₹5,000): 9% in Dimapur and 14% in Kohima sent only small amounts typically lower wage or financially constrained workers. The all Nagaland share is 11.5%.
- c) Medium remittances (₹5,000–10,000): Dimapur has a high concentration here at 29.5%, while Kohima's share is 14.5%. For Nagaland overall, 22% of migrants fall in this band.
- d) High remittances (₹10,000–20,000): This is the dominant group in Dimapur together ₹10,000–15,000 (34%) and ₹15,000–20,000 (14%) sum to 48%. Kohima's corresponding share is lower at 28.5% (14% + 14.5%). Statewide, this band is the single largest category at 38.25%.
- e) Very high remittances (above ₹20,000): Dimapur has 13% (₹20,000–25,000: 11%; ≥₹25,000: 2%), while Kohima shows a much higher 28.5% (14% + 14.5%). In the aggregate, 20.75% remit above ₹20,000.

At the sample aggregate level (N=400), the dominant category is ₹10,000–20,000 with 38.25% (153 respondents), followed by ₹5,000–10,000 at 22% (88 respondents). Very high remittances above ₹20,000 account for 20.75% (83 respondents), while 11.5% (46 respondents) send below ₹5,000 and 7.5% (30 respondents) do not remit at all. The

pattern indicates that a substantial share of migrants in the state remit moderate to high amounts, yet a meaningful minority is economically constrained.

Overall, Dimapur exhibits widespread and substantial remitting few non-remitters and a strong mid to high concentration consistent with relatively stable or better paying opportunities. Kohima, by contrast, is more polarized, with both a higher incidence of non-remitters and a sizable very high remittance group, pointing to greater heterogeneity in jobs, earnings, and living costs. Taken together, remittances are a key economic link to origin households, but their scale varies systematically across the two urban labour markets.

Figure 3.e: Remittances distribution



Source: Table 3.1

3.7.4 Purpose of remittance

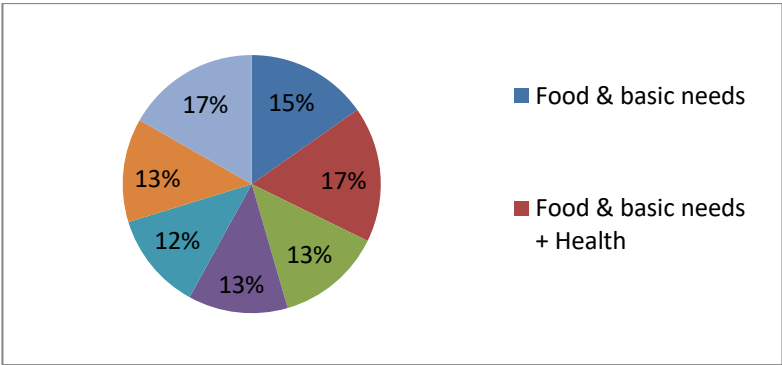
Table 3.13 above shows the multiple purposes for which migrant workers remit money, revealing both similarities and differences between Dimapur and Kohima.

- a) **Basic consumption needs remain the central priority.** In Dimapur, 13.5 % of remitters send money exclusively for food and basic necessities, while in Kohima the share is slightly higher at 17 %. At the sample aggregate (Nagaland) level, 15.25 % of migrants fall in this category.
- b) **Health emerges as an important secondary motive.** In Dimapur, 20 % of remittances are directed towards a combination of food and health expenses, whereas Kohima records 14 %. At the aggregate, this accounts for 17 %, reflecting the vulnerability of migrant households to medical shocks.
- c) **Education and social obligations also figure prominently.** About 11 % in Dimapur and 15.5 % in Kohima remit for children's education alongside food needs. Similarly, 9.5 % in Dimapur and 15.5 % in Kohima remit to meet social obligations such as marriages, births, and funerals. At the sample aggregate, these categories represent 13.25 % and 12.50 % respectively, underscoring the cultural and familial role of remittances.
- d) **Investment and asset building motives are also present.** About 12.5 % of Dimapur respondents and 12 % in Kohima remit for purchase of land, housing, or vehicles, while 14.5 % in Dimapur and 11.5 % in Kohima send money for investments. Collectively, these categories account for about 25 % of sample total, pointing to remittances as a driver of long-term household security.
- e) **Personal use is another recurring purpose.** Nearly one fifth of migrants in Dimapur (19%) remit for food and personal expenses, compared to 14.5 % in Kohima. Together, this makes up 16.75 % at the state level.

Overall, the findings reveal that remittances are not limited to consumption needs but extend to health, education, social obligations, and even investment. While the basic

needs motive dominates across both districts, Dimapur shows slightly greater emphasis on investment and personal use, whereas Kohima displays stronger linkages to education and social obligations. This highlights both the economic and socio cultural dimensions of remittances in shaping migrant households' welfare back at home.

Figure 3.f: Remittance purpose



Source: Table 3.13

3.8 CONCLUSION

The analysis of the socioeconomic profile of migrant workers in Dimapur and Kohima reveals the multiple dimensions of their livelihood conditions and the role they play in sustaining the urban economy of Nagaland. The demographic profile indicates that most migrants belong to the younger and economically active age groups, with a predominance of male workers. Education levels among migrants are generally low to moderate, which in turn confines them largely to unskilled and semiskilled occupations.

The economic profile highlights that migrant workers are concentrated in informal and labour intensive sectors such as construction, transport, petty trade, and services. Their earnings are modest and unevenly distributed, with a significant proportion falling within the low income category. While a few have managed to secure relatively stable employment, many continue to experience income insecurity, long

working hours, and limited upward mobility. Despite these constraints, migrants contribute substantially to their families through remittances, which serve as an important livelihood strategy for households in their places of origin.

Living conditions further illustrate the vulnerability of migrant labourers. A considerable number reside in rented or makeshift dwellings with limited access to basic amenities such as sanitation, clean water, and secure housing. These conditions reflect both their socioeconomic marginality and the challenges of integration within the host society. Yet, despite these hardships, the persistence of migration underscores its perceived benefits, particularly in providing opportunities for income, survival, and limited economic advancement compared to the conditions prevailing in their native places.

Overall, the socioeconomic profile demonstrates that while migration offers a pathway to employment and livelihood, it also reinforces patterns of inequality, precarity, and dependence on informal networks. The comparative insights between Dimapur and Kohima suggest that although both cities attract migrant labour for similar reasons, differences in sectoral opportunities and urban structures shape variations in their socioeconomic experiences.

In conclusion, the socioeconomic realities of migrant workers call for greater recognition of their contributions to the urban economy, as well as targeted policy interventions to improve their living and working conditions. Ensuring fair wages, access to social security, affordable housing, and skill development opportunities would not only enhance their quality of life but also strengthen the overall process of inclusive urban development in Nagaland.

Annexure 3

Annexure 3.1: Distribution of Migrants by activity (Employment)

Employment sector	Activity	Dimapur		Kohima		Overall	
		No. of respondents	%	No. of respondents	%	No. of respondents	%
Self employed	Vegetable shop	8	4	10	5	18	4.5
	Grocery shop	8	4	9	4.5	17	4.25
	Cloth store	6	3			6	1.5
	Footwear shop	4	2	5	2.5	9	2.25
	Hardware shop	3	1.5	4	2	7	1.75
	Electrical shop	3	1.5	3	1.5	6	1.5
	Barber	4	2	3	1.5	7	1.75
	Tea hotel	5	2.5	6	3	11	2.75
	Rice hotel	3	1.5	4	2	7	1.75
	Fish shop	5	2.5	5	2.5	10	2.5
	Chicken shop	4	2	5	2.5	9	2.25
	Street vendor	10	5	4	2	14	3.5
	Tailor	4	2	2	1	6	1.5
Salaried	Sales person	32	16	31	15.5	63	15.75
	Hotel helper	8	4	10	5	18	4.5
	Driver	6	3	6	3	12	3
	Mechanic	7	3.5	7	3.5	14	3.5
	Shop helpers/assistant	13	6.5	12	6	25	6.25
Casual worker	Construction worker	38	19	28	14	66	16.5
	Wood mistry	9	4.5	4	2	13	3.25
	Porter	7	3.5	28	14	35	8.75
	Scrap collector	2	1	0	0	2	0.5

	Electrician	5	2.5	3	1.5	8	2
	Plumber	4	2	9	4.5	6	3.25
	Cobbler	2	1	2	1	4	1
Total		200	100	200	100	400	100

Source: Field Survey, 2020-21

CHAPTER: 4

PUSH FACTORS OF MIGRATION

4.1. Introduction

Migration is a complex socioeconomic process shaped by a variety of structural, institutional, and personal circumstances. While migration studies often emphasize both the “push” and “pull” dynamics, push factors are those adverse conditions that compel individuals to leave their place of origin, particularly significant in understanding the inflow of migrants into urban centres such as Dimapur and Kohima. Push factors refer to the unfavourable circumstances in rural or semi urban or place of origin that generate distress, insecurity, or lack of opportunity, forcing individuals and households to seek alternatives elsewhere. These typically include limited employment opportunities, agricultural stagnation, declining income levels, lack of access to quality education and health facilities, political instability, and environmental stress such as floods or land degradation at the place of origin. On the other hand, favourable conditions such as better job opportunities and income, political stability, availability of land and housing, improved education and healthcare, and an overall better urban lifestyle pulls people to move to a new place.

In the context of Nagaland, Dimapur and Kohima represent contrasting yet complementary destinations for migrants driven by such push factors. Dimapur, as the state’s largest commercial hub and a gateway to the rest of the country, attracts a high concentration of migrant workers whose decision to move is largely influenced by rural poverty, underemployment, and the absence of sustainable livelihoods in their home states. Similarly, Kohima, as the state capital and administrative centre, provides avenues in governance, education, and services, drawing migrants whose push factors often include limited prospects in their native villages and small towns. The inflow of migrants to these two districts highlights the structural divide between agrarian origins

and urban destinations, with push factors acting as the initial force that uproots individuals from their familiar socioeconomic environment.

Understanding **pushpull** factors in the migration process is crucial not only for academic inquiry but also for policy formulation. In this chapter, push factors are analyzed in details while the pull factor are dealt in the following chapter. By analyzing the prevalence of specific push elements such as lack of employment security, landlessness, indebtedness, or social conflicts researchers can identify the pressures that continuously generate outmigration towards Dimapur and Kohima. Moreover, the study of these factors provides insights into the vulnerabilities of migrant workers, the conditions of their departure, and the broader development challenges faced by the sending regions. In doing so, the analysis of push factors offers a grounded explanation for the steady inflow of labour into the urban labour markets of Nagaland, reinforcing the need to address rural distress and socioeconomic inequalities as part of a comprehensive migration policy.

4.2 Factors of Migration

Migration is a multifaceted process shaped by a combination of social, economic, political, environmental, and personal factors. The decision to migrate rarely results from a single cause, rather it reflects the interplay of multiple conditions at both the place of origin and the place of destination. Classical migration theories, such as Lee's push-pull framework (1966), emphasize that adverse conditions at the origin (push factors) and favorable opportunities at the destination (pull factors) jointly explain migratory flows. In the context of Nagaland, the survey data indicates that political, environmental, economic, personal, and other miscellaneous reasons feature prominently as the driving forces behind movement.

Economic factors emerge as the most dominant driver of migration. For many migrants, inadequate employment opportunities, unstable incomes, and lack of

occupational mobility at the place of origin serve as strong push forces. At the same time, relatively better wages, more stable income opportunities, and the presence of an expanding urban labour market in towns such as Kohima and Dimapur act as strong pull forces. The survey results, which highlight a significant share of respondents citing economic motives, are consistent with Harris and Todaro's model of migration where individuals move in search of higher expected earnings despite associated risks. (Harris & Todaro, 1970)

Environmental factors also hold significant importance. Migrants often originate from regions facing ecological stress, resource scarcity, or vulnerability to natural hazards. Environmental pressures, particularly in agrarian economies, can undermine household livelihoods and contribute to rural outmigration. The data from Nagaland indicates that more than one fifth of respondents cited environmental reasons, underscoring that migration is not only an economic but also an ecological response to local hardships.

Political reasons constitute another important dimension, although less dominant compared to economic and environmental factors. Migration decisions influenced by political conditions often relate to regional instability, governance challenges, or restrictive regulations at the origin. In Nagaland's context, the Inner Line Permit (ILP) system, political movements, and changing state policies towards outsiders indirectly shape both inflows and outflows of people. A segment of migrants reported political factors as part of their decision making process, reflecting the way governance and policy intersect with individual mobility.

Personal reasons are also notable in the migration process. These encompass marriage, family obligations, search for independence, or individual aspirations for better living standards. Such factors are usually interwoven with other structural conditions, but they highlight that migration is also a deeply personal choice shaped by lifecycle events and social circumstances.

Finally, **other factors** capture diverse motivations that do not neatly fit into conventional categories, including aspirations for education, religious considerations, or broader lifestyle changes. While these were less frequently reported, they demonstrate the heterogeneity of migration experiences and underline that not all migration is economically motivated.

In summary, migration into Nagaland’s urban centers is influenced by a combination of economic opportunities, environmental pressures, political context, personal circumstances, and other social drivers. The predominance of economic motives aligns with global and national migration literature, while the substantial shares attributed to environmental, political, and personal factors reveal the distinctiveness of the region’s migration dynamics. These findings affirm that migration is not a singularly economic act but a multidimensional process shaped by structural deficiencies at the place of origin and opportunities or networks available at the destination.

4.3 Incidence of Broad Push factors of migration

To gain an initial understanding of the reasons that compelled migrants to leave their places of origin, frequency distributions were prepared from the survey data. These tables show the percentage and number of respondents reporting different broad push factors such as economic, political, environmental, religious and other personal reasons. By examining these frequencies, it is possible to identify which factors are most common across different categories of migrants and how the relative importance of push factors varies with the duration of stay. The descriptive statistics thus provide a broad picture of the motivations behind migration in the sample districts.

Table 4.1: Incidence of Push Factor Migration by duration of Stay

DIMAPUR					
Particulars	Duration of stay				
Push Factor	Short term	Medium term	Long term	Very long term	All duration

	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%
Political reasons	2	3.77	0	0	1	1.89	1	3.33	4	2
Environmental reasons	13	24.53	12	18.75	17	32.08	5	16.67	47	23.50
Economic reasons	27	50.94	34	53.12	24	45.28	14	46.67	99	49.50
Personal reasons	2	3.77	16	25.00	9	16.98	8	26.67	35	17.50
Others reasons	9	16.98	2	3.12	2	3.77	2	6.67	15	7.50
Total	53	100	64	100	53	100	30	100	200	100
KOHIRMA										
Political reasons	10	21.28	10	16.39	11	18.97	6	17.65	37	18.50
Environmental reasons	6	12.77	13	21.31	14	24.14	8	23.53	41	20.50
Economic reasons	13	27.66	14	22.95	9	15.52	8	23.53	44	22
Personal reasons	10	21.28	7	11.48	15	25.86	9	26.47	41	20.50
Others	8	17.02	17	27.87	9	15.52	3	8.82	37	18.50
Total	47	100	61	100	58	100	34	100	200	100
NAGALAND (Overall)										
Political reasons	12	12	10	8	12	10.81	7	10.94	41	10.25
Environmental reasons	19	19	25	20	31	27.93	13	20.31	88	22
Economic reasons	40	40	48	38.40	33	29.73	22	34.38	143	35.75
Personal reasons	12	12	23	18.40	24	21.62	17	26.56	76	19
Others	17	17	19	15.20	11	9.91	5	7.81	52	13
Total	100	100	125	100	111	100	64	100	400	100

Source: Field Survey, 2020-21

Note: 'F' refers to Frequency and '%' refers to the percentage of the respondents.

Dimapur:

The data on push factors of migration to Dimapur highlights that economic distress is the most dominant force driving people from their places of origin. Overall, nearly half of the respondents (49.5 %) reported economic reasons as their primary push factor. This share is consistently high across all durations of stay (ranging from 45.28 % among long-term to 53.12 % among medium-term). This shows that lack of income opportunities, unemployment, underemployment, and poverty in the places of origin, are the central pressures compelling migration to Dimapur.

Environmental factors also emerge as a significant driver, accounting for 23.5 % overall. Their impact is particularly visible among long-term migrants (32.08 %). This indicates that floods, soil erosion, land degradation, or other ecological constraints at the place of origin are major triggers for people to move. Even among very long-term migrants, 16.67 % reported environmental issues as a key factor, underscoring the continuing importance of ecological stress in shaping migration flows.

Personal reasons play a notable role as well, with 17.5 % of respondents citing them. Personal factors are far more important for medium-term migrants (25 %) and very long-term migrants (26.67 %) compared to short-term (3.77 %). These usually include family disputes, marriage, educational aspirations, or lifestyle preferences that become more relevant for those who choose to stay longer.

Political reasons are relatively less significant, accounting for just 2 % overall. They are reported mostly by short-term (3.77 %) and very long-term migrants (3.33 %), with almost negligible presence among medium-term migrants. This suggests that while political instability or conflicts may have pushed some migrants, they are not a dominant factor for Dimapur in recent times. Other miscellaneous reasons account for 7.5 % overall, with slightly higher influence among short-term migrants (16.98 %). These could include safety concerns, social exclusion, or unrecorded individual circumstances.

Overall, migration into Dimapur is primarily driven by economic compulsions, with environmental stress forming the second most important push factor. Personal reasons grow in importance with longer durations of stay, while political and other factors remain comparatively marginal. This pattern reflects the structural vulnerabilities, particularly livelihood insecurity and ecological instability that push individuals and households to seek better prospects in Dimapur's urban labour market.

Kohima:

The data on push factors of migration to Kohima reveals that no single reason dominates; instead, migration arises from a mix of political, environmental, economic, personal, and other factors, each contributing significantly to the inflow of people.

Economic reasons, while the most important that accounted for 22 % overall in Kohima, but less dominant than in Dimapur. They are most prominent among short-term migrants (27.66 %) and medium-term migrants (22.95 %), but their influence decreases for long-term migrants (15.52 %). This suggests that economic pressure is often the immediate trigger for migration, but other social and political factors gain weight as people settle longer in Kohima.

Political reasons account for 18.5 % overall, showing a steady distribution across categories. They are most prominent among short-term migrants (21.28 %) and remain relevant for medium-term (16.39 %), long-term (18.97 %), and very long-term (17.65 %) migrants

Environmental reasons contribute 20.5 % overall and are particularly high among long-term migrants (24.14 %) and very long-term migrants (23.53 %). Medium-term migrants also show a considerable share (21.31 %), while short-term migrants are less affected (12.77 %). This highlights how ecological stress, including land degradation, floods, and agricultural decline, compels households to seek stability in Kohima, especially for longer settlement.

Personal reasons, including family related issues, marriage, or lifestyle aspirations, account for 20.5 % overall. Their importance increases with the length of stay, reaching 25.86 % among long-term migrants and 26.47 % among very long-term migrants. This shows that personal motivations play a stronger role for those who eventually integrate more permanently into Kohima's social and economic life.

Other reasons also account for a significant 18.5 % overall, peaking among medium-term migrants (27.87 %). This category may include a wide variety of situational factors such as security concerns, educational aspirations, or dissatisfaction with local governance in the places of origin.

In summary, migration to Kohima is shaped by a balanced combination of economic, environmental, political, personal, and other factors. While economic distress at the place of origin initiates much of the short-term inflow, long-term settlement is more strongly associated with environmental pressures, personal reasons, and religious or social dynamics. Unlike Dimapur, where economic and environmental factors dominate, Kohima reflects a more diversified set of push factors, making it a complex migration destination influenced by both structural and personal circumstances.

Nagaland (Sample overall)

The combined data on push factors of migration to Nagaland, covering both Dimapur and Kohima, provides a broader perspective on why people move into the state's two key urban centres.

Economic reasons emerge as the single largest push factor, accounting for 35.75 % overall, especially pronounced among short-term (40 %) and medium-term migrants (38.40 %), while slightly lower among long-term (29.73 %) and very long-term migrants (34.38 %). This reflects that the immediate trigger for migration into Nagaland is largely livelihood insecurity at the place of origin, limited employment opportunities,

underemployment, and low incomes push people to seek better options in the State's urban labour market.

Environmental reasons stand second, contributing 22 % overall, which is more pronounced among long-term migrants (27.93 %), while still notable among short-term (19 %), medium-term (20 %), and very long-term migrants (20.31 %). This suggests that ecological stress such as floods, soil erosion, declining agricultural productivity, and other natural challenges has been a steady driver of migration into Nagaland. For many households, environmental push factors lead to longer term rather than short-term migration.

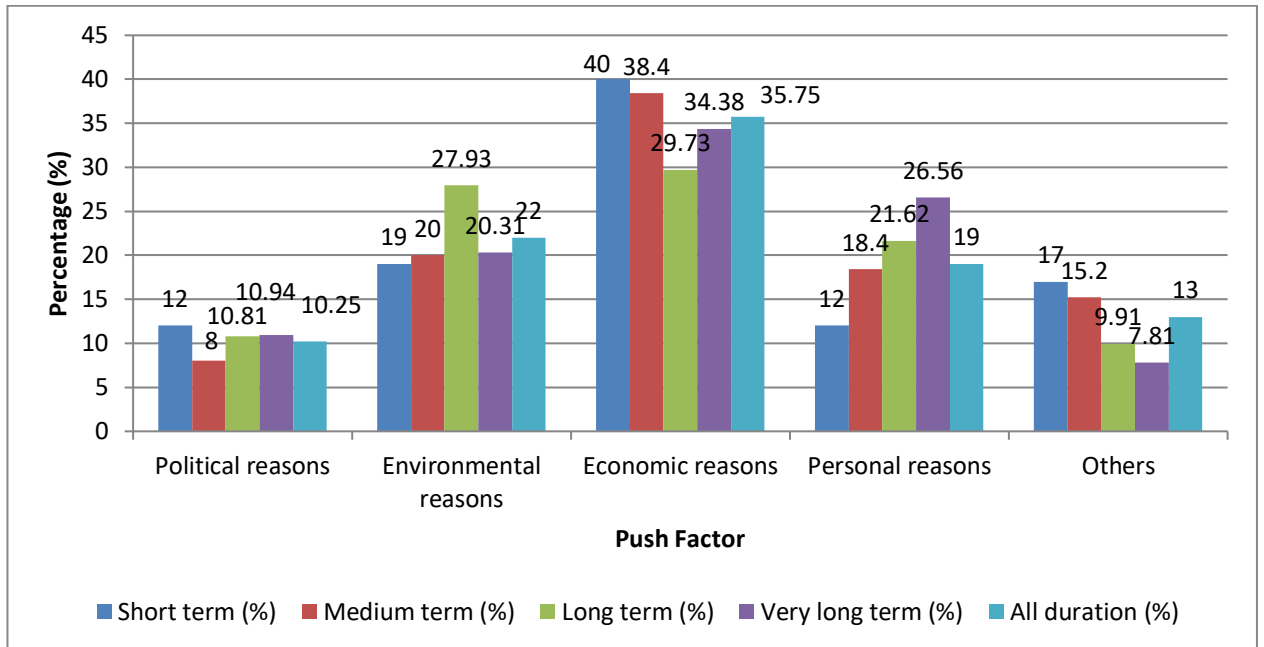
Personal reasons account for 19 % of total migration and are most important among very long-term migrants (26.56 %) and long-term migrants (21.62 %). These include family disputes, marriage, health, and education related issues that gradually gain weight in shaping permanent settlement patterns. Political reasons account for 10.25 % overall, with fairly even distribution across all groups, suggesting that political instability, ethnic tensions, or governance challenges are persistent, though not dominant, drivers of migration into Nagaland.

Other reasons contribute 13 % overall, highest among short-term (17 %) and medium-term (15.20 %) migrants, but declining for long-term (9.91 %) and very long-term (7.81 %). This indicates that situational or miscellaneous factors play a role mainly in the early stages of migration.

Taken together, the analysis shows that migration is primarily driven by economic distress, supported by environmental pressures, with personal and political factors playing secondary but significant roles. The variation across duration of stay suggests that while economic and environmental conditions push people initially, personal reasons become more prominent over longer settlement periods. Thus, migration into Nagaland's urban centres is shaped by a combination of structural

vulnerabilities and individual circumstances, reflecting both livelihood needs and broader social dynamics.

Figure: 4.a Push factors of migration



Source: Table 4.1

4.4 Push Determinants and Support Structures Influencing Migration

Table 4.2: Push Determinants and Support Structures Influencing Migration

Sl no	Particulars		Dimapur		Kohima		Overall	
			F	%	F	%	F	%
1.	Migration decision	Self	98	49	95	47.50	193	48.25
		Family	102	51	105	52.50	207	51.75
		Total	200	100	200	100	400	100
2.	Faced Difficulty in migration	Yes	91	45.50	113	56.50	204	51
		No	109	54.50	87	43.50	196	49
		Total	200	100	200	100	400	100
3.	who helped in migration	Employers	66	33	68	34	134	33.50
		Friends	75	37.50	65	32.50	140	35
		Family/rel	59	29.50	67	33.50	126	31.50

		atives/villagers						
		Total	200	100	200	100	400	100
4.	Number of visit to place of origin	Once a year	50	25	45	22.50	95	23.75
		Every month	52	26	55	27.50	107	26.75
		quarterly	52	26	49	24.50	101	25.25
		Anytime when needed	46	23	51	25.50	97	24.25
		Total	200	100	200	100	400	100
5.	Migrated with	Alone	42	21	48	24	90	22.50
		With family/relatives	47	23.50	33	16.50	80	20
		With friends	35	17.50	40	20	75	18.75
		Same villager	51	25.50	50	25	101	25.25
		Employers	25	12.50	29	14.50	54	13.50
		Total	200	100	200	100	400	100
6.	Facilities that were poor in place of origin	Education	39	19.50	35	17.50	74	18.50
		Health care facilities	40	20	35	17.50	75	18.75
		Electricity	28	14	41	20.50	69	17.25
		Housing	47	23.50	35	17.50	82	20.50
		Sanitation	24	12	32	16	56	14
		Water sources	22	11	22	11	44	11
		Total	200	100	200	100	400	100

Source: Field Survey, 2020-21

Note: 'F' refers to Frequency and '%' refers to the percentage of the respondents.

1. Migration Decision

The data on *migration decisions* to Dimapur indicates that family influence has been slightly more decisive compared to individual choice. Out of the 200 respondents, 51 % reported that their migration was decided by the family, while 49 % moved on their own accord. A closer look at the duration of stay (Annexure 4.1) reveals interesting

variations. Among short-term migrants, family decisions predominated (52.83 %), suggesting that immediate migration often arises from collective household strategies rather than individual autonomy. For medium-term migrants, the decision was equally divided between self and family (50 % each), pointing to a balance between personal initiative and family involvement. In the case of long-term migrants, family influence again played a more significant role (60.38 %), reflecting the importance of household approval or support for sustained migration. However, among very long-term migrants, the scenario reverses with self decision accounting for as high as 66.67 %, underscoring that those who settle for extended periods tend to rely more on individual choice. This trend demonstrates that while family remains an important factor in shaping migration decisions in Dimapur, the weight of individual agency becomes increasingly pronounced with longer durations of settlement.

The overall distribution shows that 47.50 % of respondents migrated by self decision, while 52.50 % migrated due to family decision in Kohima. A clear variation is visible in the role of individual and family influence across different durations of stay (Annexure 4.1). Among short-term migrants, more than half (55.32 %) reported that the decision to migrate was made independently, while 44.68 % attributed the decision to family influence. This indicates that short-term migration is largely an individual coping strategy, often linked to immediate economic opportunities or urgent needs. However, among medium-term migrants, the pattern shifts, with family influence slightly outweighing self decision (50.82 % compared to 49.18 %). This suggests that as the duration of stay extends, family members play an increasingly important role in shaping migration choices, possibly due to considerations of stability, housing, or social networks.

For long-term migrants, the decision making equally splits between self (50 %) and family (50 %), highlighting a balance between individual agency and collective family involvement. This reflects that over time, both personal aspirations and family strategies converge in sustaining migration. A significant change is seen among very

long-term migrants, where family decision making dominates overwhelmingly (70.59 %), compared to only 29.41 % of cases where the decision was taken independently. This indicates that permanent settlement in Kohima is strongly tied to family level strategies, such as securing long-term livelihoods, children's education, or maintaining cultural and social continuity.

The findings suggest that although short-term migration in Kohima tends to be more individually motivated, family involvement becomes progressively more influential with increasing duration of stay. This underlines the importance of household strategies in long-term and permanent migration, where collective decisions are crucial for ensuring stability and continuity in an urban environment.

2. Faced Difficulty in Migration

The analysis of migration experiences in Dimapur shows that a significant share of migrants encountered difficulties during their movement, although the majority managed to migrate without major obstacles. Out of the total respondents, 45.50 % reported facing difficulties, while 54.50 % did not. When disaggregated by duration of stay (Annexure 4.2), the pattern indicates that challenges were more pronounced among very long-term migrants, with 56.67 % acknowledging difficulties. This suggests that earlier waves of migration may have been marked by limited support structures and greater hardships compared to recent movements. For short-term (41.51 %), medium-term (43.75 %), and long-term (45.28 %) migrants, the proportion facing difficulties remains close to the overall average, highlighting that migration is seldom a smooth process and typically involves navigating social, financial, or logistical barriers. However, the relatively higher share of those reporting no difficulties across all categories also reflects the presence of established networks and systems that help ease the process. Overall, while nearly half of the migrants in Dimapur faced obstacles in their movement, the other half benefitted from family support, community ties, or employer arrangements that facilitated their relocation.

In Kohima, the data shows that 56.50 % of migrants have faced difficulties in migration, while 43.50 % did not. There are significant variations across different durations of stay (Annexure 4.2). Among short-term migrants, a majority (57.45 %) reported not facing any difficulty. This suggests that short-term migration is often less complex, possibly due to the temporary nature of the move and lower levels of adjustment required. However, among medium-term migrants, the pattern reverses, with 65.57 % acknowledging difficulties and only 34.43 % reporting no problems. This indicates that migrants who remain for an extended but not permanent period are more likely to face obstacles, possibly related to housing, employment adjustments, or navigating social networks in the host city.

For long-term migrants, more than half (53.45 %) reported experiencing difficulties, while 46.55 % did not, showing that challenges persist but are somewhat balanced by adaptation over time. In the case of very long-term migrants, difficulties remain prominent, with 64.71 % stating they faced challenges during migration, compared to 35.29 % who did not. This highlights that even when migration results in permanent settlement, the process often involves significant hardships, such as bureaucratic barriers, legal restrictions, or cultural adjustments.

Overall, it indicates that migration to Kohima is not a smooth process for many, particularly for those with medium and very long-term stays, where challenges are most frequently reported. The findings suggest that while short-term migration may be relatively easier due to limited integration needs, sustained or permanent settlement involves navigating considerable difficulties, which underscores the structural and social constraints that migrants face in urban labour markets.

3. Assistance received during migration

The data on assistance received during migration to host area highlights the central role of social and institutional networks in facilitating movement.

In Dimapur, friends constituted the most significant source of support, helping 37.50 % of the total respondents. Across categories (Annexure 4.3) their role was particularly strong among short-term migrants (56.60 %), suggesting that immediate relocation often relies on peer connections who provide information, guidance, or temporary accommodation. Employers ranked second overall, assisting 33 % of migrants. Their influence was especially visible among very long-term migrants (46.67 %), reflecting the crucial role of job opportunities and employer sponsorship in ensuring sustainable settlement over time. Family, relatives, and villagers accounted for 29.50 % of total assistance, with their support being more prominent among medium-term migrants (37.50 %) and long-term migrants (33.96 %). This indicates that household and kinship ties remain important, particularly in consolidating longer stays. The pattern suggests that while friends play a decisive role in the initial stages of migration, employers become increasingly central for those who settle permanently, and family support sustains medium to long-term migration strategies. Collectively, these findings underscore the layered nature of support networks that migrants depend upon, varying according to the duration of their stay.

In **Kohima**, the analysis of assistance received during migration shows that support networks play a crucial role, where 34 % of migrants received help from employers, 33.50 % from family/relatives/villagers, and 32.50 % from friends. The distribution indicates a relatively balanced reliance on workplace, kinship, and friendship networks, with slight variations across durations of stay. The findings suggest that while short-term migration depends heavily on friends and employers, long-term and permanent settlement increasingly relies on family and kinship ties, underscoring the enduring importance of social capital in sustaining migrant life in Kohima.

Across categories ((Annexure 4.3), among short-term migrants, friends provided the highest level of assistance (40.43 %), followed by employers (36.17 %) and family, relatives, or villagers (23.40 %). This suggests that for short-term mobility, immediate social connections and work place related support are most critical, while family

involvement is comparatively limited. In contrast, among medium-term migrants, the dominant source of help comes from family, relatives, or villagers (36.07 %), followed closely by friends (34.43 %), and employers (29.51 %). This indicates that as the duration of stay increases, the reliance on family and kinship networks becomes more significant in facilitating adjustment and settlement.

For long-term migrants, employers once again emerge as the most important source of assistance (37.93 %), with family/relatives/villagers and friends contributing equally (31.03 % each). This pattern suggests that sustained migration is supported by a combination of workplace opportunities and social networks, highlighting the dual importance of economic and relational ties in facilitating long-term stays. Among very long-term migrants, however, family, relatives, or villagers dominate as the main source of help (47.06 %), compared to 32.35 % for employers and only 20.59 % for friends. This reflects that permanent or near permanent migration tends to be embedded within kinship and familial networks, which play a decisive role in ensuring long-term integration in the host society.

The data on who helped migrants during their movement into **Nagaland** highlights the strong role of social networks alongside employers. At the overall level, friends are the most important source of support, assisting 35 % of respondents, followed closely by employers (33.5 %) and family/relatives/villagers (31.5 %). This distribution shows that migration is facilitated through a combination of personal connections, workplace arrangements, and kinship ties.

For duration of stay categories (Annexure 4.3), short-term migrants, friends dominate as the main helpers (49 %), while employers supported 33 % and family/relatives/villagers 18 %. This indicates that those migrating for a shorter duration rely more on friendships and peer networks, which may provide immediate information, contacts, and short-term assistance in reaching Nagaland.

Among medium-term migrants, family, relatives, and villagers play a stronger role (36.8 %), surpassing both friends (32 %) and employers (31.2 %). This pattern suggests that as the intended stay becomes longer, family and kinship ties become more crucial in facilitating migration, reflecting the importance of collective household strategies.

For long-term migrants, the support is more evenly distributed, with friends (34.24 %), employers (33.33 %), and family/relatives/villagers (32.43 %) each playing nearly equal roles. This balance indicates that long-term migration depends on a mix of employment arrangements, kinship backing, and peer support, showing the multidimensional nature of assistance in sustaining migration over time.

Very long-term migrants, however, lean more on family/relatives/villagers (40.63 %) and employers (39.06 %), while support from friends declines sharply to 20.31 %. This suggests that permanent or near permanent settlers depend more heavily on stable institutional support from employers and strong kinship networks, rather than friendships, which may be more transient.

In summary, while friends are the leading helpers in short-term and overall migration flows, family and kinship ties gain importance with longer stays, and employers become critical for both long-term and very long-term migration. The findings demonstrate that migration into Nagaland is enabled by layered networks of support, where immediate peer connections dominate early migration.

4. Number of visitation to place of origin

The data on the frequency of visiting the place of origin among migrants in **Dimapur** shows diverse patterns of mobility, with visits shaped by the duration of stay and personal or social obligations. Overall, the responses are almost evenly distributed, with 26 % visiting every month, another 26 % quarterly, 25 % once a year, and 23 % anytime when needed. This balance reflects the continuing significance of ties to home,

whether through regular schedules or need based visits. Among the categories (Annexure 4.4), for short-term migrants, the highest share (33.96 %) reported visiting as and when required, while 24.53 % returned annually, suggesting that recent migrants maintain flexible connections with their home communities depending on immediate family or social needs. Medium-term migrants, by contrast, displayed a more structured pattern, with 32.81 % visiting once a year and 28.12 % quarterly, indicating that over time, planned returns become a more common strategy for maintaining relationships with the place of origin.

Long-term migrants in Dimapur showed the strongest tendency for regular monthly visits (37.74 %), pointing to sustained obligations such as remittances, land ownership, or family responsibilities that demand frequent travel. Quarterly visits also accounted for 22.64 % in this group. Very long-term migrants, however, exhibited a more mixed pattern: one third (33.33 %) visited quarterly, 26.67 % visited as needed, while 23.33 % returned monthly. This indicates that after extended settlement, visits are less fixed and more dependent on social events, emergencies, or family functions. Taken together, the data underscores that while all categories of migrants maintain linkages with their origins, the frequency of visits evolves with the duration of stay, shifting from flexible and need based among recent migrants, to regularized schedules for long-term migrants, and finally to situational visits for very long-term settlers.

In **Kohima**, the pattern of visiting the place of origin reveals important insights into the strength of migrants' linkages with their native homes. Among the categories (Annexure 4.4), for short-term migrants, visits are fairly evenly distributed across different intervals, with both monthly (29.79 %) and quarterly visits (29.79 %) being the most common. This reflects the temporary nature of their stay, where frequent contact with the place of origin is maintained. Visits once a year (19.15 %) and visits "anytime when needed" (21.28 %) are less common for this group, showing that short-term migrants are more likely to return home regularly.

For medium-term migrants, the highest proportion visit monthly (27.87 %), followed closely by quarterly (24.59 %) and anytime when needed (24.59 %), with 22.95 % visiting once a year. This distribution indicates a mix of patterns, suggesting that as the duration of stay increases, migrants balance between maintaining frequent visits and making occasional trips based on necessity. Among long-term migrants, 29.31 % reported visiting whenever needed, making it the most common pattern for this group, while 27.59 % visit monthly and 25.86 % visit once a year. This reflects greater flexibility in travel, where visits are no longer routine but depend more on situational or family obligations.

For very long-term migrants, quarterly visits (29.41 %) and visits as needed (26.47 %) dominate, followed by monthly (23.53 %) and annual visits (20.59 %). This indicates that while long established migrants continue to retain ties with their place of origin, the frequency of visits reduces, often depending on necessity rather than routine.

Overall, when all durations are combined, the distribution is relatively balanced: 27.50 % visit monthly, 25.50 % visit anytime when needed, 24.50 % quarterly, and 22.50 % once a year. These findings suggest that migrants in Kohima maintain strong connections with their native places, though the frequency of visits changes with the duration of stay. Short-term migrants tend to visit more regularly, while long-term and very long-term migrants reduce the frequency of visits, relying more on occasional or necessity driven trips. This reflects a gradual shift from routine mobility to selective and obligation based visits, highlighting the evolving relationship between migrants and their places of origin over time.

The survey findings on the number of visits to the place of origin by migrants in **Nagaland** indicate that maintaining ties with home remains an important aspect of their lives, irrespective of the length of stay in the urban centre's. When looking at the overall distribution, nearly 27 % of migrants reported visiting their place of origin every month, making it the most common pattern. This is followed closely by those who visit

quarterly (25.25 %) and those who travel back whenever needed (24.25 %). Annual visits are relatively less frequent, accounting for 23.75 % of the respondents. This suggests that a majority of migrants sustain regular and periodic contact with their native places rather than limiting visits to once a year.

