

MIGRATION 1

Today's Class

- What is Migration?
- Migration: Definitions & Concept
- Migration Measures
- Theories of Migration
- Selection in Migration

Migration

- Migration is the third major demographic process.
- Migration is very different from the other 2 population processes:
 1. Very hard to measure, so we know less about it than we do about fertility & mortality
 2. Has been a subject of far more governmental control than have fertility and mortality

Conceptualizing Migration

- A “permanent” change in the location of the person’s residence is referred to as “spatial mobility,” of which there are three major classes:
 - Local Movement: short-distance change of residence within the same community
 - Internal Migration: change of residence from one community to another while remaining within the same national boundaries (crossing of a political boundary)
 - International Migration: change of residence from one nation to another

Migration: Definitions and Concepts

- In-Migrant: a migrant who crosses a migration-defining boundary in the process of changing residence and enters a given community from some other community in the same nation
 - (immigrant in international migration)
- Out-Migrant: a migrant who crosses a migration-defining boundary while departing from a residence to reside in another community in the same nation
 - (emigrant in international migration)
- Net Internal Migration: the migration balance of a community or area; it consists of the number of in-migrants minus the number of out-migrants; the net balance may be positive or negative or conceivably zero

Migration: Definitions and Concepts

- Area of Origin: the area or community from which a migrant departs
- Area of Destination: the area or community to which a migrant enters.
- Return Migrant: a migrant who returns from the community of destination to the community of origin

Stocks Versus Flows

The migration transition involves a process and a transformation.

- The process is that people move from one place to another and this represents the migration flow.
- The transformation is that the migrant stock changes as people move into and out of a given place.

Migration: Definitions and Concepts

- Migration permanence: refers to the duration of the move; whether it is a migration or a visit; The United Nations recommends a one year criterion.
- Commuting: daily spatial movement involved in the journey to work

Migration: Definitions and Concepts

- Gross Migration: sum of in- and out- migration: it refers to the total population turnover a community is experiencing.
- Migration Effectiveness/Efficiency: how effective the migration is in redistributing the population.
- High negative effectiveness (more out-migrants than in-migrants) seems to characterize areas of economic hardship; high positive effectiveness (more in-migrants than out-migrants) seems to characterize areas of economic expansion

Migration Rate

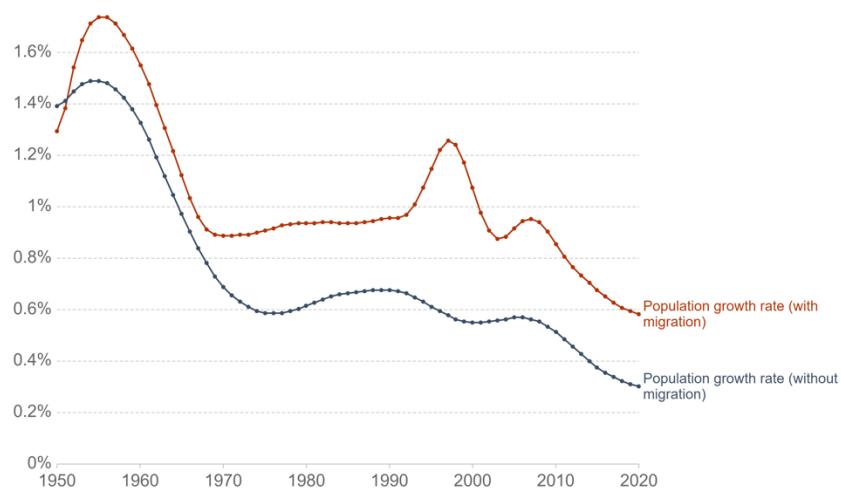
- Gross In-Migration Rate: $\frac{In-Migrants}{Population} * 1000$
- Gross Out-Migration Rate: $\frac{Out-Migrants}{Population} * 1000$
- Crude Net Migration Rate : $\frac{(In-Migrants)-(Out-Migrants)}{Population} * 1000$
- Total Migration Rate: $\frac{(In-Migrants)+(Out-Migrants)}{Population} * 1000$
- Migration Effectiveness: $\frac{(In-Migrants)-(Out-Migrants)}{(In-Migrants)+(Out-Migrants)} * 1000$

Illustration of Migration

Population growth rate with and without migration, United States

The annual change in population with migration included, versus the change if there was zero migration (neither emigration or immigration). The latter therefore represents the change in population based solely on domestic births and deaths.

Our World
in Data



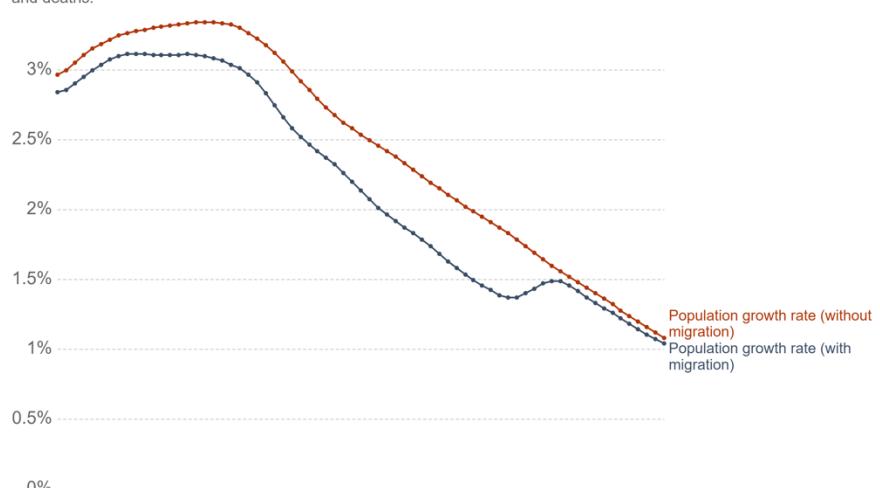
Source: United Nations – Population Division (2019 Revision)

