

Gendered Migration; Post Liberalization Trends in Indian Mega Cities

Parmeet Kaur¹ and Abhimanyu Singh²

¹Research scholar in the Department of Sociology at the Centre for Research in Rural and Industrial Development (CRRID), Chandigarh. E-mail- parmeetkchhoker@gmail.com

²Research scholar in the Department of Sociology at the Centre for Research in Rural and Industrial Development (CRRID), Chandigarh. E-mail- abhimanyuthakur06@gmail.com

To Cite this Article

Parmeet Kaur & Abhimanyu Singh (2023). Gendered Migration; Post Liberalization Trends in Indian Mega Cities. *SAARC Journal of Social Science*, 1: 1, pp. 15-30.

ABSTRACT: Human migration is the process by which individuals and families relocate from one geographical location to another across the globe. This phenomenon can be categorized into various types, including internal migration and external migration. Internal migration involves the movement of individuals and families within a nation, from one location to another, such as from rural to urban areas. Gender plays a significant role in human migration, with historical trends indicating that women have traditionally migrated for marriage, while men have primarily migrated in search of employment and educational opportunities. In the context of India, marriage has historically been the most influential factor in female migration. However, it is noteworthy that the importance of marriage as a motive for migration has significantly diminished over time. It is encouraging to observe that other factors, such as education and employment, are gaining increasing significance in female migration patterns. Furthermore, there has been a notable increase in the number of women migrating to India's six megacities, namely Mumbai, Delhi, Kolkata, Chennai, Bangalore, and Hyderabad. The evolving patterns and causes of female migration in India indicate a growing trend of women moving to cities, particularly large urban centers, for reasons beyond marriage. This paper aims to provide an overview of the pattern, causes, and trends of female migration to India's megacities and their correlation to development. The research is based on secondary data gathered by the Census Data, which reveals that the majority of migrants to cities come from India's socioeconomically backward states. The study will examine the factors that influence female migration to megacities, including education, employment, and marriage. Additionally, the paper will explore the impact of female migration on the development of megacities, including the challenges and opportunities that arise from this phenomenon. The findings of this study will contribute to the understanding of the evolving patterns and causes of female migration in India and their implications for development.

KEYWORDS: Gender, Migration, Liberalization, Megacities

Introduction

Migration is a longstanding phenomenon that has been utilized by humanity as a means of escaping challenging circumstances. Its existence can be traced back to the earliest

stages of civilization and has persisted to the present day, with the underlying reasons for migration evolving over time. For instance, Indian mythology provides evidence of the concept of migration, as exemplified by the narrative of Lord Krishna and his father relocating from Gokul village to Vrindavan village in search of safety and improved amenities. This account is reminiscent of the Pandavas, a group of five brothers from the Mahabharata, who were forcibly exiled by their Kaurava cousins for a period of thirteen years and spent that duration migrating from one location to another. The transition from the mythical era to the present day has enabled us to gain knowledge about migration through both literary sources and personal encounters. The historical record is replete with accounts of migration, which is defined as a relocation that may be either permanent or semi-permanent. The move may be of any duration, voluntary or involuntary, and may involve either domestic or international relocation. (Lee, Everett S). Migration entails the relocation of individuals from one place to another in pursuit of improved prospects in terms of employment, education, and various amenities. Presently, a greater number of individuals reside in foreign nations compared to their country of origin. As per the International Organization for Migration's World Migration Report 2020, the global count of international migrants reached approximately 272 million in June 2019, signifying a rise of 51 million since 2010.

The phenomenon of migration is a gendered process that engenders distinct outcomes for men and women. It is an integral component of development, which also entails alterations in the role and status of women. Historically, migration research has been predominantly centered on males. However, there has been a recent shift in focus towards females, a trend commonly referred to as the feminization of migration. (UN,1993). The term "feminization of migration" is now often heard. However, the word is deceptive and might raise discussions over whether it should be used given that it implies an absolute growth in the proportion of female migrants. The feminization of migration occurs concurrently with the feminization of poverty and the feminization of work, two other changes that have an impact on women. Women are willing to work for any wage and are in high demand, which contributes to the feminization of labour migration. Women tend to lag behind men in many developing and underdeveloped countries, whether in education or professions such as entrepreneurs, investors, lawyers, journalists, medical specialists, scientists, and academics. Many women migrate in search of better opportunities for work or education and a better life for themselves and their families. Migrant women, who make up about half of the 270 million migrants worldwide, are change agents and leaders who make numerous economic and social contributions to both their destination and transit countries. They contribute a variety of skills and knowledge as well as money to their families and communities (UN Women). There could be several reasons for women's migration, including conflict

caused by climate-related disasters, poverty, and deeply embedded gender inequalities, including violence and a lack of access to livelihood resources.