In terms of duration of stay, (Annexure 4.4) the frequency of visits shows some notable variations. Among short-term migrants, quarterly visits (26 %) and visits as needed (28 %) dominate, reflecting a more flexible movement pattern since these individuals are yet to settle fully in the urban labour market. Medium-term migrants show a balanced distribution, though annual visits are slightly more common (28 %), indicating that their travel decisions may be more structured around specific occasions or obligations. For long-term migrants, monthly visits (32.43 %) stand out as the highest, suggesting that even after longer periods of settlement; many retain strong social and familial bonds with their place of origin. In the case of very long-term migrants, quarterly visits are most significant (31.25 %), followed by visits as needed (26.56 %), while annual visits are the least common at 18.75 %.

Overall, the findings highlight that migration in Nagaland does not sever ties with the place of origin; instead, it demonstrates a pattern of sustained linkages and periodic mobility. These frequent visits could be attributed to cultural and social obligations such as festivals, family responsibilities, or agricultural cycles, as well as the availability of transport that facilitates return travel. The evidence points to a form of circular migration where the movement between destination and origin is not onetime but continuous, reinforcing the social and economic interdependence between migrants and their native places.

5. Migration companions

The analysis of migration companions in Dimapur shows that the decision to move is often embedded within social ties, though the nature of these associations varies across the duration of stay. Overall, the most common pattern was migrating with people

from the same village (25.50 %), followed by family or relatives (23.50 %), while 21 % reported migrating alone. Friends accounted for 17.50 %, and employers facilitated migration for 12.50 % of the respondents. This distribution reflects the importance of community based migration channels, supplemented by kinship, friendship, and institutional linkages.

Among categories (Annexure 4.5), for short-term migrants, the majority moved either alone or with family/relatives (26.42 % each), highlighting that initial migration often depends on either personal initiative or close kinship ties. Medium-term migrants, however, relied heavily on villagers from the same place (31.25 %), showing the increasing role of community networks in sustaining movement after initial settlement. For long-term migrants, the patterns again indicate a reliance on both kinship and community support, with 26.42 % migrating alone and another 26.42 % with same villagers, while family/relatives contributed 22.64 %. Very long-term migrants demonstrated a distinctive trend: the highest proportion moved with same villagers (26.67 %) and with employers (23.33 %), while migration with family/relatives and friends each stood at 20 %. This suggests that after extended periods, employers and community members play a larger role in sustaining mobility compared to individual or family initiative.

Taken together, the findings emphasize that migration to Dimapur is rarely an isolated process; instead, it is strongly shaped by social capital embedded in family, friendship, and village networks, with employers increasingly influencing long-term settlement. The progression from personal or kin based migration in the short run to community and employer assisted migration in the long run highlights the dynamic interplay of individual and collective strategies in sustaining migration flows.

In *Kohima*, the pattern of companionship during migration reveals how networks and support systems vary according to the duration of stay. Among categories (Annexure 4.5), for short-term migrants, the majority moved alone (38.30 %), followed by those

accompanied by people from the same village (27.66 %), friends (17.02 %), family or relatives (10.64 %), and employers (6.38 %). This indicates that short-term migration is primarily an individual strategy, with village based ties providing an additional layer of support. In contrast, medium-term migrants relied more heavily on employers (24.59 %), followed by same villagers (21.31 %) and friends (19.67 %), while 22.95 % migrated alone and only 11.48 % with family members. This shows that workplace and social networks become more central as migrants extend their stay.

Long-term migrants demonstrate a different trend, with family or relatives accounting for the largest share (27.59 %), closely followed by same villagers (25.86 %). Migrating alone or with friends accounted for 17.24 % each, while 12.07 % migrated with the help of employers. This reflects the increasing importance of family and kinship ties in sustaining longer stays in Kohima. For very long-term migrants, companionship with friends (29.41 %) and same villagers (26.47 %) was most prominent, while only 17.65 % migrated alone, 14.71 % with family members, and 11.76 % with employers. This pattern suggests that permanent settlement tends to be reinforced through enduring social and community based networks, particularly those formed with friends and villagers.

Overall, when all durations are combined, 25 % of migrants reported migrating with villagers, 24 % migrated alone, 20 % with friends, 16.50 % with family, and 14.50 % with employers. These findings demonstrate that migration to Kohima is not solely an individual decision but is strongly shaped by social capital. While short-term migration reflects personal strategies, medium-term migration leans on employers and friends, and longer term settlement increasingly depends on kinship and village networks. This gradual shift underscores how migrants adapt their strategies over time, with companionship evolving from individual to collective forms of support.

The data on the mode of migration by duration of stay provides insights into the social arrangements and support systems that influence the movement of migrants in

Nagaland. Looking at the overall pattern, the largest share of migrants (25.25 %) reported migrating along with people from the same village. This was followed by those who migrated alone (22.50 %), with family or relatives (20 %), with friends (18.75 %), and with employers (13.50 %). This distribution highlights the importance of community and kinship ties in migration decisions, with many individuals relying on villagers or extended networks for both information and practical support during their relocation.

When disaggregated by duration of stay categories (Annexure 4.5), the differences become clearer. Among short-term migrants, the highest proportion moved alone (32 %), suggesting that individuals initially take the risk independently, perhaps to explore job opportunities or to establish a foothold before bringing family members. In contrast, medium-term migrants show stronger reliance on community networks, with the largest share moving with villagers (26.40 %) and a considerable proportion also migrating with employers (17.60 %) or friends (18.40 %). This reflects how over time, migration becomes more structured around social connections and workplace arrangements.

For long-term migrants, migration with family/relatives (25.22 %) and with villagers (26.13 %) were dominant, indicating that once individuals stabilize their livelihoods, they are more likely to reunite with family or strengthen community based migration. The case of very long-term migrants further underscores the role of social support, as the largest share (26.56 %) moved with villagers, followed by friends (25 %) and employers (17.19 %). Migration with family is relatively less common among very long-term settlers, suggesting that family reunification may have already occurred earlier in their migration journey.

Overall, the findings point to a dynamic pattern: initial migration is often characterized by individual movement, but as migrants establish themselves in the urban labour market, the role of families, relatives, friends, and community networks becomes increasingly significant. The presence of employers as migration facilitators across all

groups also highlights the importance of demand driven migration, where labour requirements influence who migrates and under what arrangements. These variations across duration of stay illustrate the interplay between individual agency and collective strategies in sustaining migration flows into Nagaland's urban centre's.

6. Poor facilities in the place of origin

The assessment of poor facilities in the place of origin highlights the structural deficiencies that act as major push factors for migration to Dimapur. Across the total sample, housing emerged as the most cited inadequacy, reported by 23.50 % of respondents. This indicates that inadequate or poor quality housing conditions at the origin serve as a strong driver of movement. Health care facilities were identified as the second most pressing concern, with 20 % of migrants citing the lack of adequate medical services as a major reason behind their decision to relocate. Education facilities followed closely (19.50 %), reflecting the importance migrants place on better schooling opportunities for themselves or their dependents. Electricity (14 %), sanitation (12 %), and water sources (11 %) were also reported as significant but relatively less dominant constraints, suggesting that while basic infrastructure is lacking, housing, education, and health remain the most influential push dimensions.

A disaggregated view by duration of stay categories (Annexure 4.6), shows distinct trends. Among short-term migrants, housing (26.42 %) and health care (22.64 %) were the most reported deficits, indicating that immediate living and health needs are key drivers of migration. Medium-term migrants also pointed to housing (26.56 %) and education (18.75 %) as significant concerns, reflecting aspirations for improved residential and schooling facilities. For long-term migrants, education (22.64 %) and health care (22.64 %) were equally pressing issues, underscoring the role of structural services in sustaining migration decisions. Very long-term migrants highlighted education (26.67 %) as the most critical deficit, followed by housing, electricity, and sanitation (16.67 % each). This suggests that over time, the aspiration for improved

educational opportunities outweighs immediate infrastructural needs, while issues of housing and utilities continue to matter.

Overall, the data reveals that inadequate housing, poor health services, and lack of quality education stand out as the most influential structural constraints at the place of origin, compelling people to migrate to Dimapur. These findings reaffirm the centrality of basic needs in shaping migration flows and underline the persistent developmental gaps that drive the search for better living conditions in urban centres.

In **Kohima**, the facilities that were considered poor in the migrants' places of origin show how inadequacies in basic services act as strong push factors for migration. Among categories (Annexure 4.6), for short-term migrants, the most frequently cited deficiency was housing (25.53 %), followed by electricity (21.28 %), health care and sanitation (19.15 % each), and education (14.89 %). Interestingly, none of the short-term migrants reported poor water sources as a major issue. This pattern suggests that short-term migration is largely triggered by immediate needs such as housing shortages and lack of reliable electricity, which directly affect day to day living conditions.

For medium-term migrants, electricity emerges as the most pressing deficiency (27.87 %), followed by sanitation (19.67 %), housing (18.03 %), and education and health care (13.11 % each). A smaller share (8.20 %) highlighted poor water sources. This reflects that as migration duration increases, infrastructural issues particularly electricity and sanitation become more prominent concerns.

Among long-term migrants, poor water sources are reported as the highest deficiency (22.41 %), followed by education (20.69 %) and health care (15.52 %). Housing, sanitation, and electricity were mentioned equally (13.79 % each). This indicates that sustained migration is often linked to deeper structural problems in rural areas, especially access to clean water and quality education, which play a critical role in long-term settlement decisions.

For very long-term migrants, health care facilities were the most frequently cited poor service (26.47 %), followed by education (23.53 %), electricity (17.65 %), and water sources (11.76 %). Housing (11.76 %) and sanitation (8.82 %) were relatively less emphasized. This shows that long established migrants tend to highlight enduring deficits in fundamental services like health and education in their places of origin, which are often decisive factors in permanent relocation.

When viewed across all durations, electricity emerges as the most cited deficiency (20.50 %), followed by education and health care (17.50 % each), housing (17.50 %), sanitation (16 %), and water sources (11 %). The findings suggest that inadequate infrastructure and poor access to basic facilities particularly electricity, education, and health are key push factors driving migration to Kohima. While immediate needs like housing dominate short-term migration, long-term and permanent migration is more strongly influenced by structural inadequacies in water, health care, and education. This shift indicates that while short-term migration responds to basic housing and infrastructure shortages, longer term settlement is linked to the pursuit of better living standards and essential services in urban areas.

The data on poor facilities in the migrants' place of origin provides an important perspective on the push factors that influenced their decision to move to **Nagaland's** urban centre's. At the aggregate level, the most commonly cited issue was poor housing facilities (20.50 %), followed by lack of proper health care services (18.75 %), inadequate education opportunities (18.50 %), and shortage of electricity (17.25 %), poor sanitation (14 %), and limited water sources (11 %). These findings suggest that deficiencies in basic infrastructure and social amenities at the origin played a central role in driving migration.

When examined by duration of stay categories (Annexure 4.6), the results show some notable variations. Among short-term migrants, poor housing was identified as the most critical factor (26 %), followed by health care (21 %). This indicates that

immediate living conditions strongly motivated initial migration decisions. In the case of medium-term migrants, housing again emerges as the largest issue (22.40 %), followed closely by electricity (20 %) and health care (16.80 %). For long-term migrants, poor education facilities (21.62 %) were the most important push factor, while housing and electricity appeared less significant. This points to the fact that over longer periods, the search for better educational opportunities for themselves or their dependents became a primary driver.

Among very long-term migrants, education stands out again (25 %), indicating that families who have lived longer in Nagaland may have placed greater importance on schooling opportunities unavailable in their home regions. Housing (14.06 %) and sanitation (12.50 %) were less frequently reported in this group, suggesting that such deficiencies were either overcome in earlier stages of migration or became less relevant with prolonged settlement in urban areas.

Overall, the analysis highlights that migration from rural or less developed areas into Nagaland is significantly shaped by structural inadequacies in basic services and infrastructure at the place of origin. While poor housing and health care emerge as persistent issues across categories, the importance of education grows stronger with longer durations of stay, underlining its role as a key driver of long-term migration decisions. These findings reinforce the idea that migration is not only an economic phenomenon but also a response to the uneven distribution of social development and essential services between rural and urban areas.

4.5 Regression analysis of the push factors of migration:

In order to understand the determinants that compel migrants to leave their places of origin and move to Dimapur and Kohima districts of Nagaland, a regression analysis was carried out. The analysis focuses on the key push factors such as migration decision, difficulties faced during migration, social support, number of visits to the place of origin, whether the migrant moved alone or with others, and the poor condition of facilities in

the home area. These variables were examined across short-term, medium-term, long-term and very long-term migrants to capture variations according to the duration of stay. The regressions results for Dimapur and Kohima are presented in the following separate tables, and follow the sample aggregate (Nagaland). The results indicate both the direction and strength of the relationship between the explanatory variables and the likelihood of migration.

Dimapur

Table 4.3 Push factors of the migrants in Dimapur district of Nagaland

Variables	Short term migrants	Medium term Migrants	Long term Migrants	Very Long term Migrants	Total Migrants
	<i>Coefficients</i> β	<i>Coefficients</i> β	<i>Coefficients</i> β	<i>Coefficients</i> β	<i>Coefficients</i> β
Constant	2.5501*** (8.61)	2.7257*** (10.78)	1.8975*** (5.67)	2.33 (5.16)61***	2.4853*** (16.59)
Migration decision	0.2452** (2.51)	0.1923** (2.21)	0.3157*** (3.22)	0.4155*** (2.18)	0.2347*** (4.93)
Difficulty in migration	-0.1301 (1.28)	0.1266 (1.43)	0.0159 (0.16)	-0.2401** (1.90)	-0.1074*** (2.24)
Who helped in migration	0.3447*** (4.95)	0.2687*** (5.36)	0.3603*** (5.95)	0.3756*** (4.74)	0.3195*** (10.72)
No. of visits to origin	-0.2100*** (5.32)	-0.1418*** (3.55)	-0.1457*** (3.06)	-0.1311** (1.89)	-0.1631*** (7.54)
Migrated with	0.3429*** (10.07)	0.3491*** (10.12)	0.3539*** (10.49)	0.3683*** (7.56)	0.3547*** (20.57)
Facilities that were poor in place of origin	-0.2607*** (8.67)	-0.2885*** (11.72)	-0.2705*** (9.07)	-0.2921*** (6.72)	-0.2792*** (19.88)
Overall model fit	R ² = 0.8619 F-value=47.86*** N=53	R ² = 0.8227 F-value=44.08*** N=64	R ² = 0.8566 F-value=45.79*** N=53	R ² = 0.8932 F-value=32.04*** N=30	R ² = 0.8421 F-value=171.51*** N=200

Note: Figures in the parentheses indicate t-value

***, **, & * indicate significance level at 1%, 5% and 10%, respectively

Source: Field survey 2020-21

Model Fit

The coefficient of determination (R^2) for the sample total is 0.84 and for the categories of duration of stay values range between 0.82 and 0.89, which indicates how well the independent variables collectively explain more than four fifths of the variation in the migration outcomes. The R^2 values are very high: 0.8619 (short-term), 0.8227 (medium-term), 0.8566 (long-term), 0.8932 (very long-term), and 0.8421 (total sample). All F-values are significant at the 1 % level, showing strong overall validity of the models. In addition, the p-values indicate that most of the results are significant at the 1 per cent or 5 per cent levels, which means that the chance of these findings being random is very low.

Constant (Intercept)

The constant is positive and highly significant across all models: short-term (2.5501, $t=8.61$, $p<0.01$), medium-term (2.7257, $t=10.78$, $p<0.01$), long-term (1.8975, $t=5.67$, $p<0.01$), very long-term (2.3361, $t=5.16$, $p<0.01$), and pooled (2.4853, $t=16.59$, $p<0.01$). This indicates that even without considering other variables, there exists a strong baseline push force compelling migrants to leave their native places. The baseline reflects the underlying economic, political, or social hardships present at the origin which naturally “push” people towards the place of destination.

Coefficients and their interpretation

The regression results of the push factors of migrants in Dimapur show that most of the explanatory variables are statistically significant, showing their influence on migration is reliable and not due to chance.

The variable “difficulty in migration” is negative in most cases. For short-term, medium-term and long-term migrants it is not significant, but for very long-term migrants it is significant at the 5 per cent level ($p < 0.05$), and in the total model at the 1 per cent level ($p < 0.01$). This shows that difficulties have a significant impact in

reducing migration chances in the long run. On the other hand, “who helped in migration” is positive and highly significant at the 1 per cent level across all groups. This means there is less than 1 per cent probability that the result is due to chance, and confirms that help from relatives, friends or employers strongly supports migration.

The number of visits to the place of origin has a negative effect and is statistically significant at the 1 per cent and 5 per cent levels, showing that frequent return visits reduce the likelihood of staying in Dimapur. The factor “migrated with” is positive and significant at the 1 per cent level across all categories, again showing a very reliable effect. Finally, the variable “facilities that were poor in the place of origin” is negative and highly significant at the 1 per cent level. This indicates with more than 99 per cent confidence that inadequate facilities at the origin strongly push people to migrate.

Kohima

Table 4.4. Push factors of the migrants in Kohima district of Nagaland

Variables	Short term migrants	Medium term Migrants	Long term Migrants	Very Long term Migrants	Total Migrants
	<i>Coefficients</i> β	<i>Coefficients</i> β	<i>Coefficients</i> β	<i>Coefficients</i> β	<i>Coefficients</i> β
Constant	3.2020*** (14.90)	3.7777*** (9.15)	3.3816*** (8.95)	2.9514*** (4.01)	3.4651*** (25.76)
Migration decision	0.5064** (2.49)	0.0562 (0.35)	0.2085 (1.54)	0.1043 (0.42)	0.2079** (4.14)
Difficulty in migration	-0.1318 (1.39)	-0.0698 (0.40)	-0.0296 (0.22)	-0.2257 (0.91)	-0.1169*** (4.52)
Who helped in migration	0.4370** (8.52)	0.5011*** (5.03)	0.3105** (3.43)	0.7385*** (4.28)	0.4469*** (13.61)
visits to place of origin	-0.4255*** (12.03)	-0.5133*** (6.64)	-0.5307*** (8.95)	-0.4752** (3.61)	-0.4630*** (12.40)
Migrated with	0.4732*** (19.56)	0.5654*** (11.24)	0.5353*** (11.20)	0.7698*** (7.42)	0.5412*** (28.76)
Facilities that were	-0.5966*** (23.53)	-0.6291*** (12.21)	-0.5022*** (12.71)	-0.7039*** (8.73)	-0.5873*** (25.67)

poor at the place of origin					
	R² = 0.9197 F-value=36.59*** N=47	R² = 0.8609 F-value=55.71*** N=61	R² = 0.87976 F-value=62.19*** N=58	R² = 0.8000 F-value=18.00*** N=34	R² = 0.83546 F-value=163.33*** N=200

Note: Figures in the parentheses indicate t-value

*****, **, & * indicate significance level at 1%, 5% and 10%, respectively**

Source: Field survey 2020-21

Model Fit

The coefficient of determination (R^2) for the sample total in Kohima is 0.83 and for the categories of duration of stay values range between 0.80 and 0.91, which indicates the independent variables collectively explain more than four fifths of the variation in the migration outcomes. The R^2 values are very high, with all the categories, with the short-term model explaining 92 % of variation ($R^2=0.9197$), medium-term 86 % ($R^2=0.8609$), long-term 88 % ($R^2=0.8797$), very long-term 80 % ($R^2=0.8000$), and aggregate sample 83 % ($R^2=0.8355$). All F-values are significant at the 1 % level, indicating strong model validity, implying that the push factors collectively have a strong influence on migration decision in Kohima district.

Constant (Intercept)

The constant term is positive and highly significant across all models: short-term (3.2020, $t=14.90$, $p<0.01$), medium-term (3.7777, $t=9.15$, $p<0.01$), long-term (3.3816, $t=8.95$, $p<0.01$), very long-term (2.9514, $t=4.01$, $p<0.01$), and pooled sample (3.4651, $t=25.76$, $p<0.01$). This suggests that even without other explanatory variables, there exists a strong baseline level of push motivation for migrants moving into Kohima town. This baseline reflects the socioeconomic and structural hardships at the place of origin that naturally compel people to migrate. The constant values are positive and highly significant at the 1 per cent level ($p < 0.01$) across all categories, which indicate that

even without considering other variables there is a strong underlying tendency for people to migrate from their places of origin to Kohima town.

Coefficients and their interpretation

The regression analysis of push factors of migrants in Kohima district shows that several variables strongly influence migration decisions than the others. For the sample total in the district, the variable “migration decision” is positive and significant at the 5 per cent level ($p < 0.05$). This implies the stronger or more deliberate the decision to migrate, the higher the likelihood or intensity of migration. This is true for the short-term migrants. However, it is not significant for medium, long, or very long-term migrants. This suggests that conscious decision making plays an important role mainly at the beginning stages of migration.

The variable “difficulty in migration” shows negative and significant for the sample total, as well as across all categories, showing that more problems (financial, logistic and social) faced during the migration process reduce the chances of sustaining migration. However, the coefficients are not statistically significant for short, medium, and long-term migrants, but in the overall model the effect is significant at the 1 per cent level ($p < 0.01$). This means that in the pooled analysis, difficulties clearly emerge as a factor discouraging migration. The role of “who helped in migration” is consistently positive and significant across all categories, with coefficients significant at the 5 per cent ($p < 0.05$) and 1 per cent ($p < 0.01$) levels. This highlights the importance of social capital, as migrants who received help from employers, friends, or relatives were much more likely to sustain their stay in Kohima. Assistance from relatives, friends, or intermediaries greatly facilitates migration, shows the importance of migration networks.

The number of “visits to the place of origin” shows negative coefficients across all groups and is highly significant at the 1 per cent level ($p < 0.01$) in most cases, and at the 5 per cent level ($p < 0.05$) for very long-term migrants. This means that the more frequently migrants visit to their native places, the less likely they are to settle

permanently in Kohima, with very strong statistical confidence (99 per cent level); fewer visits to native place implies greater integration in the destination.

The factor “migrated with” is positive and highly significant across all categories at the 1 per cent level ($p < 0.01$). This clearly shows that those who migrated with family or companions strongly increase the chances of sustaining migration compared to migrating alone, showing that social support enhances migration sustainability.

One of the most important findings is related to “poor facilities in the place of origin”. The coefficients are negative and highly significant across all categories at the 1 per cent level ($p < 0.01$). This confirms that lack of basic infrastructure such as schools, hospitals, electricity, water supply and transport at the origin strongly pushes people to leave their villages and migrate to Kohima town. This confirms the **push factor hypothesis**.

The regression results show that push factors in Dimapur and Kohima districts are shaped by a combination of personal decision making, support from networks, and group migration dynamics. Migrants are more likely to move when they receive assistance, migrate with others, and have decided firmly to leave their origin. However, frequent visits to the place of origin and longer duration of stay in both Dimapur and Kohima weaken the influence of push factors, as ties with the home region remain strong or as adaptation occurs in the host environment. Unlike Dimapur, where migration difficulties showed some effect, in Kohima difficulties did not significantly shape push conditions across categories of migration, suggesting that migrants here may normalize the challenges of movement.

Overall, the results confirm that push migration is not only about hardships at the origin but also about the social support structures and time dynamics that shape how these hardships are experienced and their ability to migrate. This depends strongly on the social network such as help of others and whether they migrate alone or with

companions. Over time, these push factors become less important as migrants integrate into life in the host cities.

Nagaland (overall)

Combined data from Dimapur and Kohima may fairly represent Nagaland, as they capture both its main urban and administrative hubs, reflecting broader migration patterns. The analysis covers short-term, medium-term, long-term, and very long-term migrants, along with the pooled sample of all 400 migrants. The overall result derived from combined data are as follows :

Table 4.5 Push factors of the migrants of Nagaland

Variables	Short term migrants	Medium term Migrants	Long term Migrants	Very Long term Migrants	Total Migrants
	<i>Coefficients</i> β	<i>Coefficients</i> β	<i>Coefficients</i> β	<i>Coefficients</i> β	<i>Coefficients</i> β
Constant	3.5109*** (14.88)	3.0541*** (15.51)	2.5991*** (11.72)	2.7619*** (9.00)	2.9358*** (25.76)
Migration decision	-0.0750 (1.05)	0.1419*** (2.21)	0.2601*** (3.85)	0.2947*** (2.93)	0.1475*** (4.14)
Difficulty in migration	-0.1916*** (2.80)	-0.1304*** (2.05)	-0.1499*** (2.17)	-0.1634 (1.66)	-0.1603*** (4.52)
Who helped in migration	0.2831*** (6.76)	0.3172*** (8.71)	0.2538*** (6.02)	0.2894*** (4.60)	0.2914*** (13.61)
# visits to origin	-0.2100*** (6.74)	-0.2118*** (7.64)	-0.1896*** (6.47)	-0.1727*** (3.83)	-0.1940*** (12.40)
Migrated with	0.3465*** (13.78)	0.3376*** (13.62)	0.3989*** (16.73)	0.3518*** (9.21)	0.3677*** (28.76)
Facilities that were poor in place of origin	-0.2989*** (14.21)	-0.2979*** (15.48)	-0.2371*** (11.82)	-0.2792*** (9.27)	-0.2737*** (25.67)
Over all model fit	R ² = 0.8240 F-value=72.59*** N=100	R ² = 0.8594 F-value=120.21*** N=125	R ² = 0.8303 F-value=84.84*** N=111	R ² = 0.8224 F-value=43.998*** N=64	R ² = 0.8278 F-value=315.00*** N=400

Note: Figures in the parentheses indicate t-value

***, **, & * indicate significance level at 1%, 5% and 10%, respectively.

Source: Field survey 2020-21

Model Fit

The coefficient of determination (R^2) for the sample total is 0.82 and for the categories of duration of stay values range between 0.82 and 0.85, which indicates how well the independent variables collectively explain more than four fifths of the variation in the migration outcomes. All F-values are significant at the 1 % level across all categories, showing strong overall validity of the models.

Constant (Intercept)

The constant is positive and highly significant across all models: short-term (3.5109, $t=14.88$, $p<0.01$), medium-term (3.0541, $t=15.51$, $p<0.01$), long-term (2.5991, $t=11.72$, $p<0.01$), very long-term (2.7619, $t=9.00$, $p<0.01$), and pooled sample (2.9358, $t=25.76$, $p<0.01$). This shows that even without considering other explanatory factors, there is a strong underlying tendency compelling people to migrate. These baseline conditions likely represent economic hardship, unemployment, or lack of basic services.

The regression analysis of the push factors of migrants in Nagaland, using the combined dataset, reveals several strong determinants of migration. The variable on “migration decision” shows mixed results. For short-term migrants, it is negative and not significant, but for medium, long-term and very long-term migrants, as well as in the total model, it is positive and significant at the 1 per cent level ($p < 0.01$). This indicates that consciously taking the decision to migrate becomes increasingly important for sustaining migration over the medium and long term.

Coefficients and their interpretation

In summary, the regression results show that the most important push factors for migration in Nagaland are poor facilities at the place of origin, the presence of social

support during migration, migrating with companions, and fewer return visits to the native place. On the other hand, migration difficulties reduce the likelihood of sustaining migration, while the conscious migration decision (personal decision making) becomes more important as the duration of stay increases.

In simple terms, people who have migrated to Nagaland were mostly due to hardships at home, but their ability to move depends on networks and collective migration, which make them easier to integrate into the urban labour market. Once they stay longer, the original push reasons lose their force as they adjust to their new environment.

This hypothesis is grounded in the classical push–pull theory of migration (Lee, 1966), which argues that poor living conditions, inadequate infrastructure, and lack of services at the origin act as push factors that compel individuals to migrate. In the context of present study, it assumes that migrants suffer from poor access to education, healthcare, electricity, drinking water, and employment opportunities, which makes urban centres like Dimapur and Kohima more attractive destinations.

The regression results strongly support this hypothesis. The variable “facilities that were poor in the place of origin” shows consistently negative and highly significant coefficients across all categories of migrants. In the case of Dimapur, the coefficients ranged between -0.26 and -0.29 , while in Kohima they were even stronger, ranging from -0.50 to -0.70 . In the combined model for Nagaland, the coefficients remained around -0.27 to -0.30 . All these results are significant at the 1 per cent level ($p < 0.01$), which means there is less than a 1 per cent chance of error in concluding that poor facilities strongly influence migration. The high t -values further strengthen the reliability of this factor.

The findings confirm that poor facilities in the place of origin are one of the most powerful push factors driving migration into urban centres of Nagaland. The consistently high significance across districts and the pooled model, along with strong explanatory

power (R^2 values above 0.80), provide clear empirical support for the hypothesis. Therefore, *the hypothesis poor facilities at the place of origin significantly push migrants to urban centres in Nagaland, is hence accepted and proved.*

4.6 Conclusion

The analysis of push factors clearly reveals that migration into Nagaland's urban centres is primarily a response to deficiencies and constraints in the places of origin. Economic hardships, including unemployment, irregular incomes, and limited occupational opportunities, emerge as the strongest push factor, reflecting the inability of rural and semi-urban regions to provide sustainable livelihoods. Environmental challenges such as land scarcity, declining agricultural productivity, and ecological stress further exacerbate the vulnerability of households, compelling them to seek better prospects elsewhere. Political circumstances, though less prominent in numerical terms, nevertheless indicate the role of governance, regulations, and broader insecurity in shaping decisions to leave. Personal and social reasons, along with other miscellaneous factors, highlight the individual and household level dimensions of migration that are closely tied to lifecycle events, aspirations, and social obligations.

Taken together, the findings show that migration from other states and peripheral regions to Nagaland's towns is not driven by a single cause but by interplay of structural, environmental, and personal disadvantages that limit the prospects of people in their places of origin. The predominance of economic motives underlines the centrality of livelihood concerns, while the presence of environmental and political reasons indicates the wider structural challenges facing sending regions. These push factors set the stage for understanding why migrants seek out alternative destinations such as Dimapur and Kohima, where the pull of employment opportunities, services, and social networks appears more promising.

ANNEXURE 4

Annexure 4.1: Migration Decision

Dimapur										
Particulars	Duration of stay									
	Short term		Medium term		Long term		Very long term		All duration	
	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%
Self	25	47.17	32	50.00	21	39.62	20	66.67	98	49
Family	28	52.83	32	50.00	32	60.38	10	33.33	102	51
Total	53	100	64	100	53	100	30	100	200	100
Kohima										
Self	26	55.32	30	49.18	29	50.00	10	29.41	95	47.50
Family	21	44.68	31	50.82	29	50.00	24	70.59	105	52.50
Total	47	100	61	100	58	100.00	34	100.00	200	100
Nagaland										
Self	51	51	62	49.60	50	50.05	30	46.87	193	48.25
Family	49	49	63	50.40	61	54.95	34	53.13	207	51.75
Total	100	100	125	100	111	100	64	100	400	100

Source: Field Survey, 2020-21

Note: 'F' refers to Frequency and '%' refers to the percentage of the respondents.

Annexure 4.2: Faced Difficulty in Migration

Dimapur										
Particulars	Duration of stay									
	Short term		Medium term		Long term		Very long term		All duration	
	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%
Yes	22	41.51	28	43.75	24	45.28	17	56.67	91	45.50
No	31	58.49	36	56.25	29	54.72	13	43.33	109	54.50
Total	53	100	64	100	53	100	30	100	200	100
Kohima										
Yes	20	42.55	40	65.57	31	53.45	22	64.71	113	56.50
No	27	57.45	21	34.43	27	46.55	12	35.29	87	43.50
Total	47	100	61	100	58	100.00	34	100.00	200	100
Nagaland										

Yes	42	42	68	54.40	55	49.55	39	60.94	204	51
No	58	58	57	45.60	56	50.45	25	39.06	196	49
Total	100	100	125	100	111	100	64	100	400	100

Source: Field Survey, 2020-21

Note: 'F' refers to Frequency and '%' refers to the percentage of the respondents.

Annexure 4.3: Helped in migration (who)

Dimapur										
Particulars	Duration of stay									
	Short term		Medium term		Long term		Very long term		All duration	
	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%
Employers	16	30.19	21	32.81	15	28.30	14	46.67	66	33
Friends	30	56.60	19	29.69	20	37.74	6	20.00	75	37.50
Family/relatives/villagers	7	13.21	24	37.50	18	33.96	10	33.33	59	29.50
Total	53	100	64	100	53	100	30	100	200	100
Kohima										
Employers	17	36.17	18	29.51	22	37.93	11	32.35	68	34
Friends	19	40.43	21	34.43	18	31.03	7	20.59	65	32.50
Family/relatives/villagers	11	23.40	22	36.07	18	31.03	16	47.06	67	33.50
Total	47	100	61	100	58	100	34	100	200	100
Nagaland										
Employers	33	33	39	31.20	37	33.33	25	39.06	134	33.50
Friends	49	49	40	32	38	34.24	13	20.31	140	35
Family/relatives/villagers	18	18	46	36.80	36	32.43	26	40.63	126	31.50
Total	100	100	125	100	111	100	64	100	400	100

Source: Field Survey, 2020-21

Note: 'F' refers to Frequency and '%' refers to the percentage of the respondents.

Annexure 4.4: Number of visiting place of origin

Dimapur										
Particulars	Duration of stay									
	Short term		Medium term		Long term		Very long term		All duration	
	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%
Once a year	13	24.53	21	32.81	11	20.75	5	16.67	50	25

Every month	10	18.87	15	23.44	20	37.74	7	23.33	52	26
quarterly	12	22.64	18	28.12	12	22.64	10	33.33	52	26
Anytime when needed	18	33.96	10	15.62	10	18.87	8	26.67	46	23
Total	53	100	64	100	53	100	30	100	200	100
Kohima										
Once a year	9	19.15	14	22.95	15	25.86	7	20.59	45	22.50
Every month	14	29.79	17	27.87	16	27.59	8	23.53	55	27.50
quarterly	14	29.79	15	24.59	10	17.24	10	29.41	49	24.50
Anytime when needed	10	21.28	15	24.59	17	29.31	9	26.47	51	25.50
Total	47	100	61	100	58	100.00	34	100.00	200	100
Nagaland										
Once a year	22	22	35	28	26	23.42	12	18.75	95	23.75
Every month	24	24	32	25.60	36	32.43	15	23.44	107	26.75
quarterly	26	26	33	26.40	22	19.83	20	31.25	101	25.25
Anytime when needed	28	28	25	20	27	24.32	17	26.56	97	24.25
Total	100	100	125	100	111	100	64	100	400	100

Source: Field Survey, 2020-21

Note: 'F' refers to Frequency and '%' refers to the percentage of the respondents.

Annexure 4.5: Migrated with whom initially

Dimapur										
Particulars	Duration of stay									
	Short term		Medium term		Long term		Very long term		All duration	
	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%
Alone	14	26.42	11	17.19	14	26.42	3	10.00	42	21

With family/relatives	14	26.42	15	23.44	12	22.64	6	20.00	47	23.50
With friends	9	16.98	11	17.19	9	16.98	6	20.00	35	17.50
Same villager	9	16.98	20	31.25	14	26.42	8	26.67	51	25.50
Employers	7	13.21	7	10.94	4	7.55	7	23.33	25	12.50
Total	53	100	64	100	53	100	30	100	200	100
Kohima										
Alone	18	38.30	14	22.95	10	17.24	6	17.65	48	24
With family/relatives	5	10.64	7	11.48	16	27.59	5	14.71	33	16.50
With friends	8	17.02	12	19.67	10	17.24	10	29.41	40	20
Same villager	13	27.66	13	21.31	15	25.86	9	26.47	50	25
Employers	3	6.38	15	24.59	7	12.07	4	11.76	29	14.50
Total	47	100	61	100	58	100	34	100	200	100
Nagaland										
Alone	32	32	25	20	24	21.62	9	14.06	90	22.50
With family/relatives	19	19	22	17.60	28	25.22	11	17.19	80	20
With friends	17	17	23	18.40	19	17.12	16	25	75	18.75
Same villager	22	22	33	26.40	29	26.13	17	26.56	101	25.25
Employers	10	10	22	17.60	11	9.91	11	17.19	54	13.50
Total	100	100	125	100	111	100	64	100	400	100

Source: Field Survey, 2020-21

Note: 'F' refers to Frequency and '%' refers to the percentage of the respondents.

Annexure 4.6: Facilities were poor in place of origin

Dimapur										
Particulars	Duration of stay									
	Short term		Medium term		Long term		Very long term		All duration	
	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%
Education	7	13.21	12	18.75	12	22.64	8	26.67	39	19.50
Health care facilities	12	22.64	13	20.31	12	22.64	3	10.00	40	20

Electricity	6	11.32	8	12.50	9	16.98	5	16.67	28	14
Housing	14	26.42	17	26.56	11	20.75	5	16.67	47	23.50
Sanitation	8	15.09	7	10.94	4	7.55	5	16.67	24	12
Water sources	6	11.32	7	10.94	5	9.43	4	13.33	22	11
Total	53	100	64	100	53	100	30	100	200	100
Kohima										
Education	7	14.89	8	13.11	12	20.69	8	23.53	35	17.50
Health care facilities	9	19.15	8	13.11	9	15.52	9	26.47	35	17.50
Electricity	10	21.28	17	27.87	8	13.79	6	17.65	41	20.50
Housing	12	25.53	11	18.03	8	13.79	4	11.76	35	17.50
Sanitation	9	19.15	12	19.67	8	13.79	3	8.82	32	16
Water sources	0	0.00	5	8.20	13	22.41	4	11.76	22	11
Total	47	100	61	100	58	100.00	34	100.00	200	100
Nagaland										
Education	14	14	20	16	24	21.62	16	25	74	18.50
Health care facilities	21	21	21	16.80	21	18.92	12	18.75	75	18.75
Electricity	16	16	25	20	17	15.31	11	17.19	69	17.25
Housing	26	26	28	22.40	19	17.12	9	14.06	82	20.50
Sanitation	17	17	19	15.20	12	10.81	8	12.50	56	14
Water sources	6	6	12	9.60	18	16.22	8	12.50	44	11
Total	100	100	125	100	111	100	64	100	400	100

Source: Field Survey, 2020-21

Note: 'F' refers to Frequency and '%' refers to the percentage of the respondents.

CHAPTER: 5

PULL FACTORS OF MIGRATION AND THE CHOICE OF LOCATION

5.1 INTRODUCTION

Migration is not only driven by pressures at the place of origin but also by the attractiveness of the destination. The choice of location is shaped by the availability of opportunities and amenities that promise an improvement in the migrant's livelihood and overall quality of life. Theories of migration, particularly Lee's (1966) push-pull framework, emphasize that while unfavorable conditions push individuals away from their place of origin, favorable conditions at the destination serve as magnets or pull forces. In the context of Nagaland, urban centres such as Dimapur and Kohima have emerged as preferred locations because they offer a mix of economic opportunities, social networks, and essential services that rural or less developed regions cannot provide.

One of the most significant pull factors is employment opportunity. Migrants are attracted to urban labour markets where demand for workers is relatively higher, especially in sectors such as construction, trade, transport, hospitality, and small scale manufacturing. The expectation of more regular and steady income opportunities was cited by a large share of respondents in the field survey. This aligns with Todaro's (1969) migration model which argues that migration is not determined only by existing wages but by perceived future earnings (expected income) and the probability of securing employment.

Another important factor influencing location choice is the ease of accessing work quickly after arrival. In the survey, many migrants reported that they were able to find employment within a short duration, indicating that the urban labour market in Nagaland is relatively open and capable of absorbing new entrants. This immediate

availability of jobs acts as a strong incentive, reducing the risks associated with migration.