OurWorldInData.org/world-population-growth • CC BY

Population growth rate with and without migration, Mexico

The annual change in population with migration included, versus the change if there was zero migration (neither emigration or immigration). The latter therefore represents the change in population based solely on domestic births and deaths.

Our World
in Data



Source: United Nations – Population Division (2019 Revision)

OurWorldInData.org/world-population-growth • CC BY

E. G. Ravenstein “Laws of Migration”

- To understand migration, we must understand why people *do* and *don't* move
 - Most theories deal with why people do move – the “don't” is much more difficult to discern
- Push-pull theory: This theory was pioneered by Ernst Ravenstein (1885, 1889) in two seminal papers. He postulated that some people move because they are pushed out of their location and others move because they are pulled or attracted to a new location
 - It's often not this simple! The cost/benefit calculation of migration usually takes into account both push and pull factors along with other factors
 - Decision to move usually occurs over a long period of time

Push and Pull Factors

Push

- bad or oppressive laws
- heavy taxation
- unattractive climate
- uncongenial social surrounding (and the strength of social ties)
- job loss
- political strife creating refugees

Pull

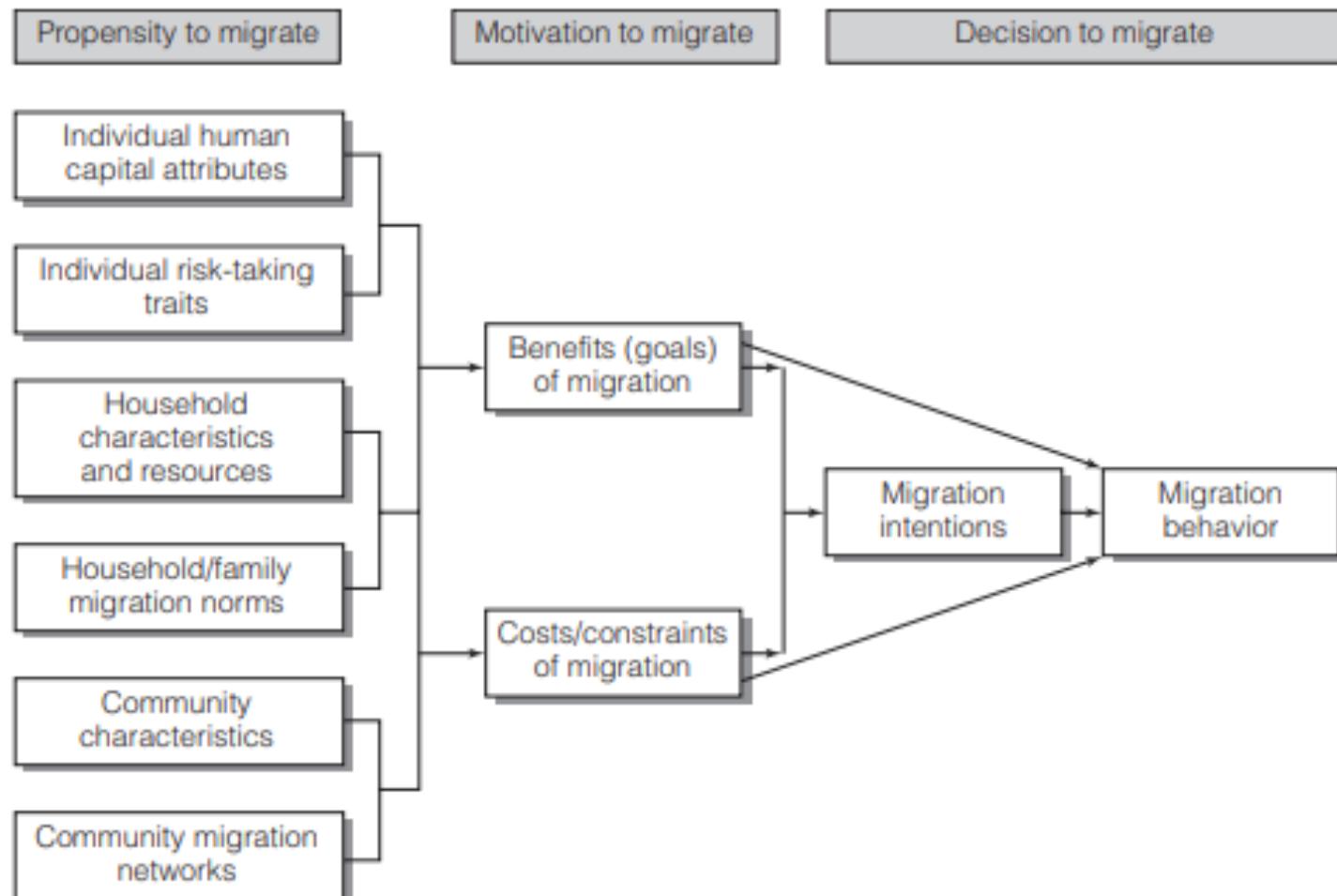
- Labor markets
- Educational opportunities
- Marriage opportunities
- Health advantages
- Social networks, including family reunification

Differentials such as age, gender and social class affect how persons respond to push-pull factors, and shape their ability to overcome intervening obstacles (Lee 1966).