With approximately 27 million people dispersed around the world, India has the second-largest diaspora in the world after China. India is the most popular country of origin in South and South-West Asia and one of the top ten countries in the world for out-migration. Bangladesh-India, with 3.5 million migrants, and India-United Arab Emirates, with 2.2 million migrants, were two of the top ten migration corridors in the world in 2010 (IOM 2010). In India, there is not only out-migration but also in-migration at the inter- and intra-state levels. According to the UN Global Migration Database, India has the most in-migrants in Asia-Pacific. In addition to a huge number of migrant workers from Bangladesh and Nepal, India house about 400,000 refugees from neighbouring countries such as Sri Lanka, China, and Myanmar (United States Committee for Refugees and Immigrants 2009).

The country is in a transitional stage of development, particularly since economic liberalization got underway in 1991, the high rate of development in social, economic, and other domains must have an impact on population mobility and migration in general, and female migration in particular. Liberalization as we all know, it is all about freedom from state interference, which entails privatization which creates many opportunities for women in the education and employment sectors, liberalisation significantly affects the status of women. For example, when the UN Member States adopted the Beijing Declaration and Platform for Action in 1995, they listed women's education and training as one of 12 critical areas of concern. They vowed to eliminate women's illiteracy and to provide women and girls with equal access to educational opportunities and financial support.

Before 1991, the government-controlled many aspects of society, particularly because there was constant concern about how these foreign companies might affect our small industries, national culture, and traditions, and market-based reforms might lead to an economic disparity between the rich and poor classes. Overall capital control would be limited to a few individuals. Later on, these fears were realized, such as after 1991, when LPG reforms were implemented in India because every coin has two sides. On one side, these reforms had a lot of positive effects not only on our economy, but also on our political and social structures, such as an increase in GDP, a check on inflation, a check on fiscal deficit, a boost in industrial production, a decrease in poverty, education, and employment. There were also negative consequences, such as multinational industries failing small local industries, which has a direct impact on rural or local labour power, new technologies replacing labour power, reduced labour wages in China sweatshop workers work overcrowding, lack of sanitary conditions, no worker breaks, demands to complete a task within a limited period, and a total lack of

job security. All of these factors contribute to individuals migrating from one city, state, or country to another in quest of a job, a better way of life, and security and safety.

In India, as far as we can tell, migration is not restricted to out-migration; it also includes in-migration, when people move within a state as well as between states. In addition to migrating within states, individuals also relocate within districts. Most migrants come from Uttar Pradesh, Bihar, Rajasthan, Madhya Pradesh, Orissa, Chhattisgarh, and Jharkhand, the most migrants come from Uttar Pradesh and Bihar. According to the 2011 Census, 20.9 million people left the two states. People relocate to megacities like Delhi, Mumbai, Pune, and Bangalore, Delhi and Mumbai had a combined population of 9.9 million or about one-third of the total population of 29.2 million.

The migration data from the 2011 census provides an opportunity to put additional light on female internal mobility in India. Female migration occurs for economic reasons such as work, education, and so on. It is unnecessary to emphasize the status of women in terms of female migration as a voluntary decision to migrate due to socio-cultural and patriarchal forces that prevent such independence. The marginalization of women's concerns in the context of migration is tied to women's overall socioeconomic situation, as well as their work's non-recognition and undervaluation. The huge amount of female travel due to marriage and associational factors has reduced the economic impact of gender dimensions of labour migration. Only in the mid-1980s did female migration attract some attention, and their contribution to labour, primarily in the unorganized sector, became apparent. People generally relocate from their typical place of residence to large cities in pursuit of employment and better economic opportunities.

In 1951, the number of metropolitan cities in India was limited to four. However, over the course of 60 years, this figure has significantly escalated to encompass a total of 53 metropolitan cities by 2011, indicating a remarkable increase of 49 cities. Among these urban centers, Delhi, Mumbai, Kolkata, Chennai, Hyderabad, Bangalore, Pune, and Ahmedabad have emerged as the foremost metropolises in India. These eight cities, commonly referred to as India's megacities, hold significant prominence in this research paper, which exclusively focuses on the migration patterns of women within six of these megacities, namely Delhi, Mumbai, Kolkata, Chennai, Hyderabad, and Bangalore.

Literature Review

A review of migration literature from several fields obscures women's migration participation. Despite all of the "women on the move" throughout the twentieth century, research strategies in the same period have mostly concentrated on men. Scholars first attempted to focus on female migrants in the 1970s. Most existing research on migration and immigration frequently excludes women, concentrates only on men, and behaves

as though men were non-gendered (Wright 1995) Before that, Ravenstein stated in his 1985 article, Law of Migration, that women move more than men for shorter durations across longer distances. (*Predominance of females among short-distance migrants. -"Females appear to predominate among short-journey migrants"* (11, p. 288).)