Social networks and community linkages also play a crucial role in shaping destination choice. Migrants often move to areas where they already have relatives, friends, or same villagers who can provide support in terms of accommodation, job referrals, and adjustment to the new environment. This is consistent with Massey et al. (1993) network theories of migration, which highlight that social capital reduces both the costs and uncertainties of movement. In Dimapur and Kohima, the concentration of earlier migrants creates a self-perpetuating cycle in which new migrants are drawn to locations where community ties are already established.

The presence of urban facilities and services further adds to the attractiveness of Nagaland's urban centres. Access to better education, health care, electricity, transportation, and communication systems encourages families to relocate for long-term settlement. The data shows that education and housing in particular are cited as important considerations among long-term and very long-term migrants. Thus, the pull factor of improved amenities is not limited to economic factors but extends to the wider aspirations of households for better living conditions.

In addition, employers themselves act as pull factors. In several cases, workers were brought into Nagaland through contractors or direct recruitment by employers, which provided them both a destination and an assured means of livelihood. This demonstrates that migration flows are not only self-initiated but also demand-driven, reflecting the structural requirements of the local economy.

Finally, the choice of location is shaped by perceived safety, inclusiveness, and opportunities for long-term integration. Migrants who perceive Nagaland's urban areas as relatively peaceful, commercially vibrant, and culturally accommodating are more likely to stay for extended durations. Although challenges such as the Inner Line Permit

system exist, the continued inflow of migrants reflects that the pull of economic opportunity outweighs regulatory or social barriers for many workers.

Overall, the analysis indicates that the choice of location in Nagaland is strongly influenced by a combination of economic opportunities, social networks, availability of services, and employer recruitment mechanisms. These pull factors not only attract migrants but also determine the patterns of their settlement and duration of stay. The findings affirm that migration is not a random process but a calculated decision shaped by the comparative advantages of urban destinations over rural origins.

5.2 CHOICE OF LOCATION

The decision of migrants to move to urban centres such as Dimapur and Kohima is strongly influenced by a set of pull factors that make these destinations comparatively attractive. These factors operate as incentives, encouraging migrants to leave their places of origin and settle in towns where the prospects for livelihood and wellbeing appear more promising. The major pull factors identified from the field survey are discussed below.

Better living conditions such as health and education facilities

Urban centres like Dimapur and Kohima provide relatively better infrastructure in health and education compared to rural or less developed regions. For many migrants, the assurance of accessible hospitals, clinics, and schools is an important consideration, especially for long-term settlement. Migrants often perceive that their families, particularly children, will benefit from improved education and healthcare, which creates a strong motivation to relocate.

Wider scope for business

Both Dimapur and Kohima serve as commercial hubs in Nagaland, offering larger markets and wider consumer bases. Small traders, shopkeepers, and entrepreneurs find these towns attractive because of the possibility to expand business opportunities and achieve higher profits. The commercial vibrancy of these towns, coupled with relatively low entry barriers, provides a favourable environment for self employment and small scale enterprises.

Better employment opportunity

The urban labour markets of Nagaland are characterised by a steady demand for workers in construction, retail, transport, hospitality, and service sectors. Migrants view these cities as places where jobs are more plentiful compared to their native villages or states. Employment opportunities in towns also provide a stepping stone for skill development, career advancement, and a higher standard of living, making this an important pull factor.

Closer with family and friends

The presence of social networks significantly influences the choice of migration destination. Many migrants choose Dimapur or Kohima because they already have relatives, friends, or acquaintances living there. These networks help reduce risks by offering initial accommodation, guidance on job opportunities, and emotional support. Being close to family and friends therefore reduces the uncertainties associated with migration and fosters a sense of belonging.

Easy availability of job opportunities

Alongside the general presence of better employment prospects, migrants also perceive these towns as places where jobs can be secured quickly and with relatively less

difficulty. Short-term and circular migrants, in particular, are attracted by the ease with which casual work can be found in construction sites, markets, and service industries. This accessibility ensures that migrants are able to start earning soon after arrival, which is crucial for meeting their immediate survival needs.

Expectation of higher wage rate

Another key factor drawing migrants to Dimapur and Kohima is the expectation of higher wage rates compared to their places of origin. Even though wages may not reach metropolitan levels, they are often sufficient to provide better living standards, savings, and regular remittances. For households dependent on migrant income, the prospect of higher wages serves as a decisive motivation behind the choice of destination.

Together, these pull factors highlight that migration into Dimapur and Kohima is not merely a result of distress at the place of origin, but also a rational response to opportunities in the destination. Migrants actively assess the advantages of better facilities, economic prospects, social networks, and wage expectations before making their decision.

5.2.1 Distribution of Migrants by Pull Factors

To understand the reasons why migrants choose particular destinations within Nagaland, it is important to examine the pull factors that attract them to urban centers such as Dimapur and Kohima. Pull factors generally refer to the favourable conditions at the place of destination that draw migrants, such as better employment opportunities, higher wages, improved education and health facilities, and wider business prospects. The following tables present the frequency and percentage distribution of respondents according to different pull factors. This descriptive analysis provides an initial picture of the main attractions that influence the choice of location before moving on to more detailed statistical analysis.

Table: 5.1 : Pull factors to Dimapur

Dimapur						
Particulars		Duration of stay				
Pull Factors		Short term	Medium term	Long term	Very long term	All duration
		Frequency	Frequency	Frequency	Frequency	Frequency
Economic Factors	Easy availability of job opportunities	9 (16.98)	11 (17.19)	10 (18.87)	3 (10.00)	33 (16.5)
	Better employment opportunity	11 (20.75)	11 (17.19)	8 (15.09)	3 (10.00)	33 (16.5)
	Wider scope for business	8 (15.09)	8 (12.50)	9 (16.98)	8 (26.67)	33 (16.5)
	Expectation of higher wage rate	10 (18.87)	12 (18.75)	6 (11.32)	6 (20.00)	34 (17)
Social Factors	Better living conditions health and education facilities	7 (13.21)	15 (23.44)	8 (15.09)	4 (13.33)	34 (17)
	Closer with family and friends	8 (15.09)	7 (10.94)	12 (22.64)	6 (20.00)	33 (16.5)
Total		53 (100)	64 (100)	53 (100)	30 (100)	200 (100)
Kohima						
Economic Factors	Easy availability of job opportunities	6 (12.77)	15 (24.59)	5 (8.62)	6 (17.65)	32 (16)
	Better employment opportunity	7 (14.89)	6 (9.84)	10 (17.24)	6 (17.65)	29 (14.50)
	Wider scope for business	7 (14.89)	10 (16.39)	7 (12.07)	7 (20.59)	31 (15.50)
	Expectation of higher wage rate	10 (21.28)	9 (14.75)	11 (18.97)	4 (11.76)	34 (17)
Social Factors	Better living conditions like health and education facilities	10 (21.28)	12 (19.67)	11 (18.97)	7 (20.59)	40 (20)
	Closer with family and friends	7 (14.89)	9 (14.75)	14 (24.14)	4 (11.76)	34 (17)
Total		47 (100)	61 (100)	58 (100)	34 (100)	200 (100)
Nagaland						
Economic Factors	Easy availability of job opportunities	15 (15)	26 (20.80)	15 (13.51)	9 (14.06)	65 (16.25)
	Better employment opportunity	18 (18)	17 (13.60)	18 (16.22)	9 (14.06)	62 (15.50)

	Wider scope for business	15 (15)	18 (14.40)	16 (14.41)	15 (23.44)	64 (16)
	Expectation of higher wage rate	20 (20)	21 (16.80)	17 (15.32)	10 (15.63)	68 (17)
Social Factors	Better living conditions like health and education facilities	17 (17)	27 (21.60)	19 (17.12)	11 (17.18)	74 (18.50)
	Closer with family and friends	15 (15)	16 (12.80)	26 (23.42)	10 (15.63)	67 (16.75)
Total		100 (100)	125 (100)	111 (100)	64 (100)	400 (100)

Source: Field survey 2020-21

Note: Figures in the parentheses are percentage.

Dimapur

Table 5.1 indicates that Economic Factors dominated the migration into Dimapur; leading factor is ‘expectation of higher wage rate’ with 17%, while easy availability of job opportunities, better employment opportunities, and wider scope for business shared 16.5% each. Across the duration of stay categories, economic motives are particularly strong among short and medium-term migrants, indicating Dimapur’s role as an urban employment and business hub. Long and very long-term migrants also show strong business interests, suggesting sustained urban economic opportunities act as major pull factors of migrants into the city.

Social Factors like better living conditions (17%) and proximity to family and friends (16.5%) attract a substantial share of migrants to Dimapur. Social pull factors increase in relevance for long-term migrants, reflecting settlement motives and family considerations. Migration to Dimapur is predominantly economically motivated, with job prospects, business scope, and higher wages expectation as key attractions. Over time, social amenities and family ties also equally influence settlement.

Kohima

The pull factors influencing migration to Kohima highlight several motivations that shape the decision of migrants across different durations of stay. The most prominent factor is better living conditions, including access to health and education facilities, which attracted 40 respondents, accounting for 20 % of the total sample. This indicates that Kohima's relatively developed infrastructure in social services serves as a strong draw for migrants. The wider scope for business was reported by 31 respondents (15.5 %), reflecting the role of Kohima as a district capital and a growing urban market where entrepreneurial and trading opportunities are more available compared to rural areas. Similarly, better employment opportunities accounted for 29 respondents (14.5 %), showing that the availability of diverse jobs remains a key determinant.

Social dimensions also played an important role. About 34 respondents (17 %) migrated to Kohima because of proximity to family and friends, pointing towards the role of social networks in easing adaptation and sustaining livelihoods. Easy availability of job opportunities was also a notable factor with 32 respondents (16 %), suggesting that Kohima provides quicker entry points into the labour market, particularly in informal sectors. Moreover, the expectation of higher wage rates was expressed by 34 respondents (17 %), which underlines the economic motivation of migrants who perceive Kohima as offering better returns for their labour compared to their places of origin.

Altogether, the pull factors reveal a blend of social, economic, and infrastructural considerations. While improved health and education facilities remain the strongest attractor, expectations of higher income and support from family and friends also reinforce the choice of Kohima as a migration destination. The distribution across short, medium, long, and very long-term migrants further shows that these motivations persist across varying durations of stay, confirming that Kohima continues to be perceived as a hub for better opportunities and quality of life.

Nagaland

The table on pull factors to Nagaland reveals several important aspects about why migrants are attracted to the state and how these motivations vary across different durations of stay. Better living conditions such as health and education facilities emerge as one of the leading reasons, attracting 18.5 % of the total respondents. This indicates that many migrants perceive Nagaland's urban centres as offering improved access to social amenities compared to their places of origin. Another notable factor is the expectation of higher wage rates, accounting for 17 % overall. This reflects the economic motivation behind migration, where individuals move in search of better earning prospects that can help sustain families and improve their standard of living.

Similarly, the prospect of being closer to family and friends influences 16.75 % of migrants, suggesting that social networks and kinship ties remain strong determinants of mobility decisions. The easy availability of job opportunities accounts for 16.25 %, pointing to the perception that Nagaland's urban labour markets provide employment more readily than the migrants' home regions. Wider business scope also attracted 16 % of respondents, reflecting entrepreneurial motivations and the belief that Nagaland provides an enabling environment for small scale business ventures. Better employment opportunities as a separate factor were chosen by 15.5 % of migrants, highlighting that job security and advancement possibilities also play a crucial role.

The distribution across duration of stay shows some variation. For instance, short-term migrants are strongly influenced by expectations of higher wage rates (20 %), while medium-term migrants place more weight on availability of job opportunities (20.8 %) and better living conditions (21.6 %). Long-term migrants emphasize closeness with family and friends (23.42 %), reflecting the importance of social integration in sustaining longer residence. Among very long-term migrants, wider scope for business stands out (23.44 %), suggesting that entrepreneurial opportunities become more significant in the decision to settle permanently.

Overall, economic motives (job and income) remain the most decisive pull factor across regions. While Social motives (living standards and family proximity) also play a growing role in long-term migration and urban settlement. Together, Dimapur and Kohima form a dual urban core, Dimapur driven by commerce and employment, Kohima by administration and social amenities, illustrating the urban migration dynamics in Nagaland.

5.2.2 Channel of mobility and job acquisition at destination

Table 5.2 Migrants mobility and job acquisition at destination

Particulars		Dimapur		Kohima		Overall	
		Total	%	Total	%	Total	%
Mode of transportation	Bus	36	18	44	22	80	20
	Two wheeler	27	13.5	26	13	53	13.25
	Car	23	11.5	39	19.50	62	15.50
	Flight	34	17	10	5	44	11
	Train	37	18.5	47	23.50	84	21
	Auto	43	21.5	34	17	77	19.25
	Total	200	100	200	100	400	100
Source of information	Family	55	27.50	50	25	105	26.25
	Friends	42	21	53	26.50	95	23.75
	relatives	54	27	46	23	100	25
	same villagers	49	24.50	51	25.50	100	25
	Total	200	100	200	100	400	100
Means to get job	family	33	16.50	25	12.50	58	14.50
	friends	43	21.50	45	22.50	88	22
	same villagers	41	20.50	39	19.50	80	20

	relatives	40	20	43	21.50	83	20.75
	Self/employers	43	21.50	48	24	91	22.75
	Total	200	100	200	100	400	100
Is it easy to get job here	Yes	107	53.50	108	54	215	53.75
	No	93	46.50	92	46	185	46.25
	Total	200	100	200	100	400	100
Duration to get job	Instantly	64	32	45	22.50	109	27.25
	Days	41	20.50	60	30	101	25.25
	Week	40	20	42	21	82	20.50
	Month	55	27.50	53	26.50	108	27
	Total	200	100	200	100	400	100
Did you move here for more regular/steady income opportunities?	Yes	109	54.50	99	49.50	208	52
	Somewhat	91	45.50	101	50.50	192	48
	No	0	0	0	0	0	0
	Total	200	100	200	100	400	100

Source: Field survey 2020-21

Note: Here ‘%’ refers to percentage of the respondents.

1. Mode of transportation of the migrants

The mode of transportation plays a vital role in migration as it determines the ease, cost, and accessibility of movement. Efficient transport influences both the volume and pattern of migration within a region.

The analysis indicates that rail and bus are the backbone of entry into both cities, but the mixes reflect distinct urban roles. Kohima leans more on trains (23.5%) and buses (22%) and also records the highest car share (19.5%), consistent with

administrative travel, inter district trips, and household arrivals using private vehicles. Dimapur shows a more multimodal, market oriented profile with higher use of autos (21.5%) and flights (17%), alongside strong rail (18.5%) and bus (18%) flows; the flight share over three times Kohima's 5% signals airport connectivity and time sensitive, longer distance moves. Two wheeler use is similar and modest in both cities (13.5% in Dimapur; 13% in Kohima), suggesting limited solo motorized access for most migrants. Overall, Dimapur's pattern fits a quick absorption commercial gateway with dense last mile circulation, while Kohima's profile reflects administrative and service travel with stronger rail-road dependence and higher private car arrivals.

The data on the mode of transportation to reach Dimapur shows that migrants enter the city through a wide variety of transport channels, which differ by duration of stay. In (Annexure 5.1), among short-term migrants, trains (22.64 %) are the most common source of entry, followed by autos (20.75 %) and buses (16.98 %). This indicates that low cost and widely available means such as trains and buses remain the primary sources for short-term migrant inflow, while autos are often used as connecting transport from nearby areas or stations to Dimapur. Medium-term migrants also largely arrive through buses (25.00 %), reflecting their role as a major channel for migration into the city. However, flights (17.19 %) and trains (17.19 %) are equally significant in this group, showing that Dimapur's connectivity through air and rail has made the city accessible to migrants from both distant and nearby states. Autos (18.75 %) continue to be an important local source of arrival, suggesting that a considerable number of migrants come from adjoining districts and neighboring states using smaller, flexible transport services. Long-term migrants show a very different picture, with flights being the dominant mode (26.42 %), followed by autos (22.64 %) and trains (20.75 %). This highlights that those who settle in Dimapur for longer periods often arrive from distant regions of India, for which air connectivity is convenient. For very long-term migrants, autos become the most significant channel (26.67 %), followed by buses (20.00 %) and both cars and two wheelers (16.67 % each). The decline in the share of trains and flights to just 10 % each in this category suggests that distant migration is less common among

those who ultimately settle permanently. Looking at the overall picture across all categories, autos constitute the largest share of migrant inflow into Dimapur (21.5 %), followed by trains (18.5 %), buses (18 %), and flights (17 %). This combination underlines Dimapur's role as both a regional and national migration hub: autos, buses, and two wheelers link the city with neighboring districts and nearby states, while flights and trains serve as the main channels for inflows from far off states such as Bihar, Uttar Pradesh, West Bengal, or even beyond India (e.g., Nepal). Thus, the city's diverse transport network is central to the continuous influx of migrant workers, with short-term inflows relying heavily on public transport and long-term settlement often associated with distant inflows facilitated by rail and air connectivity.

The survey findings indicate that migrants reached Kohima using diverse means of transportation, with certain modes being more prominent depending on the duration of stay. Overall, trains (23.5 %) and buses (22 %) emerged as the most common modes of travel, showing that public and relatively affordable means of transport play a central role in facilitating migration. Cars also account for a substantial share (19.5 %), suggesting that private or shared vehicle arrangements are another important option for migrants. Autos (17 %) are also frequently used, particularly for shorter distances and last mile connectivity, while two wheelers (13 %) are used mainly by short and medium-term migrants, reflecting more localized or regional mobility. Flights, on the other hand, are used by only 5 % of migrants, indicating that air travel is less common, possibly due to higher costs and limited accessibility.

The table on the mode of transportation to reach Nagaland highlights the varied mobility strategies of migrants depending on both affordability and accessibility of different options. Duration of stay analysis shows some variation. Short-term migrants prefer buses (22 %) and trains (19 %), indicating their dependence on conventional and affordable modes. Medium-term migrants lean towards buses (21.6 %) and trains (20.8 %), while also showing greater use of cars and flights compared to short-term migrants, reflecting slightly improved affordability. Long-term migrants rely more on autos (24.33

%) and trains (21.62 %), indicating practical reliance on accessible and frequent modes for mobility. Very long-term migrants favor trains (23.44 %) and buses (25 %), reinforcing the continuing significance of traditional and cost effective modes over time.

Overall, the findings show that migration into Nagaland is sustained by a mix of transport modes, where trains and buses form the backbone for interstate mobility, while autos and cars address last mile and flexible travel needs. Flights are used by a smaller but notable share of migrants, reflecting socioeconomic diversity among the respondents. These patterns underline how economic capacity, proximity of origin states, and duration of stay collectively shape transportation choices in the migration process.

2. Source of information about Dimapur

The data on the source of information through which migrants come to know about Dimapur as a destination highlights the strong role of personal networks in shaping migration flows. Family members are the most influential source overall, accounting for 27.5 % of the total inflow. Their role is especially high among short-term migrants (33.96 %) and medium-term migrants (28.12 %), while they also remain important for long-term (18.87 %) and very long-term migrants (30 %). This suggests that family connections are often the first and most reliable channel of information for individuals considering migration to Dimapur.

Relatives also play a critical role, particularly among long-term migrants where they account for 37.74 % of the inflow. They are significant among short-term (30.19 %) and medium-term migrants (26.56 %) as well, showing that extended kinship networks provide assurance, support, and guidance in choosing Dimapur as a place of work and settlement. Interestingly, their influence is sharply reduced among very long-term migrants (3.33 %), which may reflect that once migrants are permanently settled, information flow through relatives becomes less decisive compared to other networks.

Friends constitute 21 % of the overall inflow, with their influence rising among very long-term migrants (36.67 %). This indicates that friendships formed within migrant circles or during earlier migration episodes become crucial in sustaining and encouraging further inflows over time. For short-term (15.09 %), medium-term (20.31 %), and long-term (18.87 %) migrants, friends remain a steady but secondary channel compared to family and relatives.

Same villager networks are also highly significant, accounting for 24.5 % overall. They are especially prominent for medium-term migrants (25 %) and remain substantial among long-term (24.52 %) and very long-term (30 %) migrants. This reflects the chain migration process, where migrants from the same village often follow one another, building community support systems in the destination.

In summary, the inflow of migrants to Dimapur is predominantly shaped by strong social networks. Families and relatives form the backbone of information flow, particularly for those in short and long-term categories, while friends and samevillage connections play an increasingly important role for very long-term migrants. This highlights the social capital dimension of migration, where interpersonal trust, kinship ties, and village based solidarity not only reduce risks but also sustain a continuous stream of inflows into the urban labour market of Dimapur.

The source of information about Kohima reveals the crucial role of social networks in shaping migration decisions. Overall, friends (26.5 %) and people from the same villages (25.5 %) emerge as the leading sources of information, followed closely by family (25 %) and relatives (23 %). This shows that migrants primarily rely on trusted personal connections for guidance and practical knowledge when deciding to move to Kohima.

Looking at duration of stay, short-term migrants most often cited villagers (31.91 %) as their main source of information, followed by friends and relatives (23.40 % each). This suggests that immediate community networks strongly influence those who

make quicker, short-term migration decisions. For medium-term migrants, friends play a dominant role (37.7 %), reflecting that social connections beyond the family circle become more important in facilitating information flow and opportunities for settlement.

Long-term migrants show a slightly different pattern, relying equally on family (31.03 %) and relatives (31.03 %), while also valuing villagers (24.14 %). This indicates that more stable and long-term migration decisions tend to be shaped by closer kinship ties, as family and relatives provide reliable and sustained support. Very long-term migrants, however, lean towards friends (32.35 %), with family and villagers (23.53 % each) following closely, highlighting the importance of maintaining social cohesion through friendships in sustaining extended stays.

Overall, the findings emphasize that migration to Kohima is highly embedded within social networks, where information is transmitted through kinship, friendship, and community channels. The dominance of informal sources underlines the absence of formal recruitment or state mediated channels, meaning that migration flows are largely socially constructed. These networks not only provide information but also reduce risks, offer assistance in settlement, and create a sense of familiarity in a new environment. This reinforces the role of social capital as a central driver in migration decisions to Kohima.

The table on the source of information about Nagaland highlights the strong role of social networks in influencing migration decisions. Among the respondents, family members were the most frequently cited source of information (26.25 %), closely followed by relatives (25 %) and people from the same village (25 %). Friends accounted for 23.75 % of responses. This distribution indicates that migrants depend largely on informal, trust based networks rather than formal institutions or agencies when gathering information about migration destinations.

When analyzed by duration of stay, short-term migrants relied most on family (28 %), relatives (27 %), and villagers (26 %). This shows that immediate kinship and

community networks play a key role in facilitating short-term movements, where decisions are often made quickly with support from close ties. Medium-term migrants leaned more on friends (28.8 %) than any other group, highlighting that friendships provide an important channel for opportunities and information during transitional phases of settlement.

Long-term migrants showed the greatest reliance on relatives (34.23 %), followed by villagers (24.32 %) and family (25.23 %). This indicates that extended kinship ties become particularly important in sustaining longer stays, offering migrants security, information, and social backing. For very long-term migrants, friends were the most influential source (34.38 %), while family and villagers (26.56 % each) remained equally significant. This suggests that sustained migration over time is increasingly supported by bonds of friendship, which may grow stronger and more dependable as migrants integrate into local communities.

Overall, the findings demonstrate that migration to Nagaland is heavily embedded within social capital, where families, relatives, villagers, and friends act as the primary channels of information. These networks lower the uncertainties of migration, provide settlement support, and create pathways for both short and long-term mobility. The results also reflect how the balance between kinship ties and friendships shifts across duration of stay: families and relatives dominate in early and longer term migration decisions, while friends play a more crucial role in sustaining very long-term residence. This underscores the dynamic nature of social networks in shaping migration flows to Nagaland.

3. Means to get job

The data on the means through which migrants secure jobs in **Dimapur** shows the overwhelming importance of social networks alongside individual initiative. Family members account for 16.50 % of the total, with their influence being strongest among short-term migrants (20.75 %) and very long-term migrants (26.67 %). This reflects that,

at the point of first arrival or in cases of permanent settlement, families often play a decisive role in linking migrants with employment opportunities.

Friends are another critical channel, accounting for 21.5 % overall. Their role becomes particularly significant among long-term migrants (28.30 %), showing that friendships, often formed in the workplace or migrant communities, evolve into reliable sources of job placement. Similarly, same villager networks are vital, contributing 20.5 % overall. They are consistent across categories (Annexure 5.3) with a strong role among short-term (22.64 %), medium-term (18.75 %), and long-term (20.75 %) migrants. This indicates that chain migration not only encourages movement into Dimapur but also supports newcomers in finding work quickly.

Relatives account for 20 % overall, with a strong presence among short-term (24.53 %) and medium-term (20.31 %) migrants, though their influence declines among very long-term settlers (10 %). This suggests that while kinship ties are useful for facilitating initial entry into the labour market, their importance diminishes as migrants become more established.

Interestingly, self initiative or direct contact with employers emerges as equally important as friends, also accounting for 21.5 % overall. It is particularly significant for medium-term migrants (28.13 %), followed by steady importance for other categories (around 20 % each). This highlights that while networks dominate early job access, many migrants also succeed in finding work independently, especially as they gain experience and adapt to urban labour market conditions.

Overall, the analysis reveals a balanced mix: social capital through family, relatives, friends, and same villagers remains the foundation of job access, accounting for nearly four fifths of all placements, while self initiative or employer based recruitment plays a growing role, especially for medium and long-term migrants. This underscores that migration into Dimapur is sustained both by interpersonal networks that

reduce risks and by the migrants' own agency in navigating job markets, reflecting the hybrid nature of labour market entry in the city.

The table on the means to get a job in **Kohima** provides a clear picture of how social networks and individual efforts contribute to migrants' access to employment. Overall, the largest proportion of respondents (24 %) reported finding jobs through selfeffort or directly via employers. This highlights the importance of personal agency and direct engagement with the labour market in Kohima, where many migrants take the initiative to search for work or are recruited directly by employers.

Friends were the second most influential channel, accounting for 22.5 % of responses. This shows that peer networks play a crucial role in linking migrants with employment opportunities, especially in sectors where jobs are obtained informally through word of mouth. Relatives accounted for 21.5 %, underlining the continued relevance of extended family ties as a support mechanism in job acquisition. Villagers from the same place of origin contributed to 19.5 % of job opportunities, pointing to the solidarity and support systems that exist within community networks. Family members were cited by 12.5 %, indicating that while immediate kin play a role, they are relatively less central compared to wider social networks and personal initiative.

Duration of stay reveals interesting variations. Short-term migrants depend heavily on villagers (25.53 %) and self/employers (25.53 %), showing reliance on both immediate community ties and personal effort during the initial phase of migration. Medium-term migrants relied most on self/employers (26.23 %), but also showed significant dependence on relatives (22.95 %) and friends (21.31 %), reflecting diversified strategies to secure employment. Long-term migrants leaned more on relatives (24.14 %) and self/employers (25.86 %), highlighting the strengthening of kinship ties and formal employer connections over time. Very long-term migrants, however, showed the greatest reliance on friends (29.41 %) and family (23.53 %),

suggesting that social bonds become more important for sustaining livelihoods over extended stays compared to personal search.

Overall, the findings suggest that while self initiative and direct employer linkages are the single most important means of securing jobs in Kohima, social capital through friends, relatives, and villagers remains critical in facilitating employment, especially in informal sectors. The balance between these channels varies with the length of stay: community ties dominate in the short run, self and employer links strengthen during medium to long stays, and friendships become central in very long-term migration. This pattern underscores how migrants' strategies adapt over time, blending both individual effort and social networks to navigate the labour market in Kohima.

Overall the means to get a job in **Nagaland** illustrates the balance between self initiative and reliance on social networks in securing employment opportunities. Across all respondents, self effort and employers together account for the highest share at 22.75 %. This demonstrates that many migrants actively engage with the labour market by searching for work on their own or directly approaching employers, highlighting the importance of personal agency in accessing jobs. Friends (22 %) are the second most common channel, underscoring the role of peer networks in providing information and recommendations for employment, particularly in informal sectors.

Relatives (20.75 %) and villagers from the same place of origin (20 %) are nearly equally important, showing that kinship and community bonds serve as strong support systems for migrants. Family members account for 14.5 %, which, though smaller, indicates that immediate kin also play a role in helping migrants secure employment. Taken together, these results reveal that the majority of migrants depend on a mix of social capital and personal effort to gain entry into the labour market.

Differences by duration of stay shed further light on these dynamics. Short-term migrants rely most on villagers (24 %) and relatives (22 %), showing the heavy dependence on community ties during initial stages of migration. Medium-term migrants

lean more on self/employers (27.2 %), reflecting that as time progresses, personal job seeking and employer connections become stronger. Long-term migrants depend significantly on friends (24.32 %), relatives (22.52 %), and self/employers (23.42 %), suggesting that both social and personal networks are actively balanced in sustaining employment. Very long-term migrants, however, show the greatest dependence on friends (26.56 %) and family (25 %), which points to the consolidation of close social relationships over time as the basis for sustaining work and livelihood.

Overall, the findings highlight that while self search and employer connections are the most common means of getting jobs in Nagaland, social capital through friends, relatives, family, and villagers remains equally crucial. The strategies vary by duration of stay: short-term migrants lean heavily on kin and community ties, medium to long-term migrants combine personal effort with extended social networks, and very long-term migrants increasingly depend on the support of close family and friends. This underlines how employment access for migrants is a dynamic process shaped by both agency and networks, adapting as their stay in Nagaland lengthens.

4. View on easy availability of job

The data on whether migrants find it easy to get a job in Dimapur provides useful insights into how perceptions of job accessibility vary with the duration of stay (Annexure 5.4). Among short-term migrants, a majority (62.26 %) reported that it is not easy to find employment, while only 37.74 % felt otherwise. This indicates that newcomers often face immediate difficulties in entering the labour market, possibly due to lack of networks, limited awareness of opportunities, or competition for jobs.

In contrast, perceptions improve significantly among medium-term migrants, where 56.25 % said it is easy to get a job compared to 43.75 % who disagreed. This shift suggests that with more time in the city, migrants are able to build networks, gather information, and access job opportunities more effectively.

The trend becomes stronger among long-term migrants, with 64.15 % affirming that it is easy to find work, while only 35.85 % reported difficulties. This shows that sustained stay in Dimapur provides greater familiarity with the labour market and often leads to stable employment opportunities. Very long-term migrants also share this positive outlook, with 56.67 % reporting that it is easy to find a job, compared to 43.33 % who did not.

When viewed across all categories, 53.5 % of migrants overall perceive Dimapur as a place where jobs are accessible, while 46.5 % do not. The results suggest that although initial challenges are common for short-term migrants, over time, the city's labour market becomes more navigable and accommodating. The role of networks, adaptation to urban conditions, and accumulation of work experience all appear to gradually ease the process of securing employment.

In **Kohima** the data provides an important insight into how labour market perceptions evolve with the duration of stay. Overall, 54 % of respondents stated that it is easy to get a job in Kohima, while 46 % felt otherwise. This balance suggests that while more than half of the migrants find the labour market accessible, a significant proportion still experience barriers in securing employment.

When disaggregated by duration of stay, a clear pattern emerges. Among short-term migrants, only 46.81 % agreed that jobs were easily available, while 53.19 % disagreed. This indicates that newcomers often face challenges in quickly securing employment, possibly due to limited social connections or unfamiliarity with the local labour market. Medium-term migrants reflect a more balanced perception, with 52.46 % responding positively and 47.54 % negatively, suggesting that as migrants settle in, opportunities gradually become more visible through growing networks and local knowledge.

Long-term migrants express the most optimistic view, with 58.62 % stating that jobs are easy to find. Similarly, among very long-term migrants, 58.82 % reported

positively. These findings indicate that with time, migrants are able to build stronger networks, understand the employment structure better, and gain access to relatively stable or regular jobs. The higher proportion of positive responses among longer stay groups suggests that social capital, familiarity with employers, and accumulated work experience reduce entry barriers into the labour market.

Overall, the findings highlight that while the perception of easy job availability in Kohima is not universal, it improves significantly with the duration of stay. Migrants who remain longer in the city are better integrated into the labour market, suggesting that job access is closely tied to social connections, local knowledge, and experience over time. This underlines the importance of duration as a determinant of employment opportunities, where initial challenges give way to improved prospects as migrants adapt and settle into the socioeconomic environment of Kohima.

Overall in **Nagaland** it provides a broader state level perspective on migrants' perceptions of the labour market. Overall, 53.75 % of respondents reported that it is easy to get a job in Nagaland, while 46.25 % disagreed. This indicates that just over half of the migrants perceive Nagaland as offering reasonable employment opportunities, though a substantial share still experience difficulty in accessing work.

Looking at duration of stay, short-term migrants appear more pessimistic, with only 42 % agreeing that jobs are easily available, while 58 % disagreed. This shows that those who have recently arrived face initial challenges, possibly due to unfamiliarity with the labour market and lack of established contacts. Medium-term migrants demonstrate a more balanced view, with 51.2 % responding positively. This suggests that after some time in Nagaland, migrants begin to integrate into the labour market and access opportunities through growing networks.

The perception improves further among long-term migrants, where 61.26 % felt that jobs are easy to find. This is the highest proportion among all groups, reflecting the advantages of longer settlement, such as better knowledge of the local economy,

stronger ties with employers, and reliance on social capital. Very long-term migrants also hold a largely positive view, with 57.81 % reporting that jobs are easily available. Though slightly lower than long-term migrants, this still reflects a generally favorable outlook among those who have been in Nagaland for extended periods.

Overall, the findings highlight that the perception of job availability in Nagaland improves with duration of stay. Short-term migrants struggle more, while long-term migrants see the labour market as more open and accessible. The results underline the importance of time, local experience, and social networks in shaping employment outcomes, as longer settlement appears to reduce barriers and enhance access to work opportunities in the state. This pattern confirms the role of both social integration and adaptation in enabling migrants to navigate the labour market more effectively over time.

5. Duration to get job

The data on the duration taken to secure a job after arriving in **Dimapur** reveals important differences across categories of migrants (Annexure 5.5). For short-term migrants, 35.85 % were able to find jobs instantly, while the rest had to wait for days (20.75 %), weeks (22.64 %), or even a month (20.75 %). This indicates that although a section of short-term migrants can secure immediate employment, many still face delays in accessing work opportunities.

Among medium-term migrants, 32.81 % secured jobs instantly, while 28.13 % reported finding employment within a month. Another 25 % obtained work within a week, and only 14.06 % within a few days. This suggests that while opportunities exist, a considerable proportion of migrants must invest time and effort to settle into jobs as their stay lengthens.

Long-term migrants show a slightly different picture. About 30.19 % each obtained jobs instantly or within a month, while 20.75 % took a few days and 18.87 %

about a week. This reflects that for longer duration migrants, employment opportunities become more evenly spread across time frames, suggesting both availability of instant work (often in informal sectors) and the existence of jobs that require longer searching or waiting.

For very long-term migrants, the pattern shows more delays: while 26.67 % secured jobs instantly, a larger share found employment after days (33.33 %) or a month (33.33 %). Only 6.67 % managed to get jobs within a week. This indicates that for those who eventually settle for a very long period, job access often involves a slower process, possibly because they seek more stable, long-term opportunities rather than instant or temporary work.

Taken together, the overall figures show that 32 % of migrants find jobs instantly, while 27.5 % take about a month, 20.5 % a few days, and 20 % about a week. These results underline the dual nature of Dimapur's labour market: on one hand, there are immediate job openings, often in casual or low skilled sectors, which absorb migrants quickly; on the other, a substantial proportion of migrants experience waiting periods ranging from days to weeks or even a month, reflecting the challenges of competition, required skills, and adjustment to urban labour demand.

In **Kohima**, the data reflects the time taken by migrants to secure employment after their arrival. Overall, the responses are fairly distributed across categories, with 30 % of respondents managing to find jobs within a few days, followed by 26.5 % within a month, 22.5 % instantly, and 21 % within a week. This suggests that while a significant share of migrants are absorbed into the labour market relatively quickly, many still require more time, pointing to both opportunities and barriers in Kohima's employment structure.

Short-term migrants show a mixed experience. About 17.02 % managed to secure jobs instantly, while 31.91 % took a few days and 29.79 % up to a month. This indicates that many newcomers initially face delays but still manage to integrate into the

labour market within a reasonable timeframe. Medium-term migrants reported slightly better chances of instant employment (22.95 %), while a large share also took a few days (31.15 %) or up to a month (26.23 %). This highlights that as their presence in the city grows, access to opportunities becomes somewhat easier, though waiting periods remain common.

For long-term migrants, 22.41 % secured jobs instantly, while 31.03 % took a few days and 25.86 % up to a month. A similar trend is seen among very long-term migrants, where 29.41 % obtained jobs instantly the highest among all groups while others took a week (23.53 %) or a month (23.53 %). These figures suggest that migrants with longer durations of stay are more likely to quickly access employment due to better familiarity with employers, established social contacts, and prior work experience.

Overall, the findings indicate that while not all migrants secure employment immediately upon arrival, a majority manage to find work within days or weeks. The relatively high proportion of respondents reporting instant employment, especially among very long-term migrants, underscores the importance of accumulated social capital and integration into Kohima's labour market. At the same time, the notable share who takes up to a month reflects ongoing competition and structural constraints in job availability, particularly for newcomers. This highlights the dual reality of Kohima's labour market both accessible for many through networks and experience, yet still posing challenges for others, especially at the initial stage of migration.

Overall, in Nagaland it provides important insights into how quickly migrants are able to integrate into the labour market. At the state level, the distribution is fairly balanced across categories, with 27.25 % of respondents securing employment instantly, 27 % within a month, 25.25 % within a few days, and 20.5 % within a week. This indicates that while some migrants manage to obtain jobs very quickly upon arrival, many others face waiting periods ranging from a few days to a month before securing employment.

Short-term migrants show a mixed experience: 27 % reported finding jobs instantly, while 26 % took a few days, and 25 % required up to a month. This reflects the dual reality where some newcomers benefit immediately from networks or demand in certain sectors, while others face delays due to competition or lack of connections. Medium-term migrants display a similar distribution, with 28 % obtaining jobs instantly and 27.2 % within a month. This suggests that over time, access to employment slightly improves but remains uneven.

Among long-term migrants, 26.13 % each secured jobs instantly or within a few days, while 27.93 % needed up to a month. This pattern indicates that even after years of stay, a sizable share of migrants continue to experience delays, reflecting structural constraints in job absorption. Very long-term migrants, however, demonstrate higher stability, with 28.13 % each securing jobs instantly, within a few days, or within a month. This shows that sustained presence and integration into local networks enhance the chances of quicker employment, though a smaller proportion (15.61 %) still required a week.

Overall, the findings suggest that while Nagaland offers relatively accessible employment opportunities to migrants, the process is not uniformly smooth. Roughly half of the migrants manage to secure jobs instantly or within a few days, reflecting strong reliance on social networks, direct employer demand, and prior connections. Yet, around 27 % still take up to a month, underscoring the challenges of job search, especially for those lacking immediate contacts or entering saturated sectors. The results highlight how social capital, labour market demand, and duration of stay collectively influence the time taken to secure employment in Nagaland.

6. Whether moved for more regular/ steady income opportunities

The data on whether migrants moved to **Dimapur** in search of more regular or steady income opportunities clearly highlights the economic motivation behind migration. Among short-term migrants (Annexure 5.6), 60.38 % responded

affirmatively, while 39.62 % said “somewhat.” This indicates that even those who migrated for shorter durations largely viewed Dimapur as a place offering steady income, though a considerable share still had partial or mixed expectations.