When does Migration occur?

- Intervening obstacles
 - Distance of destination, cost of getting there, poor health, and other factors may inhibit migration
 - Difficult to predict, any wide scale, however, and so we tend to lump them together with the overall “costs” of moving and concentrate our attention on explaining the desire to move
 - Economic variables dominate most explanations of why people move
- Everett S. Lee proposed a comprehensive theory of migration in 1966 in the journal Demography. The main tenets of his theory were:
 - Migrants responding primarily to plus (pull) factors tend to be positively selected.
 - Migrants responding primarily to minus (push) factors tend to be negatively selected.
 - For every migration stream, there is a migration counterstream.
 - Migration tends to be more efficient in prosperous time and less so in times of depression.

Conceptual Model



Models of Migration

The main theoretical models seek to explain internal migration in terms of (1) the effects of distance, (2) income, (3) the physical costs of migration, (4) information, (5) personal characteristics, (6) individual expectations, and (7) community and kinship ties.

- The Distance Model states that long distance discourages migration because associated costs are related to distance.
- The Individual Expectations Model assumes that the dynamics of migration decision-making are based on individual expectations about the advantages and disadvantages of the home community versus possible alternative destination communities.

Models of Migration

- Destination characteristics also help determine the location to which the migrant will move
- The Physical Costs Model suggests that physical costs influence resource allocation and migration by influencing the private costs of migration.
- The Information Model emphasizes that the availability of information concerning alternative localities plays a prominent role in the potential migrant's decision regarding a destination.
- The Personal Characteristics Model argues that personal demographic characteristics (such as age, gender, education, number of dependents, networks, and race) exert important influences on the individual's decision or propensity to migrate.

Models of Migration

The Community and Kinship Ties Model points out that the presence of relatives and friends encourages migration by increasing the individual's potential for adjustment through the availability of aid in location at an alternative area of residence. All these models focus mainly on individuals and why individuals move or do not move.

Selection in Migration

Migration is selective. Only a selected portion of the population migrates.

The heightened propensity to migrate at certain stages of the life cycle is important in the selection of migrants.

- Young adults are more likely to migrate than people at any other age.
- Selectivity in life cycle. E.g. young adulthood, starting a family, pre-school children.
- Women increasingly have similar rates of migration as men, reflecting increasing gender equity. Varies by contexts/regions.

The “Floating Population” of China

- China has a strict household registration system (*hukou* system).
- Migration has been regulated by government.
- Market transitions have undermined the *hukou* system.
- Surplus labor in rural area result in a tidal wave of rural migrant labor to cities. They are known as the “floating population.”

The “Floating Population” of China

- ‘The term “floating population” in China refers to people who have not in fact migrated, but who “float and move” meaning that they are not, and generally will not become, a permanently settled group. This transience is because the floating population has not been granted permanent, official household registration in the place in which they are residing. Members of the floating population frequently move back and forth between country and city and come and go with the seasons.
‘(Dorothy J. Solinger, 1999, pp. 15–23)
-

Geographic Concentration

- Floaters come from rural counties of the inner provinces to the richer coastal provinces
- Seven provinces send most of the floaters:
 - Sichuan, Hunan, Hubei, Henan, Jiangxi, Anhui, and Zhejiang
- Highest concentration of floaters is from counties with incomes at about the average for rural counties
- The very poor counties do not send many floaters to the cities.

Networks

- Floating population is highly networked.
- 80 percent of rural labor migrants obtained their jobs through informal networks of friends and relatives.
- 14 percent through labor contractors.
- Most of the migrants worked in destination with 20 or more people from the same village and 60 percent lived with these villagers.

Remittances

- Floater earn wages in the cities of several magnitudes greater than those earned by their countrymen in the home villages.
- They send as much as half of their salaries back to their home village.

Healthy Migrant Hypothesis/Positive Selection Migration

Migrants represent a positively selected group of individuals with respect to health, relative to the general population in origin societies.

- Young and healthy people are more likely to migrate than elderly or sick.
- In China, rural migrants on average are healthier than the urban population.
- This positive selection holds even for migrant populations from relatively underdeveloped origins experiencing high rates of mortality and morbidity.