In a sedentary population stagnating, migration brings life and progress. Professional and managerial workers are likewise extremely migratory, typically as a means of advancement. The elements that may influence the decision to migrate and the migration process can be categorised into four categories: Factors related to the place of origin, Factors related to the destination area, Intervening obstacles and Interpersonal relationships. Several factors act to keep people behind in every area. However, not all people who migrate make that decision on their own. Children are carried by their parents, and wives accompany their husbands (Lee, Everett S). Women or female migration is always seen as a social and cultural issue rather than an economic one; before, many experts assumed that the women's movement was primarily caused by marriage, and divorce also tend to move. When they relocate to a new city, state, or country encounter new possibilities, ideas, and social norms that can promote their rights and allow them to engage more fully in society. According to Talcott Parson's Sex Role Theory, women and men perform their sex roles males perform instrumental roles and women perform expressive roles in the family. It emphasises women's diversity rather than commonalities while highlighting how linkages to the public realm enable their movement. As we all know, India is a growing country with shifting migration patterns. An increasing number of women are travelling to cities, particularly major cities, for reasons other than marriage. In India, the urban population's femininity ratio is steadily improving. The migrant population's femininity ratio is determined to be greater than the non-migrant population's femininity ratio. Gender and Migration in Developing Countries (Chant, 1992) demonstrates that many movement academics continue to resort to predefined sex norms to explain women's migration. ("*The most conspicuous disparities in male and female mobility in the text appear to connect most closely to men's and women's responsibilities in earning revenue within household units,*"- writes Chant 1992, p. 199). Migration significantly impacts the demographic mix of any nation, state, or district population. Women are more likely to be represented among intra-district migrants than among inter-district and inter-state migrants. Since women are willing to work for any wage in order to enter the labour market, this has a major impact on women's rural-urban migration. When we see migration from rural-to-rural and rural-urban areas, it could be due to marriage, (Premi,1980) discovered in his study that a higher percentage of women migrated from rural-to-rural destinations compared to rural-to-urban destinations. Internal migration offers better potential for poverty reduction, contributing to economic development in developing countries, and

reaching the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) and Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs), Women frequently relocate in response to demands caused by changes in lifecycle stages, and hence the causes for migration are not always the same. The spread of education, training, and technology, rising living costs, altered conventions of assessing one's status in terms of income, and changes in men's views all encourage more and more women to leave their homes and work (Singhal, 1995; Philip, 2002).

In this research paper, we investigate female migration's post-liberalization trend in six Indian megacities between 1991 and 2011. Traditionally, it is considered that females in India migrate small distances, usually for marriage purposes. The Indian economy's urbanisation, privatisation, and globalisation may have an impact on population movement in general, and female migration in particular. It is believed that as the economy and culture develop, more female migration would occur. It would influence the level and patterns of female migration in India. The research on recent patterns in female migration is likewise limited, as the focus is mostly on male migration.

Objectives

1. To examine the female migration patterns in six megacities of India.
2. To investigate the factors that contribute to the migration of females to six megacities.
3. To analyze the differences in female migration rates from 1991 to 2011.

Methodology

The present study is based on secondary data, specifically census data, which have been utilized to carry out a comparative analysis of male and female migration in six major Indian cities: Mumbai, Delhi, Kolkata, Chennai, Bangalore, and Hyderabad. Furthermore, the research aims to examine the trends in female migration over a span of three decades (1991, 2001, and 2011) and investigate the underlying factors driving such migration.

Results and Discussion

From 1991 to 2001, Mumbai and Delhi exhibited notable increases in their respective percentages of migrants, reaching 56.23 and 54.76 in 1991, and further rising to 57.93 and 56.06 in 2001 (refer to Table 1). However, in 2011, Delhi experienced a decline in its male migrant percentage, which dropped to 52.24 (approximately 3.82). Conversely, Hyderabad and Chennai witnessed a significant influx of female migrants in 1991, with percentages of 49.08 and 48.61, respectively. Nevertheless, these figures declined in both cities by 2001, reaching 46.23 and 46.83, respectively. Furthermore, Kolkata surpassed

Chennai as one of the top two cities with the highest number of female migrants. In 2011, Kolkata and Chennai exhibited substantial percentages of female migration, with figures of 52.74 and 49.96, respectively.

TABLE 1: The volume of female migrant in percentage

City/UA	Census 1991		Census 2001		Census 2011	
	Male%	Female%	Male%	Female%	Male%	Female%
Bangalore	51.76	48.03	54.68	45.32	53.04	45.66
Chennai	51.39	48.61	53.17	46.83	50.10	49.96
Delhi	54.76	45.24	56.06	43.94	52.24	47.76
Hyderabad	50.92	49.08	53.77	46.23	51.34	48.65
Kolkata	52.76	47.24	53.39	46.61	47.25	52.74
Mumbai	56.23	43.77	57.93	42.07	54.33	45.66

Sources: Census of India 1991,2001 and 2011; D3 UA

TABLE 2: Sex ratio of six megacities

City/UA	1991	2001	2011
Bangalore	902	906	922
Chennai	933	950	985
Delhi	830	822	868
Hyderabad	930	970	954
Kolkata	830	869	935
Mumbai	828	823	863