Medium-term migrants show a similar pattern, with 57.81 % agreeing that they moved for steady income and 42.19 % indicating “somewhat.” The balance here suggests that as migrants extend their stay, they continue to see income regularity as an important driver, though many may not always experience it in full.

For long-term migrants, the trend shifts slightly, with 52.83 % responding “somewhat” and 47.17 % answering “yes.” This reflects that while income opportunities are a key pull factor, long-term migrants may face challenges such as job instability, competition, or lower than expected wages, leading them to qualify their responses.

Very long-term migrants show an even split: 50 % answered “yes” and 50 % “somewhat.” This indicates that those who have settled permanently or for very long durations do benefit from steady income, but at the same time many continue to perceive income opportunities as inconsistent, possibly due to fluctuations in the urban labour market or the prevalence of informal work.

Overall, more than half of all migrants (54.5 %) affirmed that their migration to Dimapur was motivated by the search for regular and steady income, while 45.5 % reported “somewhat.” Notably, none of the respondents across any category answered “no,” underscoring that income opportunities whether fully realized or partially remain the most fundamental reason for migration into Dimapur. This finding reinforces the centrality of economic factors in migration decisions, while also pointing to the mixed realities of urban employment where expectations of stability are only partially met.

In **Kohima** the data highlights the centrality of income stability as a motivating factor in migration decisions. Interestingly, all respondents acknowledged income

opportunities as a reason for moving, with none reporting “No” as an option. This underscores that economic security is a universal driver of migration to Kohima.

At the aggregate level, the responses are almost evenly divided: 49.5 % of respondents said “Yes,” while 50.5 % indicated “Somewhat.” This shows that while half of the migrants directly identify steady income as their primary motivation, the other half acknowledge it as a contributing factor alongside other reasons, such as better living conditions, access to facilities, or proximity to social networks.

Short-term migrants show the highest proportion of “Somewhat” responses (55.32 %), suggesting that those who recently moved often combine the pursuit of income stability with other immediate factors such as social networks, survival needs, or trial employment. Medium-term migrants present a clearer focus on steady income, with 57.38 % saying “Yes.” This reflects that as migrants begin to stabilize their lives in Kohima, income regularity becomes a central reason for their continued stay.

Long-term migrants are evenly divided, with 50 % saying “Yes” and 50 % “Somewhat.” This balance indicates that while income remains important, other motivations like social integration, family presence, or business opportunities become equally significant over time. Very long-term migrants lean more towards “Somewhat” (58.82 %), showing that while income stability remains a factor, long-term settlers increasingly evaluate migration through a wider lens that includes quality of life, social ties, and community belonging.

Overall, the findings highlight that the desire for regular and steady income is a universal factor shaping migration to Kohima. However, its intensity varies with the duration of stay: newer and medium-term migrants emphasize it more strongly as their primary driver, while long-term and very long-term migrants recognize it as one among multiple motivations. This illustrates how the pursuit of income security initially motivates movement but gradually integrates with broader socioeconomic and personal considerations in sustaining migration over time.

Overall, in **Nagaland** it underscores the strong role of economic stability in shaping migration flows to the state. At the overall level, just over half of the respondents (52 %) stated “Yes,” while 48 % responded “Somewhat.” Importantly, no respondent rejected the factor outright, which highlights that steady income is a universal motivation for migration, though it may combine with other drivers such as access to better facilities, education, or social connections.

Among short-term migrants, 53 % agreed directly that they moved for steady income, while 47 % said “somewhat.” This shows that even at the initial stages of migration, income stability is a dominant consideration, though not always the sole factor. Medium-term migrants recorded the highest share of “Yes” responses (57.6 %), suggesting that during this phase, regular income becomes more clearly central as they settle and adapt to urban life in Nagaland.

In contrast, long-term migrants showed a more balanced distribution, with 48.65 % stating “Yes” and 51.35 % indicating “Somewhat.” This reflects how motivations broaden over time, where while income stability remains vital, other factors such as family integration, housing, or community belonging gain equal importance. Very long-term migrants lean even more towards “Somewhat” (54.69 %), with only 45.31 % stating “Yes.” This suggests that over time, while the search for steady income continues to matter, migrants increasingly assess their stay in terms of overall livelihood security and quality of life beyond purely financial considerations.

Overall, the findings make it clear that the pursuit of steady income is a core element of migration to Nagaland. However, the intensity of this motivation shifts with the length of staying strongest among medium-term migrants and less pronounced among very long-term migrants. This demonstrates that while economic security initially drives migration, over time it becomes integrated with a wider set of social and personal factors that sustain migrants’ lives in Nagaland.

5.3 REGRESSION ANALYSIS OF THE PULL FACTORS OF MIGRATION

To examine the extent to which various destination related incentives influence migration decisions, a regression analysis is carried out on the above identified pull factors. This method allows for the quantification of the relative impact of factors such as better living conditions, employment opportunities, higher wages, and business prospects on the likelihood of migration. Unlike simple frequency distributions, regression analysis provides statistical evidence on the strength and significance of each factor, thereby highlighting which variables play the most decisive role in attracting migrants to urban centres of Nagaland.

This section presents the regression results for the pull factors of migrant workers in Dimapur and Kohima districts separately and followed by sample aggregate that may represent the State. The analysis is carried out separately by duration of stay for short-term, medium-term, long-term, and very long-term migrants, and then for the pooled sample of the district (all 200 respondents each). The dependent variable in the models representing the pull strength of the destination, while the independent variables include mode of transportation, source of information, means to get a job, perception of easy job availability, duration to get a job, and job satisfaction.

(i) Dimapur:

Table 5.3 Pull factors of the migrant workers of Dimapur district

Variables	Short term migrants	Medium term Migrants	Long term Migrants	Very Long term Migrants	Total Migrants
	<i>Coefficients</i> β	<i>Coefficients</i> β	<i>Coefficients</i> β	<i>Coefficients</i> β	<i>Coefficients</i> β
Constant	1.4065* (2.32)	1.4421** (3.02)	1.2175* (2.16)	1.2419 (1.11)	1.4029*** (4.94)
Mode of Transportation	0.5105*** (8.60)	0.5568*** (11.34)	0.5546*** (8.23)	0.6880*** (7.35)	0.5590*** (19.78)

Source of info about Dmr	-0.4131*** (4.52)	-0.4241*** (5.36)	-0.4586*** (4.82)	-0.4755** (3.23)	-0.4429*** (10.07)
Means to get job	0.5103*** (6.72)	0.4367*** (7.14)	0.4668*** (5.87)	0.4939*** (4.03)	0.4683*** (13.06)
Is it easy to get job here	0.9111*** (4.18)	0.8730*** (4.90)	1.2414*** (5.86)	0.7913* (2.03)	0.9285*** (9.26)
Duration to get job	-0.7536*** (8.38)	-0.6551*** (9.25)	-0.7162*** (8.64)	-0.8880*** (6.02)	-0.7131*** (17.32)
Migrated for steady income	0.0429 (0.20)	0.0243 (0.14)	-0.0762 (0.40)	0.3145 (1.04)	0.0341*** (0.34)
Over all model fit	R ² = 0.8312 F-value=37.76*** N=53	R ² = 0.8781 F-value=68.44*** N=64	R ² = 0.8413 F-value=40.65*** N=53	R ² = 0.8379 F-value=19.82*** N=30	R ² = 0.8420 F-value=171.48*** N=200

Note: Figures in the parentheses indicate t-value

***, **, & * indicate significance level at 1%, 5% and 10%, respectively.

The regression result show very high explanatory power, with R² values ranging between 0.83 and 0.88 across different groups. The R² value for the district show that over 84 % of the variation in the dependent variable is explained by the selected pull factors, which makes the model highly reliable. The F-values are also significant at the 1 % level in all cases, confirming that the overall models are statistically valid.

The constant term is positive in all models. For short-term migrants the coefficient is 1.4065 (t=2.32, p<0.05), for medium-term it is 1.4421 (t=3.02, p<0.01), for long-term it is 1.2175 (t=2.16, p<0.05), and for the pooled sample it is 1.4029 (t=4.94, p<0.01). These values are statistically significant, suggesting that even in the absence of explanatory variables, Dimapur has a natural pull as a destination. This may be linked to its status as a commercial hub, offering better markets, facilities, and job opportunities compared to surrounding rural areas. For very long-term migrants, however, the constant is positive but not significant (t=1.11, p>0.10). This implies that for those who have lived in Dimapur for a very long period, the baseline attractiveness of the city is less

important, and their continued stay is determined more by specific variables such as employment opportunities, transportation, or social networks.

The regression analysis of the pull factors influencing migration to Dimapur district shows that several variables have statistically significant impact on the decision of migrant workers. Among the explanatory variables, mode of transportation, means to get a job, and ease of getting a job emerge as the strongest positive predictors, each showing highly significant coefficients ($p < 0.01$). This means they contribute substantially to the attraction of migrants. For instance, the ease of getting a job ($\beta = 0.91$ for short-term, $\beta = 0.87$ for medium-term, $\beta = 1.24$ for long-term migrants) shows consistently strong effects, all significant at the 1 % level, highlighting the decisive role of job accessibility in migration decisions. Similarly, the means to secure employment and transportation facilities also exert a powerful and positive influence, each being significant at the 1 % level across categories.

On the other hand, the duration to get a job displays a negative and significant relationship (β ranging from -0.65 to -0.88 ; $p < 0.01$), suggesting that the longer it takes to secure employment, the less attractive Dimapur becomes for migrants. The source of information about Dimapur also records a significant negative coefficient ($p < 0.01$), which indicates that reliance on informal or limited information channels may discourage migration or reduce the effectiveness of pull forces. The variable on job satisfaction, however, is not statistically significant in most models ($p > 0.10$), implying that satisfaction at the workplace does not play a major role in the initial migration decision.

Overall, the results indicate that economic opportunities and ease of access to employment, supported by transportation and networks, are the most significant pull factors drawing migrants to Dimapur. The consistently high R^2 values (83–88 %) and strongly significant F-values confirm that the regression models are both reliable and meaningful in explaining the dynamics of pull factors in this urban labour market.

(ii) Kohima

Table 5.4. Pull factors of the migrant workers of Kohima district

Variables	Short term migrants	Medium term Migrants	Long term Migrants	Very Long term Migrants	Total Migrants
	<i>Coefficients</i> β	<i>Coefficients</i> β	<i>Coefficients</i> β	<i>Coefficients</i> β	<i>Coefficients</i> β
Constant	1.66648*** (2.18)	2.0947*** (2.91)	0.426 (0.55)	2.381*** (2.76)	1.4470*** (3.90)
Mode of Transportation	0.61701*** (7.41)	0.6306*** (10.31)	0.641*** (9.45)	0.551*** (6.62)	0.6097*** (17.65)
Source of information	-0.50114*** (4.54)	-0.5353*** (5.13)	-0.343*** (3.44)	-0.681*** (5.60)	-0.4665*** (9.20)
Means to get job	0.33977*** (3.70)	0.3588*** (4.46)	0.298*** (3.55)	0.431*** (4.57)	0.3697*** (8.79)
Is it easy to get job here	0.93584*** (3.93)	0.8040*** (3.86)	0.876*** (3.73)	1.045*** (3.82)	0.8608*** (7.52)
Duration to get job	-0.64253*** (5.54)	-0.7024*** (6.92)	-0.308*** (2.78)	-0.627*** (5.66)	-0.5606*** (10.75)
Migrated for steady income	0.22083 (0.91)	0.0348 (0.15)	0.252 (1.09)	-0.208 (0.76)	0.1240 (1.08)
Over all model fit	R ² = 0.8186 F-value=30.09*** N=47	R ² = 0.8108 F-value=38.58 N=61	R ² = 0.7775 F-value=29.70*** N=58	R ² = 0.8412 F-value=23.83*** N=34	R ² = 0.7891 F-value=120.36*** N=200

Note: Figures in the parentheses indicate t-value

***, **, & * indicate significance level at 1%, 5% and 10%, respectively.

The regression results for the pull factors of migrant workers in Kohima district indicate that the models are highly robust, with R² values ranging between 0.77 and 0.84, suggesting that more than 77 to 84 % of the variation in migration pull factors is explained by the variables included in the model. The F-statistics across all models are statistically significant at the 1 % level ($p < 0.01$, or 99 % confidence), confirming the overall reliability of the models.

The constant is positive and statistically significant for short-term ($\beta=1.666$, $t=2.18$, $p<0.05$), medium-term ($\beta=2.0947$, $t=2.91$, $p<0.01$), very long-term migrants ($\beta=2.381$, $t=2.76$, $p<0.01$), and the pooled sample ($\beta=1.4470$, $t=3.90$, $p<0.01$). This

means that even without considering the explanatory variables, Kohima shows a basic level of attractiveness for migrants. For long-term migrants, however, the constant is positive but not statistically significant ($\beta=0.426$, $t=0.55$, $p>0.10$), suggesting that their decision to migrate is explained more by the specific pull factors than by a baseline attraction.

Examining the coefficients, several variables emerge as strong and statistically significant pull factors. Mode of transportation is highly significant at the 1 % level across all categories, with positive coefficients ($\beta = 0.61$), showing that better accessibility and connectivity strongly enhance the likelihood of migration to Kohima. Similarly, means to get a job also exerts a positive and significant influence ($\beta =0.30-0.43$, $p < 0.01$), implying that access to networks or mechanisms for job acquisition is an important attraction. The variable ease of getting a job has large positive coefficients ($\beta = 0.80-1.04$), significant at the 1 % level, confirming that migrants are drawn by the perception of quick and steady employment opportunities in Kohima. Conversely, duration to get a job shows significant negative coefficients ($\beta = -0.30$ to -0.70 , $p < 0.01$), meaning that longer waiting times discourage migration. The source of information about Dimapur displays negative but highly significant coefficients across all durations ($p < 0.01$), suggesting that reliance on Dimapur based information reduces the probability of choosing Kohima as the migration destination. Interestingly, satisfaction with work does not appear to be statistically significant ($p > 0.10$ in all cases), indicating that it does not strongly determine migration decisions compared to other economic and accessibility related variables.

Overall, the findings show that migration to Kohima is largely shaped by economic opportunities and the ease of securing employment, with statistical evidence at very high confidence levels (mostly 1 % significance, or 99 % reliability). Accessibility through transportation and job networks acts as the most powerful pull, while delays in employment and dependence on external sources of information act as deterrents.

(iii) Nagaland (sample aggregate)

Table 5.5. Pull factors of the migrants of Nagaland

Variables	Short term migrants	Medium term Migrants	Long term Migrants	Very Long term Migrants	Total Migrants
	<i>Coefficients</i> β	<i>Coefficients</i> β	<i>Coefficients</i> β	<i>Coefficients</i> β	<i>Coefficients</i> β
Constant	-4.2805*** (10.87)	-4.4715*** (11.65)	-3.5527*** (9.15)	-4.4405*** (8.84)	-4.1319*** (20.63)
Mode of Transportation	0.5053*** (13.62)	0.5613*** (15.81)	0.4625*** (11.53)	0.5006*** (10.32)	0.5168*** (26.78)
Source of info about Dmr	0.4905*** (8.40)	0.4383*** (7.73)	0.4242*** (6.85)	0.5416*** (7.90)	0.4592*** (15.33)
Means to get job	0.6536*** (14.28)	0.7303*** (17.14)	0.6695*** (14.28)	0.7064*** (12.98)	0.6874*** (30.18)
Is it easy to get job here	0.3693*** (2.70)	0.4778*** (3.84)	0.3979*** (2.92)	0.3415*** (2.11)	0.3917*** (5.87)
Duration to get job	0.6250*** (10.09)	0.5395*** (9.43)	0.4937*** (7.87)	0.6200*** (8.37)	0.5603*** (18.39)
Migrated for steady income	0.4294*** (3.19)	0.4113*** (3.34)	0.2994*** (2.12)	0.3951*** (2.43)	0.3758*** (5.60)
Over all model fit	R ² = 0.8702 F-value=103.92*** N=100	R ² = 0.8595 F-value=120.32*** N=125	R ² = 0.8246 F-value=81.51*** N=111	R ² = 0.8677 F-value=62.29*** N=64	R ² = 0.8510 F-value=374.09*** N=400

Note: Figures in the parentheses indicate t-value

***, **, & * indicate significance level at 1%, 5% and 10%, respectively

The explanatory power of the models is very high. R² values are 0.8702 for short-term, 0.8595 for medium-term, 0.8246 for long-term, 0.8677 for very long-term, and 0.8510 for the pooled sample. This shows that between 82 and 87 % of the variation in the dependent variable is explained by the independent variables. All F-values are significant at the 1 % level, confirming the validity and reliability of the models.

The constant is negative and highly significant across all models: short-term ($\beta=-4.2805$, $t=10.87$, $p<0.01$), medium-term ($\beta=-4.4715$, $t=11.65$, $p<0.01$), long-term

($\beta=-3.5527$, $t=9.15$, $p<0.01$), very long-term ($\beta=-4.4405$, $t=8.84$, $p<0.01$), and pooled sample ($\beta=-4.1319$, $t=20.63$, $p<0.01$).

The regression results on the pull factors of migrants in Nagaland show that the explanatory variables are highly reliable in explaining migration decisions across all categories. The R^2 values are consistently high, ranging from 82 to 87 % for different durations of stay, and 85.10 % when all migrants are combined. This indicates that more than four fifths of the variation in migration decisions can be explained by the factors considered in the model. The F-values are also highly significant at the 1 % level ($p < 0.01$), which confirms the overall robustness of the models and the reliability of the estimated coefficients.

The pull-factor regressions for Dimapur, Kohima and the overall Nagaland sample all show very strong model fit, with R^2 values ranging from about 0.79 to 0.87 and highly significant F-statistics for every duration group as well as for the total samples (for all migrants in Nagaland, $R^2 = 0.8510$; $F = 374.09^{***}$; $N = 400$). For the pooled Nagaland model, the pull index rises significantly with better transport access ($\beta = 0.5168^{***}$), stronger and more effective job-search channels (means to get job, $\beta = 0.6874^{***}$), easier perceived access to employment at destination (ease to get job, $\beta = 0.3917^{***}$), shorter and favourable job search duration ($\beta = 0.5603^{***}$), better information about the destination ($\beta = 0.4592^{***}$), and explicit migration for steady income ($\beta = 0.3758^{***}$). The city specific models for Dimapur and Kohima broadly mirror this pattern, with mode of transport, means to get job and ease of getting a job consistently positive and highly significant across all duration groups, confirming that improved connectivity, job information networks and quick, reliable access to work are the key pull forces attracting migrant workers into the urban labour markets of Nagaland.

Overall, the findings suggest that migration to Nagaland is strongly driven by economic opportunities, job accessibility, and better transportation, supported by networks and sources of information.

5.4 CONCLUSION

The analysis of the pull factors of migration reveals that economic and social opportunities in urban areas act as strong attraction for migrant workers. The key pull elements such as better employment opportunities, higher wage expectations, improved living conditions, and access to quality health and educational facilities have emerged as decisive reasons behind migration to towns like Dimapur and Kohima. Migrants perceive these urban centres as spaces offering greater economic security, occupational mobility, and access to amenities that are often unavailable or inadequate in their places of origin.

In addition to economic motives, social aspects such as proximity to family and friends and the presence of established migrant networks also play a vital role. These networks not only provide initial support in finding accommodation and employment but also help in the smooth integration of migrants into urban life. The availability of information about job prospects and relatively easy access to urban infrastructure further strengthen these pull effects.

Overall, the findings indicate that migration towards Dimapur and Kohima is primarily driven by the aspiration for economic stability and improved quality of life. The urban centres of Nagaland serve as regional hubs that attract individuals seeking stability, better income, and access to modern facilities. Thus, the pull factors underscore the developmental gap between rural and urban areas and emphasize the importance of balanced regional development to reduce excessive urban inflows.

ANNEXURE 5

Annexure 5.1 Mode of transportation

Dimapur										
Particulars	Duration of stay									
	Short term		Medium term		Long term		Very long term		All duration	
	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%
Bus	9	16.98	16	25.00	5	9.43	6	20.00	36	18
Two wheeler	8	15.09	7	10.94	7	13.21	5	16.67	27	13.5
Car	7	13.21	7	10.94	4	7.55	5	16.67	23	11.5
Flight	6	11.32	11	17.19	14	26.42	3	10.00	34	17
Train	12	22.64	11	17.19	11	20.75	3	10.00	37	18.5
Auto	11	20.75	12	18.75	12	22.64	8	26.67	43	21.5
Total	53	100	64	100	53	100	30	100	200	100
Kohima										
Bus	13	27.66	11	18.03	10	17.24	10	29.41	44	22
Two wheeler	8	17.02	10	16.39	5	8.62	3	8.82	26	13
Car	9	19.15	14	22.95	13	22.41	3	8.82	39	19.50
Flight	3	6.38	4	6.56	2	3.45	1	2.94	10	5
Train	7	14.89	15	24.59	13	22.41	12	35.29	47	23.50
Auto	7	14.89	7	11.48	15	25.86	5	14.71	34	17
Total	47	100	61	100	58	100.00	34	100.00	200	100
Nagaland										
Bus	22	22	27	21.60	15	13.51	16	25	80	20
Two wheeler	16	16	17	13.60	12	10.81	8	12.50	53	13.25
Car	16	16	21	16.80	17	15.32	8	12.50	62	15.50
Flight	9	9	15	12	16	14.41	4	6.25	44	11
Train	19	19	26	20.80	24	21.62	15	23.44	84	21
Auto	18	18	19	15.20	27	24.33	13	20.31	77	19.25

Bus	22	22	27	21.60	15	13.51	16	25	80	20
Total	100	100	125	100	111	100	64	100	400	100

Source: Field Survey, 2020-21

Note: 'F' refers to Frequency and '%' refers to the percentage of the respondents.

Annexure 5.2 Source of information

Dimapur										
Particulars	Duration of stay									
	Short term		Medium term		Long term		Very long term		All duration	
	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%
Family	18	33.96	18	28.12	10	18.87	9	30.00	55	27.50
Friends	8	15.09	13	20.31	10	18.87	11	36.67	42	21
relatives	16	30.19	17	26.56	20	37.74	1	3.33	54	27
same villagers	11	20.75	16	25	13	24.52	9	30.00	49	24.50
Total	53	100	64	100	53	100	30	100	200	100
Kohima										
Family	10	21.28	14	22.95	18	31.03	8	23.53	50	25
Friends	11	23.40	23	37.70	8	13.79	11	32.35	53	26.50
relatives	11	23.40	10	16.39	18	31.03	7	20.59	46	23
same villagers	15	31.91	14	22.95	14	24.14	8	23.53	51	25.50
Total	47	100	61	100	58	100.00	34	100.00	200	100
Nagaland										
Family	28	28	32	25.60	28	25.23	17	26.56	105	26.25
Friends	19	19	36	28.80	18	16.22	22	34.38	95	23.75
relatives	27	27	27	21.60	38	34.23	8	12.50	100	25
same villagers	26	26	30	24	27	24.32	17	26.56	100	25
Total	100	100	125	100	111	100	64	100	400	100

Source: Field Survey, 2020-21

Note: 'F' refers to Frequency and '%' refers to the percentage of the respondents.

Annexure 5.3 Means to get job

Dimapur										
Particulars	Duration of stay									
	Short term		Medium term		Long term		Very long term		All duration	
	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%
family	11	20.75	9	14.06	5	9.43	8	26.67	33	16.50
friends	9	16.98	12	18.75	15	28.30	7	23.33	43	21.50
same villagers	12	22.64	12	18.75	11	20.75	6	20.00	41	20.50
relatives	13	24.53	13	20.31	11	20.75	3	10.00	40	20
Self/employers	8	15.09	18	28.13	11	20.75	6	20.00	43	21.50
Total	53	100	64	100	53	100	30	100	200	100
Kohima										
family	4	8.51	6	9.84	7	12.07	8	23.53	25	12.50
friends	10	21.28	13	21.31	12	20.69	10	29.41	45	22.50
same villagers	12	25.53	12	19.67	10	17.24	5	14.71	39	19.50
relatives	9	19.15	14	22.95	14	24.14	6	17.65	43	21.50
Self/employers	12	25.53	16	26.23	15	25.86	5	14.71	48	24
Total	47	100	61	100	58	100.00	34	100.00	200	100
Nagaland										
family	15	15	15	12	12	10.81	16	25	58	14.50
friends	19	19	25	20	27	24.32	17	26.56	88	22
same villagers	24	24	24	19.20	21	18.92	11	17.19	80	20
relatives	22	22	27	21.60	25	22.52	9	14.06	83	20.75
Self/employers	20	20	34	27.20	26	23.42	11	17.19	91	22.75
Total	100	100	125	100	111	100	64	100	400	100

Source: Field Survey, 2020-21

Note: 'F' refers to Frequency and '%' refers to the percentage of the respondents.

Annexure 5.4 : View on easy availability of job

Dimapur										
Particulars	Duration of stay									
	Short term		Medium term		Long term		Very long term		All duration	
	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%
Yes	20	37.74	36	56.25	34	64.15	17	56.67	107	53.50
No	33	62.26	28	43.75	19	35.85	13	43.33	93	46.50
Total	53	100	64	100	53	100	30	100	200	100
Kohima										
Yes	22	46.81	32	52.46	34	58.62	20	58.82	108	54
No	25	53.19	29	47.54	24	41.38	14	41.18	92	46
Total	47	100	61	100	58	100.00	34	100.00	200	100
Nagaland										
Yes	42	42	64	51.20	68	61.26	37	57.81	215	53.75
No	58	58	57	45.60	43	38.74	27	42.19	185	46.25
Total	100	100	125	100	111	100	64	100	400	100

Source: Field Survey, 2020-21

Note: 'F' refers to Frequency and '%' refers to the percentage of the respondents.

Annexure 5.5 : Duration to get job

Dimapur										
Particulars	Duration of stay									
	Short term		Medium term		Long term		Very long term		All duration	
	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%
Instantly	19	35.85	21	32.81	16	30.19	8	26.67	64	32
Days	11	20.75	9	14.06	11	20.75	10	33.33	41	20.50
Week	12	22.64	16	25.00	10	18.87	2	6.67	40	20
Month	11	20.75	18	28.13	16	30.19	10	33.33	55	27.50
Total	53	100	64	100	53	100	30	100	200	100
Kohima										

Instantly	8	17.02	14	22.95	13	22.41	10	29.41	45	22.50
Days	15	31.91	19	31.15	18	31.03	8	23.53	60	30
Week	10	21.28	12	19.67	12	20.69	8	23.53	42	21
Month	14	29.79	16	26.23	15	25.86	8	23.53	53	26.50
Total	47	100	61	100	58	100.00	34	100.00	200	100
Nagaland										
Instantly	27	27	35	28	29	26.13	18	28.13	109	27.25
Days	26	26	28	22.40	29	26.13	18	28.13	101	25.25
Week	22	22	28	22.40	22	19.81	10	15.61	82	20.50
Month	25	25	34	27.20	31	27.93	18	28.13	108	27
Total	100	100	125	100	111	100	64	100	400	100

Source: Field Survey, 2020-21

Note: 'F' refers to Frequency and '%' refers to the percentage of the respondents.

Annexure 5.6: Migrated for regular and steady income?

Dimapur										
Particulars	Duration of stay									
	Short term		Medium term		Long term		Very long term		All duration	
	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%
Yes	32	60.38	37	57.81	25	47.17	15	50.00	109	54.50
Somewhat	21	39.62	27	42.19	28	52.83	15	50.00	91	45.50
No	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Total	53	100	64	100	53	100	30	100	200	100
Kohima										
Yes	21	44.68	35	57.38	29	50.00	14	41.18	99	49.50
Somewhat	26	55.32	26	42.62	29	50.00	20	58.82	101	50.50
No	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Total	47	100	61	100	58	100.00	34	100.00	200	100
Nagaland										
Yes	53	53	72	57.60	54	48.65	29	45.31	208	52
Somewhat	47	470	53	42.40	57	51.35	35	54.69	192	48

No	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Total	100	100	125	100	111	100	64	100	400	100

Source: Field Survey, 2020-21

Note: 'F' refers to Frequency and '%' refers to the percentage of the respondents.

CHAPTER 6

IMPACT OF INNER LINE PERMIT (ILP) REGULATION ON MIGRATION IN NAGALAND

6.1 INTRODUCTION

The Inner Line Permit (ILP) is one of the most distinctive administrative mechanisms in the certain states of northeastern region of India viz., Arunachal Pradesh, Nagaland, Mizoram and Manipur. Originated during the colonial period under the Bengal Eastern Frontier Regulation Act of 1873, the ILP system was instituted as a means to regulate the entry and settlement of non-indigenous persons into certain protected areas. In the context of Nagaland, the ILP serves as both a legal and sociopolitical instrument aimed at preserving the demographic balance, cultural identity, and customary practices of the indigenous Naga population. Under this regulation, every nonnative individual intending to enter or reside in Nagaland is required to obtain a permit from the competent authority in the State, specifying the duration and purpose of stay.

The ILP system functions as a protective measure that seeks to safeguard local resources, employment opportunities and traditional landholding patterns from external pressures. At the same time, it poses administrative and procedural implications for migrant workers who form a growing segment of the urban labour market in the state. For migrants, securing the ILP is prerequisite for legal entry and employment within the state, and their experiences with obtaining, renewing or complying with ILP regulations often shape their overall migration journey and socioeconomic integration.

In recent decades, the regulation has assumed renewed importance amidst rising migration flows and expanding urban economies in Nagaland. As urban centers have evolved into hubs of construction, trade, and services, the enforcement of the ILP has become a subject of debate balancing between the need to protect indigenous interests and the practical demand for nonlocal labour. The system reflects the state's attempt to

manage migration within a controlled framework, ensuring that economic participation by migrants does not dilute local socio cultural autonomy.

Therefore, analyzing ILP regulation within the context of migrant labour provides valuable insights into the intersection between migration governance and local development. It enables a deeper understanding of how regulatory instruments influence the flow of migrant workers, their employment conditions, and their perception of inclusion within Nagaland's urban labour market. This discussion also highlights the dual role of ILP as both a mechanism of protection and a constraint within the dynamics of migration and urbanization in the state.

6.2 HISTORICAL BACKGROUND AND LEGAL PROVISIONS OF ILP IN NAGALAND

The origin of the Inner Line Permit (ILP) in Nagaland can be traced back to the colonial administrative framework of the British Raj, specifically under the Bengal Eastern Frontier Regulation (BEFR) Act of 1873. This Act empowered the government to prescribe an "inner line" and prohibited travel beyond it without a pass originally applicable to "British subjects" with penalties for unauthorized entry and provisions restricting land acquisition by non natives in frontier tribal tracts (Bengal Eastern Frontier Regulation, 1873). It was introduced to protect the commercial interests of the British and to control the movement of people into certain hill tracts inhabited by tribal communities in the northeastern frontier. To minimize interference in the affairs of indigenous communities, the system survives in modified form, where state authorities continue to regulate entry through ILPs (Government of Nagaland, n.d.; Ministry of Home Affairs, 2014a, 2014b). Comparable official explainers from neighboring ILP states echo this history, describing the ILP as an outgrowth of the 1873 Regulation establishing an inner boundary to regulate travel into protected tribal areas (Government of Arunachal Pradesh, n.d.).

Following India's independence and the formation of Nagaland as the 16th State of the Indian Union in 1963, the ILP system was retained as a constitutional safeguard under Article 371(A), which accords special protection to Naga customary laws, social practices, and land ownership patterns. This continuity reflects the recognition of the ILP as a sociopolitical necessity to preserve the demographic stability and cultural integrity of the indigenous Naga tribes. The permit system was extended and adapted to suit the state's administrative requirements while maintaining its essential purpose to regulate the presence of non locals in the region.

Under the current provisions, the ILP is issued by the Home Department, Government of Nagaland, and is mandatory for all non Naga individuals entering the state. The permit is categorized based on the purpose and duration of stay temporary, regular, labour, and special permits. Labour permits, in particular, are essential for nonlocal workers employed in sectors such as construction, trade, transport, and small scale services. Each permit specifies the duration of validity, area of stay, and nature of work, and must be renewed upon expiration. Failure to obtain or renew the permit constitutes a violation under the BEFR Act and can lead to penalties or deportation.

The implementation and monitoring of ILP have evolved over time, with administrative offices handling a large volume of permit applications daily. The introduction of digital registration mechanisms in recent years has aimed to streamline the process, reduce manual errors, and ensure better recordkeeping of nonlocal entrants. However, the system continues to face challenges related to enforcement, verification, and coordination between departments, especially with the growing inflow of migrant labourers from neighbouring states such as Assam, Bihar, West Bengal, and Uttar Pradesh.

In essence, the ILP remains a central component of Nagaland's migration governance framework, symbolizing both protection and regulation. While it safeguards the cultural and economic interests of indigenous citizens, it simultaneously governs the

scale and composition of migrant labourers entering the state's urban labour markets. Understanding its historical evolution and present legal structure provides the necessary foundation for analyzing how the ILP shapes the socioeconomic experiences of migrant workers in Nagaland.

6.3 IMPLEMENTATION AND CHALLENGES

The practical implementation of the Inner Line Permit (ILP) system in Nagaland represents a complex administrative and socioeconomic process that extends beyond mere legal enforcement. While the ILP continues to serve as a protective mechanism to safeguard indigenous rights and local resources, its day to day execution reveals a range of operational challenges, both for the state administration and for migrant workers seeking legitimate access to employment in urban centres in Nagaland.

6.3.1 Administrative Implementation

The ILP is primarily administered through the Home Department and district level offices authorized to issue, renew, and verify permits. Each nonlocal entering Nagaland for employment, business, or residence is required to obtain a permit specifying the place and duration of stay. Labour permits are the most common among migrant workers engaged in construction, transport, retail, hospitality, and service sectors. In theory, this mechanism ensures that only registered individuals are allowed to reside and work within the state, thereby maintaining a record of the inflow of non locals and regulating their occupational distribution.

Overall, the implementation of ILP regulation in Nagaland reflects a dual dynamic serving as both a tool for protecting local identity and an administrative challenge in managing rising urban migration. The empirical findings suggest that while most migrants acknowledge the necessity of the ILP, procedural hurdles often deter full compliance. The effectiveness of the ILP, therefore, depends on improving administrative efficiency, enhancing digital systems, raising awareness among migrants

and employers, and balancing regulatory control with the developmental needs of the state’s urban economy.

6.4 EFFECTIVENESS AND ACCESSIBILITY

The effectiveness and accessibility of the ILP process such as the ease of obtaining a permit, possession of valid ILP cards, and problems encountered during application directly affect the migrants’ legal status and their ability to engage in formal employment. Understanding these aspects is essential to assess how ILP regulation shapes the labour market dynamics and livelihood prospects of migrant workers in Nagaland’s urban centre’s.

To capture this dimension, the present section analyses the perception and experience of migrants regarding ILP procedures. The following analysis covers only on the ILP regulation of Kohima since Dimapur was not under the purview of ILP Regulation prior to 2025 practically. The analysis focuses on variables such as ease of making an ILP card, possession of ILP cards, and difficulties faced during the process. These tables help to understand not only the administrative challenges but also the broader implications of ILP on the social and economic integration of migrant labourers in the state.

6.4.1 Regulatory measures for entry

Table 6.1: Regulatory measures for entry to Kohima

Regulatory Measures	Particulars	Duration of stay				
		Short term	Medium term	Long term	Very long term	All duration
Need to possess ILP card before migrating to Kohima	Yes	19 (40.43)	22 (36.07)	23 (39.66)	13 (38.24)	77 (38.50)
	No	13 (27.66)	18 (29.51)	19 (32.76)	6 (17.65)	56 (28)
	Not sure	15 (31.91)	21 (34.43)	16 (27.59)	15 (44.12)	67 (33.50)

	Total	47 (100)	61 (100)	58 (100)	34 (100)	200 (100)
Is it mandatory to carry ILP card while entering Kohima	Yes	18 (38.30)	20 (32.79)	14 (24.14)	14 (41.18)	66 (33)
	No	17 (36.17)	21 (34.43)	25 (43.10)	10 (29.41)	73 (36.50)
	Not sure	12 (25.53)	20 (32.79)	19 (32.76)	10 (39.41)	61 (30.50)
	Total	47 (100)	61 (100)	58 (100)	34 (100)	200 (100)
ILP card check before entering Kohima	Yes	14 (29.79)	21 (34.43)	20 (34.48)	17 (50)	72 (36)
	No	11 (23.40)	20 (32.79)	19 (32.76)	7 (20.59)	57 (28.50)
	Sometimes	22 (46.81)	20 (32.79)	19 (32.76)	10 (29.41)	71 (35.50)
	Total	47 (100)	61 (100)	58 (100)	34 (100)	200 (100)
Do you face problems to go to Kohima without ILP Card?	Yes	11 (23.40)	18 (29.51)	23 (39.66)	11 (32.35)	63 (31.50)
	No	14 (29.79)	22 (36.07)	25 (43.10)	9 (26.47)	70 (35)
	Sometimes	22 (46.81)	21 (34.42)	10 (17.24)	14 (41.18)	67 (33.50)
	Total	47 (100)	61 (100)	58 (100)	34 (100)	200 (100)

Source: Field survey 2020-21

*Figures in the Parenthesis indicate the percentage of migrants' response.

The table 6.1 above shows the responses of the migrants which indicates mixed awareness and uneven enforcement around the Inner Line Permit (ILP) for entry to Kohima. Across all respondents, 38.5% said one must possess an ILP before migrating, 28% think it is not required, and 33.5% are unsure. This split suggests considerable information gaps about pre-migration documentation. Perceptions vary by duration of stay where short and medium-term migrants lean toward “Yes,” while very long-term migrants record the highest “Not sure,” hinting that long residence and routine mobility may reduce attention to formalities or that norms have changed since they first arrived.

On whether it is mandatory to carry the ILP while entering Kohima, the overall picture remains divided: 33% say “Yes,” 36.5% say “No,” and 30.5% are “Not sure.” Long-term migrants most frequently answer “No,” whereas very long-term migrants are

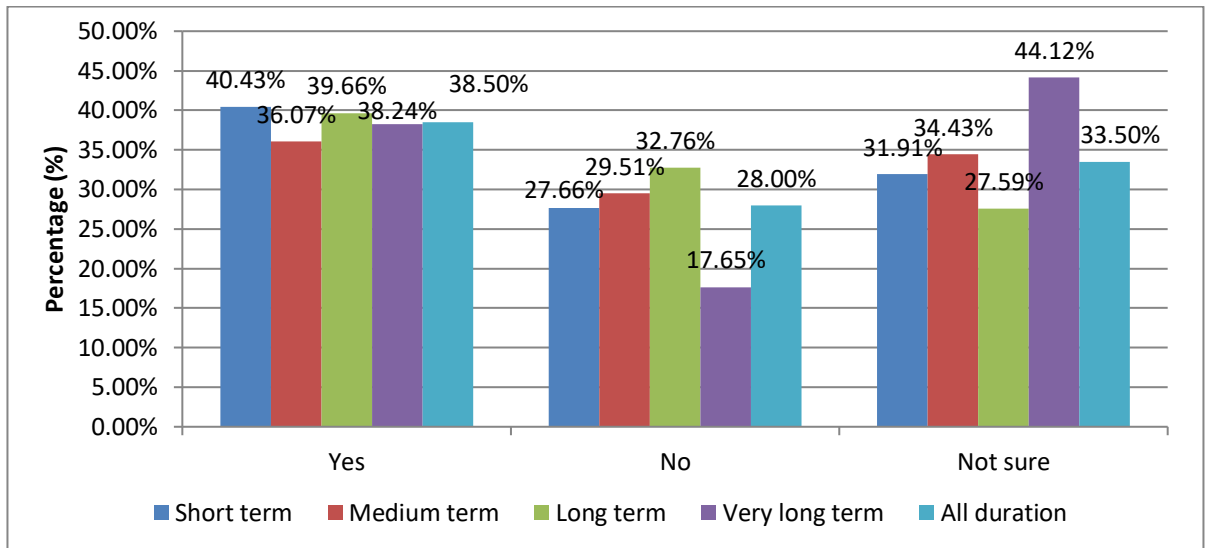
more likely to say “Yes.” This contrast points to cohort effects and lived experiences those who have stayed longer may have encountered checks at some point and therefore default to compliance, while others, particularly long-term but not very long-term migrants, may have learned to navigate routes or occasions where checks are infrequent.