Hispanic Mortality Paradox

- Hispanics in the United States tend to have lower household income, education, and health insurance coverage when compared to non-Hispanic Whites.
- . Despite these economic *disadvantages*, *paradoxically*, *Hispanics have better health outcomes across a range of health and disease contexts compared with non-Hispanic Whites (NHWs), an epidemiological phenomenon commonly referred to as the “Hispanic paradox.”*
- *For e.g. according to a review article by Ruiz et al. 2012 , findings from 58 studies conducted between 1990-2010, Hispanic populations had a 17.5% lower risk of mortality compared with other racial groups*

Hispanic Mortality Paradox

- The difference in mortality risk was greater among older populations
- ‘In 2019, the Hispanic population had a life expectancy advantage of 3.0 years over the non-Hispanic White population and 7.1 years relative to the non-Hispanic Black population, despite having real household income that was 26 percent lower than non-Hispanic White households (Wilson 2020)’

Hispanic Mortality Paradox

- ‘Markides and Eschbach (2005) emphasize the role of immigration in explaining the Hispanic paradox
- ‘With initial assumption that immigrants need to be healthy enough to endure the cost associated with immigration: travel, adaptation to new customs, new laws, & potentially with few resources or support available.’
- The Hispanic health paradox is closely tied to the “healthy immigrant effect” (also known as the “healthy immigrant paradox”).
- ‘The healthy immigrant effect is an observed time path in which the health of immigrants just after the migration is substantially better than that of comparable native-born people but worsens with additional years in the new country.’

Hispanic Mortality Paradox

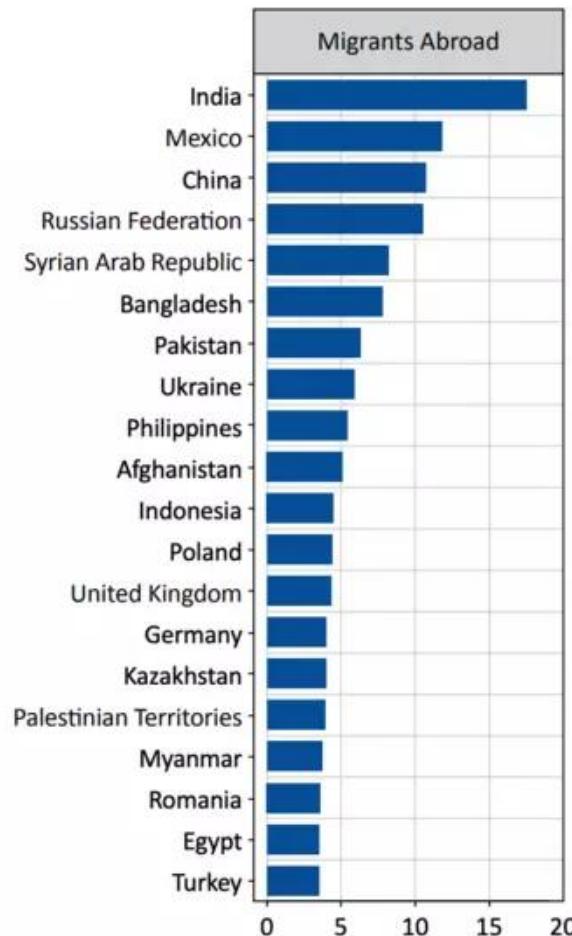
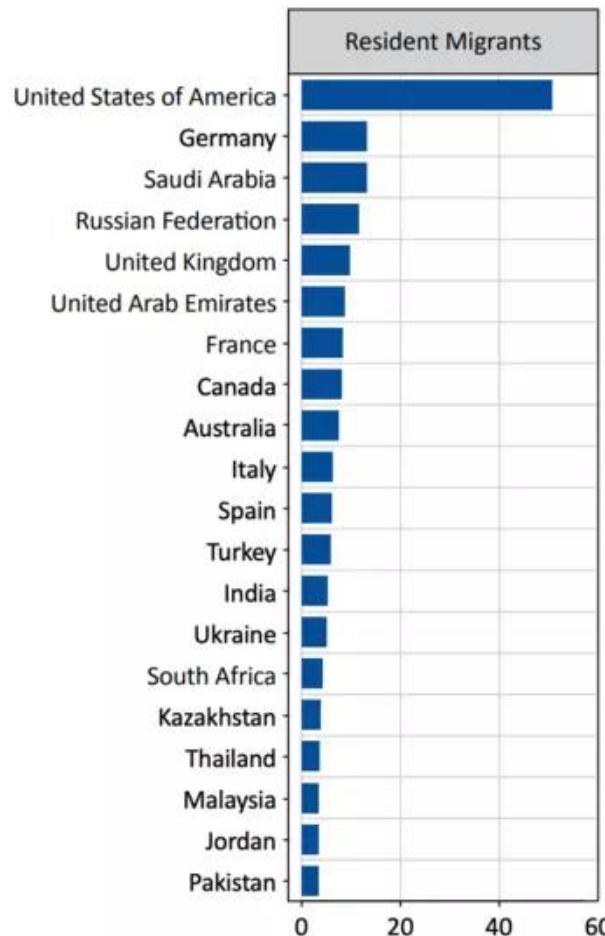
- ‘While life expectancy is an important indicator of the population’s health, the analysis of the Hispanic population must take into account that life expectancy tables do not consider the possibility that some Hispanic deaths are not accounted for due to return migration.’ (Fernandez et al. 2023)
- ‘The return migration of less healthy immigrants to Mexico and Central America (relative to South America and Cuba) would imply that older Hispanics are healthier than non-Hispanic Whites of the same age.’ (Fernandez et al. 2023)

Video

- What Hukou means for life — and migration — in China
- <https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=xkJHSUFDQsg>

- International Migration
- --Historical Trends
- --Current Trends
- -- Reasons for Migration
- --Theories of International Migration
- --Theories explaining the perpetuation of Migration
- --Economic Effects of International Migration
- --Unauthorized International Migration
- Forced Migration
- Consequences of Migration

International Migration



Source: UN DESA, 2019a (accessed 18 September 2019).