Note: sex ratio no. of female / 1000 male

Sources: General Population and D3 UA, Census of India, 1991,2001 AND 2011

The sex ratio of a population is a crucial demographic indicator. Table 2 presents the sex ratio of the entire population in the six megacities. The sex ratio is calculated by determining the number of females per 1000 males. In 2001, the sex ratio of the population, which is heavily skewed in favour of males, showed a slight improvement

TABLE 3: The volume of female migration in rural and urban areas in six megacity percentage

City/UA	Census 1991		Census 2001		Census 2011	
	Rural	Urban	Rural	Urban	Rural	urban
Bangalore	46.77	49.77	43.38	46.65	44.50	47.61
Chennai	47.89	49.20	45.38	47.21	49.14	50.02
Delhi	41.46	49.54	41.06	48.89	45.09	52.19
Hyderabad	48.57	49.76	43.70	46.23	47.98	48.87
Kolkata	45.74	50.57	45.14	50.82	52.65	54.15
Mumbai	41.15	48.77	39.66	46.63	42.31	49.03

Sources: Census of India 1991, 2001 and 2011; D3 UA

compared to 1991, except in Delhi and Mumbai where it further decreased. From 1991 to 2011, Chennai and Hyderabad exhibited a high sex ratio among the six cities, with the exception of Delhi and Mumbai. Furthermore, Kolkata's sex ratio demonstrated a significant improvement from 869 in 2001 to 935 in 2011.

When discussing migration, it is widely accepted that the majority of time is spent examining the movement of individuals from rural to urban areas. As evidenced by Table 3, which displays the rural and urban migration patterns of males and females in six megacities, there has been a notable increase in migration flow across all cities from 1991 to 2011. However, it is worth noting that rural migration experienced a decline from 1991 to 2001, before once again increasing in all six megacities by 2011. In terms of female urban migration rates in rural regions, Delhi and Kolkata exhibited the highest rates during the 2001-2011 period. Interestingly, in 1991, Kolkata and Hyderabad had the highest rural-urban migration rates.

TABLE 4

City/UA	Census 1991		Census 2001		Census 2011	
	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female
Bangalore	49.91	50.09	54.61	45.38	51.92	48.08
Chennai	46.52	53.47	52.54	47.45	50.64	49.37
Delhi	52.82	47.17	0	0	49.71	50.29
Hyderabad	47.54	52.46	52.32	47.67	51.69	48.32
Kolkata	36.51	63.51	44.98	55.02	44.63	55.38
Mumbai	45.55	54.44	50.62	49.37	51.65	48.35

The volume of female migration within the district in six megacities percentage

Sources: Census of India 1991,2001 and 2011; D3 UA

The implementation of LPG reforms in India led to the establishment of a significant number of multinational corporations (MNCs) in urban areas, resulting in various outcomes. It is widely acknowledged that any phenomenon has its advantages and disadvantages, and one of the positive aspects of these MNCs was the creation of employment opportunities for individuals within their respective districts, rather than having to seek employment in other states. Consequently, while migration did occur, it also manifested as intra-district mobility. The extent of mobility within districts can be observed in Table 4, which presents data for six megacities. Notably, in all cities, female mobility within districts exceeded male migration in 1991, although this trend declined in 2001 and 2011. Conversely, male mobility within districts has increased in all cities, except for Delhi, where no movement was recorded in 2001 for both males and females.

TABLE 5

CITY/UA	CENSUS YEARS	WORK	BUSINESS	EDU.	MARRIAGE	H.H	F.M	N.C	MB	OTHER
Bangalore	1991	6.22	0.70	2.31	33.21	-	42.59	0.25	-	14.72
	2001	7.15	0.52	1.66	33.53	23.43	-	-	4.68	29.02
	2011	10.00	0.84	2.00	28.90	26.44	-	-	4.18	27.60
Chennai	1991	7.07	0.99	2.00	34.10	-	41.59	0.35	-	13.91
	2001	5.94	0.60	1.22	25.20	23.26	-	-	4.06	39.71
	2011	5.85	0.41	2.00	28.90	32.03	-	-	4.18	27.60
Delhi	1991	2.90	0.59	0.83	49.24	-	39.39	0.10	-	6.94
	2001	4.19	0.19	0.67	33.06	47.51	-	-	2.12	12.25
	2011	3.78	0.25	0.73	37.21	45.82	-	-	2.18	10.00
Hyderabad	1991	8.65	0.95	1.98	38.75	-	33.72	0.34	-	15.61
	2001	6.96	0.74	1.48	20.94	29.73	-	-	3.61	36.54
	2011	7.62	1.12	1.72	17.82	25.78	-	-	4.32	41.51
Kolkata	1991	3.75	0.49	0.93	26.60	-	47.22	0.15	-	20.88
	2001	3.12	0.38	0.52	37.59	27.84	-	-	2.46	28.09
	2011	2.45	0.61	0.44	42.30	25.18	-	-	5.29	23.70
Mumbai	1991	3.49	1.18	2.19	28.31	-	45.37	0.29	-	19.16
	2001	3.72	0.17	0.75	45.72	25.55	-	-	9.27	14.82
	2011	4.77	0.77	0.75	35.84	29.52	-	-	7.93	20.39

Reasons for female migration (%)

F M: Family Moved, M B: - Moved with Birth, N C: - Natural Calamities, M H H: - Moved with Household Sources: - Census of India 1991, 2001 and 2011; D3 UA.