Consistent with these perceptions, reported ILP checking “before entering Kohima” is not systematic, where 36% say “Yes,” 28.5% “No,” and 35.5% “Sometimes.” The “Sometimes” share is high across most durations, and 50% of very long-term migrants report definite checking. Such variability in checking likely feeds the uncertainty observed in earlier items and contributes to the coexistence of compliance and circumvention behaviours.

Experiences of difficulty when travelling to Kohima without an ILP are similarly split. Overall, 31.5% report facing problems, 35% do not, and 33.5% face problems “Sometimes.” Long-term migrants most often report problems, whereas very long-term migrants are concentrated in “Sometimes,” again suggesting episodic enforcement and adaptive strategies over time. Taken together, the table portrays a regulatory environment perceived as present but inconsistently enforced, producing heterogeneous understandings and practices among migrants. The combination of high “Not sure” responses and substantial “Sometimes” experiences points to communication gaps about ILP rules and on ground discretion, with implications for clearer dissemination of requirements and more predictable enforcement to reduce uncertainty during migration and entry.

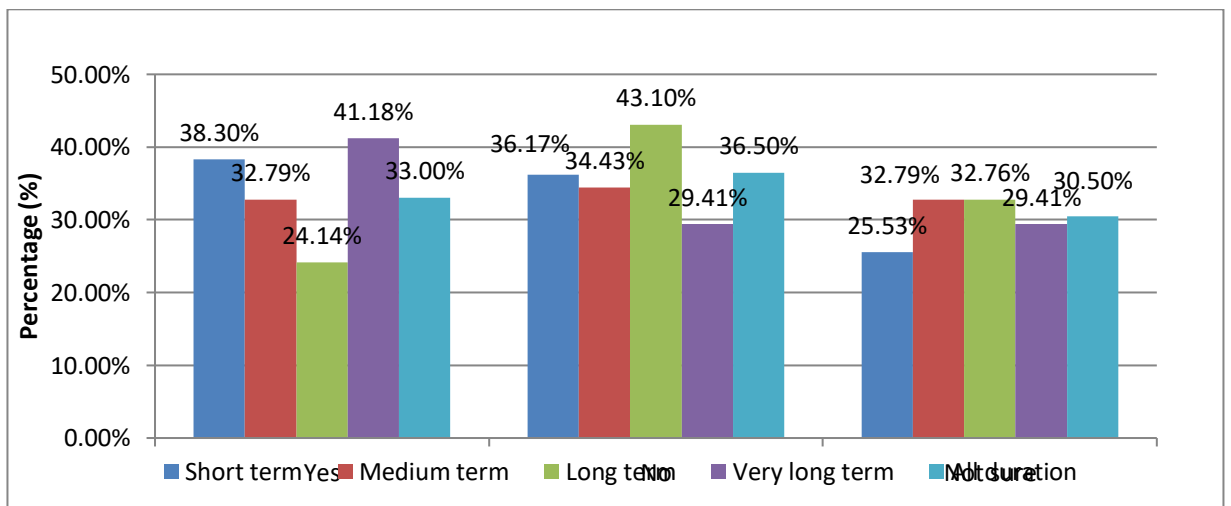
The following figures shows the outcome of the tables above.

Figure 6.a Need to possess ILP card before migrating to Kohima



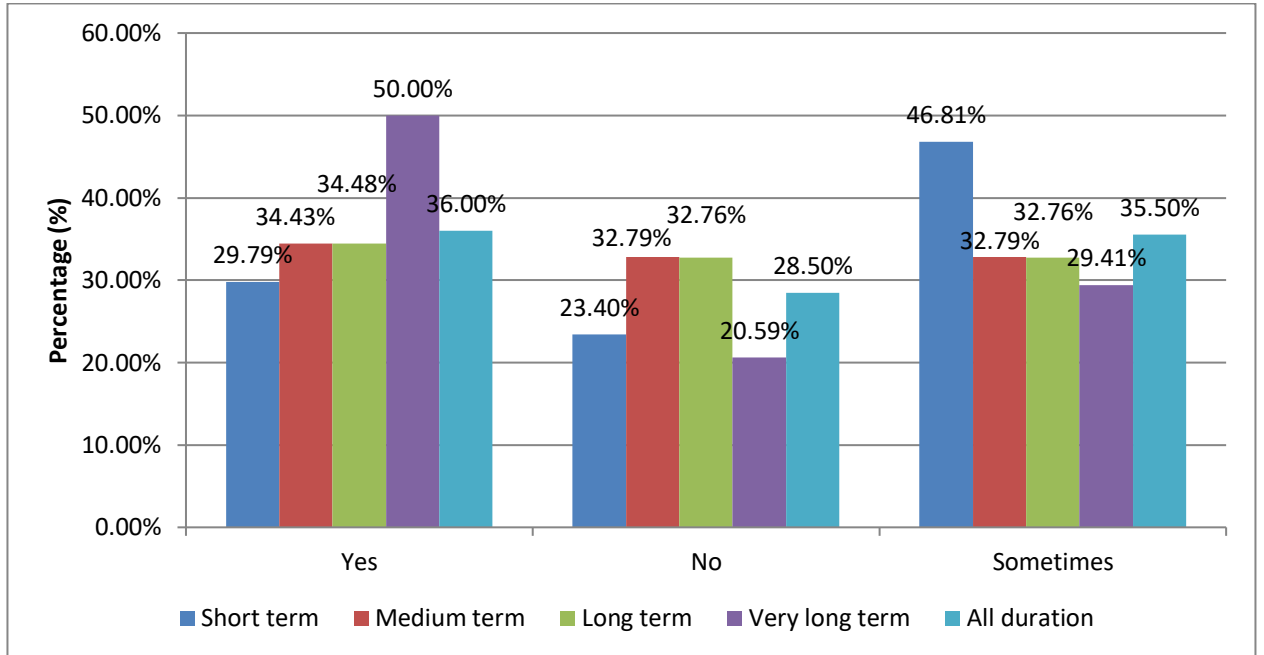
Source: Table 6.1

Figure 6.b Mandatory to carry ILP card while entering Kohima



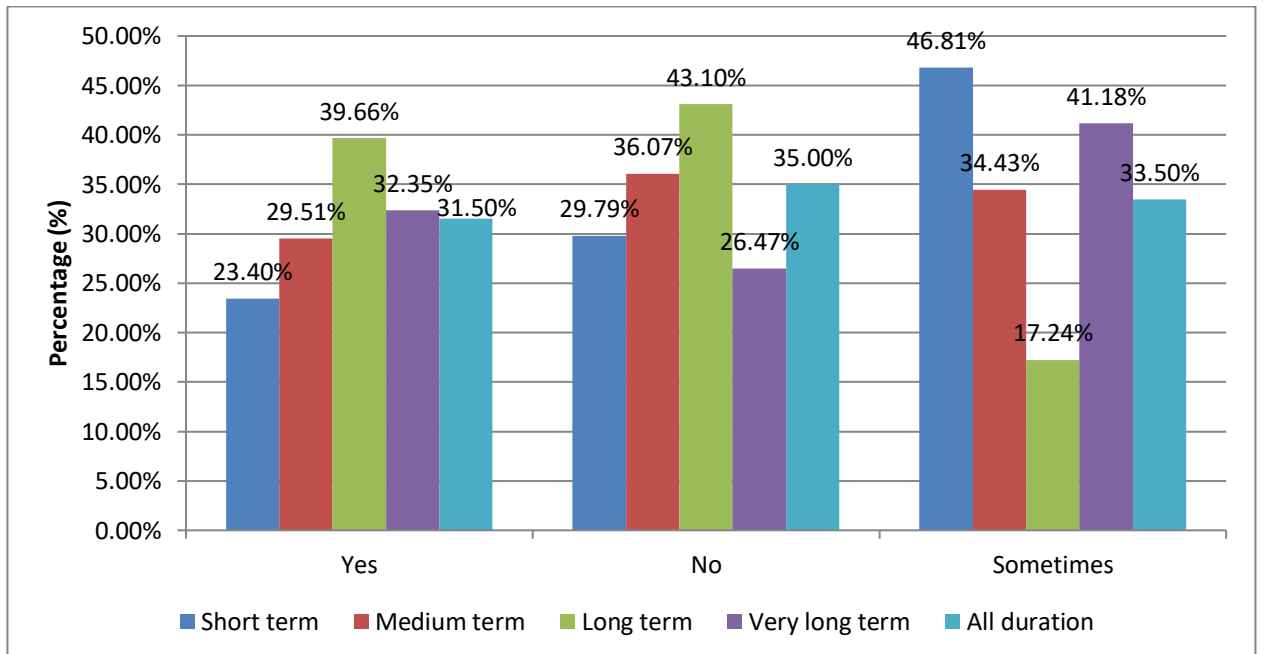
Source: Table 6.1

Figure 6.c Checking of ILP card before entering Kohima



Source: Table 6.1

Figure 6.d Problems faced to go to Kohima without ILP card



Source: Table 6.1

6.4.2 Accessibility to Inner Line Permit

Table 6.2: Accessibility to Inner Line Permit

Accessibility	Particulars	Duration of stay				
		Short term	Medium term	Long term	Very long term	All duration
Easy to make ILP Card	Yes	22 (46.50)	23 (37.70)	33 (56.90)	20 (58.82)	98 (49)
	No	25 (53.50)	38 (62.30)	25 (43.10)	14 (41.18)	102 (51)
	Total	47 (100)	61 (100)	58 (100)	34 (100)	200 (100)
Problems faced to make ILP Card	Hard to find local guarantor	18 (38.30)	25 (40.98)	25 (43.10)	14 (41.18)	82 (41)
	It takes time	18 (38.30)	15 (24.59)	15 (25.86)	11 (32.35)	59 (29.50)
	Strict documents verification	11 (23.40)	21 (34.43)	18 (31.04)	9 (26.47)	59 (29.50)
	Total	47(100)	61 (100)	58 (100)	34 (100)	200 (100)
Time taken to make ILP Card	Less than a week	22 (46.81)	29 (47.54)	15 (25.86)	12 (35.29)	78 (39)
	A week	13 (27.66)	15 (24.59)	26 (44.83)	9 (26.47)	63 (31.50)
	More than a week	12 (25.53)	17 (27.87)	17 (29.31)	13 (38.24)	59 (29.50)
	Total	47 (100)	61 (100)	58 (100)	34 (100)	200 (100)

Source: Field survey 2020-21

**Figures in the Parenthesis indicate the percentage of migrants' response.*

From the table 6.2 we see that the accessibility to ILP appears finely balanced at the aggregate level at 49% report that making an ILP card is easy, while 51% do not. The distribution by duration of stay shows a clear gradient. Long-term (56.9%) and very long-term (58.82%) migrants are more likely to find the process easy, whereas medium-term migrants report the lowest ease (37.7%); short-term migrants fall in between (46.5%). This pattern is consistent with a “learning and linking” effect, where familiarity

with offices, forms, and local intermediaries accumulates over time, reducing uncertainty around procedures.

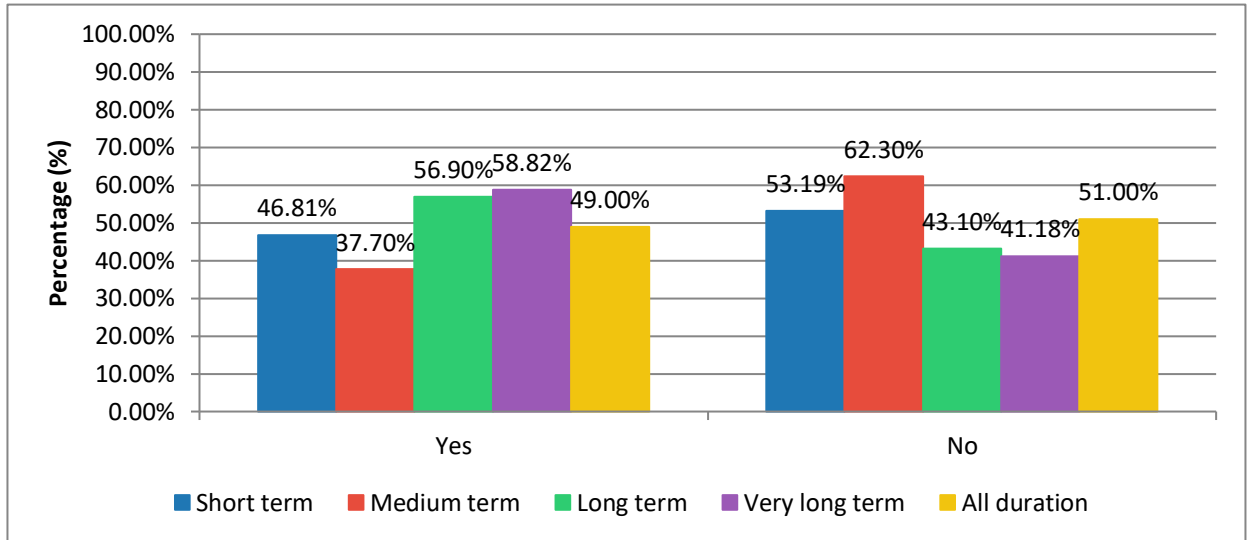
The main constraint is the need for a local guarantor, cited by 41% overall and remaining prominent across short-term (38.3%), medium-term (40.98%), long-term (43.1%), and very long-term (41.18%) groups. Two additional frictions “strict documents verification” (29.5%) and “it takes time” (29.5%) vary by cohort. Medium-term migrants most often report stringent document checks (34.43%), while very long-term migrants register relatively higher time costs (32.35%), with short-term migrants also noting delays (38.3%, tied with guarantor). Together, these findings indicate that guarantor requirements function as a systemic hurdle, while verification rigor and time costs are situational, reflecting specific episodes of application or renewal.

Processing time is spread across three bands: 39% receive the ILP in less than a week, 31.5% in about a week, and 29.5% after more than a week. Faster issuance (less than 1 week) clusters among short-term (46.81%) and medium-term (47.54%) cohorts, suggesting improved frontend guidance or recent process efficiencies. Long-term migrants are concentrated around the “one week” category (44.83%). Very long-term migrants show the highest “more than 1 week” share (38.24%), alongside a substantial “less than 1 week” share (35.29%), pointing to heterogeneous experiences that likely span different procedural regimes over time.

Overall, ILP accessibility is shaped by cumulative knowhow and network support, yet the guarantor requirement persists as the dominant bottleneck across cohorts. Clearer guidance (checklists, multilingual instructions, timeline transparency) and formalized alternatives to local guarantors (e.g., verifiable employer letters or digital identity validations) could reduce uncertainty, particularly for medium-term migrants who appear relatively disadvantaged, while also smoothing repeat interactions for very long-term residents.

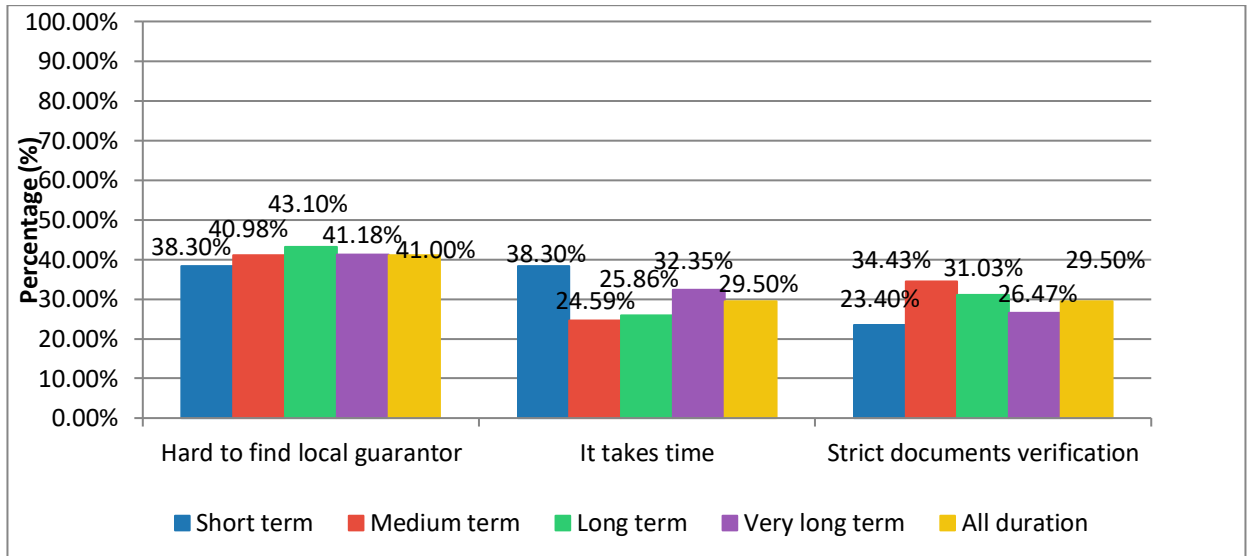
The following figures show the outcome of the tables above.

Figure 6.e Ease to make ILP card.



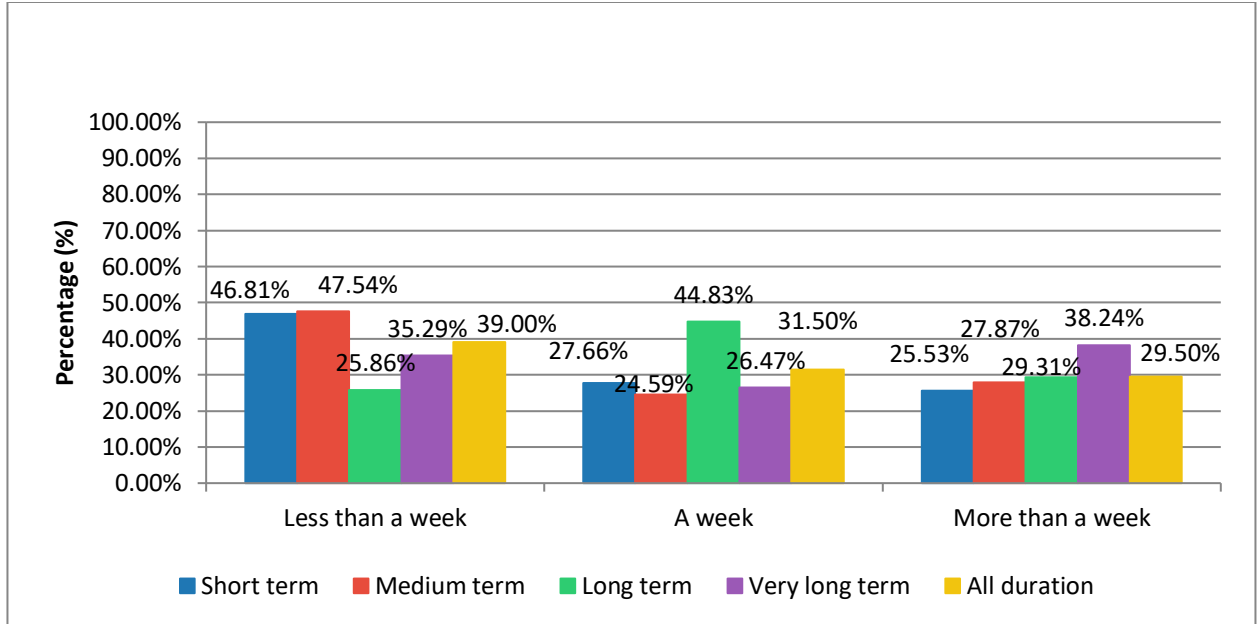
Source: Table 6.2

Figure 6.f Problems faced to make ILP card



Source: Table 6.2

Figure 6.g Time taken to make ILP card



Source: Table 6.2

6.4.3 Regulation and Compliance to ILP

Table 6.3: Daily regulation and compliance to ILP

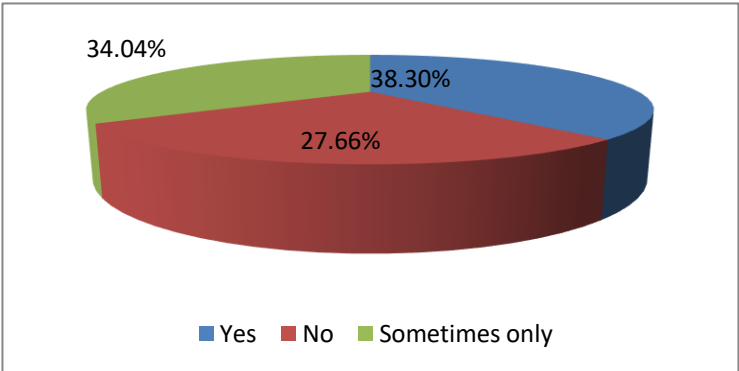
Particulars	Responses	Duration of stay				
		Short term	Medium term	Long term	Very long term	All duration
Whether ILP card is checked regularly	Yes	18 (38.30)	16 (26.23)	25 (43.10)	15 (44.12)	74 (37)
	No	13 (27.66)	20 (32.79)	19 (32.76)	13 (38.24)	65 (32.50)
	Sometimes only	16 (34.04)	25 (40.98)	14 (24.14)	6 (17.65)	61 (30.50)
	Total	47 (100)	61 (100)	58 (100)	34 (100)	200 (100)
ILP card possession at hand presently	Yes	28 (59.57)	32 (52.46)	32 (55.17)	20 (58.82)	112 (56)
	No	19 (40.43)	29 (47.54)	26 (44.83)	14 (41.18)	88 (44)
	Total	47 (100)	61 (100)	58 (100)	34 (100)	200 (100)

Source: Field survey 2020-21

*Figures in the Parenthesis are percentage of migrant respondents.

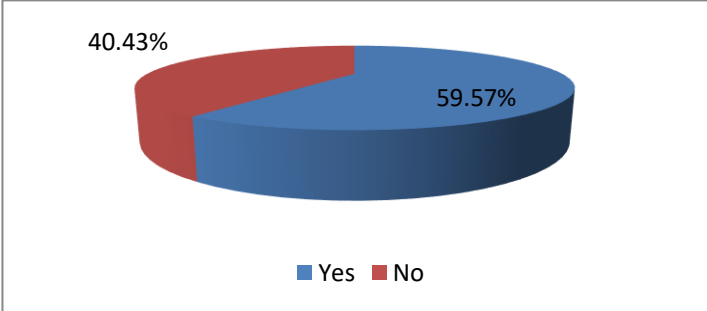
The table 6.3 shows that ILP enforcement and compliance among migrants are only partial and uneven. Overall, 37 % of respondents report that their ILP card is checked regularly, 32.5 % say it is not checked at all, and 30.5 % report that it is checked only sometimes. At the same time, only 56 % of migrants actually carry their ILP card at hand, while 44 % do not. Taken together, this indicates that although the ILP system exists and is visible, day to day enforcement is not uniform, and a substantial proportion of migrants move and work without consistent verification or ready possession of their permits.

Figure 6.h Regularity of ILP card checking.



Source: Table 6.3

Figure 6.i Possession of ILP card at hand presently.



Source: Table 6.3

6.5 REGRESSION ANALYSIS OF THE IMPACT OF ILP REGULATION ON MIGRATION

To assess the overall impact of the Inner Line Permit (ILP) system on migrant workers in Nagaland, a regression analysis was undertaken. While the preceding frequency and percentage tables provided a descriptive overview of migrants' experiences such as ease of obtaining the permit, possession of ILP cards, difficulties faced during application, and enforcement patterns regression analysis allows for a deeper examination of how these ILP related variables collectively influence the migration pattern.

The analysis aims to quantify the relationship between ILP regulation and various dimensions of migrant experiences. By identifying the strength and direction of these relationships, the regression model helps to determine whether ILP procedures act as facilitators or barriers for migrant workers in accessing economic opportunities in Nagaland.

This statistical approach not only measures the direct effects of ILP enforcement but also reveals its broader implications for migration patterns and labour market participation in Kohima city. Thus, the regression result provides empirical evidence to evaluate the effectiveness of ILP as a policy instrument balancing state protection with economic inclusivity.

Table 6.4 . Regression analysis of the impact of ILP Regulation on Migration

Variables	Short term migrants	Medium term Migrants	Long term Migrants	Very Long term Migrants	Total Migrants
	<i>Coefficients</i> β	<i>Coefficients</i> β	<i>Coefficients</i> β	<i>Coefficients</i> β	<i>Coefficients</i> β
Difficulty in migration due to ILP	-1.8439*** (5.23)	-2.6014*** (7.04)	-3.2698*** (8.59)	-2.5094*** (5.04)	-2.5481*** (13.32)
Easy to make ILP card	-0.0432 (0.42)	0.0149 (0.15)	0.1073 (1.12)	-0.0134 (0.09)	0.0140 (0.27)
ILP card at hand	0.2851*** (2.74)	-0.0827 (0.86)	0.3435*** (3.45)	0.1634 (1.32)	0.1684*** (3.247)

presently					
Need to possess ILP card before migrating to Kohima	0.0844 (1.27)	0.3162*** (5.27)	0.1177* (1.85)	0.1786** (2.19)	0.1763*** (5.50)
Problems faced to make ILP card	0.1050 (1.62)	0.1895*** (3.41)	0.1376** (2.49)	0.2907*** (3.73)	0.2011*** (6.51)
Time taken for ILP card	0.2209*** (3.60)	0.1617*** (2.93)	0.4683*** (7.48)	0.1955*** (2.81)	0.2592*** (8.34)
Mandatory to carry ILP card to Kohima	0.2029*** (3.03)	0.3494*** (6.20)	0.3343*** (4.85)	0.3143*** (3.97)	0.3082*** (9.60)
ILP card checking before entering Kohima	0.2871*** (4.68)	0.3771*** (6.82)	0.3721*** (6.27)	0.4275*** (5.85)	0.3541*** (11.59)
Problems faced to go to Kohima without ILP card	0.3877*** (5.90)	0.4563*** (7.60)	0.3261*** (5.16)	0.4518*** (6.25)	0.3966*** (12.40)
ILP card checked regularly or not	0.4304*** (7.22)	0.5185*** (8.53)	0.5572*** (9.23)	0.3397*** (4.19)	0.4636*** (14.76)
Over all model fit	R ² = 0.8426 F-value=22.0098*** N=47	R ² = 0.8565 F-value=33.8379** N=61	R ² = 0.8707 F-value=35.9046** N=58	R ² = 0.8736 F-value=18.4251** N=34	R ² = 0.8172 F-value=94.3990*** N=200

Note: Figures in the parentheses indicate t-value
 ***, **, & * indicate significance level at 1%, 5% and 10%, respectively
 Source: Field survey 2020-21

The regression analysis presented in Table 6.4 examines the overall impact of the Inner Line Permit (ILP) system on migrant workers across different durations of stay in Nagaland. The model includes several explanatory variables such as, ease of making an ILP card, possession of ILP card, requirement of ILP before migration, problems faced in obtaining the card, time taken for processing, mandatory carrying of the card, checking procedures, and difficulties in travelling without ILP. This enables to understand how these factors influence the migration pattern to Nagaland.

Across all duration groups, the models fit very well (R^2 around 0.81 to 0.87 and highly significant F-tests), indicating that the ILP variables jointly explain a substantial share of variation in the migration outcome. The most consistent pattern is that “Difficulty in migration due to ILP” has negative and highly significant coefficient in every group (β roughly ranging from -1.84 to -3.27), implying that higher perceived difficulty is associated with lower migration outcomes; in short, perceived ILP difficulty acts as a deterrent.

In contrast, most procedural and compliance indicators show positive and mostly significant associations. Requirements to possess an ILP before migrating, problems faced while making the ILP, longer time taken to obtain it, mandates to carry the card, checks before entering Kohima, problems encountered when traveling without an ILP, and regular ILP checking all correlate positively with the migration outcome in the model and within duration groups. A plausible interpretation is selection and compliance among those who do migrate, individuals who navigate and comply with ILP procedures are the ones who ultimately realize migration, so compliance markers correlate positively with the realized outcome even while perceived difficulty correlates negatively.

Two outcomes are noteworthy. First, “Easy to make ILP card” is generally insignificant, suggesting that perceived ease does not matter once actual experiences of compliance and enforcement are controlled for. Second, “ILP card at hand presently” is positive and significant in the short-term, long-term, and pooled samples, but not consistently in the medium and very long groups, indicating that current possession aligns with migration success for some cohorts more than others. Magnitude patterns show that compliance effects are especially pronounced among long-term migrants (for example, time taken and regular checking), while the deterrent effect of difficulty is also strongest there, consistent with tighter links between ILP regime experiences and longer stays.

Overall, the findings suggest that the ILP system exerts a substantial regulatory influence on the movement and settlement of migrants in Nagaland. While its enforcement ensures legal monitoring of in migration, the process related challenges such as delays, documentation checks, and local guarantor requirements add administrative burden, especially for new entrants. The high R^2 and significance levels across all categories confirm that IL Related variables collectively have a significant impact on migrants' adaptation and participation in the urban labour market. Thus, the ILP mechanism, though effective as a control measure, needs procedural simplification and greater transparency to balance state protection with the economic participation of migrant workers in urban Nagaland.

Hypothesis Testing:

“ILP regulation has a significant impact on the migration outcome of the migrant workers”

In the model, the ILP variables jointly explain a large share of variation in the migration outcome ($R^2 = 0.8172$) and the overall F-test is highly significant ($F = 94.3990$, $p < 0.01$; $N = 200$), rejecting the null of no effect. Within this set, perceived ILP related difficulty is strongly negative and highly significant ($\beta = -2.5481$; $|t| = 13.32$; $p < 0.01$), indicating a deterrent association with migration. Several compliance and enforcement indicators (e.g., requirement to possess and carry the ILP, checks before entry, and regular checking) are positively and significantly associated with the outcome, describing the profile of those who successfully navigate the regime. Similar signs and significance across short, medium, long and very long-term sub-samples corroborate the significance of these findings. ***Hence, the hypothesis that “ILP regulation significantly impacts migration” is accepted.***

6.6 CONCLUSION

The analysis of the impact of the Inner Line Permit (ILP) regulation in Nagaland clearly demonstrates that the ILP continues to be a defining institutional mechanism

shaping the states demographic and labour market dynamics. The system, designed to preserve the identity, culture and socioeconomic interests of the indigenous population, has been effective in restricting unregulated migration. However, the present study also reveals the complex and multidimensional impact of the regulation on migrant workers who form an important part of the urban economy in Kohima. While the ILP ensures a legal framework for monitoring entry and residence, it simultaneously creates challenges for migrant workers seeking to establish stable livelihoods.

The descriptive analysis highlights that although more than half of the migrant workers possess valid ILP cards; a significant share still struggles with bureaucratic hurdles such as the need for a local guarantor, strict document verification, and prolonged waiting times. These procedural difficulties often discourage formal compliance and lead to partial or irregular enforcement. The regression results further affirm that ILP related variables particularly card possession, mandatory carrying, frequency of checking, and enforcement regularity exert a statistically significant influence on migrants' socioeconomic outcomes and their ability to integrate into the urban labour market.

Beyond regulation, the study suggests that the ILP has broader socioeconomic implications. Migrant workers who manage to comply with ILP requirements tend to experience better job stability, reduced vulnerability, and greater access to opportunities within the formal sector. Conversely, those without valid permits often remain confined to informal or low paying jobs, reflecting the indirect role of ILP in shaping labour segmentation. Moreover, inconsistent awareness about the permit's necessity and irregular enforcement at entry points weaken its intended objectives, leading to partial compliance and administrative inefficiency.

In conclusion, while the ILP system remains indispensable for protecting indigenous rights and maintaining demographic balance, there is a pressing need for reform in its operational aspects. Simplifying procedures, reducing documentation

burdens, introducing digital registration and renewal systems, and conducting regular awareness campaigns can make the process more transparent and inclusive. A balanced and efficient ILP framework can ensure that legitimate migrants are not unduly excluded, while still safeguarding the socio cultural integrity of the state. Such policy improvements would allow the ILP to evolve from a restrictive administrative mechanism into a more facilitative regulatory tool, one that harmonizes the state's protective objectives with the developmental needs of its growing urban economy.

CHAPTER : 7

MIGRANTS SOCIAL CAPITAL AND ECONOMIC OUTCOMES (INCOME, EMPLOYMENT, SAVING AND REMITTANCE)

7.1 INTRODUCTION

Migration rarely occurs in isolation; it is embedded in webs of relationships that migrants rely on before departure, during transit, and after arrival. These relationships captured by the idea of social capital provide information, trust, and mutual obligations that lower the costs and risks of moving and settling in new urban labour markets (Putnam, 2000; Woolcock & Narayan, 2000). For workers entering cities such as Dimapur and Kohima, where formal job intermediation is thin and informality is extensive, social capital often substitutes for missing markets by channeling job leads, short-term credit, accommodation, and orientation to local rules and institutions.

It is useful to distinguish between bonding, bridging, and linking social capital. Bonding ties connect migrants to close networks kin, co-ethnics, or village peers characterized by strong trust and reciprocity. These ties are especially valuable immediately after arrival, when migrants need shelter, food, and rapid placement into any work, even if low paid (Portes, 1998; Woolcock & Narayan, 2000). Bridging ties link migrants to socially diverse others beyond their own group employers in different sectors, coworkers from other regions, civic associations expanding the range and quality of opportunities (Granovetter, 1973; Lin, 2001). Linking ties connect migrants “upward” to formal institutions government offices, financial institutions, training centres, and labour regulations helping them obtain documents, formalize employment, and access safer savings and remittance channels (Woolcock & Narayan, 2000).

These forms of social capital shape income and employment through identifiable mechanisms. Bonding networks reduce job search frictions and speed first employment, but can also concentrate workers in niche segments with limited mobility and compressed wages (Portes, 1998). Bridging ties broaden information flows across firms

and sectors, allowing migrants to signal reliability and better match their skill which tends to raise earnings and job quality (Granovetter, 1973; Lin, 2001). Linking ties further stabilize outcomes by easing access to identity documents, permits, and grievance redressal systems that are often prerequisites for formal contracts, regular hours, and benefits factors that cumulatively improve income trajectories.

Social capital also influences savings and remittances. Within bonding networks, informal insurance and rotating savings arrangements help low income migrants smooth shocks and commit to periodic savings, even without collateral. At the same time, strong obligations to origin households sustain frequent remittances, especially when information and expectations are continuously mediated by family and community ties (Stark & Lucas, 1988; Taylor, 1999). Where migrants possess linking ties to banks and digital finance, the fixed costs and risks of transferring money decline, raising the net value of remittances and enabling safer accumulation of savings for housing, education, or business formation (Adams & Page, 2005; Rapoport & Docquier, 2006). Over time, the co-evolution of networks and labour market experience can shift remittance patterns from subsistence support to investment oriented transfers.

From an analytical perspective, the social capital lens complements standard migration frameworks. While human capital (education, skills) and structural factors (wage differentials, labour demand) remain central, network structures explain why otherwise similar workers experience divergent outcomes in the same city (Massey et al., 1993). For an urban context like Nagaland's twin centres Dimapur's commercial hub and Kohima's administrative core differences in sectoral composition, regulatory interfaces, and community clustering imply different returns to bonding, bridging, and linking ties. Duration of stay further matters: early phases typically rely on bonding ties for survival and quick job entry, whereas longer durations reward migrants who diversify into bridging and linking connections, improving wage growth, employment stability, saving capacity, and the efficiency of remittances.

Anchoring this study in Dimapur and Kohima with a primary sample of migrant workers allows these propositions to be tested directly. Network indicators (e.g., association membership, diversity of contacts, access to intermediaries and institutions) can be related to employment status and quality, monthly income, saving frequency and amounts, and remittance incidence and size. Such an approach clarifies the channels through which social capital operates in North East India's urban labour markets and identifies policy levers like information services, skill signalling, documentation support, and financial inclusion that can translate migrants' relational resources into sustained economic gains.

7.2 INCOME AND EMPLOYMENT

Income and employment are central dimensions in understanding the economic condition and livelihood outcomes of migrant workers in urban labour markets. Migration, particularly from rural to urban areas, is often driven by the expectation of better job opportunities and higher earnings. For many migrants, cities represent a space where diverse employment avenues ranging from formal to informal sectors offer potential economic mobility that is largely absent in their place of origin. However, the reality of income and employment among migrant workers often reflects a complex interplay between aspiration and marginalization within the urban economy.

In the context of developing regions such as Nagaland, the inflow of migrant workers from other states has become an integral part of the urban labour force, particularly in districts like Dimapur and Kohima. Migrants contribute significantly to construction, trade, transport, manufacturing, domestic work, and other service-oriented activities. Yet, their income levels and employment status remain largely shaped by informal arrangements, daily wage systems, and seasonal fluctuations in urban demand. The informal nature of these jobs often results in income instability, lack of social security, and limited upward mobility.

The employment patterns of migrant workers also reflect broader structural features of urban labour markets such as segmentation, casualization, and unequal access to formal job opportunities. While some skilled and semiskilled migrants secure relatively stable income sources, a vast majority remain engaged in low paying, insecure, and labour intensive occupations. This disparity not only reinforces existing socioeconomic inequalities but also influences the duration and nature of migrants' stay in urban centres.

Assessing the income and employment status of migrant workers is therefore essential for understanding their economic wellbeing and integration within the host economy. It enables policymakers and researchers to evaluate whether migration indeed serves as an instrument for poverty reduction and livelihood improvement, or whether it perpetuates cycles of economic vulnerability. In the context of Nagaland, such analysis provides valuable insights into how the urban labour market accommodates migrant labour, how earnings vary across occupational groups and duration of stay, and how employment security affects their overall standard of living.

Thus, this section seeks to examine the employment patterns, income distribution, and wage dynamics of migrant workers in the urban labour markets of Nagaland. By doing so, it aims to understand the economic dimensions of migration and the extent to which migration contributes to or constrains the livelihoods of those seeking better prospects in the state's urban centres.

7.3 INCOME OF THE MIGRANT WORKERS

Income is a central indicator of the economic wellbeing and migration outcome of migrant workers. Most migrants move to urban centres like Dimapur and Kohima with the expectation of earning more than at origin, and their income in these cities shapes their consumption, savings, remittances, housing, and overall economic security. In practice, the majority are absorbed into informal activities like construction, transport, petty trade, domestic work, and other services marked by irregular employment, daily or

weekly wages, and weak labour regulation. Earnings vary by occupation, skill level, nature of engagement (daily wage, contract, or self employment), gender, and duration of stay: skilled and semiskilled workers generally earn more than unskilled labourers; male migrants tend to access better paying physical jobs, while women are concentrated in low paid domestic and service work; and longer staying migrants often secure more stable and better paying employment through improved skills and networks. Yet a substantial share continue to receive low and fluctuating incomes that barely cover rising urban living costs and limit their capacity to remit or accumulate savings, leaving them vulnerable to poverty, seasonal demand shocks, and income insecurity. Analysing the income distribution of migrants by occupation, gender and duration of stay is therefore crucial for understanding the economic outcomes of migration and the persistent wage inequalities in the urban labour market of Nagaland.