The top destinations and origins of international migrants in 2019, in millions

International Migration: change of residence from one nation to another

Historical International Migration Trends

Europe to the New World (USA, Canada, South America, Australia, South Africa): Between 1840 and 1930, around 52 million persons migrated from Europe primarily to North America.

- 1846-1890 – 17 million – mostly from British Isles
- 1891-1920 – 27 million people
- Historical migration from Africa was mostly involuntary
 - Around 9.6 million slaves were taken to the New World between 1650 and the abolition of slavery (19th century).
 - By 1930, about 1/3 of all whites lived outside Europe, and more than 1/5 of all blacks no longer lived in Africa.
 - Migration from Asia was much smaller than from Europe, with migrants mostly settling in Hawaii, Brazil and the U.S.

War Upheavals

- Since the 1930s and the period of unrest preceding WWII, to the present, there have been several major international migration movements.
 - Massey would consider these immigrants to be refugees.
- During Hitler's rise to power in the 1930s, millions of Jews and political refugees fled Germany.
- After the end of World War II about 3 million Japanese were returned by decree to Japan from other Asian nations.
- India and Pakistan were partitioned in 1947, more than 15 million Hindus and Muslims fled. Muslims to Pakistan and Hindus to India.

Recent Upheavals

- 11.5 million refugees fleeing Afghanistan following the Soviet Invasion in 1979.
- In 2005, the following countries were the origins of the largest numbers of refugees: the Palestinian Territories, Afghanistan, Iraq, Myanmar, and Sudan.
- There have been over 4.2 million Iraqis (more now) alone displaced since the 2003 U. S. invasion of Iraq.
- 11 million people Syrians have been displaced from their homes – 5 million fled the country; rest have been internally displaced.
 - Some estimates show 10% fled to Europe.

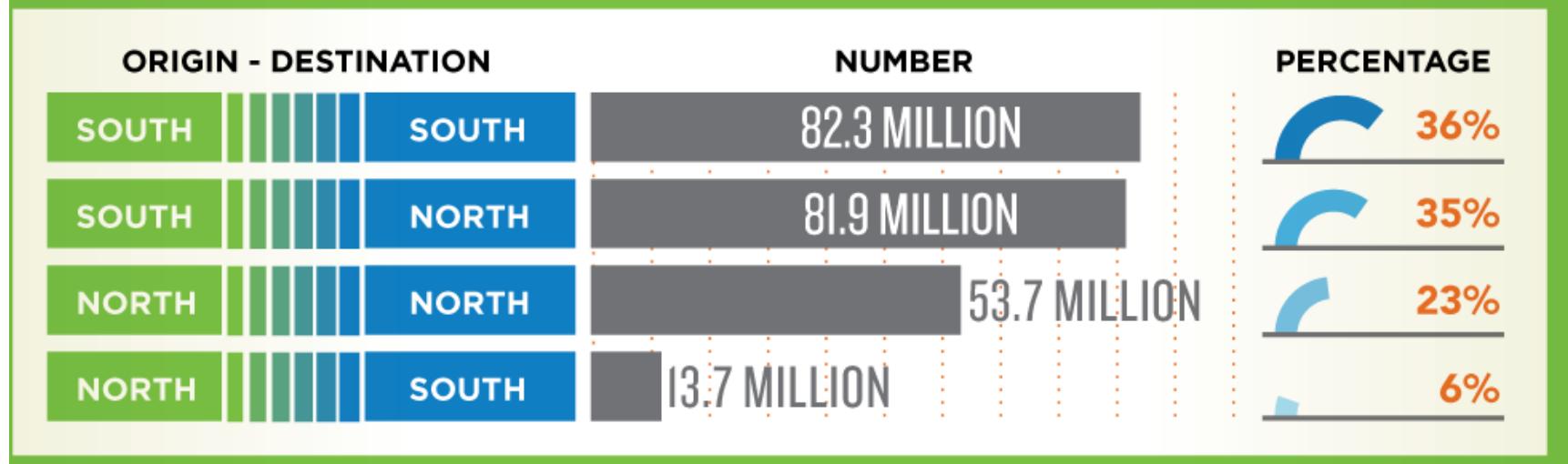
Current Trends

- The number of international migrants globally reached an estimated 281 million in 2020.
- Currently, international migrants comprise 3.5 per cent of the global population, compared to 2.8 per cent in the year 2000, according to the United Nations.
- In 2019, regionally, Europe hosts the largest number of international migrants (82 million), followed by Northern America (59 million) and Northern Africa and Western Asia (49 million).
- Women comprise slightly less than half of all international migrants in 2019. The share of women and girls in the global number of international migrants fell slightly, from 49 per cent in 2000 to 48 per cent in 2019. The share of migrant women was highest in Northern America (52%) and Europe (51%), and lowest in sub-Saharan Africa (47%) and Northern Africa and Western Asia (36%).
- Three out of every four international migrants are of working age (20-64 years). One out of every seven international migrants is below the age of 20 years.

Current Migration Trends

GLOBAL TRENDS Four Major Migration Flows

SOUTH is a developing country and **NORTH** is an industrialized country.