The causes of female migration in India were categorized into seven distinct categories during the 1991 census, namely work, business, education, marriage, family relocation, natural disasters, and others. However, the 2001 census saw the removal of two categories, namely family relocation and natural calamities, while two additional justifications were included, namely moved after birth and moved with household. It is widely acknowledged that marriage is the primary motivation for female migration in India, with 35.84 percent of females migrating to Mumbai for this reason in 2001, followed by Kolkata (42.30 percent), Bangalore (28.90 percent), Delhi (37.21 percent), Chennai (28.90 percent), and Hyderabad (17.82 percent) (table 5). While marriage migration has decreased in Delhi, Bangalore, and Hyderabad, it has risen in Chennai since 2001.

Female migration for job purposes is reported to be minimal, with the highest percentage reported in Bangalore (10.00%), followed by Hyderabad (7.69%), Chennai (5.85%), Delhi (3.78%), Mumbai (4.7%), and Kolkata (4.7%). During the same period, the proportion of migration for jobs has increased in Hyderabad, Mumbai, and Bangalore, while it has decreased in Kolkata, Chennai, and Delhi. Business migration by women in India is uncommon, with less than 1% of Indian women relocating to major cities for business purposes, and this number has decreased over time.

The data also reveals that female migrants from India relocate for educational reasons, with Bangalore and Chennai having the largest percentage of female migrants for education (2.00%), followed by Hyderabad (1.72%), Mumbai (0.75%), Delhi (0.73%), and Kolkata (0.73%). The fact that fewer women migrated to Chennai and Kolkata for higher education in 2011 compared to 2001, while Mumbai remained the same, is unexpected. However, Bengaluru, Delhi, and Hyderabad all saw improvements after 2001. It is possible that more females may move abroad for business and education due to modernization, development, and rising female autonomy.

During the same time period, there has been an increase in the proportion of migration for employment in Hyderabad, Mumbai, and Bangalore, while a decrease has been observed in Kolkata, Chennai, and Delhi. An analysis of the data reveals that business migration by women in India is not a common phenomenon. Less than 1% of Indian women relocate to major cities for business purposes, and this percentage has declined over time. Additionally, the data indicates that female migrants from India primarily move for educational reasons. The cities with the highest percentage of female migrants for educational purposes are Bangalore and Chennai (2.00%), followed by Hyderabad (1.72%), Mumbai (0.75%), Delhi (0.73%), and Kolkata (0.73%). It is noteworthy that the decrease in the number of women migrating to Chennai and Kolkata for higher education in 2011 compared to 2001, while Mumbai remained constant, is quite unexpected. On the other hand, Bengaluru, Delhi, and Hyderabad witnessed improvements after 2001. It is possible that with modernization, development, and increasing female autonomy, more women may choose to migrate abroad for business and education. However, the data suggests that India does not conform to this assumption. As families relocate to cities, a significant portion of the female population migrates as dependent migrants. Rather than economic factors such as employment, education, and business, women in India tend to migrate more frequently for familial reasons such as marriage and family relocation. Therefore, before Indian women can embark on overseas migration for economic purposes, similar to what is observed in affluent nations, there is still a long way to go.

TABLE 6: Female Development indicators in India 2011

State and UT	Female literacy %	Female agriculture holding %	Urbanization %	Female main workers %
Andaman and Nicobar Islands	81.84	29.79	37.7	12.54
Arunachal Pradesh	59.57	12.04	22.94	26.52
Andhra Pradesh	59.57	30.08	29.47	27.31
Assam	67.27	1.66	14.1	10.82
Bihar	53.33	13.99	11.29	8.20
Chandigarh	81.38	10.82	97.25	14.47
Chhattisgarh	60.59	13.79		20.80
Dadar and Nagar Haveli	65.93	20.11	58.43	14.12
Daman and Diu	79.59			12.71
Delhi	80.93	13.65	97.5	9.54
Goa	81.84	25.68	62.17	16.55
Gujarat	70.73	0.36	42.6	13.11
Haryana	66.77	14.75	34.86	9.73
Himachal Pradesh	76.60	7.43	10.03	18.43
J&K	58.01	7.60	26.11	5.73
Jharkhand	56.21	11.26	24.05	9.86
Karnataka	68.13	20.07	50.78	23.39
Kerala	91.98	22.97	47.7	12.37
Lakshadweep	88.25	41.03	78.07	5.31
Odisha	64.36	4.06	16.69	9.21
Madhya Pradesh	60.02	11.88	27.63	18.10
Maharashtra	75.48	15.46	45.22	25.44
Manipur	73.17	6.76	30.20	25.33
Meghalaya	73.78	34.32	20.07	22.78
Mizoram	89.40	11.77	52.11	28.00
Nagaland	76.69	9.85	28.86	31.34
Puducherry	81.22	22.80	68.33	14.67
Punjab	71.34	1.54	37.48	9.50
Rajasthan	52.66	10.12	24.87	17.62
Tamil and Nadu	73.86	19.65	48.4	24.94
Sikkim	76.43	6.29	25.15	24.30
Tripura	83.15	2.81	26.17	10.15
Telangana		23.00	38.23	
Uttar Pradesh	59.26	7.65	22.27	49.52
Uttarakhand	70.70	11.92	30.23	16.16
West Bengal	71.26	3.16	31.87	9.01