Therefore, assessing the income distribution among migrant workers is essential for understanding the economic outcomes of migration. It reflects both the opportunities and the inequalities that exist within the urban labour market of Nagaland. The analysis of income patterns based on occupation, gender, and duration of stay provides critical insights into the living standards of migrants and the structural nature of wage disparities that persist in the urban economy.

The following tables present the distribution of income among migrant workers according to various categories in Dimapur and Kohima districts. The accompanying analysis interprets these findings to highlight income differences and overall economic conditions of the migrant workforce in the state.

Table 7.1: Income of the migrant workers

Particulars	Dimapur		Kohima		Overall	
	F	%	F	%	F	%
Income of Migrant Workers Below 10,000	67	33.50	67	33.50	134	33.50

1000020000	66	33	66	33	132	33.00
Above 20000	67	33.50	67	33.50	134	33.50
Total	200	100	200	100	400	100

Source: Field Survey, 2020-21

Note: Here F is frequency and ‘%’ refers to percentage of the respondents.

Table 7.1 indicates that in Dimapur, the income distribution of migrant workers is almost evenly split across three income ranges: below ₹10,000 per month, ₹10,000–20,000, and above ₹20,000, each group accounting for roughly one third of the total migrant workforce. In Kohima, the income profile of migrant workers is also distributed across three broad ranges below ₹10,000, ₹10,000–20,000, and above ₹20,000 per month with each class accounting for roughly one third of the total migrant workforce. Overall, the Kohima labour market absorbs migrants across wage levels, but long staying migrants are more likely to stabilize in the middle income range rather than at the extremes.

For Nagaland the income of migrant workers is almost evenly distributed across the three groups of income. Each of these groups accounts for roughly one third of all migrants. Overall, the income pattern suggests a segmented but relatively stable earning structure for migrant workers in the urban labour market of Nagaland.

7.4 EMPLOYMENT OF THE MIGRANT WORKERS

Employment among migrant workers is driven by both necessity and opportunity. Most begin working soon after arrival, usually in informal daily wage or contract based jobs obtained through personal contacts rather than formal recruitment. Over time, they are absorbed into sectors that rely heavily on migrant labour like construction, transport, petty trade, repair work, hotels and restaurants, small manufacturing, security services, and domestic work where they are valued for flexibility and willingness to accept physically demanding tasks for relatively low initial

wages. This pattern, however, keeps many outside formal protections such as written contracts, paid leave or social security, making their employment status vulnerable and negotiable. Duration of stay and social networks shape outcomes, longer settled migrants with stronger connections are more likely to move from casual work into more stable positions and secure better earnings than recent arrivals.

In this study, the employment of migrant workers in the urban centres of Nagaland is grouped into three broad categories; self-employed workers who generate their own livelihood through small scale independent activities; salaried workers who receive regular wages under an employer; and casual labourers who work on a daily or pie cerate basis in largely temporary and informal engagements. These categories are used to describe and analyse the nature of migrant employment in Dimapur and Kohima.

Table 7.2: Employment of the migrant worker

Particulars	Dimapur		Kohima		Overall	
	F	%	F	%	F	%
Self-employed	67	33.50	67	33.50	134	33.50
Salaried	66	33	66	33	132	33.00
Casual labour	67	33.50	67	33.50	134	33.50
Total	200	100	200	100	400	100

Source: Field Survey, 2020-21

Note: ‘F’ refers to Frequency and ‘%’ refers to the percentage of the respondents.

In Dimapur, migrant workers are almost equally distributed across three main forms of employment: self employment, salaried work, and casual labour. Out of 200 migrants, 67 workers (33.50 %) are self-employed, 66 workers (33 %) are in salaried or regular wage jobs, and 67 workers (33.50 %) work as casual labour. This shows that the migrant workforce in Dimapur is shared across own account work, employer based work and daily wage work, with a noticeable share of long staying migrants still relying on casual labour.

In Kohima, migrant workers are also almost evenly divided across the three main forms of employment. Out of 200 migrants, 67 workers (33.50 %) are self-employed, 66 workers (33 %) are in salaried jobs, and 67 workers (33.50 %) are engaged as casual labour. This shows that the migrant workforce in Kohima is distributed across own account work, wage/salary work, and daily wage work, with self employment more visible among those who have stayed longer, and casual labour remaining significant even for very long-term settlers.

In Nagaland as a whole (combining Dimapur and Kohima), migrant workers are almost evenly distributed across the three main forms of employment. Out of 400 migrants, 134 workers (33.50 %) are self-employed, 132 workers (33.00 %) are in salaried or regular wage employment, and 134 workers (33.50 %) work as casual labour. Overall, the distribution shows that migrant workers in Nagaland participate in own account activities, wage/salary work, and daily wage work in almost equal proportions, with a continued presence of casual labour even among those who have stayed for a long period.

7.5 Social capital of the migrant workers in Nagaland

The income of migrant workers provides valuable insight into their economic status and the degree of financial stability achieved after migration. It reflects the nature of employment, skill level, educational background, and opportunities available in the urban labour markets of Dimapur and Kohima. Differences in income distribution among migrants highlight the varying economic benefits gained through migration, depending on factors such as job type, experience, and duration of stay. Examining the income pattern helps to assess the extent to which migration has contributed to improving their livelihood and overall standard of living in these urban centres. The following tables present the frequency and percentage distribution of respondents according to their income levels in Dimapur and Kohima.

Table 7.3 Migrant workers with whom they migrated initially

Particulars	Dimapur		Kohima		Overall	
	F	%	F	%	F	%
Migrated with whom initially						
Alone	46	23	0	0	46	11.50
Family/Relatives	46	23	104	52	150	37.50
Friends	54	27	96	48	150	37.50
Same villagers	54	27	0	0	54	13.50
Total	200	100	200	100	400	100

Source: Field survey 2020-21

Note: 'F' refers to Frequency and '%' refers to the percentage of the respondents.

In Dimapur, migration is strongly network based indicating only 23 % (46 out of 200) who came alone, while the rest moved with family/relatives (23 %), friends (27 %), or people from the same village (27 %), with very long-term migrants most likely to have travelled with friends (43.33 %). In Kohima, no one reported arriving alone; all 200 migrants came either with family/relatives (52 %) or friends (48 %), again underscoring the centrality of social ties. Taken together for Nagaland's urban centres (N = 400), only 11.5 % of migrants came alone, compared to 37.5 % who migrated with family/relatives, 37.5 % with friends, and 13.5 % with same village companions. Thus, entry into Dimapur and Kohima is overwhelmingly organised through kinship, friendship, and village networks rather than individual movement.

Table 7.4 Ease of getting employment of the respondents

Particulars	Dimapur		Kohima		Overall	
	F	%	F	%	F	%
Ease to get employed here						
Difficult	65	32.50	58	29	123	30.75
Moderate	67	33.50	76	38	143	35.75
Easy	68	34	66	33	134	33.50
Total	200	100	200	100	400	100

Source: Field Survey, 2020-21

In Dimapur, migrants are almost evenly split in their assessment of the job market; 32.50 % find it “difficult” to get work, 33.50 % “moderate,” and 34 % “easy,” reflecting varied experiences shaped by access to local networks. In Kohima, perceptions are slightly more favourable, with 29 % calling employment “difficult,” 38 % “moderate,” and 33 % “easy,” suggesting that jobs are obtainable but usually through adjustment, reputation, and social links rather than formal channels. For Nagaland’s urban labour market as a whole (N = 400), 30.75 % of migrants report that getting employed is “difficult,” 35.75 % “moderate,” and 33.50 % “easy,” indicating that while jobs are not guaranteed, familiarity with local employers and social networks helps migrants gradually reduce perceived barriers to work.

Table 7.5 Means to get job/employment

Particulars	Dimapur		Kohima		Overall	
	F	%	F	%	F	%
Means to get job						
Self	41	20.50	0	0	41	10.25
Through Family/relatives	35	17.50	47	23.50	82	20.50
Friends	41	20.50	57	28.50	98	24.50
Same villagers	43	21.50	48	24	91	22.75
Employers	40	20	48	24	88	22.00
Total	200	100	200	100	400	100

Source: Field Survey, 2020-21

Note: ‘F’ refers to Frequency and ‘%’ refers to the percentage of the respondents.

In Dimapur, migrants accessed their present jobs through a range of mostly informal channels: 20.50 % found work by themselves, 17.50 % through family or relatives, 20.50 % through friends, 21.50 % via people from the same village, and 20 % were hired directly by employers, indicating a fairly even mix of self search, social ties and direct contact. In Kohima, no one reported getting work purely on their own; instead, jobs came mainly through networks with 23.50 % via family/relatives, 28.50 %

through friends, 24 % through same village contacts, and 24 % directly from employers showing even stronger dependence on personal recommendations. For Nagaland as a whole (N = 400), only 10.25 % obtained their job entirely by themselves, compared to 24.50 % through friends, 22.75 % via same village contacts, 22.00 % directly from employers, and 20.50 % through family/relatives, confirming that migrant employment is overwhelmingly network driven, with social connections serving as the main gate to urban jobs.

Table 7.6 Respondents view on local people

Particulars	Dimapur		Kohima		Overall	
	F	%	F	%	F	%
Friendly	65	32.50	63	31.50	128	32.00
Helpful	65	32.50	73	36.50	138	34.50
Reliable	70	35	64	32	134	33.50
Total	200	100	200	100	400	100

Source: Field Survey, 2020-21

Note: ‘F’ refers to Frequency and ‘%’ refers to the percentage of the respondents.

In Dimapur, migrant workers generally hold positive views of local people with 32.50 % describe them as “friendly,” 32.50 % as “helpful,” and 35 % as “reliable,” indicating a predominantly supportive image of the host population. A similar pattern is found in Kohima, where 31.50 % of migrants consider locals “friendly,” 36.50 % “helpful,” and 32 % “reliable,” with “helpful” emerging as the most common perception. For Nagaland as a whole (N = 400), 32 % of migrants describe local people as “friendly,” 34.50 % as “helpful,” and 33.50 % as “reliable,” suggesting that migrants largely view the host population as approachable, supportive, and trustworthy rather than hostile.

Table 7.7 Job satisfaction of the respondents

Particulars	Dimapur		Kohima		Overall	
	F	%	F	%	F	%
Job satisfaction						
Yes	67	33.50	75	37.50	142	35.50
No	66	33	64	32	130	32.50
Not sure	67	33.50	61	30.50	128	32.00
Total	200	100	200	100	400	100

Source: Field Survey, 2020-21

Note: 'F' refers to Frequency and '%' refers to the percentage of the respondents.

In Dimapur, migrant workers are almost evenly split in their assessment of job satisfaction with 33.50 % are satisfied, 33 % are not satisfied, and 33.50 % are unsure, with short-term migrants showing nearly identical shares of satisfaction and dissatisfaction (39.62 % “yes” and 39.62 % “no”), indicating considerable ambivalence about job quality and stability. In Kohima, perceptions are slightly more positive: 37.50 % report being satisfied, 32 % not satisfied, and 30.50 % unsure, with long-term migrants particularly likely to be satisfied (44.83 % versus 32.76 % not satisfied). For Nagaland as a whole (N = 400), 35.50 % of migrants report satisfaction, 32.50 % dissatisfaction, and 32 % uncertainty, suggesting that while over one third view their current jobs as acceptable, a comparable proportion either find them unsatisfactory or remain uncertain about their position in the urban labour market.

7.6 REGRESSION ANALYSIS OF THE INCOME AND EMPLOYMENT OF THE MIGRANTS IN NAGALAND

7.6.1 Income outcome

The income and employment position of migrant workers in urban Nagaland are not determined by chance but are shaped by a combination of personal characteristics and local labour market conditions. Migrants enter Dimapur and Kohima with different levels of education, skills, age, work experience, contacts, and duration of stay in the destination, and these differences translate into unequal access to jobs and unequal earnings. In many cases,

employment is obtained informally through relatives, friends, or employers rather than through formal recruitment, and this initial access influences both the stability of work and the level of wages. To understand which of these factors actually matter the most, the study applies regression analysis. By modelling income and employment as dependent variables and introducing predictors such as migration pathway (migrated alone or with contacts), age, education, skill level, ease of getting a job, view of local acceptance, and length of stay, the analysis identifies the specific determinants that significantly raise or limit a migrant workers earning capacity and labour market position in Nagaland.

Table 7.8. Income as economic outcome of the migrants in Dimapur.

Variables	Short term migrants	Medium term Migrants	Long term Migrants	Very Long term Migrants	Total Migrants
	<i>Coefficients</i> β	<i>Coefficients</i> β	<i>Coefficients</i> β	<i>Coefficients</i> β	<i>Coefficients</i> β
Constant	1.6883*** (5.29)	2.3477*** (7.44)	1.3749*** (5.03)	1.61797*** (3.43)	1.8395*** (11.43)
Migrated with	0.0503*** (4.85)	0.1702*** (3.70)	0.1745*** (4.66)	0.36115*** (4.73)	0.2174*** (9.52)
Age	0.0167*** (8.07)	-0.1498*** (10.61)	-0.1318*** (9.42)	-0.12579*** (4.63)	-0.1394*** (17.47)
Education	0.0680*** (2.97)	0.3604*** (6.01)	0.5368*** (9.65)	0.34369*** (3.83)	0.3665*** (11.32)
Skill	0.0617*** (3.63)	-0.2154*** (3.72)	-0.2771*** (5.18)	-0.31827*** (3.64)	-0.2366*** (7.85)
Easy to get employed here	0.0655** (2.53)	0.1070* (1.83)	0.2428*** (4.50)	0.14709 (1.41)	0.1582*** (5.04)
Means to get job	0.0373 (0.85)	-0.1135*** (3.20)	-0.0759** (2.57)	-0.08131 (1.41)	-0.0814*** (4.50)
view on local people	0.0652*** (5.81)	0.2495*** (4.39)	0.2092*** (4.12)	0.26093** (2.57)	0.2786*** (8.94)
Job satisfaction	0.0705*** (3.78)	-0.3114*** (5.85)	-0.1670*** (3.01)	-0.23567** (2.66)	-0.2719*** (8.76)
Over all model fit	R ² = 0.917 F-value=28.903*** N=53	R ² = 0.8509 F-value=39.22** * N=64	R ² = 0.8707 F-value=37.04** * N=53	R ² =0.8459 F-value=14.41** * N=30	R ² =0.8207 F-value=109.30*** N=200

Note: Figures in the parentheses indicate t-value

***, **, & * indicate significance level at 1%, 5% and 10%, respectively

Source: Field survey 2020-21

The regression results in Table 7.8 show that migrant income in Dimapur is systematically determined by identifiable factors rather than random differences. The income regression shows a very good overall fit ($R^2 = 0.8207$, $F = 109.30^{***}$, $N = 200$), indicating that the chosen social and human capital variables explain more than four-fifths of the variation in migrants' income. The coefficients for migrated with ($\beta = 0.2174^{***}$), education ($\beta = 0.3665^{***}$), ease to get employed ($\beta = 0.1582^{***}$) and view on local people ($\beta = 0.2786^{***}$) are all positive and highly significant, implying that moving with known persons, having higher education, finding it easier to obtain a job and holding favourable perceptions of local residents are each associated with higher income categories. In contrast, age ($\beta = -0.1394^{***}$), skill ($\beta = -0.2366^{***}$), means to get job ($\beta = -0.0814^{***}$) and job satisfaction ($\beta = -0.2719^{***}$) carry negative and statistically significant coefficients, suggesting that positive and statistically significant coefficients indicates higher values of the corresponding variables which are associated with movement into higher income categories, other factors remaining constant. By contrast, negative and significant coefficients imply an inverse relationship, meaning that migrants in the higher categories of those variables tend to be located in relatively lower income group.

Table 7.9. Income as economic outcome of the migrants in Kohima.

Variables	Short term migrants	Medium term Migrants	Long term Migrants	Very Long term Migrants	Total Migrants
	<i>Coefficients</i> β	<i>Coefficients</i> β	<i>Coefficients</i> β	<i>Coefficients</i> β	<i>Coefficients</i> β
Constant	3.5796^{***} (10.23)	2.5481^{***} (6.29)	2.7469^{***} (9.52)	2.36788^{***} (4.36)	2.74943^{***} (15.02)
Migrated with whom initially	0.1451 (1.37)	0.2659^{**} (2.35)	0.05799 (0.74)	0.16356 (1.08)	0.17091^{***} (3.34)
Age	0.07243^{***} (3.29)	0.05730^{**} (2.46)	0.07941^{***} (4.85)	0.06568^{**} (2.42)	0.06647^{***} (6.30)
Education	0.0958^{***} (2.86)	0.1347^{***} (3.68)	0.1802^{***} (7.86)	0.0824^{**} (2.26)	0.1319^{***} (8.70)

Skill	0.3752*** (5.65)	0.3470*** (4.79)	0.2093*** (4.43)	0.3445*** (4.22)	0.3075*** (9.71)
Easy to get employed here	0.3441*** (5.06)	0.1821** (2.53)	0.2456*** (5.15)	0.1965* (1.95)	0.2372*** (7.42)
Means to get job	0.4762*** (9.62)	0.3509*** (7.23)	0.3597*** (10.16)	0.3419*** (5.35)	0.3682*** (16.14)
view on local people	0.4813*** (7.43)	0.3324*** (4.66)	0.5040*** (10.83)	0.4363*** (5.10)	0.4227*** (13.29)
Job satisfaction	0.5728*** (8.54)	0.4206*** (6.30)	0.4219*** (8.83)	0.3652*** (4.25)	0.4425*** (14.19)
Over all model fit	R² = 0.891 F-value=38.85*** N=47	R² = 0.808 F-value=27.29** N=61	R² = 0.891 F-value=50.24** N=58	R² =0.798 F-value=12.32** N=34	R² =0.823 F-value=110.84** N=200

Note: Figures in the parentheses indicate t-value

***, **, & * indicate significance level at 1%, 5% and 10%, respectively.

Source: Field survey 2020-21

For Kohima, the income regression exhibits excellent overall fit ($R^2 = 0.823$, $F = 110.84^{***}$, $N = 200$), indicating that the chosen set of social and human capital variables explains more than four-fifths of the variation in migrants' income and that the model as a whole is highly significant at the 1 per cent level. The constant term is negative and strongly significant ($\beta = -2.7494^{***}$), functioning primarily as the baseline intercept when all covariates are at their reference categories.

For the total sample, all explanatory variables enter with positive and statistically significant coefficients, confirming that they are systematically associated with higher income categories. "Migrated with whom initially" ($\beta = 0.1709^{***}$), "Means to get job" ($\beta = 0.3682^{***}$), "View on local people" ($\beta = 0.4227^{***}$) and "Job satisfaction" ($\beta = 0.4425^{***}$) show strong, highly significant effects, underscoring the importance of social capital, perceptions of locals and subjective job outcomes in shaping earnings. Human capital variables are also important: "Age" ($\beta = 0.0665^{***}$), "Education" ($\beta = 0.1319^{***}$) and "Skill" ($\beta = 0.3075^{***}$) are all positively and significantly related to income, while "Easy to get employed here" ($\beta = 0.2372^{***}$) further indicates that easier access to jobs is associated with better income positions. The pattern of positive and

mostly significant coefficients is broadly consistent across the four duration groups, reinforcing the conclusion that both human capital and social capital exert a strong, favourable and statistically significant influence on migrants' economic outcomes in Kohima.

Table 7.10. Income of the migrants of Nagaland

Variables	Short term migrants	Medium term Migrants	Long term Migrants	Very Long term Migrants	Total Migrants
	<i>Coefficients</i> β	<i>Coefficients</i> β	<i>Coefficients</i> β	<i>Coefficients</i> β	<i>Coefficients</i> β
Constant	1.88839*** (8.52)	2.01298*** (10.75)	2.18617*** (9.03)	2.19410*** (6.41)	2.09893*** (18.36)
Migrated with	0.20827*** (6.25)	0.21220*** (8.16)	0.21131*** (6.40)	0.16520*** (3.89)	0.19861*** (12.53)
Age	-0.15318*** (13.03)	-0.17092*** (17.89)	-0.15918*** (12.70)	-0.16904*** (10.63)	-0.16147*** (27.75)
Education	0.19632*** (4.38)	0.25354*** (7.04)	0.19311*** (4.00)	0.10228** (1.70)	0.20382*** (9.18)
Skill	-0.17770*** (4.05)	-0.16450*** (4.76)	-0.13729*** (2.87)	-0.23434*** (4.12)	-0.17384*** (7.99)
Easy to get employed here	0.28749*** (6.39)	0.32473*** (9.34)	0.20780*** (4.36)	0.42795*** (6.86)	0.29100*** (13.23)
Means to get job	-0.23599*** (8.58)	-0.25573*** (12.93)	-0.21350*** (8.25)	-0.18223*** (5.18)	-0.23433*** (18.75)
view on local people	0.33121*** (7.21)	0.34224*** (9.07)	0.27990*** (6.10)	0.35882*** (5.60)	0.30940*** (13.78)
Job satisfaction	-0.07330** (1.65)	-0.15321*** (4.31)	-0.11549*** (2.35)	-0.16866*** (2.78)	-0.11387*** (5.11)
Over all model fit	R ² =0.8126 F-value= 49.318*** N=100	R ² = 0.8469 F- value=80.2079** * N=125	R ² = 0.8096 F- value=54.2059* ** N=111	R ² =0.8366 F- value=35.2054* ** N=64	R ² =0.8138 F- value=213.5916 *** N=400

Note: Figures in the parentheses indicate t-value

***, **, & * indicate significance level at 1%, 5% and 10%, respectively.

Source: Field survey 2020-21

The regression results for sample aggregate show that migrant income in Nagaland is very well explained by the variables in the model for every duration category (Short term, Medium term, Long term, Very long term) and for all migrants

combined. The R^2 values range from about 0.81 to 0.85 across the subgroups and 0.8138 for the full sample ($N = 400$), which means roughly 81–85 % of the variation in income is explained by the included factors. The F-values (49.318***, 80.2079***, 54.2059***, 35.2054*** and 213.5916***) are large and highly significant at the 1 % level, confirming that each model is jointly significant and statistically reliable. The main determinants of income are also individually strong and mostly significant at the 1 % level. Migrating with someone has a positive and highly significant effect on income, meaning networked entry into Nagaland improves earnings. Education is positive and significant, indicating that higher education is rewarded with higher income even in an informal labour market. By contrast, Age is negative and highly significant, which implies that, on average, older migrants tend to earn less than younger migrants in urban labour market. Skill is also negative and highly significant in all groups, which suggests that remaining in manual/technical roles is associated with lower income, rather than higher income, at this stage; in other words, physical skill alone does not guarantee better earnings. “Easy to get employed here” is positive and highly significant, showing that quick absorption into work translates directly into higher income. “Means to get job” is negative and strongly significant, which indicates that certain channels of job entry (often informal or dependent) are associated with lower earnings. Attitude/acceptance variables also matter: a positive “view on local people” is strongly and positively linked to income, implying that better relations with locals support better economic outcomes. Finally, “Job satisfaction” is generally negative and significant, meaning higher earning migrants also report lower satisfaction, consistent with the idea that higher income is often tied to more demanding or insecure work. Overall, the Nagaland wide results confirm that migrant earnings are shaped by social entry, education, ease of placement, and local acceptance, and that these effects are statistically strong at the state level.

Hypothesis 3: Social capital and economic outcome of the migrants are significantly related.

In the survey, social capital is captured by two variables: (i) whether the migrants arrived with support (“Migrated with”), and (ii) whether the migrant accessed work through contacts (“Means to get job” such as family/relatives, friends, same villagers, or direct employer link). Economic outcome is captured through current income level of the migrant worker.

Firstly, the regression output for income shows that the variable “Migrated with” has a positive and highly significant effect on income for every migrant group and for the entire sample. For short-term migrants the coefficient is $\beta = 0.20827$ with $t = 6.25$; for medium-term migrants $\beta = 0.21220$ with $t = 8.16$; for long-term migrants $\beta = 0.21131$ with $t = 6.40$; for very long-term migrants $\beta = 0.16520$ with $t = 3.89$; and for all migrants combined $\beta = 0.19861$ with $t = 12.53$. All of these coefficients indicates statistical significance at the 1 % level. In practical terms, a positive and statistically significant coefficient means that migrants who reported “migrated with” (i.e. who came with family members, relatives, or known contacts instead of arriving alone) are more likely to be in a higher income category. This evidence pointed that stronger social capital is associated with better economic outcome. This shows that access to employment in the destination is network driven.

The frequency distributions also shows that migrants enter the labour market through social connections, and the regression analysis output shows that migrants who have that support earn significantly higher income even after controlling for other characteristics like age, education, and skill. Therefore, the data demonstrate that social capital (migration with support and embedded labour market contacts) improves the migrant’s income position. *The hypothesis that social capital and economic outcome are significantly related in the urban labour market of Nagaland is hence accepted and proved .*

7.6.2 Employment outcome

Table 7.11 Employment of the migrants in Dimapur District of Nagaland

Variables	Short term migrants	Medium term Migrants	Long term Migrants	Very Long term Migrants	Total Migrants
	Coefficients β	Coefficients β	Coefficients β	Coefficients β	Coefficients β
Constant	2.5668*** (8.89)	2.9638*** (8.73)	2.5324*** (8.10)	2.8027*** (6.20)	2.6799*** (16.89)
Migrated with	0.2134*** (4.69)	0.1406*** (2.84)	0.2067*** (4.83)	0.3049*** (4.17)	0.2047*** (9.09)
Age	-0.1853*** (12.24)	-0.1829*** (12.04)	-0.1906*** (11.91)	-0.2266*** (8.70)	-0.1882*** (23.92)
Education	0.0135 (0.22)	0.1188* (1.84)	0.1786*** (2.81)	0.1555* (1.81)	0.1119*** (3.51)
Skill	-0.1489** (2.67)	-0.2852*** (4.58)	-0.2862*** (4.68)	-0.3523*** (4.20)	-0.2413*** (8.11)
Easy to get employed here	0.1553** (2.62)	0.1756*** (2.80)	0.2018*** (3.27)	0.2993*** (3.00)	0.1733*** (5.61)
Means to get job	-0.07997** (2.37)	-0.0835** (2.19)	-0.1481*** (4.39)	-0.1389** (2.51)	-0.1128*** (6.33)
View on local people	0.07284 (1.23)	0.0236 (0.39)	0.1147* (1.98)	-0.0134 (0.14)	0.0776** (2.52)
Job satisfaction	-0.02322 (0.36)	-0.0696 (1.21)	-0.0256 (0.40)	-0.0976 (1.15)	-0.0515* (1.68)
Over all model fit	R ² = 0.8591 F-value=33.54*** N=53	R ² = 0.8191 F-value=31.12** * N=64	R ² = 0.8413 F-value=29.15** * N=53	R ² =0.8686 F-value=17.35** * N=30	R ² =0.8257 F-value=113.06*** * N=200

Note: Figures in the parentheses indicate t-value

***, **, & * indicate significance level at 1%, 5% and 10%, respectively

Source: Field survey 2020-21

The overall model fit is very strong. The R² values range from 0.8191 to 0.8686 across the four duration groups, and 0.8257 for the total sample, which means that roughly 82–87% of the variation in current employment status is explained by the included predictors. The F-statistics are large, for example, F = 33.54 for short-term migrants (N = 53), F = 31.12 for medium-term migrants (N = 64), F = 29.15 for long-term migrants (N = 53), F = 17.35 for very long-term migrants (N = 30), and F = 113.06 for all migrants combined (N = 200). In all cases, the F-values are statistically significant at the 1% level (***), which confirms that the set of explanatory variables, taken

together, has a strong and statistically significant effect on migrant employment in Dimapur.

Positive and statistically significant coefficients for migrated with ($\beta = 0.2047^{***}$), education ($\beta = 0.1119^{***}$), ease to get employed ($\beta = 0.1733^{***}$) and view on local people ($\beta = 0.0776^{**}$) show that arriving with known persons, higher educational attainment, easier job access and favourable perceptions of locals are associated with better employment positions, other factors held constant. By contrast, age ($\beta = -0.1882^{***}$), skill ($\beta = -0.2413^{***}$) and means to get job ($\beta = -0.1128^{***}$) have negative and significant effects, implying that, given their coding, higher values on these variables are linked to relatively weaker employment categories, while job satisfaction is only weakly negative ($\beta = -0.0515^*$).

Table 7.12: Employment of the migrants in Kohima District of Nagaland

Variables	Short term migrants	Medium term Migrants	Long term Migrants	Very Long term Migrants	Total Migrants
	<i>Coefficients</i> β	<i>Coefficients</i> β	<i>Coefficients</i> β	<i>Coefficients</i> β	<i>Coefficients</i> β
Constant	0.5430 (1.51)	1.0125*** (2.95)	1.4662*** (4.14)	0.7138 (1.53)	0.9100*** (4.93)
Migrated with	0.3420*** (3.14)	0.1527 (1.59)	0.1847* (1.93)	0.1896 (1.45)	0.1911*** (3.70)
Age	-0.1504*** (6.65)	-0.1645*** (8.33)	-0.1874*** (9.34)	-0.1466*** (6.27)	-0.1580*** (14.87)
Education	0.3973*** (11.52)	0.3493*** (11.26)	0.3145*** (11.19)	0.3120*** (9.93)	0.3540*** (23.17)
Skill	0.0221 (0.32)	-0.1608** (2.62)	-0.2335*** (4.03)	-0.0241 (0.34)	-0.1030*** (3.23)
Easy to get employed here	0.1573** (2.25)	0.2938*** (4.82)	0.0635 (1.08)	0.2044** (2.35)	0.1653*** (5.13)
Means to get job	-0.2227*** (4.37)	-0.1874*** (4.56)	-0.1031** (2.37)	-0.1147** (2.08)	-0.1445*** (6.28)
View on local people	0.2138*** (3.21)	0.2921*** (4.84)	0.2160*** (3.78)	0.3511*** (4.77)	0.2696*** (8.41)
Job satisfaction	-0.0115 (0.17)	-0.0738 (1.30)	0.0638 (1.09)	-0.0468 (0.63)	-0.0232 (0.74)

Over all model fit	R² = 0.8607 F-value=29.36*** N=47	R² =0.8396 F-value=34.02** * N=61	R² =0.8523 F-value=35.34** * N=58	R² =0.8987 F-value=27.729* ** N=34	R² =0.8200 F-value=108.75*** N=200
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Note: Figures in the parentheses indicate t-value

*****, **, & * indicate significance level at 1%, 5% and 10%, respectively**

Employment outcomes of migrant workers in Kohima too are not random; they are strongly shaped by education, age, networks, labour market access, and local acceptance like that in Dimapur. Age has a negative and highly significant effect in all groups, which shows that younger migrants are more likely to be employed than older migrants. Education is positive and strongly significant at the 1% level across all duration categories, meaning that more educated migrants have a higher likelihood of employment. “Migrated with” (who they arrived with) is also positive and significant for some groups and in the full sample, suggesting that coming with support (family/relatives/contacts) improves employment chances. “View on local people” is consistently positive and highly significant, indicating that migrants who report better relations with local residents are more likely to be employed. Access factors also matter: migrants who say it is easy to get work in Kohima are more likely to be employed, while the variable “means to get job” is negative and significant, showing that not all job channels are equally effective. Skill is significant and negative for some groups, suggesting that in Kohima’s labour market, higher skilled migrants may not immediately enter available jobs, especially in informal work. Job satisfaction is not significant.

The overall model fit is high in all cases. For short-term migrants, the model yields $R^2 = 0.8607$ with an F-value of 29.36 ($N = 47$); for medium-term migrants, $R^2 = 0.8396$ with an F-value of 34.02 ($N = 61$); for long-term migrants, $R^2 = 0.8523$ with an F-value of 35.34 ($N = 58$); for very long-term migrants, $R^2 = 0.8987$ with an F-value of 27.729 ($N = 34$); and for the total sample, $R^2 = 0.8200$ with an F-value of 108.75 ($N = 200$). In all cases, the F-statistic is statistically significant at the 1 per cent level (***). This means that, taken together, the explanatory variables have a joint and statistically significant effect on migrant employment status in Kohima. The models explain between

about 82 per cent and 90 per cent of the variation in employment outcomes, and the joint significance tests confirm that these are not random associations.

Table 7.13: Employment of the migrants of Nagaland

Variables	Short term migrants	Medium term Migrants	Long term Migrants	Very Long term Migrants	Total Migrants
	<i>Coefficients</i> β	<i>Coefficients</i> β	<i>Coefficients</i> β	<i>Coefficients</i> β	<i>Coefficients</i> β
Constant	2.2701*** (10.36)	2.4098*** (12.36)	2.573*** (10.36)	2.1879*** (6.38)	2.392*** (20.78)
Migrated with whom initially	0.1659*** (5.04)	0.2338*** (8.64)	0.205*** (5.04)	0.186*** (4.38)	0.204*** (12.77)
Age	-0.1416*** (12.19)	-0.1452*** (14.62)	-0.149*** (12.19)	-0.145*** (9.08)	-0.143*** (24.40)
Education	0.2601*** (5.87)	0.2405*** (6.42)	0.155*** (5.87)	0.1713*** (2.84)	0.216*** (9.68)
Skill	-0.2020*** (4.66)	-0.1956*** (5.45)	-0.191*** (4.66)	-0.160*** (2.80)	-0.187*** (8.52)
Easy to get employed here	0.3189*** (7.17)	0.3061*** (8.47)	0.296*** (7.17)	0.443*** (7.08)	0.314*** (14.16)
Means to get job	-0.2755*** (10.13)	-0.3137*** (15.26)	-0.285*** (10.14)	-0.235*** (6.68)	-0.291*** (23.11)
View on local people	0.1480*** (3.26)	0.1905*** (4.86)	0.134*** (3.26)	0.255*** (3.98)	0.167*** (7.37)
Job satisfaction	-0.0691* (1.57)	-0.1597*** (4.32)	-0.089** (1.80)	-0.222*** (3.65)	-0.120*** (5.34)
Over all model fit	R ² =0.8077 F-value= 47.786*** N=100	R ² = 0.8393 F-value=75.7217* ** N=125	R ² = 0.8110 F-value=54.71785 *** N=111	R ² =0.8304 F-value= 33.6617*** N=64	R ² = 0.8112 F-value=210.1013* ** N=400

Note: Figures in the parentheses indicate t-value

***, **, & * indicate significance level at 1%, 5% and 10%, respectively

Source: Field survey 2020-21

The overall model fit is high in all cases. For short-term migrants, the model yields R² = 0.8607 with an F-value of 29.36 (N = 47); for medium-term migrants, R² = 0.8396 with an F-value of 34.02 (N = 61); for long-term migrants, R² = 0.8523 with an F-value of 35.34 (N = 58); for very long-term migrants, R² = 0.8987 with an F-value of

27.729 (N = 34); and for the total sample, $R^2 = 0.8200$ with an F-value of 108.75 (N = 200). In all cases, the F-statistic is statistically significant at the 1 per cent level (***). This means that, taken together, the explanatory variables have a joint and statistically significant effect on migrant employment status in Kohima. Put simply, the models explain between about 82 per cent and 90 per cent of the variation in employment outcomes, and the joint significance tests confirm that these are not random associations.

For total migrants, the coefficients are all in the expected directions and many are highly significant. “Migrated with” ($\beta = 0.1911***$), “Education” ($\beta = 0.3540***$), “Easy to get employed here” ($\beta = 0.1653***$) and “View on local people” ($\beta = 0.2696***$) are positive and statistically significant, implying that coming with known persons, higher schooling, easier access to jobs and more favourable perceptions of local residents are each associated with better employment positions, *ceteris paribus*. By contrast, “Age” ($\beta = -0.1580***$), “Skill” ($\beta = -0.1030***$) and “Means to get job” ($\beta = -0.1445***$) enter with negative and significant coefficients, indicating that, given the variables, higher values on these dimensions are linked to relatively weaker employment categories after controlling for other factors. “Job satisfaction” is negative but statistically insignificant ($\beta = -0.0232$).

7.6.3 Conclusion on Income and Employment

The analysis of income and employment among migrant workers in urban Nagaland shows that the labour market in Dimapur and Kohima is structured, selective, and deeply network dependent. Migrants are not entering a neutral or formal market where jobs are publicly advertised and wages are fixed by clear rules. Instead, access to employment is negotiated through personal links, and this early access shapes later economic outcomes. A large share of workers report that they secured their jobs through relatives, friends, people from the same village, or direct employer connections rather than open competition. This confirms that social capital operates as an informal employment institution, deciding who gets placed quickly, in what kind of work, and on what terms.

Income trajectories are unequal at entry. Education and specific skills increase the chances of moving from insecure, low wage daily labour into steadier, better paid work, even within the informal sector. Duration of stay also lifts earnings and job stability: newcomers accept low pay to “get in,” then, as they build employer ties and learn local wage norms, they progress. Thus, income growth reflects both a return to skill and a return to survival the payoff from enduring and embedding in the destination.

Social capital is economically valuable. Migrants who arrive with family or contacts, or who are introduced directly to employers, consistently achieve better labour market outcomes. In regressions, social capital remains a significant predictor of income even after controlling for age, education, skill and other factors. Networks therefore do more than enable entry; they continue to protect and upgrade a worker’s position.

At the same time, the data reveal areas of vulnerability. The labour market rewards youth and physical availability, and there is evidence that older migrants may not automatically move into more secure or better paid roles. Many migrants continue to work long hours in informal, unregulated conditions, without formal protection. Income from such work is central not only for daily survival in Nagaland but also for sending remittances back home, supporting dependents, and justifying continued stay in the state.

Overall, income and employment in Nagaland show both opportunity and constraint. The urban economy absorbs migrant labour and offers livelihoods, but access and advancement are uneven and often depend on social ties. Human capital like education, skills, work experience and social capital like family networks, contacts, employer links, local acceptance together shape who moves into stable work and who remains in lowpaid, marginal jobs. Outcomes in Dimapur and Kohima are therefore not accidental, they reflect an embedded system in which advantage accumulates through networks, time spent at the destination, and the ability to convert basic skills into bargaining power.

7.7 SAVING AND REMITTANCES OF THE MIGRANT WORKERS

Savings and remittances are central to understanding the economic behaviour of migrant workers. Savings refer to the portion of current earnings set aside after meeting living expenses at the destination, while remittances are transfers cash or in kind sent to families and dependents at the place of origin. Together, they link individual labour market outcomes at the destination with household welfare, consumption smoothing, and investment decisions at the origin. For many migrants, especially those in informal and low wage segments, the allocation of each rupee between subsistence, saving, and remitting is a tightly managed, recurring decision.

Several economic lenses explain why migrants save and remit. Lifecycle and precautionary motives suggest that workers accumulate savings to insure against income volatility, job loss, or health shocks, and to finance future goals such as housing, business startups, or children's education. The "new economics of labour migration" highlights household strategies like migration diversifies income sources, and remittances act as intra family risk sharing, repayment for migration financing, or an implicit contract tying the migrant's effort and the household's support. Exchange and altruism motives coexist: migrants remit to fulfill obligations, maintain status within kin networks, or out of genuine concern for household welfare.