Source: <http://www.prb.org/Multimedia/Infographics/2014/infographic-global-migration.aspx>

Reasons for Migration

- Influenced especially by opportunity structures in place of origin and desired place of destination.
- Increasing influence of pull factors, push factors less important.
- Strategies include:
 - Step migration (e.g., from rural to town to city to megapolis);
 - Chain migration (pioneer migrants get established and then are followed by family and friends)
- Cheaper and quicker transportation and communication
 - Increasing information; lowering risk
 - Easier to return home if things did not work out

Theories of International Migration

Theories of international migration that focus on the initiation of voluntary migration

Neoclassical economic model

- Classic supply and demand model
- ▶ Individual cost-benefit decisions to maximize expected incomes.
- ▶ Workers are attracted from low-wage countries with adequate labor, to high-wage countries with limited labor.

The “new economics of migration” is a revision of the neoclassical model.

- Migration decisions are made not only by isolated individuals but also by larger units, such as families and households.
- Migration occurs not only to increase individual earnings, but also to minimize household risks and to protect the family from market failures.

Theories of International Migration

The dual labor market theory argues that migration stems from the demands of the economic structure of industrial societies.

Inherent tendencies in modern capitalism lead to separate labor markets in two sectors

- The primary sector that produces jobs with secure tenure, high pay, generous benefits, and good working conditions; and the secondary sector typified by instability, low pay, limited benefits, and unpleasant or hazardous working conditions.
- Employers are inclined to turn to migrants to fill the jobs in the secondary sector.

Theories of International Migration

- World systems theory argues that international migration is the natural result of globalization of the market economy.
 - Global industrialization creates mobilization
 - The development of the global market economy attracts human capital to a relatively small number of global cities.

Theories Explaining Perpetuation of Migration

- Migration network theory focuses on networks, i.e., the interpersonal ties that connect migrants, former migrants, potential migrants, and non-migrants in the origin and destination countries.
 - Reduces risk and costs, increases expected returns.
 - Networks make it much easier for new migrants to find jobs and gain access to required resources in their destination countries.
 - Diffusion perpetuates migration
- Institutional Theory suggests that institutions get created that perpetuate migration. E.g. agencies for Foreign Domestic Workers.
- Cumulative causation suggests that each act of migration influences subsequent decisions about migration. E.g. Remittances in Bangladesh.

The Economic Effects of International Migration

- Demographers have examined the economic, cultural, environmental, health, and security effects of international migration.
- Basically, there are two positions on international migration, one permitting it and one denying it.
- Economic effects are important and they are the most often cited in arguments for and against international migration.

The Economic Effects of International Migration

- Many times the host country is concerned that the immigrants are taking jobs from natives and driving down wages.
 - Most analyses in W. Europe and the U.S. have found little support for this position.
- Also of concern for natives is the strain that immigrants cause on social welfare programs
 - In the U.S., immigrants typically pay back in taxes the cost to the government of education and other programs.

The Economic Effects of International Migration

- The U.S. typically gains more skilled workers than it loses to foreign countries.
 - This is a negative impact for the country of origin and is known as “the brain drain.”
- What about economic effects in the country of origin?
 - There is no long-term impact on employment in the origin country
 - Remittances to origin countries aid communities and businesses as well as contribute to the GNP of the origin countries.

Brain Drain: Social Challenge or Global Opportunity?

- <https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=uBPreIqYOMQ>

Unauthorized International Migration

- An unauthorized immigrant is a person who immigrates to a host country “through irregular or extralegal channels”
- An international migrant is classified as “unauthorized” if:
 - 1) during the process of migrating to the host country the person “avoided inspection by crossing borders clandestinely or ... traveled with fraudulent documents, e.g., a falsified visa or counterfeit passport”; such persons are referred to as “entries without inspection” (EWIs)
 - 2) the person “overstayed the time limit of a legally obtained non-immigrant temporary visa”; such persons are referred to as “visa overstayers”
 - 3) the migrant violated explicit visa conditions, e.g., obtaining employment while holding a student visa

Unauthorized International Migration

- In almost all the other countries of the world, except for the U.S., most unauthorized immigrants are visa over-stayers.
- The International Organization for Migration estimates that the number of unauthorized migrants to be between 30 and 40 million persons. Maybe more now.
- South Africa is a major destination for unauthorized immigrants from other African countries.
- In Asia most of the unauthorized streams of migration are to Japan, South Korea and Malaysia.

Forced Migration

- ‘A refugee is someone who has been forced to flee their country because of persecution, war or violence. A refugee has a well-founded fear of persecution for reasons of race, religion, nationality, political opinion or membership in a particular social group. Most likely, they cannot return home or are afraid to do so. War and ethnic, tribal and religious violence are leading causes of refugees fleeing their countries.’
- ‘An internally displaced person, or IDP, is someone who has been forced to flee their home but never cross an international border. These individuals seek safety anywhere they can find it—in nearby towns, schools, settlements, internal camps, even forests and fields.’

Forced Migration

- The number of people displaced by violence and conflict today is the highest since World War II.
 - 117.3 million forcibly displaced people worldwide at the end of 2023 as a result of persecution, conflict, violence, human rights violations or events seriously disturbing public order (UNHCR 2023).
- Most displaced people remain in their origin countries/neighbouring regions
 - A large segment of displaced people have been uprooted by weather-related disasters.