Sources: Census of India 2011; B-1, D3 and Agriculture census department of Agriculture and Farmers welfare.

Female literacy, urbanization, the percentage of female primary workers, and female agricultural land holding are considered crucial indicators of development. In the year 2011, states such as Uttar Pradesh, Arunachal Pradesh, Andhra Pradesh, Bihar, Jharkhand, and Jammu & Kashmir exhibited relatively low levels of female literacy. Similarly, the BIMARU states identified by Ashish Bose, the seven sisters' states in eastern India, Odisha, and Jharkhand continue to experience low rates of urbanization. Himachal Pradesh stands out as India's least urbanized state, leading to a significant outflow of females to major cities. According to Table 6, Arunachal Pradesh, Assam, Bihar, Chandigarh, Chhattisgarh, Delhi, Himachal Pradesh, J&K, Jharkhand, Odisha, Madhya Pradesh, Manipur, Nagaland, Mizoram, Punjab, Rajasthan, Sikkim, Tripura, and West Bengal have less than 15% female ownership of agricultural land. Female work participation or the proportion of female main workers can be seen as a comprehensive development component, with states like Uttar Pradesh, Andhra Pradesh, Arunachal Pradesh, Karnataka, Maharashtra, Mizoram, Meghalaya, Nagaland, Tamil Nadu, and Sikkim having a high percentage of female main workers. In this context, it can be inferred that both underdevelopment and development at the place of origin play a role in motivating female migration to megacities.

Major Findings

1. In Chennai and Hyderabad, the volume of female migration was high in 1991, but it fell from (48.61 and 49.08) to (46.83 and 46.23) in 2001. In 2011, Chennai and Kolkata (49.96 and 52.74) recorded significant female migration.
2. In all six megacities, the sex ratio increased across all periods. From 1991 to 2011, Chennai (985) and Hyderabad (954) had the greatest sex ratios.
3. Among the six megacities, females migrate more to urban regions in pursuit of employment and better educational possibilities. In 2011, female migration was high in Kolkata (54.15) and Delhi (52.02).
4. Females move more within their origin district than males, with Delhi (50.29) and Kolkata (55.38) having high female migration rates.
5. Marriage and household are still the most common and significant reasons for the female movement; nevertheless, the marriage rate has decreased from 1991 to 2011, while other reasons for migrating have improved, such as education, employment, and business.
6. When it comes to female participation in the development of the country, there is an improvement in female literacy rates, as well as urbanization; females are more likely to be in the workforce in 2011 than in 2001; nonetheless, female agricultural landholding remains low in all states.

7. In 2011, the bulk of female migrants came from undeveloped states including Uttar Pradesh, Rajasthan, Madhya Pradesh, Odisha, and Jharkhand.
8. The BIMARU states and North-East states reported poor literacy, urbanisation, and outmigration to megacities.

Summary

Based on the findings of the research and analysis conducted, it is evident that female migration in India is a complex issue that is deeply intertwined with social and economic inequalities. Women in India encounter numerous challenges in relation to migration, including limited access to education and healthcare, which render them vulnerable in society. Despite the implementation of policies and programs aimed at addressing the issue, reliance on the informal sector for livelihood persists (Agarwal & Sarkar, 2022). Moreover, it is apparent that historically, marriage has been the primary reason for female migration in India (K, Reshmi, & Hemalatha, 2016). However, there is a shifting trend as more women are migrating for work and becoming economically independent. This shift can be attributed to the increasing opportunities for employment and education that urban areas provide. Nevertheless, it is important to note that the overall percentage of women migrating for work remains relatively small, primarily due to the low female labor participation rate in India (Rajan & Bhagat, 2021).