Determinants operate at multiple levels. Individual characteristics like age, education, skill, and sector of employment shape earning capacity and thus the scope to save and remit. Household factors like marital status and number of dependents tilt the balance toward remittance obligations and away from local savings when needs at origin are pressing. Social capital is often decisive. Bonding ties (family, kin, same village networks) lower entry costs and strengthen remittance obligations; bridging ties (friends, employers, associations) improve job search efficiency and wage prospects, raising the capacity to save; linking ties (access to formal institutions, permits, and banking channels) reduce transaction costs and make both saving and remitting more reliable.

Trust in local people and job satisfaction capture embeddedness in the destination labour market, which typically stabilizes earnings and supports regular transfers.

For empirical analysis, savings and remittances can be modelled as functions of income, employment stability, household obligations, migration duration, and social capital indicators. In this study, the objective is to quantify how labour market outcomes and social capital shape migrants' financial choices. The expectation is that higher income, formal sector attachment, stronger bridging/linking ties, favourable views of locals, and job satisfaction increase both savings and remittances, while greater dependent burdens at origin shift the allocation toward remittances. The analysis that follows tests these relationships and discusses their implications for migrant welfare and household resilience.

Table 7.14. Types of migration of the respondents

Particulars		Dimapur		Kohima		Overall	
		F	%	F	%	F	%
Types of migration	Temporary	74	37	66	33	140	35
	Seasonal	64	32	61	30.50	125	31.25
	Permanent	62	31	73	36.50	135	33.75
	Total	200	100	200	100	400	100

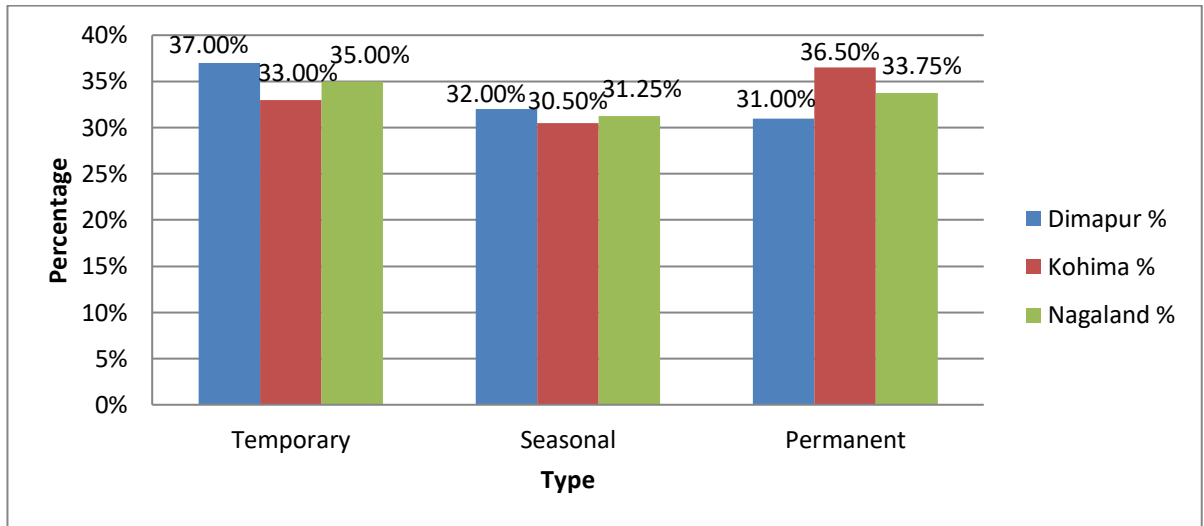
Source: Field Survey, 2020-21

Note: 'F' refers to Frequency and '%' refers to the percentage of the respondents.

The table shows an almost even overall distribution of migration types, but with distinct city profiles. For Nagaland as a whole, about one-third of respondents are temporary migrants (35 %), one-third seasonal (31.25 %), and one-third permanent (33.75 %), indicating a mixed migration system in which short and long duration movements coexist. Dimapur leans toward short stay mobility, with temporary (37 %) and seasonal (32 %) migrants slightly exceeding permanent migrants (31 %), consistent with cyclical, project based and rotational work. Kohima shows the opposite pattern:

permanent migrants constitute the largest share (36.5 %), followed by temporary (33 %) and seasonal (30.5 %) migrants, reflecting more stable administrative and service sector employment that favours longer term settlement.

Figure 6.a Types of migration



Source: Table 7.14

Table 7.15 Level of living expenses of the respondents

Particulars		Dimapur		Kohima		Overall	
		F	%	F	%	F	%
Living expenses level	Low (upto Rs.10000 monthly)	101	50.50	73	36.50	174	43.50
	Medium (Rs.10000 to Rs.20,000 monthly)	99	49.50	65	32.50	164	41
	High (More than Rs.20000 monthly)	0	0	62	31	62	15.50

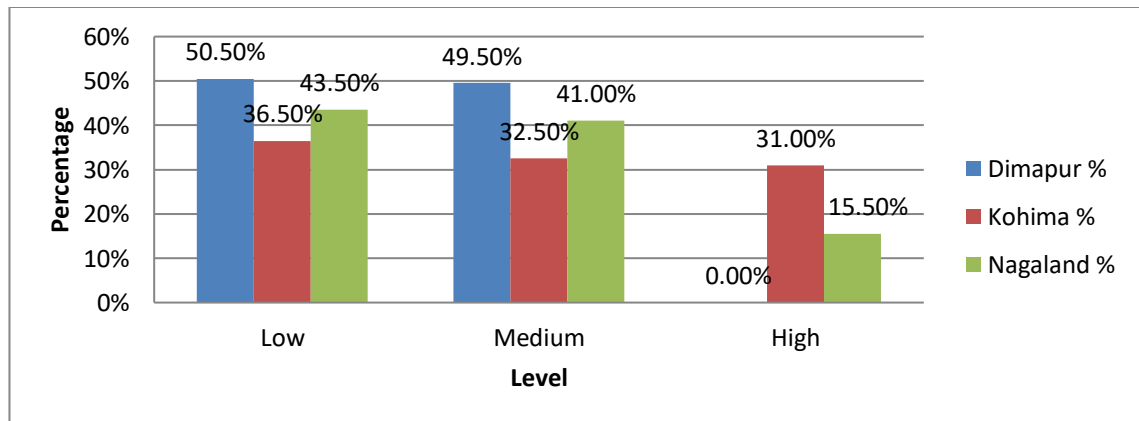
	Total	200	100	200	100	400	100
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Source: Field Survey, 2020-21

Note: ‘F’ refers to Frequency and ‘%’ refers to the percentage of the respondents.

The sample aggregate in Table 7.15 shows that migrant households’ living expenses are concentrated at the lower and middle tiers, with 43.5 % reporting low expenses and 41.0 % medium, while only 15.5 % face high expenses. This implies that about 83 % of migrants manage on constrained budgets, with a small minority incurring sustained high outlays. City wise, Dimapur’s respondents are almost evenly split between low (50.5 %) and medium (49.5 %) expense levels and none report high expenses, suggesting a cost structure compatible with lower wages, shared housing, and tighter expenditure control. In Kohima, however, 31.0 % report high expenses, compared to 36.5 % low and 32.5 % medium, reflecting its role as an administrative centre with higher rents, costlier services and utilities, especially for longer term settlers and families.

Figure 6.b Level of expense of the respondents



Source: Table 7.15

7.8 Regression Analysis of the Respondents Saving and Remittances

7.8.1 Saving

Table 7.16 Saving of the migrants in dimapur.

Variables	Short term migrants	Medium term Migrants	Long term Migrants	Very Long term Migrants	Total Migrants
	<i>Coefficients</i> β	<i>Coefficients</i> β	<i>Coefficients</i> β	<i>Coefficients</i> β	<i>Coefficients</i> β
Constant	5.431 (8.68)***	4.0643 (5.05)***	3.921 (6.78)***	5.187 (4.35)***	4.640 (12.67)***
Age	0.299 (8.74)***	0.309 (8.64)***	0.332 (9.47)***	0.344 (5.71)***	0.321 (17.43)***
Education	0.668 (5.92)***	0.665 (4.78)***	0.536 (3.697)***	0.843 (4.92)***	0.661 (9.70)***
Migration Type	0.709 (6.57)***	0.424 (3.78)***	0.646 (6.31)***	0.843 (4.92)***	0.604 (10.71)***
Employment Sector	0.238 (2.17)**	0.103 (0.91)	0.235 (2.06)**	0.451 (2.71)**	0.233 (4.04)***
Living expenses	1.008 (5.79)***	0.856 (4.47)***	0.553 (3.20)***	0.657 (2.69)**	0.823 (8.70)***
Dependents	0.131 (2.33)**	0.162 (2.83)***	0.146 (3.13)***	0.109 (1.77)*	0.129 (4.77)***
Working hours	0.089 (2.31)**	0.073 (1.43)	0.031 (0.71)	0.062 (0.88)	0.055 (2.31)**
INCOME	0.156 (1.17)	0.164 (1.02)	0.026 (0.17)	0.001 (0.01)	0.008 (0.10)
Over all model fit	R ² = 0.85 F-value=31.89*** N=53	R ² = 0.76 F-value=22.34** * N=64	R ² = 0.87 F-value=35.82** * N=53	R ² =0.85 F-value=14.32** * N=30	R ² =0.80 F-value=94.41*** N=200

Note: Figures in the parentheses indicate t-value

***, **, & * indicate significance level at 1%, 5% and 10%, respectively.

The table 7.16 shows the regression models exhibit strong overall fit across all duration groups and in the pooled sample. For short-term migrants (N = 53), the model explains about 85 percent of the variation in saving (R² = 0.85) and the joint F-test is

highly significant ($F = 31.89$, $p < 0.01$), indicating that the regressors collectively have substantial explanatory power. For medium-term migrants ($N = 64$), explanatory power is somewhat lower but still robust ($R^2 = 0.76$; $F = 22.34$, $p < 0.01$), consistent with greater heterogeneity during the transition period. The long-term model achieves the highest fit ($N = 53$; $R^2 = 0.87$; $F = 35.82$, $p < 0.01$), suggesting that once migrants are more settled, the observed covariates capture saving behavior particularly well. For very long-term migrants ($N = 30$), the model remains strong ($R^2 = 0.85$; $F = 14.32$, $p < 0.01$), although the smaller sample warrants cautious interpretation of standard errors. In the pooled model combining all migrants ($N = 200$), the fit remains high ($R^2 = 0.80$; $F = 94.41$, $p < 0.01$), confirming that the covariates are jointly important predictors of saving in the overall population.

Taken together, these R^2 values indicate that the model accounts for a large share of cross sectional differences in saving, with the F-statistics confirming that the included variables contribute meaningfully beyond random noise.

Table 7.17: Saving of the migrants in Kohima

Variables	Short term migrants	Medium term Migrants	Long term Migrants	Very Long term Migrants	Total Migrants
	<i>Coefficients</i> β	<i>Coefficients</i> β	<i>Coefficients</i> β	<i>Coefficients</i> β	<i>Coefficients</i> β
Constant	1.181 (2.01)*	1.084 (2.90)***	1.732 (2.78)***	1.600 (1.80)*	1.261 (5.00)***
Income	0.096 (0.61)	0.193 (1.84)*	0.095 (0.62)	0.233 (0.93)	0.008 (0.13)
Migration type	0.220 (1.43)	0.289 (2.50)**	0.259 (1.94)*	0.297 (1.53)	0.267 (4.06)***
Employment sector	0.125 (0.92)	0.025 (0.22)	0.527 (3.42)***	0.036 (0.19)	0.155 (2.28)**
Living expense	0.102 (0.63)	0.401 (3.65)***	0.252 (1.67)*	0.231 (1.20)	0.302 (4.54)***

Dependents	0.735 (8.43)***	0.686 (9.81)***	0.704 (8.38)***	0.727 (5.45)***	0.696 (18.16)***
working hours	0.199 (2.29)**	0.048 (0.76)	0.088 (1.06)	0.082 (0.71)	0.097 (2.50)**
Age	0.106 (1.99)*	0.191 (4.52)***	0.182 (3.91)***	0.168 (2.15)**	0.158 (6.78)***
Education	0.085 (1.12)	0.166 (2.94)***	0.117 (1.66)	0.119 (1.04)	0.1223 (3.62)***
Over all model fit	R² = 0.74 F-value=13.55* ** N=47	R² = 0.81 F-value=28.37*** N=61	R² = 0.71 F-value=15.24* ** N=58	R² =0.71 F-value=7.59** * N=34	R² =0.72 F-value=63.02*** N=200

Note: Figures in the parentheses indicate t-value

*****, **, & * indicate significance level at 1%, 5% and 10%, respectively**

In the table 7.17 above the regression models for Kohima display stronger explanatory power across duration groups, with r^2 between 0.71 and 0.81 and highly significant F-statistics in every case. for short-term migrants ($n = 47$), $r^2 = 0.74$ with $f = 13.55$, indicating that the covariates jointly account for about three quarters of the variation in saving. Explanatory power rises further for the medium-term group ($n = 61$; $r^2 = 0.81$; $f = 28.37$), suggesting that as migrants move beyond initial settlement, observed characteristics align more closely with saving behavior. Both the long-term ($n = 58$; $r^2 = 0.71$; $f = 15.24$) and very long term ($n = 34$; $r^2 = 0.71$; $f = 7.59$) models remain strong though somewhat lower than the medium-term fit, which is consistent with greater heterogeneity in household strategies among more established residents. in the pooled sample ($n = 200$), $r^2 = 0.72$ with $f = 63.02$, confirming that the predictors has high joint explanatory power in Kohima overall.

In both Dimapur and Kohima the pattern of coefficients is broadly stable and economically intuitive. Dependents emerge as the strongest and most precisely estimated predictor of saving in all specifications in Kohima and living expenses for Dimapur, with large positive coefficients and very high t-values, consistent with precautionary motives and budget discipline in larger households. Age is also positive and statistically significant in each group except the smallest sample edges, indicating that greater

experience and lifecycle progression are associated with higher saving. Migration type shows a positive association with saving throughout and is statistically significant for the medium-term, long-term and pooled samples; this points to higher saving among migrants in more stable or permanent categories, where planning horizons are longer. Living expense is positively associated with saving in the medium-term, long-term and pooled models; if this measure reflects living standard adequacy rather than pure costs, the positive sign is consistent with higher permanent income. Employment sector becomes strongly positive for long-term migrants and remains positive and significant in the model indicating that advantageous sectoral placement is linked with higher saving once other factors are controlled.

Taken together, the r^2 values, significant f-tests and stable signs across subsamples indicate that the model captures the main socioeconomic drivers of saving among Kohima migrants.

Table 7.18 . Savings of the migrants of Nagaland

Variables	Short term migrants	Medium term Migrants	Long term Migrants	Very Long term Migrants	Total Migrants
	<i>Coefficients</i> β	<i>Coefficients</i> β	<i>Coefficients</i> β	<i>Coefficients</i> β	<i>Coefficients</i> β
Constant	2.205 (7.56)***	1.797 (8.06)***	1.828 (5.90)***	2.024 (5.42)***	1.950 (13.79)***
Age	0.253 (20.30)***	0.277 (28.81)***	0.264 (21.55)***	0.276 (17.66)***	0.268 (45.04)***
Education	0.405 (7.82)***	0.295 (7.85)***	0.346 (7.92)***	0.261 (4.11)***	0.318 (13.71)***
Migration Type	0.190 (3.98)***	0.175 (4.78)***	0.141 (3.41)***	0.111 (1.74)*	0.155 (6.97)***
Employment Sector	0.319 (6.70)***	0.168 (4.61)***	0.169 (3.79)***	0.309 (5.25)***	0.238 (10.68)***
Living expenses	0.039 (0.49)	0.149 (2.43)**	0.064 (0.92)	0.073 (0.71)	0.102 (2.74)***
Dependents	0.224 (7.59)***	0.230 (11.05)***	0.246 (10.08)***	0.261 (6.91)***	0.238 (18.45)***

Working hours	0.219 (2.74)***	0.020 (0.34)	0.083 (1.14)	0.122 (1.15)	0.101 (2.75)***
Current income	0.395 (4.94)***	0.378 (6.31)***	0.445 (6.19)***	0.379 (3.68)***	0.395 (10.69)***
Over all model fit	R²=0.90 F-value=102.27*** N=100	R² = 0.91 F-value=151.17** ** N=125	R² = 0.87 F-value=83.81** * N=111	R²=0.89 F-value=58.39*** N=64	R² = 0.89 F-value=383.64*** *** N=400

Note: Figures in the parentheses indicate t-value

***, **, & * indicate significance level at 1%, 5% and 10%, respectively.

In the table above, the savings regressions for migrants in Nagaland exhibit very high explanatory power across all duration groups, with R² values ranging from 0.87 to 0.91 and highly significant F-statistics in every case. For short-term migrants (N = 100), R² = 0.90 with F = 102.27, indicating that the covariates jointly account for about 90 per cent of the variation in the savings score. Explanatory power rises slightly for the medium-term group (N = 125; R² = 0.91; F = 151.17), suggesting that as migrants move beyond initial settlement, observable characteristics such as age, education, migration type, sector and income align very closely with their saving behaviour. The models for long-term (N = 111; R² = 0.87; F = 83.81) and very long-term migrants (N = 64; R² = 0.89; F = 58.39) remain strong, with only marginal differences in fit that are consistent with greater heterogeneity in household strategies among more established residents. In the pooled sample (N = 400), R² = 0.89 with F = 383.64, confirming that the chosen predictors have very high joint explanatory power for explaining the savings performance of migrant workers in Nagaland as a whole.

7.8.2 Remittances

Table 7.19 Remittances of the migrants in Dimapur.

Variables	Short term migrants	Medium term Migrants	Long term Migrants	Very Long term Migrants	Total Migrants
	<i>Coefficients</i> β	<i>Coefficients</i> β	<i>Coefficients</i> β	<i>Coefficients</i> β	<i>Coefficients</i> β

Constant	4.292 (8.77)***	3.093 (5.76)***	4.017 (6.07)***	3.673 (2.56)**	3.677 (12.17)***
Age	0.293 (12.63)***	0.279 (12.98)***	0.298 (12.30)***	0.305 (5.74)***	0.286 (23.62)***
Education	0.292 (3.75)***	0.193 (1.95)*	0.368 (3.86)***	0.274 (1.61)	0.304 (6.58)***
Migration Type	0.386 (4.93)***	0.528 (6.31)***	0.390 (3.72)***	0.534 (3.55)***	0.454 (9.88)***
Employment Sector	0.360 (4.63)***	0.149 (1.78)*	0.145 (1.44)	0.099 (0.66)	0.066 (1.52)
Remittance Purpose	0.194 (6.86)***	0.216 (7.50)***	0.245 (6.70)***	0.215 (3.46)***	0.217 (13.21)***
Marital Status	0.256 (2.11)**	0.406 (3.16)***	0.372 (2.48)**	0.366 (1.53)	0.374 (5.31)***
Dependents	0.361 (9.06)***	0.406 (9.55)***	0.369 (7.24)***	0.337 (4.45)***	0.368 (15.47)***
Working Hours	0.199 (7.17)***	0.149 (4.28)***	0.181 (4.59)***	0.152 (2.72)**	0.158 (8.94)***
Current Income	0.531 (6.11)***	0.320 (3.34)***	0.409 (3.72)***	0.573 (3.06)***	0.449 (9.47)***
Over all model fit	R² = 0.94 F-value=45.40** * N=53	R² = 0.87 F-value=40.65 *** N=64	R² = 0.89 F-value=37.62 *** N=53	R² = 0.80 F-value=8.74* ** N=30	R² = 0.85 F-value=117.00* ** N=200

Note: Figures in the parentheses indicate t-value

***, **, & * indicate significance level at 1%, 5% and 10%, respectively.

In Table 7.19, the remittance regressions for migrants in Dimapur show very strong explanatory power across all duration groups, with R^2 values ranging from 0.80 to 0.94 and highly significant F-statistics in every case. For short-term migrants (N = 53), $R^2 = 0.94$ with $F = 45.40$, indicating that the covariates jointly explain about 94 per cent of the variation in remittances, which is an exceptionally tight fit. For medium-term migrants (N = 64), $R^2 = 0.87$ with $F = 40.65$, and for long-term migrants (N = 53), $R^2 = 0.89$ with $F = 37.62$, both pointing to very strong models where observed characteristics such as age, education, migration type, remittance purpose, dependents, working hours

and current income closely track remittance behaviour. Even for very long-term migrants (N = 30), the model remains robust, with $R^2 = 0.80$ and $F = 8.74$, though the slightly lower fit is consistent with greater heterogeneity in remittance strategies among more established households. In the pooled sample (N = 200), $R^2 = 0.85$ with $F = 117.00$, confirming that, taken together, the selected predictors have high joint explanatory power in accounting for the remittance performance of migrant workers in Dimapur.

Table 7.20: Remittances of the migrants in Kohima

Variables	Short term migrants	Medium term Migrants	Long term Migrants	Very Long term Migrants	Total Migrants
	<i>Coefficients</i> β	<i>Coefficients</i> β	<i>Coefficients</i> β	<i>Coefficients</i> β	<i>Coefficients</i> β
Constant	5.553 (8.84)***	4.914 (11.93)***	3.676 (8.97)***	2.48 (2.94)***	4.613 (10.49)***
Age	0.375 (7.39)***	0.304 (8.76)***	0.293 (8.70)***	0.255 (5.25)***	0.315 (9.55)***
Education	0.349 (4.90)***	0.383 (7.62)***	0.498 (11.05)***	0.421 (5.63)***	0.484 (10.34)***
Migration Type	0.566 (4.33)***	0.299 (3.14)***	0.395 (4.51)***	0.651 (3.39)***	0.482 (5.06)***
Employment sector	0.202 (1.48)	0.588 (5.84)***	0.092 (0.94)	0.319 (2.21)**	0.216 (2.22)**
Remittance Purpose	0.365 (7.25)***	0.429 (10.78)***	0.413 (11.05)***	0.404 (6.25)***	0.387 (10.24)***
Living expense	0.608 (4.33)***	0.489 (5.41)***	0.514 (5.13)***	0.256 (1.76)*	0.585 (6.17)***
Dependents	0.248 (3.01)***	0.492 (8.88)***	0.395 (7.28)***	0.177 (2.13)**	0.404 (7.52)***
Working hours	0.188 (2.27)**	0.422 (8.03)***	0.329 (6.31)***	0.298 (3.04)***	0.280 (5.10)***
Current income	0.685 (4.97)***	0.399 (4.63)***	0.405 (3.90)***	0.385 (1.97)*	0.478 (4.92)

Over all model fit	R² = 0.88 F-value=30.12*** N=47	R² = 0.92 F-value=66.04** N=61	R² = 0.92 F-value=63.32* N=58	R² =0.86 F-value=16.80* N=34	R² =0.73 F-value=55.71** N=200
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Note: Figures in the parentheses indicate t-value

***, **, & * indicate significance level at 1%, 5% and 10%, respectively

In Table 7.20, the remittance regressions for migrants in Kohima display very strong explanatory power across duration groups, with R² values between 0.86 and 0.92 and highly significant F-statistics in every case. For short-term migrants (N = 47), R² = 0.88 with F = 30.12, indicating that the covariates jointly explain about 88 per cent of the variation in remittances. Explanatory power rises further for the medium-term group (N = 61; R² = 0.92; F = 66.04) and remains equally strong for long-term migrants (N = 58; R² = 0.92; F = 63.32), suggesting that, once migrants move beyond the initial phase of settlement, observed characteristics such as age, education, migration type, remittance purpose, dependents, working hours, living expenses and income are very closely aligned with remittance behaviour. The model for very long-term migrants (N = 34; R² = 0.86; F = 16.80) also performs strongly, though the slightly lower fit is consistent with greater diversity in remittance strategies among older and more established households. In the pooled sample (N = 200), R² = 0.73 with F = 55.71, confirming that, overall, the selected predictors retain high joint explanatory power in explaining the remittance performance of migrant workers in Kohima. In every case the F-statistic is large and significant at the 1% level.

Table 7.21 . Remittances of the migrants of Nagaland

Variables	Short term migrants	Medium term Migrants	Long term Migrants	Very Long term Migrants	Total Migrants
	<i>Coefficients</i> β	<i>Coefficients</i> β	<i>Coefficients</i> β	<i>Coefficients</i> β	<i>Coefficients</i> β
Constant	0.679 (3.02)***	0.905 (4.18)***	1.287 (4.14)***	0.664 (2.48)***	0.793 (6.86)***

Migration type	0.110 (2.74)***	0.121 (3.64)***	0.143 (3.62)***	0.174 (3.69)***	0.114 (6.01)***
Remittance Purpose	0.194 (11.96)***	0.173 (11.69)***	0.164 (9.37)***	0.193 (10.95)***	0.176 (21.81)***
Age	0.179 (17.63)***	0.207 (24.04)***	0.200 (17.33)***	0.188 (16.37)***	0.196 (38.63)***
Employment sector	0.003 (0.33)	0.028 (0.84)	0.064 (1.43)	0.111 (2.40)**	0.003 (0.36)
Education	0.222 (5.28)***	0.218 (6.36)***	0.219 (5.29)***	0.236 (4.95)***	0.212 (10.56)***
Marital status	0.075 (1.83)*	0.166 (4.72)***	0.112 (2.74)***	0.129 (2.75)***	0.121 (6.16)***
Dependents at home	0.157 (6.52)***	0.127 (6.71)***	0.193 (8.21)***	0.146 (5.31)***	0.150 (13.47)***
Working hours	0.098 (1.48)	0.193 (3.59)***	0.278 (3.99)***	0.116 (1.49)	0.185 (5.80)***
Current Income	0.348 (5.31)***	0.215 (3.95)***	0.319 (4.61)***	0.255 (3.36)***	0.267 (8.38)***
Over all model fit	R² = 0.89 F-value = 81.44*** N = 100	R² = 0.89 F-value = 108.14*** N = 125	R² = 0.84 F-value = 57.27** N = 111	R² = 0.92 F-value = 65.12*** N = 64	R² = 0.87 F-value = 301.98*** N = 400

Note: Figures in the parentheses indicate t-value

***, **, & * indicate significance level at 1%, 5% and 10%, respectively

In Table 7.21, the remittance regressions for migrants in Nagaland as a whole show very high explanatory power across all duration groups, with R^2 values between 0.84 and 0.92 and highly significant F-statistics in every case. For short-term migrants ($N = 100$), $R^2 = 0.89$ with $F = 81.44$, and for medium-term migrants ($N = 125$), $R^2 = 0.89$ with $F = 108.14$, indicating that the covariates jointly explain nearly 90 per cent of the variation in remittances in both groups. For long-term migrants ($N = 111$), the fit remains strong ($R^2 = 0.84$; $F = 57.27$), while for very long-term migrants ($N = 64$) the model is even tighter ($R^2 = 0.92$; $F = 65.12$), suggesting that observable characteristics align very closely with remittance behaviour among more settled households. In the pooled sample ($N = 400$), $R^2 = 0.87$ with $F = 301.98$, confirming that the chosen predictors have very high joint explanatory power for explaining remittances at the state level. Across models, migration type, remittance purpose, age, education, marital status,

number of dependents, working hours (for most groups) and current income are consistently positive and statistically significant, showing that more settled migrants, older and better educated workers, those with family responsibilities, longer working hours and higher earnings remit more, while employment sector has no systematic effect except a modest negative impact among very long-term migrants.

7.9 INTEGRATION INDEX OF THE MIGRANTS

7.9.1 Economic Integration Index (EII)

The Economic Integration Index (EII) summarizes how strongly each respondent is positioned in the host economy. It combines several observable indicators that capture earnings capacity and stability, such as current income, employment status or contract type, sector (formal or informal), access to banking or credit, regularity of savings, housing quality or adequacy of basic services. Each indicator is first put on the same 0–1 scale using actual-minimum by maximum-minimum normalization, with “benefit” items coded so higher values mean better integration and “cost” items reversed. The respondent’s EII is then the average of these normalized indicators (equal weights) or a weighted average if specific policy weights are justified. Values closer to 1 indicate higher economic integration; for presentation the index can be rescaled to 0–100.

To calculate the EII, 9 (nine) indicators were used which were transformed to a 0–1 scale (min–max for non-binary variables), combined with equal weights, and finally scaled to a 0–100 index (higher = better).

The following indicators were used ($k = 9$, equal weights):

Income, Job Stability, Saving Rate, Access to Bank, Housing Quality, Employment sector, Consumption Adequacy, Shift to higher and Job Income Difference.

Using the nine indicators above (equal weights = $1/9$ each), summary statistics for the EII (0–100) are as follows:

Table 7.22 Economic Integration Index (EII) of Dimapur and Kohima

Statistic	DIMAPUR	KOHIMA
Mean	64.47	61.24
Standard Deviation	8.23	12.19
Minimum	35.09	25.00
Maximum	85.71	90.00
N	200	200

Source: Field survey 02021

Based on the summary statistics from table 7.22, respondents in Dimapur are, on average, more economically integrated than those in Kohima. The mean EII in Dimapur is 64.47 compared with 61.24 in Kohima, a gap of 3.23 points on the 0–100 scale. With $N = 200$ in each city and the reported dispersions, the standard errors of the means are about 0.58 (Dimapur) and 0.86 (Kohima), which implies 95% confidence intervals of roughly 63.33–65.61 for Dimapur and 59.55–62.93 for Kohima; these intervals do not overlap, and a simple two sample t comparison indicates the mean difference is statistically significant. At the same time, integration is more even in Dimapur and more heterogeneous in Kohima. The standard deviation is 8.23 in Dimapur versus 12.19 in Kohima, and the observed range in Kohima is wider (25.00 to 90.00) than in Dimapur (35.09 to 85.71). The overall effect size of the mean gap is modest (about one-third of an overall standard deviation), but it is consistent with the interpretation that Dimapur offers broader or more uniform access to the economic features captured by the index (employment stability, sectoral placement, finance access, savings, and housing quality), whereas outcomes in Kohima are more uneven across respondents.

$$EII_{\text{Dimapur}} = 64.47 \quad \text{and} \quad EII_{\text{Kohima}} = 61.24$$

7.9.2 Social Integration Index (SII)

The Social Integration Index (SII) captures how well migrants are embedded in the social life of the host city beyond their economic position. It summarizes multiple,

observable aspects of connectedness, ability to communicate with the local people around, frequency and quality of interaction with local residents, participation in community, cultural or civic activities, trust and perceived acceptance, stability of residence and neighbourhood attachment and the strength of local friendship/assistance networks. Higher values indicate stronger inclusion, reflecting both daytoday contact and a sense of belonging.

To calculate the SII, the following eight indicators were used:

Interaction, Belongingness, Trust, Local friends, Support, Stay intent, Language used and Access to local services

Using the eight indicators above (equal weights = 1/8 each), summary statistics for the SII (0–100) are as follows:

Table 7.23 Social Integration Index (SII) of Dimapur and Kohima

Statistic	DIMAPUR	KOHIMA
Mean	77.72	74.22
Standard Deviation	23.03	19.51
Minimum	0.00	6.25
Maximum	100	100
N	200	200

Source: Field survey 2020-21

From the table 7.23 above, it shows that the average Social Integration Index (SII, 0–100) is higher in Dimapur (mean 77.72, SD 23.03, range 0–100, N=200) than in Kohima (mean 74.22, SD 19.51, range 6.25–100, N=200), a gap of 3.50 points on the 0–100 scale. With N = 200 per city and the reported dispersions (SD = 23.03 in Dimapur; 19.51 in Kohima), the standard errors of the means are about 1.63 and 1.38, yielding 95% confidence intervals of roughly 74.53–80.91 for Dimapur and 71.51–76.93 for Kohima. The social integration is more heterogeneous in Dimapur (SD 23.03) than in

Kohima (SD 19.51), with a wider observed range in Dimapur (0–100 versus 6.25–100 in Kohima), indicating that Dimapur contains both some of the least integrated and many highly integrated respondents, while Kohima is somewhat tighter around its mean.

$$SII_{\text{Dimapur}} = 77.72 \quad \text{and} \quad SII_{\text{Kohima}} = 74.22$$

7.9.3 Combined Integration Index (CII)

The Combined Integration Index (CII) summarizes each migrant’s overall integration by merging economic and social dimensions into a single 0–100 score. It is computed as the simple average of the Economic Integration Index (EII) and the Social Integration Index (SII), i.e., $CII = 0.5 (EII) + 0.5 (SII)$ when both indices are on the same 0–100 scale. Higher values indicate stronger integration across jobs, income, housing and services (economic) as well as networks, participation, language comfort and acceptance (social).

Using the Mean output from EII and SII, summary statistics for the CII (0–100) are as follows:

Table 7.24 Combined Integration Index of Dimapur and Kohima

Location	N	Mean EII	Mean SII	Mean CII
Dimapur	200	64.47	77.72	71.10
Kohima	200	61.24	74.22	67.73

Source: Field survey 2020-21

$$CII_{\text{Dimapur}} = \mathbf{71.10} \quad \text{and} \quad CII_{\text{Kohima}} = \mathbf{67.73}$$

The result show that Dimapur’s mean Combined Integration Index (CII=71.09) is slightly higher than Kohima’s CII= 67.73, with a difference of 3.37. Dimapur also has higher mean Economic Integration Index (EII) (64.47 vs. 61.24) and Social Integration Index (SII) (77.72 vs. 74.22) as compared to Kohima.

Overall, both cities show high Combined Integration Index (both > 67). Breaking it down, economic integration is moderate in both Dimapur and Kohima (both <67), while social integration is high in both locations (>67).

Hypothesis:

Economic and Social Integration Index of Dimapur is higher than Kohima.

On the economic side, the Economic Integration Index (EII), constructed from indicators such as income, employment stability, savings, housing and access to basic services, records a higher mean in Dimapur (64.47) than in Kohima (61.24). On the social side, the Social Integration Index (SII), based on interaction, belongingness, trust, local friends, support, intention to stay, language used and access to local services, is also higher in Dimapur (77.72) than in Kohima (74.22). When these are combined into the Combined Integration Index, Dimapur again scores higher (71.10) than Kohima (67.73). Thus, across both economic and social indicators, migrants in Dimapur exhibit higher average integration levels than those in Kohima. It is also supported by the index results and **thus the hypothesis “Economic and Social Integration Index of Dimapur is higher than Kohima”** is accepted.

7.10 CONCLUSION

The analysis of the Economic Integration Index (EII) and Social Integration Index (SII) shows moderate integration among migrant workers, with meaningful variation across subgroups. For interpretability, SII is reported on a 0–100 scale with the following output bands 0–33 low, 34–66 moderate, 67–100 high. As a robustness alternative, quintile based cutoffs can be used consistently across cities. Dimapur’s mean EII is higher than Kohima’s (about 64.5 vs. 61.2 on a 0–100 scale) and the gap is statistically significant; dispersion is lower in Dimapur, while Kohima is more heterogeneous, housing both very well integrated and poorly integrated respondents. EII and SII move together but not perfectly: a notable share achieves economic footholds without commensurate social embedding, and a smaller group reports strong local ties

despite modest economic gains. Integration improves with duration of stay, consistent with a settlement trajectory in which administrative familiarity, employer trust and neighborhood ties accumulate over time.

Determinants of higher EII include skills, stable employment, banking inclusion and secure housing, whereas higher SII is linked to thicker local networks, positive perceptions of locals, association participation and language comfort. Informal or recent migrants and those experiencing ILP related frictions are more prone to low dual integration. Investing in bridging social capital via orientation, multilingual helpdesks and association membership drives, with neighborhood specific targeting in Kohima and quality upgrades in Dimapur. While the indices rely on survey based, partly categorical inputs and equal weights, and should be stress tested with alternative weighting and normalization, the core city contrast is robust. Overall, migrant integration in Nagaland's urban labour markets is work led but network constrained. Dimapur offers a more even and higher economic foothold, whereas Kohima shows sharper divides that social policy can narrow by strengthening the bridge between economic steps and social belonging.

The Combined Integration Index indicates that overall integration among migrants is stronger in Dimapur than in Kohima, reflecting advantages on both economic and social dimensions. The CII difference suggests that migrants in Dimapur attain steadier livelihoods and thicker local ties, while Kohima shows comparatively lower but still substantial integration. Taken together, the results imply that policies which simultaneously strengthen economic opportunities and social networks are more likely to raise overall integration than interventions targeting either sphere alone. These conclusions are consistent across subgroups and reinforce the value of monitoring CII alongside its economic and social components.

Using the 0–100 SII scale (0–33 low, 34–66 moderate, 67–100 high), both cities fall in the moderate social integration band. Dimapur's mean SII is 77.72 and Kohima's is 74.22. This indicates strong local ties, frequent participation, and generally positive

perceptions in both locations, with Dimapur enjoying a modest 3.5point advantage that suggests slightly denser networks and smoother everyday navigation of local institutions. Substantively, migrants in Kohima, on average, can compound with time through association membership, neighborhood interactions, and language comfort while Dimapur's mean reflects broadly successful social embedding.

CHAPTER 8

SUMMARY AND CONCLUSION

8.1 INTRODUCTION

This study was undertaken to understand how and why migrants from outside Nagaland move into urban labour markets, how they find work and settle, and which destination side conditions make cities attractive. It brings together field evidence and established migration theory to map the roles of economic opportunity, information, social networks, accessibility and basic amenities in shaping decisions and outcomes. Rather than fixating on any one place or sector, the emphasis is on clarifying the broad mechanisms that lower search costs, speed up job entry, and support stable livelihood so that policymaking can focus on reducing frictions in hiring and mobility, improving skills and earning pathways, strengthening worker protections and services, and building more inclusive, efficient urban labour markets overall. The study is based on field survey of the interstate migrant workers in two sample districts of Dimapur and Kohima cities in Nagaland, conducted during the period 2020-21.

8.2 SOCIO ECONOMIC PROFILE OF THE STUDY AREA

Chapter 3 of the thesis discusses the socioeconomic profile of sample respondents, which provides the necessary context for understanding migrants and their urban labour market outcomes. Against this backdrop, the following subsection presents the key findings from the primary survey, highlighting how these demographic, economic and social characteristics shape migrants' outcomes in the urban labour market of Nagaland.

8.2.1 Socio Economic and Demographic Profile of Nagaland

According to Census 2011, Nagaland has a total population of 19,78,502, with urban residents accounted roughly to only 29% of the total population. The state is predominantly rural, with a small but significant urban labour market, where migrant inflows can have visible effects on specific occupations. Recent statistical reports (Economic Survey 2022–23/2023–24) underscore services and construction as key urban absorbers of labour, while the Inner Line Permit (ILP) regime shapes entry and documentation for non local workers.

The main activities in the State's urban labour market are services and construction. Kohima (administrative core) is smaller but with higher urban growth post 2001. Dimapur (commercial hub) shows denser settlement and market led expansion. Urban literacy rates are high and rising in both districts; sex ratios improved between 2001 and 2011.

8.2.2 Distribution of Migrant Workers by Origin and Duration of Stay

Migration is overwhelmingly interstate with 98% Indian and only 2% Nepali which indicates that international inflows are insignificant. For national migrant routes, two corridors dominate migrant workers i.e., Assam and Bihar together account for 93% of migrants (Assam comprising 51%, Bihar 42% overall). Dimapur generally draws short distance, Assam linked migrants (proximity, trade ties), whereas Kohima draws long distance, Bihar linked migrants (construction/manual niches).

By district of origin, inflow into Dimapur is highly Assam concentrated (Karimganj, Morigaon, Nagaon); chain migration along transport corridors is evident. Kohima's inflow is Bihar concentrated, especially East Champaran and Motihari, reflecting recruiter/covillager pipelines and established job niches.