Forced Migration

- Nearly three-quarters of all refugees under UNHCR's mandate and other people in need of international protection come from just five countries (2023).

- | | |
|----------------------|-------------|
| Afghanistan | 6.4 million |
| Syrian Arab Republic | 6.4 million |
| Venezuela | 6.1 million |
| Ukraine | 6.0 million |
| South Sudan | 2.3 million |

Forced Migration

- Colombia, Germany, the Islamic Republic of Iran, Pakistan, and Türkiye hosted nearly 2 in 5 of the world's refugees and other people in need of international protection.

Islamic Republic of Iran	3.8 million
Türkiye	3.3 million
Colombia	2.9 million
Germany	2.6 million
Pakistan	2.0 million

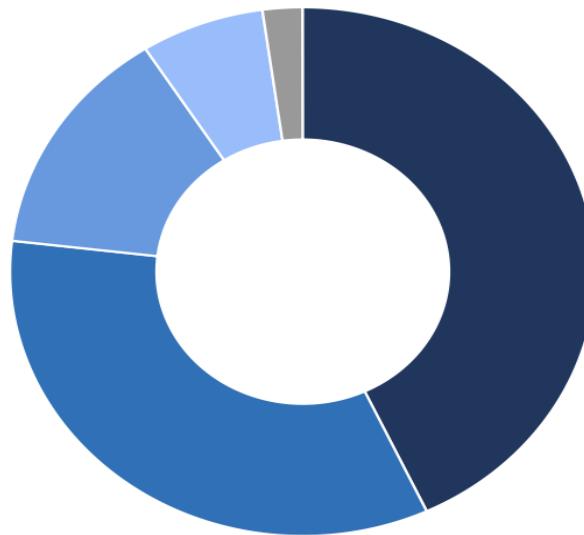
Forced Migration

- At the end of 2023, of the 117.3 million forcibly displaced people, an estimated 47 million (40 per cent) are children below 18 years of age.
- Nearly 1.1 million refugees returned to their countries of origin during 2023 while 158,700 were resettled (with or without UNHCR's assistance).
- Low- and middle-income countries host three-quarters of the world's refugees and other people in need of international protection. The Least Developed Countries provided asylum to 21 per cent of the total.
- 69 per cent of refugees and other people in need of international protection lived in countries neighbouring their countries of origin.

India hosts approximately 250,000 refugees and asylum-seekers

At present, we provide sustainable and timely support to address the basic needs of 49,415 refugees and asylum-seekers in urban areas across the country.

- Sri Lankan* (assisted by Government of India) **43%**
- Tibetan* (assisted by Government of India) **34%**
- Myanmar** **14%**
- Afghanistan** **7%**
- Others** **2%**



* Refugees registered by the Government of India.

** Refugee and asylum-seekers registered with UNHCR India (as of 31 March 2023).

Denmark offers Syrian refugees money to return home or be put in a deportation center

- <https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=XLIwXIIZrWPQ>

Consequences of Migration

- Impact on migrants themselves (xenophobia, discrimination, enclaves, ethnic sorting)
- Types of incorporation:
 - Adaptation (adjusting to new physical & social environment & learn how to best negotiate everyday life)
 - Acculturation (adopting the host language, bringing their diet more in line with the host culture, listening to music & reading newspapers, magazines, & books of the host culture, & make friends outside of their immigrant group)
 - Assimilation (or segmented assimilation): ‘Many migrants never go beyond linguistic acculturation, but some migrants (and especially their children raised in the host culture) assimilate, in which they take on not just the outer trappings of the host culture, but also assume the behaviors and attitudes of members of the host culture’ (Weeks Pg 291)

Consequences of Migration

- Types of incorporation:
- Integration (Mutual accommodation)
- Exclusion (in which immigrants are kept separate from most members of the host society and are maintained in separate enclaves or ghettos)
- Multiculturalism (pluralism) (immigrants retain their ethnic communities but share the same legal rights as other members of the host society) (Zlotnick 1994)

Consequences of Migration

- Impacts on demographic composition and social structure of donor and host areas. The donor area loses people from young adult population who are being added to host area
 - Bulk of people from reproductive ages
 - Host area attains higher level of natural increase at the expense of donor area – this is enhanced by low probability of death of young adults compared to older proportion of population
 - Alters patterns of social relationships and social organization
 - Kinship relations are weakened, local economic, political, and educational institutions have to adjust to accompany influx of people.
- Remittances from migrants back to sending communities have become important to the economies of those places, & encourage continued migration.

Why does SWEDEN NO LONGER WANT IMMIGRANTS?

- <https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=5CSUimZjl0>

Mail-Order Wives

- <https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=jqh3EZDRLa8>

Demographic Trends and Urbanization

Background

- Over 55 percent of the world's population lived in urban areas in 2018; by 2050, this proportion will grow to two-thirds.
- United Nations calls urbanization one of four “demographic megatrends” (UNDESA 2019), along with population growth, aging, and international migration.
- Patterns of urbanization are highly heterogeneous, both within and across countries.
- Asia and Africa will see both the largest numbers of urban dwellers and the fastest growth in urbanization

Background

- What are the implications of demographic trends on urbanization, urban growth, and the well-being of urban populations
- The patterns, pace, and causes of urbanization are diverse, and very much by demography.
- The built environment shapes, and in many ways determines, the way we live, work, and play. In order to enable our cities to facilitate and respond to human needs and preferences, urban design must begin from an understanding of our demographic reality and our demographic future.