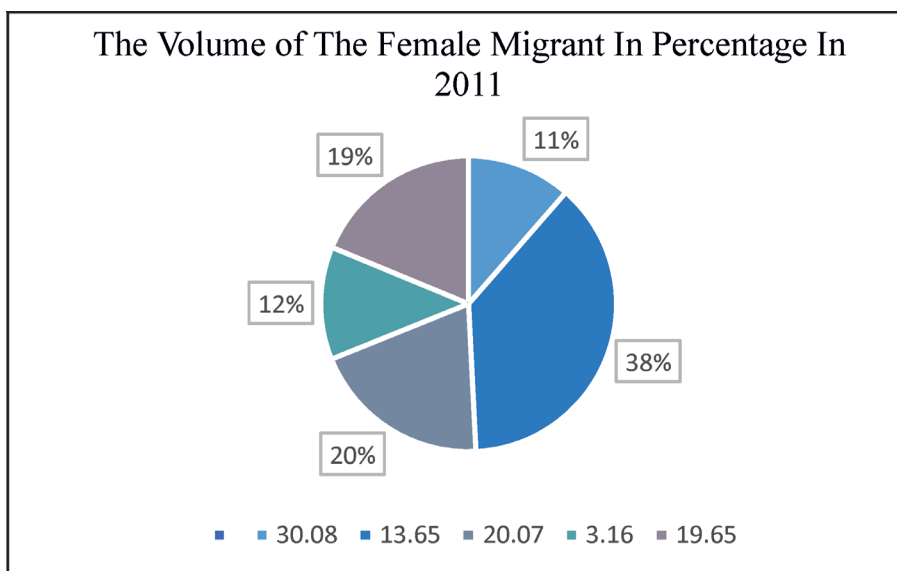
The impact of migration on a state's development factor is a significant area of concern, as development cannot be achieved by halting or controlling the flow of migrants. Female migration, in particular, has far-reaching consequences, not only on women's economic roles but also on their positions within the family unit. The socioeconomic status of women is often elevated through migration, which has implications not only for the individual but also for the family as a whole. The phenomenon of migration is a global one, influenced by both development and underdevelopment.

To further explore the issue of female migration, Pie Chart 1 displays the volume of female migration in six megacities in 2011. Kolkata, with 18%, had the highest volume of female migration compared to the other cities. Pie Chart 2 illustrates the reasons for female migration in 2011, with marriage being the most common reason at 49%, followed by employment at 10% and education at 2%. The remaining 39% of female migrants moved to these six megacities for other reasons, such as family relocation. Chart 3 provides an overview of female development indicators in these six megacities in 2011.

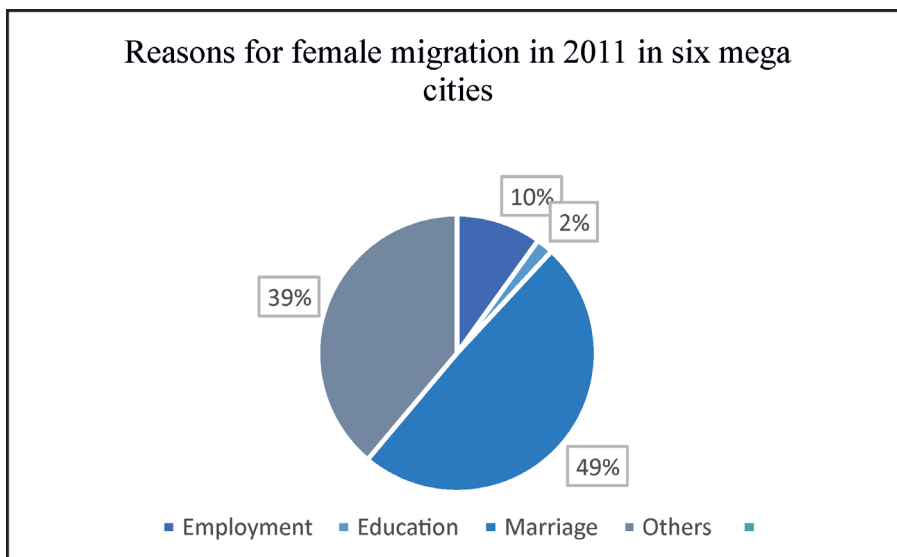
In conclusion, the dominance of women in migration within India presents a multi-faceted issue that necessitates attention and action. Addressing female migration in India requires addressing the underlying gender inequalities that contribute to their vulnerabilities and limited opportunities. Additionally, accurate data collection and

research are crucial to fully comprehend the extent of female migration and its impact on society.