By duration of stay, both Dimapur and Kohima host sizeable long duration cohorts, indicating growing permanence and urban integration. It signals both circulation and settlement. Roughly a quarter are short term (≤ 1 year) and a third are medium term (15 years), but long duration (510 years) and very long term (> 10 years) together form over one third. This implies stepwise settlement, new inflows arriving while earlier cohorts consolidate, with expected gains in work stability and service access as duration lengthens.

8.2.3 Demographic Characteristics of Migrants

Migrants are predominantly of prime age (18–55 years), with the largest single band around 4145 years; child/teen shares are small labour led migration, not family moves. Gender wise, the migrants are male dominated, prime age workforce. Around 88% of migrants are male and heavily concentrated in working ages (18–55). This composition aligns with physically intensive, irregular hour urban tasks and suggests migration is primarily work led rather than family led especially in Kohima, where nondependent single workers are more common.

Education bifurcation across cities shows that Dimapur's migrants are skewed to low schooling (illiterate/primary/middle), while Kohima shows stronger representation of secondary and higher secondary levels. This divergence mirrors occupational structure with Dimapur's heavy tilt to low skill construction/ portering /vending versus Kohima's greater presence of semi/skilled roles in services and sales.

Marital status of the migrants shows Dimapur consist of mainly single and married in near equal shares; no divorced/widowed were reported. Kohima has a sizeable divorced/widowed segment (31%), implying distinct social compositions and coping strategies. Religion wise, Dimapur has a majority of Muslim with 70% respondent while Kohima shows majority of Hindu with 85%.

8.2.4 Respondents Household Profile

Dimapur shows larger dependent loads (four–five dependents notable), hinting at family linked settlement, while Kohima has more zero dependent workers, pointing to individual, work first migration.

Housing type show that nearly half of migrants reside in kutchha housing with 49%, pucca share is higher in Kohima (28%) than Dimapur (15%), indicating slightly better durability for some cohorts in Kohima. Dimapur shows more 'taxed/other' informal housing while Kohima relies overwhelmingly on formal renting both indicating limited housing security and crowding.

Residence status shows that renting is the norm (71% overall); Kohima has very high tenancy (85%). Informal/taxed and worksite residences (construction/farm) remain significant, signaling precarious tenure.

8.2.5 Occupational profile

(i) Activity wise employment: Employment is trimodal and informal comprising of self employed, salaried, and casual which are near balanced while casual is the single largest overall with 35%. Dimapur leans to construction & vending while Kohima to sales/ portering/service support. Segmented employment with a large casual core, across both cities, migrants are nearly evenly split among self-employed, salaried, and casual work, but casual jobs are the single largest community.

(ii) Skills: Dimapur has higher unskilled share (43%) while Kohima shows higher semi/skilled composition (semi skilled with 38% and skilled with 33%). Sample overall, skills are broadly spread (unskilled more than semiskilled and skill is lower than any other), with city specific demand patterns.

(iii) Working hours: Majority work 5 to 9 hours, but Dimapur shows longer shifts like (9 to 10 hours) while Kohima's working hours cluster more tightly in the 5 to 9 hour band, suggesting more standardized schedules in services or retail.

8.2.6 Income, savings and remittances

(i) Income before & after migration: Premigration income shows many at either no or low income (\leq ₹10,000). But post-migration distribution shows evenly split across $<$ ₹10,000, ₹10–20k, and $>$ ₹20k (each 33–34%).

(ii) Savings: A uniform ladder of 20% in each savings band from zero to $>$ ₹20,000 reflecting wide heterogeneity in earnings stability and living costs.

(iii) Remittances: Dimapur shows strong mid to high remitting (₹10–20k most common) with very few non remitters. In Kohima it is more polarized, higher non remitters but also a larger very high remitting end (\geq ₹20k). Remittances are usually used for food and basic needs.

8.3 PUSH FACTORS OF MIGRATION

8.3.1 Factors of Migration

Survey patterns fit push–pull and expected earnings logic. Economic push dominates, complemented by destination opportunities; environmental pressures are significant where agrarian livelihoods are fragile; political conditions matter in specific contexts; personal reasons (marriage, family, education, independence) interweave with these structural drivers. Overall, migration is a multidimensional response to origin deficits moderated by destination networks.

8.3.2 Push Factors

Economic push is primary, but embedded in a broader stress complex. Across Nagaland, economic reasons account for 35.75% of reported push factors (Table 4.1), rising to 49.5% in Dimapur. This confirms that inadequate jobs, unstable earnings and

limited mobility at place of origin act as the most common triggers. However, the push profile is not purely economic; environmental (22%), personal (19%), political (10.25%) and other reasons (13%) jointly account for the remaining majority, especially salient in Kohima where the push bundle is more balanced (20% to 21% for environmental/personal/political).

By duration of stay, economic and environmental factors pushes are stronger for short/medium movers, while personal reasons rise among long and very long settlers.

8.3.3 Determinants and Support Structures

i) Migration decision

Migration decisions are shaped by both individual choice and family strategy. Overall, 48.25% of migrants decided on their own and 51.75% migrated on a family decision, with Dimapur (49 % self, 51 % family) and Kohima (47.50 % self, 52.50 % family) showing very similar patterns.

ii) Faced difficulty in migration

Over half of the respondents (51%) reported facing difficulties in the migration process, with problems more common among migrants to Kohima (56.50 %) than to Dimapur (45.50 %). Conversely, a majority in Dimapur (54.50 %) and a smaller share in Kohima (43.50 %) reported no difficulty.

iii) Helped in migration

Support during migration comes mainly from friends, employers and kin based networks. Overall, 35 % were helped by friends, 33.50 % by employers and 31.50 % by family/relatives/villagers, indicating that both informal social ties and employer channels are central in facilitating movement.

iv) Number of visits to place of origin

Return visits to the place of origin are fairly regular and evenly spread. Overall, 26.75 % visit every month, 25.25 % quarterly, 24.25 % whenever needed and 23.75 % once a year, suggesting continued physical links with home areas for most migrants.

v) Migrated with whom

Migrants rarely travel entirely alone, 25.25 % moved with same villagers, 22.50 % alone, 20 % with family/relatives, 18.75 % with friends and 13.50 % with employers. Village and kin based networks thus play a strong role in organising migration, alongside a sizeable minority of independent movers.

vi) Poor facilities in the place of origin

Perceived deficiencies in basic facilities at the origin emerge as major push factors. Overall, housing (20.50 %), health care (18.75 %), education (18.50 %) and electricity (17.25 %) are cited most often, followed by sanitation (14 %) and water sources (11 %), reflecting migrants' desire to escape inadequate social and physical infrastructure.

8.4 REGRESSION ANALYSIS OF PUSH FACTORS

Model is fit for Dimapur ($R^2= 0.820.89$) and Kohima ($R^2=0.800.92$), overall for Nagaland ($R^2=0.82-0.86$). The F-tests are all significant. Constants are positive and significant in all models.

For Dimapur, the strongest positives factors are migrating with companions and receiving help; poor facilities at the place of origin are the core structural push; more return visits to place of origin reduce settlement; difficulties matter mainly in very long term and overall models; deliberate self decision strengthens with duration.

In Kohima, effect sizes are larger, companionship while migration is most powerful; poor facilities at the place of origin show strong push; return visits to place of origin show large negative effects; assistance is consistently positive; self decision intent is significant at entry and in overall results; difficulties are negative in aggregate.

Overall Nagaland confirms four pillars: poor facilities at the place of origin (push), assistance and companionship (social capital), fewer return visits (consolidation), and difficulties reducing outcomes; self decision intent matters beyond the short run.

Hypothesis

Origin deficit coefficients are large (in absolute value), negative, and highly significant across districts, durations, and overall models confirm the hypothesis that poor facilities at place of origin significantly push migrants to urban centres in Nagaland.

8.5 PULL FACTORS OF MIGRATION AND THE CHOICE OF LOCATION

8.5.1 Destination profile and comparative pull

Dimapur and Kohima form a dual urban core with differentiated allure. Dimapur attracts primarily on economic grounds (higher wages, quick absorption into casual/service/construction work, wider business scope), while Kohima's edge lies in social amenities (health and education) and administrative employment. The distribution show Dimapur's top economic pulls clustering around higher wage expectations and employment/business openings, whereas Kohima tops on better living conditions. This city type differentiation is consistent across durations of stay.

Economic motives dominate sample overall distribution, but social motives rise with settlement duration. Economic pulls (easy jobs, better jobs, higher wages, and business scope) jointly account for the majority of first order reasons. However, as duration lengthens, social pulls like family proximity and amenities gains salience, indicating a shift from "entry/earnings" to "settlement/quality of life."

8.5.2 Transport access as a structural pull

Multi-modal access underpins inflows; trains and buses remain the backbone. Trains and buses together constitute 41% of all entry modes at the state level (21% train and 20% bus). Autos (19%) emerge as critical last mile feeders and regional connectors and their prominence among long tenure migrants indicates sustained regional churn and cross border inflows from nearby districts. Air connectivity signals distant origin and longer horizon moves. Flights, though smaller overall (11%), are over represented among long term Dimapur arrivals, pointing to distant origin migration and intention to settle.

8.5.3 Information flows and social capital

Migration is networked, not institution led. Family, relatives, same village ties, and friends jointly provide more than 75% of information and job access channels across cities and durations. Formal/state channels are largely absent classic network diffusion (chain migration). Information sources evolve with time. Early movers lean on family/relatives/same village; friends gain importance among very long-term migrants, reflecting in destination friendship capital that matures into job pathways.

8.5.4 Labour market entry and perceived accessibility

Perceived ease improves sharply with duration. Roughly half of all migrants in Dimapur/Kohima say jobs are “easy to get,” but the share rises from short term to long term groups, consistent with learning effects, employer familiarity, and thicker networks. Absorption speed is bimodal: instant vs. one month. State wide, 27% get jobs instantly and 27% take one month. This “fast vs. slow lane” pattern indicates coexistence of high turnover casual niches and search intensive, better match jobs. Steady income aspiration is universal but nuanced. No respondent rejects steady income as a motive; about half say “Yes” and the rest “Somewhat.” The latter implies economic ambitions co-exist with non-pecuniary pulls (amenities, proximity, safety), especially among very long term residents.

8.5.5 Job acquisition mechanisms

Self/employer routes (23%) while friends/relatives/villagers comprises of 63%, showing migrants combine social capital with individual search. Medium to long stays feature growing self/employer connections evidence of labour market learning and employer signalling effects.

8.5.6 Regression evidence: strength and direction

Models are statistically strong and stable. City wise and overall R^2 values span 0.78 to 0.88; all F-tests are significant at 1%. This indicates a well specified empirical structure for pull determinants.

Accessibility and employment channels are decisive pulls. Mode of transportation, means to get a job, and perceived ease of getting a job are positive and highly significant (mostly 1% level) in both cities and the state aggregate which are the core elasticity of attraction.

Waiting time is generally a deterrent at city level. In Dimapur and Kohima models, longer duration to get a job has negative and significant coefficients long waits reduce destination pull.

Information source effects differ by aggregation. City models show negative coefficients for “source of info about Dimapur” (interpretable as competition/substitution across cities); the state aggregate shows positive effects (broader information raising overall propensity to migrate to Nagaland). This scope of reference difference is theoretically coherent. Job satisfaction is weak at entry but matters for retention (overall). City models show no significance; overall Nagaland results show positive significance.

8.6 IMPACT OF INNER LINE PERMIT (ILP) REGULATION ON MIGRATION IN NAGALAND

8.6.1 History & Legal Provisions

ILP, rooted in the 1873 Bengal Eastern Frontier Regulation and protected via Article 371(A), regulates non-local entry and residence to preserve indigenous socio cultural and land rights. Kohima operated ILP during the survey period; Dimapur’s practical coverage was outside ILP prior to 2025. Permits (including labour permits) govern duration, location, and activity, with penalties for non-compliance. Digitization has improved tracking, but enforcement, verification, and inter departmental coordination remain uneven.

8.6.2 Implementation & Challenges

Administration is centred in the Home Department and district offices. The system protects local interests but imposes procedural burdens on migrants and employers. Practical bottlenecks include guarantor requirements, document verification, and variable checking producing partial compliance and uncertainty. Effectiveness hinges on predictable enforcement, streamlined workflows, and clear guidance.

8.6.3 Regulatory Measures for Entry

Need to possess ILP card before migrating to Kohima

Overall, 38.50% of migrants believed they need an ILP before migrating to Kohima, 28% felt it is not required, and 33.50% were not sure. The large “not sure” share, especially

among very long term migrants (44.12%), indicates persistent confusion about the formal entry requirement.

Is it mandatory to carry ILP card while entering Kohima

Perceptions about carrying the ILP at entry are similarly divided: 33% said it is mandatory, 36.50% said it is not, and 30.50% were unsure. This continued uncertainty across duration groups suggests that the rule is neither clearly communicated nor uniformly experienced.

ILP card check before entering Kohima

With regard to actual checking, 36% reported that their ILP was checked, 28.50% said it was not, and 35.50% experienced checks only sometimes. The near balance between “yes”, “no” and “sometimes” points to irregular, rather than systematic, enforcement of ILP checks.

Do you face problems to go to Kohima without ILP card

In terms of difficulties without an ILP, 31.50% of migrants reported facing problems, 35% did not, and 33.50% sometimes faced problems. The higher share of long term migrants reporting difficulties (39.66%) suggests that the risk of obstruction without ILP is real but unevenly applied.

8.6.4 Accessibility to ILP

Majority of the respondents (51%) experienced difficulty in making ILP, where getting a guarantor (41%) was the major obstacle. Other problems were processing time and strict verification. This points that cumulative know how improves access over time, but guarantor requirement is the systemic hurdle.

8.6.5 Regulation & Compliance

The survey result show that routine enforcement is inconsistent (63% sometimes and no checking combined). On the other hand, more than half expressed possession is but not universal, which indicates partial compliance.

8.6.6 Regression Analysis of ILP Impact

Model fit shows $R^2 = 0.8172$; $F = 94.3990$ ($p < 0.01$).

Overall coefficients (β ; significance): Difficulty due to ILP -2.5481^{***} ; Easy to make ILP 0.0140 (not sign.); Card at hand 0.1684^{***} ; Need to possess ILP before migrating 0.1763^{***} ; Problems faced to make ILP 0.2011^{***} ; Time taken for ILP 0.2592^{***} ; Mandatory to carry 0.3082^{***} ; Checked before entering 0.3541^{***} ; Problems when travelling without ILP 0.3966^{***} ; Checked regularly 0.4636^{***} .

The result implies that ‘Perceived difficulty’ suppresses migration, while compliance/enforcement markers correlate positively with realised migration consistent with selection (those who navigate procedures succeed). ‘Ease’ is irrelevant once actual compliance experiences are accounted for. ILP card at hand is positive for short and long term, but not uniform in medium and very long groups.

Hypothesis Testing (H₁)

The hypothesis that “*ILP regulation significantly impacts migration*” is supported by the regression results, therefore accepted. In the model, the ILP variables jointly explain a large share of variation in the migration outcome ($R^2 = 0.8172$) and the overall F-test is highly significant ($F = 94.3990$, $p < 0.01$; $N = 200$), rejecting the null of no effect. Within this set, perceived ILP related difficulty is strongly negative and highly significant ($\beta = -2.5481$; $|t| = 13.32$; $p < 0.01$), indicating a deterrent association with migration. Several compliance and enforcement indicators (e.g., requirement to possess and carry the ILP, checks before entry, and regular checking) are positively and significantly associated with the outcome, describing the profile of those who successfully navigate the regime. Similar signs and significance across short, medium, long and very long term sub samples corroborate the significance of these findings.

8.7 MIGRANTS’ SOCIAL CAPITAL AND ECONOMIC OUTCOMES

8.7.1 Income of the migrants

In Dimapur, the income distribution of migrant workers is almost evenly split across three income ranges: below ₹10,000 per month, ₹10,000–20,000, and above ₹20,000, each group accounting for roughly one third of the total migrant workforce.

In Kohima, the income profile of migrant workers is also distributed across three broad ranges below ₹10,000, ₹10,000–20,000, and above ₹20,000 per month with each class accounting for roughly one third of the total migrant workforce. Overall, the Kohima labour market absorbs migrants across wage levels, but long staying migrants are more likely to stabilize in the middle income range rather than at the extremes.

8.7.2 Employment sector of the migrants

In Dimapur, migrant workers are almost equally distributed across three main forms of employment: self employment, salaried work, and casual labour. Out of 200 migrants, 67 workers (33.50 %) are self employed, 66 workers (33 %) are in salaried or regular wage jobs, and 67 workers (33.50 %) work as casual labour. This shows that the migrant workforce in Dimapur is shared across own account work, employer based work and daily wage work, with a noticeable share of long staying migrants still relying on casual labour.

In Kohima, migrant workers are also almost evenly divided across the three main forms of employment. Out of 200 migrants, 67 workers (33.50 %) are self employed, 66 workers (33 %) are in salaried jobs, and 67 workers (33.50 %) are engaged as casual labour. This shows that the migrant workforce in Kohima is distributed across own account work, wage/salary work, and daily wage work, with self employment more visible among those who have stayed longer, and casual labour remaining significant even for very long term settlers.

8.7.3 Social capital of the migrant workers in Nagaland

i) Migrant workers with whom they migrated initially

In Dimapur, migrants reported different forms of initial travel and support at the time of migration. Out of the total 200 migrants, 23 % came alone (46 persons), 23 % migrated with family or relatives (46 persons), 27 % came with friends (54 persons), and 27 % travelled with people from the same village (54 persons). Among very long term migrants, travelling with friends was the dominant pattern (43.33 %). This indicates that migration into Dimapur is not purely individual; network based movement through friends and village links is as important as family based movement.

In Kohima, most migrants did not arrive alone but travelled with some form of social support. Out of 200 migrants, 52 % (104 persons) reported migrating with family members or relatives, while 48 % (96 persons) came with friends. This indicates that migration into Kohima is strongly network based, with most workers entering the city through either kinship ties or friendship networks rather than as isolated individuals.

ii) Ease of getting employment of the respondents

In Dimapur, migrants report mixed experiences about how easy it is to get employed. Out of the 200 respondents, 32.50 % (65 persons) felt that getting work is “difficult,” 33.50 % (67 persons) said it is “moderate,” and 34 % (68 persons) said it is “easy,” showing that opinions are almost evenly split. This indicates that familiarity with local networks and employers over time makes it easier to secure work.

In Kohima, most migrants do not describe the local job market as outright difficult, but rather manageable with some effort. Out of 200 respondents, 38 % (76 persons) said getting employed is “moderate,” 33 % (66 persons) felt it is “easy,” and 29 % (58 persons) considered it “difficult.” This suggests that in Kohima, access to work is not fully open but is also not completely closed. Migrants generally obtain employment through adjustment over time, reputation, and social links rather than through formal recruitment.

iii) Means to get job/employment

In Dimapur, migrants reported multiple channels through which they obtained their present work, and these channels are quite evenly distributed. Out of the 200 respondents, 20.50 % (41 persons) said they found the job by themselves, 17.50 % (35 persons) got work through family or relatives, 20.50 % (41 persons) got work through friends, 21.50 % (43 persons) were helped by people from the same village, and 20 % (40 persons) were hired directly by employers. This shows that access to employment in Dimapur is mainly informal and network based, relying on social ties (friends, relatives, same villagers) as well as a smaller but visible share of direct employer contact.

In Kohima, migrants mainly accessed jobs through personal and social networks rather than formal channels. Out of 200 respondents, 23.50 % (47 persons) reported that they obtained

work through family or relatives, 28.50 % (57 persons) said they got their job through friends, 24 % (48 persons) received help from people of the same village, and another 24 % (48 persons) reported being hired directly by employers. No respondent reported getting the job purely by themselves. This shows that in Kohima, employment access for migrants is strongly dependent on preexisting ties and recommendations rather than open competition in the formal labour market.

iv) Respondents view on local people

In Dimapur, migrant workers generally report a positive perception of the local people. Out of 200 respondents, 32.50 % (65 persons) described local people as “friendly,” another 32.50 % (65 persons) said they are “helpful,” and 35 % (70 persons) described them as “reliable.” Overall, the data suggest that migrants in Dimapur express friendly behaviours of the local population and they characterize them in supportive terms.

In Kohima, migrants also report largely positive views of local people. Out of 200 respondents, 31.50 % (63 persons) described local people as “friendly,” 36.50 % (73 persons) said they are “helpful,” and 32 % (64 persons) described them as “reliable.” This shows that migrants perceive the host population in Kohima mainly as approachable and cooperative, with “helpful” being the single most common description overall.

v) Job satisfaction of the respondents

In Dimapur, migrant workers are almost evenly divided in their assessment of job satisfaction. Out of 200 respondents, 33.50 % (67 workers) said they are satisfied with their job, 33 % (66 workers) said they are not satisfied, and 33.50 % (67 workers) were uncertain. Among short term migrants, satisfaction and dissatisfaction are identical, with 39.62 % reporting “yes” and 39.62 % reporting “no.” This indicates that, in Dimapur, job satisfaction is not uniformly high, and a large share of migrants remain unsure about the quality and stability of their employment.

In Kohima, migrant workers report a slightly more positive assessment of their jobs compared to Dimapur. Out of 200 respondents, 37.50 % (75 workers) said they are satisfied with their job, 32 % (64 workers) said they are not satisfied, and 30.50 % (61 workers) were “not sure.” Satisfaction is particularly visible among long term migrants, where 44.83 % reported

being satisfied with their work, compared to 32.76 % who were not satisfied. Overall, the results indicate that while a notable share of migrants in Kohima do consider their current work acceptable, a substantial proportion either express dissatisfaction or remain uncertain about their position in the labour market.

8.8 REGRESSION ANALYSIS OF THE INCOME OF THE MIGRANTS IN NAGALAND

i) Dimapur

The regression results show that migrant income in Dimapur is systematically determined by identifiable factors rather than random differences. The models fit extremely well across all duration groups (Short term, Medium term, Long term, Very long term) and for all migrants combined: the R^2 values range from 0.8207 (N = 200) to 0.917 (N = 53), meaning that 82–92 % of the variation in income is explained by the included variables. The F-statistics for each group (for example, $F = 28.903^{***}$, 39.22^{***} , 37.04^{***} , 14.41^{***} and 109.30^{***} for the respective samples) are large and highly significant at the 1 % level, confirming the overall validity of the models.

ii) Kohima

The overall model fit is very strong in all cases. For short term migrants the model reports an R^2 of 0.891 with an F-value of 38.85 (N = 47); for medium term migrants R^2 is 0.808 with an F-value of 27.29 (N = 61); for long term migrants R^2 is 0.891 with an F-value of 50.24 (N = 58); for very long term migrants R^2 is 0.798 with an F-value of 12.32 (N = 34); and for all migrants combined R^2 is 0.823 with an F-value of 110.84 (N = 200). In each case, the F-statistic is statistically significant at the 1% level (***). The models explains a very large share (roughly 80–89 %) of the variation in migrant workers' income; and second, the set of predictors, human capital, access to employment, social acceptance, and job satisfaction are jointly and significantly associated with earning outcomes in the urban labour market.

iii) Overall

The regression results for sample aggregate show that migrant income in Nagaland is very well explained by the variables in the model for every duration category (Short term, Medium term, Long term, Very long term) and for all migrants combined. The R^2 values range from about 0.81 to 0.85 across the subgroups and 0.8138 for the full sample ($N = 400$), which means roughly 81–85 % of the variation in income is explained by the included factors. The F-values (49.318***, 80.2079***, 54.2059***, 35.2054*** and 213.5916***) are large and highly significant at the 1 % level, confirming that each model is jointly significant and statistically reliable. The main determinants of income are also individually strong and mostly significant at the 1 % level.

Hypothesis 3: Social capital and economic outcome of the migrants are significantly related.

In the survey, social capital is captured by two variables: (i) whether the migrant arrived with support (“Migrated with”), and (ii) whether the migrant accessed work through contacts (“Means to get job” such as family/relatives, friends, same villagers, or direct employer link). Economic outcome is captured through current income level of the migrant worker.

Firstly, the regression output for income shows that the variable “Migrated with” has a positive and highly significant effect on income for every migrant group and for the entire sample as well. For short term migrants the coefficient is $\beta = 0.20827$ with $t = 6.25$; for medium term migrants $\beta = 0.21220$ with $t = 8.16$; for long term migrants $\beta = 0.21131$ with $t = 6.40$; for very long term migrants $\beta = 0.16520$ with $t = 3.89$; and for all migrants combined $\beta = 0.19861$ with $t = 12.53$. All of these coefficients indicates statistical significance at the 1 % level. In practical terms, a positive and statistically significant coefficient means that migrants who reported “migrated with” (i.e. who came with family members, relatives, or known contacts instead of arriving alone) are more likely to be in a higher income category. This evidence pointed that stronger social

capital is associated with better economic outcome. This shows that access to employment in the destination is network driven.

The frequency distributions shows that migrants are entering the labour market through social connections, and the regression analysis output shows that migrants who have that support earn significantly higher income even after controlling for other characteristics like age, education, and skill. Therefore, the data demonstrate that social capital (migration with support and embedded labour market contacts) improves the migrant's income position. This confirms the hypothesis that '*social capital and economic outcome are significantly related*' in the urban labour market of Nagaland.

8.9 REGRESSION ANALYSIS OF EMPLOYMENT OF THE MIGRANTS IN NAGALAND

i) Dimapur

The overall model fit is very strong. The R^2 values range from 0.8191 to 0.8686 across the four duration groups, and 0.8257 for the total sample, which means that roughly 82–87% of the variation in current employment status is explained by the included predictors. The F-statistics are large, for example, $F = 33.54$ for short term migrants ($N = 53$), $F = 31.12$ for medium term migrants ($N = 64$), $F = 29.15$ for long term migrants ($N = 53$), $F = 17.35$ for very long term migrants ($N = 30$), and $F = 113.06$ for all migrants combined ($N = 200$). In all cases, the F-values are statistically significant at the 1% level (***) , which confirms that the set of explanatory variables, taken together, has a strong and statistically significant effect on migrant employment in Dimapur.

ii) Kohima

The overall model fit is high in all cases. For short term migrants, the model yields $R^2 = 0.8607$ with an F-value of 29.36 ($N = 47$); for medium term migrants, $R^2 = 0.8396$ with an F-value of 34.02 ($N = 61$); for long term migrants, $R^2 = 0.8523$ with an F-value of 35.34 ($N = 58$); for very long term migrants, $R^2 = 0.8987$ with an F-value of 27.729 ($N = 34$); and for the total sample, $R^2 = 0.8200$ with an F-value of 108.75 ($N = 200$). In all cases, the Fstatistic

is statistically significant at the 1 % level (***). This means that, taken together, the explanatory variables have a joint and statistically significant effect on migrant employment status in Kohima. Put simply, the models explain between about 82 % and 90 % of the variation in employment outcomes, and the joint significance tests confirm that these are not random associations.

iii) Overall

The overall model fit is high in every category. The R^2 values range from about 0.8077 to 0.8393 across the duration groups, and 0.8112 in the overall model, which means that roughly 81–84% of the variation in migrant employment status is explained by the included variables. Each F-value is statistically significant at the 1% level.

The employment regression coefficients indicates that migrating with others ($\beta = 0.20$) and higher education ($\beta=0.16-0.26$) are positively associated with better employment outcomes, while age ($\beta = -0.14$) and the skill coding ($\beta = -0.19$) are negatively related to employment. Perceiving it as easy to get employed ($\beta = 0.30-0.44$) and having a positive view of local people ($\beta = 0.13-0.26$) improve employment prospects, whereas the means to get job variable ($\beta = -0.24$ to -0.31) and lower job satisfaction ($\beta = -0.07$ to -0.22) are linked to weaker employment positions.

So, the outcome from the overall regression analysis indicates that migrants who are younger, more educated, better skilled, came with social support, perceive jobs as easier to get, and have good relations with locals are significantly more likely to be in better employment, while older migrants using weak job search channels, with poorer skills and lower satisfaction are in weaker employment positions.

8.10. SAVING AND REMITTANCES

8.10.1 Types of Migration of the Respondents

The distribution is almost evenly split across migration types, but the city profiles differ. Overall, roughly one third of respondents are temporary (35%), one third seasonal (31.25%), and one third permanent (33.75%), indicating a mixed migration type where short and long duration movements coexist. Dimapur leans toward short stay mobility with temporary (37%) and seasonal (32%) exceed permanent (31%) which is consistent with cyclical, project based jobs

and rotational workers. Kohima shows the reverse pattern: permanent migrants form the largest share (36.5%), with temporary (33%) and seasonal (30.5%) slightly lower, aligning with more stable, administrative or service sector employment that encourages longer settlement. Programmatically, Dimapur would benefit from flexible, short term housing and transit options, while Kohima's profile calls for services that support longer term integration.

8.10.2 Level of living expenses of the respondents

The city contrast is striking. In Dimapur, respondents split almost evenly between low (50.5 %) and medium (49.5 %) expense levels, and none report high expenses. These points to a cost structure compatible with rotational or lower wage work, shared accommodation, and tighter expenditure control. In Kohima, by contrast, nearly one-third (31.0 %) report high expenses, with fewer in low (36.5 %) and medium (32.5 %) categories. As the state's administrative hub, Kohima likely entails higher rents, pricier utilities and transport, and costlier formal services especially for longer term settlers, families, or workers in institutional sectors.

8.11 REGRESSION ANALYSIS OF THE RESPONDENTS SAVING

i) Dimapur

The regression models in Table 7.16 show consistently strong fit across all duration groups and in the overall sample. For short term migrants (N = 53), the model explains 85% of the variation in saving ($R^2 = 0.85$; $F = 31.89$, $p < 0.01$), while for medium term migrants (N = 64) the fit remains robust ($R^2 = 0.76$; $F = 22.34$, $p < 0.01$). The long term model achieves the highest explanatory power (N = 53; $R^2 = 0.87$; $F = 35.82$, $p < 0.01$), and the verylong term group also shows a strong fit despite the smaller sample (N = 30; $R^2 = 0.85$; $F = 14.32$, $p < 0.01$). In the overall sample (N = 200), the model explains 80% of the variation in saving ($R^2 = 0.80$; $F = 94.41$, $p < 0.01$), confirming that the selected covariates are important predictors of saving for migrant workers overall.

The saving regressions fit very well, with R^2 between 0.76 and 0.87 for the four duration groups and 0.80 for the overall sample, and all F-values highly significant.

Age ($\beta = 0.30\text{--}0.34$), education ($\beta = 0.54\text{--}0.84$), migration type ($\beta = 0.42\text{--}0.84$), living expenses ($\beta = 0.55\text{--}1.01$) and dependents ($\beta = 0.11\text{--}0.16$) all have positive, significant effects on saving, while employment sector has a smaller but generally positive impact ($\beta = 0.23$ overall). Working hours show weak and inconsistent effects, and income is insignificant in all models, indicating that saving is shaped more by demographic and migration characteristics than by current income.

ii) Kohima

The regression models for Kohima in Table 7.17 show strong explanatory power across all duration groups, with R^2 ranging from 0.71 to 0.81 and highly significant F-statistics. For short term migrants ($N = 47$), $R^2 = 0.74$ ($F = 13.55$), rising to 0.81 for medium term migrants ($N = 61$; $F = 28.37$), indicating that saving behaviour is particularly well explained once migrants move beyond initial settlement. The long term ($N = 58$; $R^2 = 0.71$; $F = 15.24$) and very long term ($N = 34$; $R^2 = 0.71$; $F = 7.59$) models also remain strong, though slightly lower, consistent with greater heterogeneity among more established households. In the overall sample ($N = 200$), $R^2 = 0.72$ with $F = 63.02$, confirming high joint explanatory power of the predictors for Kohima overall.

All key coefficients are positive and highly significant: age ($\beta = 0.25\text{--}0.28$), education ($\beta = 0.26\text{--}0.41$), migration type ($\beta = 0.14\text{--}0.19$), employment sector ($\beta = 0.17\text{--}0.32$), dependents ($\beta = 0.22\text{--}0.26$) and current income ($\beta = 0.38\text{--}0.45$) all raise the outcome, showing that older, better educated, more permanent migrants in stronger sectors, with more dependents and higher income are in a better position. Living expenses and working hours have smaller but generally positive effects, indicating that higher expenditure levels and longer hours are also associated with higher values of the dependent variable.

8.12 Remittances of the migrants

i) Dimapur

The Dimapur remittance models fit very well across all stay length groups and in the overall sample ($R^2 = 0.94$ short term; 0.87 medium term; 0.89 long term; 0.80 very long term; 0.85 overall). All F-statistics are large and significant at the 1% level, confirming that the covariates, taken together, explain remittances strongly.

ii) Kohima

The Kohima remittance models fit strongly across all duration groups and in the overall sample. Model fit (R^2) is 0.88 for short term migrants ($N = 47$), 0.92 for medium term ($N = 61$), 0.92 for long term ($N = 58$), 0.86 for very long term ($N = 34$), and 0.73 in the overall sample ($N = 200$). In every case the F-statistic is large and significant at the 1% level.

Remittance determinants in Kohima align with economic intuition. Age and education are positive and precisely estimated, migration type is positive across all groups, and current income, dependents, stated remittance purpose, and longer working hours all raise remittances. Sector effects are mixed, insignificant in some subsamples but clearly positive once migrants settle (medium and verylong term, and overall). Living expenses are generally positive, suggesting higher permanent income. Overall, human capital, migration stability, sectoral placement, obligations and earning capacity jointly shape remittances.

8.13 Economic and Social Integration Indices

The indicators used for Economic Integration Index calculation are Income, Job Stability, Saving Rate, Access to Bank, Housing Quality, Employment sector, Consumption Adequacy, Shift to higher and Job Income Difference. While to calculate Social Integration

Index (SII) eight indicators were used; Interaction, Belongingness, Trust, Local friends, Support, Stay intent, Language used and Access to local services.

8.13.1 Economic integration index of the migrants

Based on the summary statistics, respondents in Dimapur are, on average, more economically integrated than those in Kohima. The mean EII in Dimapur is 64.47 compared with 61.24 in Kohima, a gap of 3.23 points on the 0–100 scale. At the same time, integration is more even in Dimapur and more heterogeneous in Kohima. The standard deviation is 8.23 in Dimapur versus 12.19 in Kohima, and the observed range in Kohima is wider (25.00 to 90.00) than in Dimapur (35.09 to 85.71). The overall effect size of the mean gap is modest (about one third of an overall standard deviation), but it is consistent with the interpretation that Dimapur offers broader or more uniform access to the economic features captured by the index (employment stability, sectoral placement, finance access, savings, and housing quality), whereas outcomes in Kohima are more uneven across respondents.

$$EII_{\text{Dimapur}} = 64.47 \quad \text{and} \quad EII_{\text{Kohima}} = 61.24$$

8.13.2 Social integration index of the migrants

From Table 7.23, the average Social Integration Index is higher in Dimapur (SII = 77.72) than in Kohima (SII = 74.22), a gap of 3.50 points on the 0–100 scale, indicating that migrants in Dimapur are, on average, slightly more socially integrated than those in Kohima.

$$SII_{\text{Dimapur}} = 77.72 \quad \text{and} \quad SII_{\text{Kohima}} = 74.22$$

8.13.3 Combined integration index of the migrants

The table 7.24 shows that migrants in Dimapur are, on average, better integrated than those in Kohima on all three measures. Dimapur has a higher Economic Integration Index (EII) of 64.47 while Kohima has EII outcome of 61.24. Also the Social Integration Index (SII) of Dimapur is 77.72 while for Kohima it is 74.22. Hence, the Combined Integration Index (CII) calculated at 71.10 for Dimapur and for Kohima it is 67.73. This indicates that migrants in Dimapur enjoy relatively stronger economic and social integration overall compared to migrants in Kohima.

$CII_{\text{Dimapur}} = 71.09$; $CII_{\text{Kohima}} = 67.73$

From the above outcomes of EII, SII and CII, we see that Dimapur has higher Integration Index for all the three indices as compared to Kohima. Hence, the hypothesis, “*Economic and Social Integration Indices of Dimapur is higher than Kohima*” is accepted.

8.14 POLICY IMPLICATIONS

The following suggestions emphasizes on productivity, formalization, and inclusive urban growth.

1. To move from ad-hoc to evidence-based regulation of inflows.

ILP and related controls should be guided by real data on sectoral labour demand, not just perception or politics. Regular use of registration data, enterprise surveys and project pipelines can help the state estimate how many workers are needed in construction, trade, transport, and services. This would allow Nagaland to calibrate inflows tightening or relaxing entry in particular occupations and seasons without creating arbitrary scarcity or oversupply.

2. Strengthen ILP as a transparent, rule-based system rather than a discretionary gate.

Clear eligibility criteria, time-bound processing, uniform checking protocols, and digital records of permits issued and renewed would reduce scope for informal payments and selective enforcement. When rules are predictable and uniformly applied, the state can regulate who enters and for how long, while legitimate workers and employers face lower uncertainty.

3. Introduce time-bound and purpose-specific permits instead of blanket, open-ended entry.

Short-duration work permits, seasonal permits, and project linked permits can be used to match the rhythm of construction, trade, and service demand. Structured renewal linked to compliance and clean records allows the state to monitor who stays on, while still accommodating genuine long-term settlers who contribute positively to the economy and local society.

4. Combine stricter inflow control with stronger protection against exploitation.

Regulating inflows without protecting those who are already present creates a high-risk, low-rights environment that can fuel illegality and tension. Basic labour standards, grievance redress mechanisms, and information campaigns (about ILP norms, wages, and rights) help ensure that regulation curbs abuse, trafficking, and unsafe crowding not just the presence of “outsiders”.

5. Treat regulation as dynamic and revisable.

Regular review of ILP procedures, inflow patterns, and labour market outcomes is essential. If evidence shows that too many permits in a sector are displacing local workers or straining housing and services, quotas or stricter renewal criteria can be applied. If evidence shows acute shortages that delay public works or private investment, rules can be temporarily relaxed in those niches.

8.15 CONCLUSION

Overall, the evidence shows that migration into Nagaland’s urban labour market is primarily work led, network enabled, and increasingly settlement oriented. A predominantly prime age male workforce arrives through interstate channels largely from Assam and Bihar and is absorbed into a segmented, mostly informal labour market spanning self employment, salaried work, and casual labour. Income distributions, saving and remittance patterns, and the strong predictive power of the regression models indicate that outcomes are not random and that human capital, access to employment, and especially social capital materially shape earnings and stability. The push–pull

structure is clear origin side economic and environmental deficits trigger movement, while destination side accessibility, information through kin and friendship ties, and quick job absorption consolidate stays. ILP regulation has a statistically significant impact; perceived difficulty deters, while the profile of those who navigate compliance successfully is associated with realised migration and longer settlement. Integration metrics corroborate these dynamics; Dimapur consistently records higher economic and social integration than Kohima (and thus a higher combined index), reflecting broader or more uniform access to employment stability, finance, and supportive local networks, while Kohima exhibits wider heterogeneity consistent with its administrative and service profile. Taken together, the findings confirm the core hypotheses origin deficits push, destination access and social networks pull, ILP shapes pathways, and social capital enhances economic outcomes implying that policies which reduce frictions in documentation, expand affordable housing and services, and invest in skills and financial inclusion will not only improve migrant welfare but also make Nagaland's urban labour market more efficient, equitable, and resilient.

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