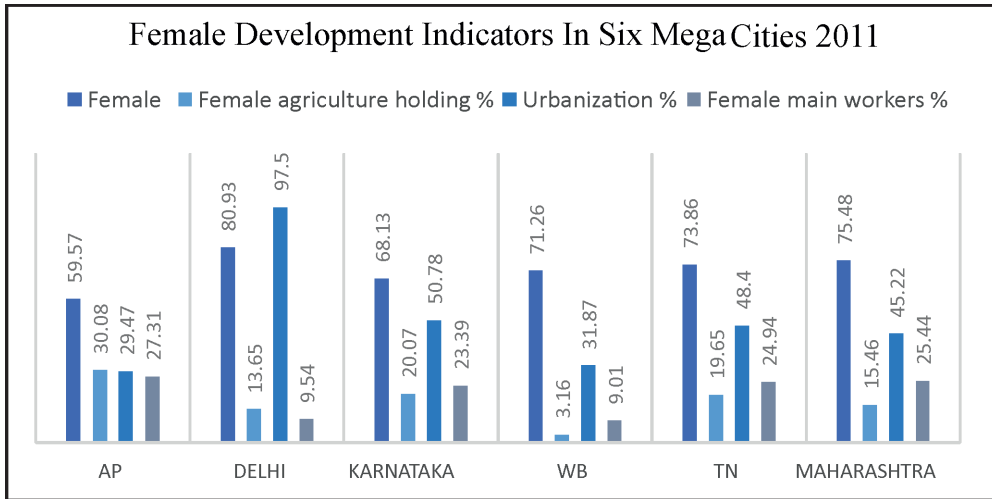
In order to gain a deeper comprehension of female migration in India, additional research is imperative. While a considerable proportion of women migrate for the purpose of marriage and family, a noteworthy percentage opt for megacities such as Mumbai,



Pie chart 1



Pie chart 2



Graph 1

Chennai, Bangalore, Delhi, Hyderabad, and Kolkata due to business, educational, and employment opportunities. Given the ongoing processes of modernization, industrialization, and enhanced female mobility, it is anticipated that the quantity and pace of female migration will escalate in the forthcoming years, primarily driven by economic motives.

Acknowledgement

We would like to extend our sincere appreciation to Dr. Manoj Kumar Teotia and Dr. Vikash Kumar, our esteemed Ph.D. supervisors, for their invaluable guidance and unwavering support throughout our research journey. Additionally, we would like to express our gratitude to the Faculty of Sociology at the Centre for Research in Rural and Industrial Development (CRRID), Chandigarh, with special mention to Dr. Gurinder Kaur, for her invaluable guidance and meticulous instruction during the process of writing this paper. Lastly, we would like to extend our heartfelt thanks to our parents for their unwavering support and encouragement.

Reference

- Agarwal, S. and Sarkar, S. (2022). Topical analysis of migration coverage during lockdown in India by mainstream print media. *PLOS ONE*, 17(2).
- Agriculture Census (2020). *All India Report on Agriculture Census 2015-16*. New Delhi: Department of Agriculture, Cooperation & Farmers Welfare Ministry of Agriculture & Farmers Welfare Government of India OF INDIA.
- Census of India (1951). *Appendices to the Census Report, 1951, Volume I, Part! -B*. New Delhi: India Registrar General, India and ex-officio Census Commissioner for India.

- Census of India (1991). *India, C-Series, Socio-Economic tables, etc., Registrar General and Census Commissioner's Office*. New Delhi: Government of India.
- Census of India (2001). *India, D-Series, Migration tables, etc.* New Delhi: Registrar General and Census Commissioner's Office.
- Census of India (1991). *India, D-Series, Migration tables, etc.* New Delhi: Registrar General and Census Commissioner's Office.
- Census of India (2001). *India, C-Series, Socio-Economic tables, etc.* New Delhi: Registrar General and Census Commissioner's Office.
- Census of India (2011a). *India, D-series, Migration tables, etc.* New Delhi: Registrar General and Census Commissioner's Office.
- Census of India (2011b). *India, B-series, Main worker tables, etc.* New Delhi: Registrar General and Census Commissioner's Office.
- Chant, S.H. (1992). *Gender and Migration in Developing Countries*. London: Behaven Press.
- International Organization for Migration (2021). *IOM Results and Annual Reports*. [online] International Organization for Migration. Available at: <https://www.iom.int/iom-results-and-annual-reports> [Accessed Nov. 2022].
- International Migration in South and South-West Asia (n.d.). *Out-migration | Situation Report*. [online] sitreport.unescapsdd.org. Available at: <https://sitreport.unescapsdd.org/india/out-migration> [Accessed 3 Oct. 2022].
- K, A.K., S, R.R. and N, H. (2016). Effect of women's migration on urban children's health in India. *International Journal of Migration, Health and Social Care*, 12(2), pp.133–145.
- Lee, E.S. (1966). A Theory of Migration. *Demography*, 3(1), pp.47–57.
- Nations., U. (1993). *Internal Migration of Women in Developing Countries*. New York : United Nations.
- Premi, M.K. (1979). Patterns of Internal Migration of Females in India. *Centre for the Study of Regional Development. Occasional*, 15.
- Rajan, S.I. and Bhagat, R.B. (2021). Internal Migration and the Covid-19 Pandemic in India. *Migration and Pandemics*, pp.227–248.
- Ravenstein, G.G. (1885). The laws of Migration. *The Royal Statistical Society London*, 48(2), pp.162–277.
- Wright, C. (1995). Gender Awareness in Migration Theory: Synthesizing Actor and Structure in Southern Africa. *Development and Change*, 26(4), pp. 771–792.