Background

- Demographic trends of fertility, mortality, and life expectancy have a bearing on the age structure of the population.
- Age structure has implications for national policy implications and, depending on the degree of urbanization, location of cohorts can impact urban policy
- For e.g. countries with a larger share of young cohorts need to invest in maternal and child health, schooling, childcare etc.
- Number of older people worldwide is projected to grow from 901 million in 2015 to 1.4 billion in 2030 to 2.1 billion in 2050

Background

- Migrant workers in cities have received sharp attention during the current pandemic, as the poorest among them are often informal manual workers in precarious jobs, living in crowded, sub-standard dwellings
- Forced migrants often land in urban areas.
- In 2018, about 61 percent of the world's refugee population was based in urban centers (UNHCR 2018).
- Climate-related migration has always been common and is expected to increase over time.
- Spatial Patterns: In 2018, about a fourth of the world's urban population, or a billion people, lived in slums or informal settlements, with the majority being concentrated in Asia and Africa (UNDESA 2019).

Overview

- Demographic trends intertwine with economic, social, and political ones to create a dynamic context for the functioning of cities, towns, and metropolitan areas.
- Demographic trends are diverse among regions, within regions and within countries: while many cities will continue to grow, albeit at declining rates, many other cities are looking at declining or aging populations. In the near future, many more cities will face an increasing aging population, with important implications for the provision of urban infrastructure & service provision.
- World Bank Report: Roadmap for national and city governments so they can better understand these underlying dynamics and factor them into proactive decision-making on public spending, infrastructure investments and urban design.

Overview

- The analysis of demographic trends is particularly relevant as larger shares of people move to or live in urban areas. The pattern, pace and causes of rural-urban migration continue to be diverse, and significantly influenced by the search for opportunity in cities, the flight from conflict, poverty and climate events, amongst other issues.
- To date, the use of city-level demographic trends to project cities' needs in terms of infrastructure and development remains rare.

Regional Highlights: Europe and Central Asia

- Urban population declined in over half of low- and middle-income countries between 1991 and 2011.
- The rise in average age in Eastern Europe and Central Asia (ECA) is largely attributable to a decrease in fertility rather than to an increase in longevity, which makes aging trends in ECA unique.
- The emigration of young people is reinforcing these trends. The region and its cities will continue to see diverse and contrasting patterns of growth and decline as population aging is expected to accelerate across major cities.

Regional Highlights: Latin America and the Caribbean

- Among the most urbanized regions in the world, having reached an urban majority by 1960 - a milestone achieved globally only in 2008.
- Average growth rates in cities today are declining, and some city centers are losing population to the urban periphery.
- Urbanization is shifting towards small and intermediate cities. The region is starting to age rapidly, a trend that is especially pronounced in urban areas.

Regional Highlights: Middle East and North Africa (MENA)

- Already 64% urbanized. Much of the region's future urban growth—in absolute terms—is projected to occur in the region's primary cities although faster growth—in relative terms—is projected to occur in the region's secondary cities.
- Conflict and climate-driven migration as well as cross-border movement driven by search for economic opportunity are unique considerations in the region.
- Aging is not yet an issue in MENA but is set to rapidly increase over the coming decades.
- The region's youth bulge, if managed well, could present a significant demographic dividend with potential higher growth rates, especially in urban areas.

Regional Highlights: Sub Saharan Africa

- Fastest growing and youngest region in the world.
- Great diversity of demographic trends among African countries and regions.
- The region has the highest urban growth rates in the world, but a relatively low share of population living in urban areas.
- As life expectancy increases, between 2015 and 2050, Africa will have the fastest increase in the world in the number of elderly persons.
- Small and intermediate cities, not the largest ones, will absorb a bulk of the region's urban population growth in the future.

Regional Highlights: South Asia

- A combination of increasing life expectancy, falling fertility rates, and low old-age dependency ratios has created the conditions for a “youth bulge” generation.
- The region has disproportionately fewer women, especially at birth, compared with the global average, which could have long-term implications
- Despite the common perception, urban population growth is mainly driven by natural growth and in-situ reclassification rather than rural-to-urban migration. Congestion and weak urban management may also undermine South Asian cities’ pull factors.

Regional Highlights: East Asia and Pacific (EAP)

- Experiencing rapid urban growth, second only to Sub-Saharan Africa. EAP became 50% urban in 2018, with most urban inhabitants residing in secondary cities.
- The region also has the largest regional population of elderly but there is an enormous diversity of aging-levels within the region, which are correlated with national income levels.
- Migration likely has a significant role in driving urbanization levels in EAP.

Demographic Trends and Urbanization in South Asia

Overview

- Summary of the region's main demographic trends, focusing in particular on the youth bulge & existing gender disparities.
- Main urban trends and how they interact with rapid urban population growth, pointing to the need for the region to better leverage both urbanization trends and demographic change.
- Review of the main challenges the region is facing and relevant policy questions and implications.

Introduction

- Increasing population due to increasing life expectancy & decreasing infant mortality.
- If managed well greater prosperity.
- Opportunity to leverage benefits of urbanisation and demographic dividend.
- Failure to deal with increasing population leads to congestion, low quality of life and concentration of poverty.

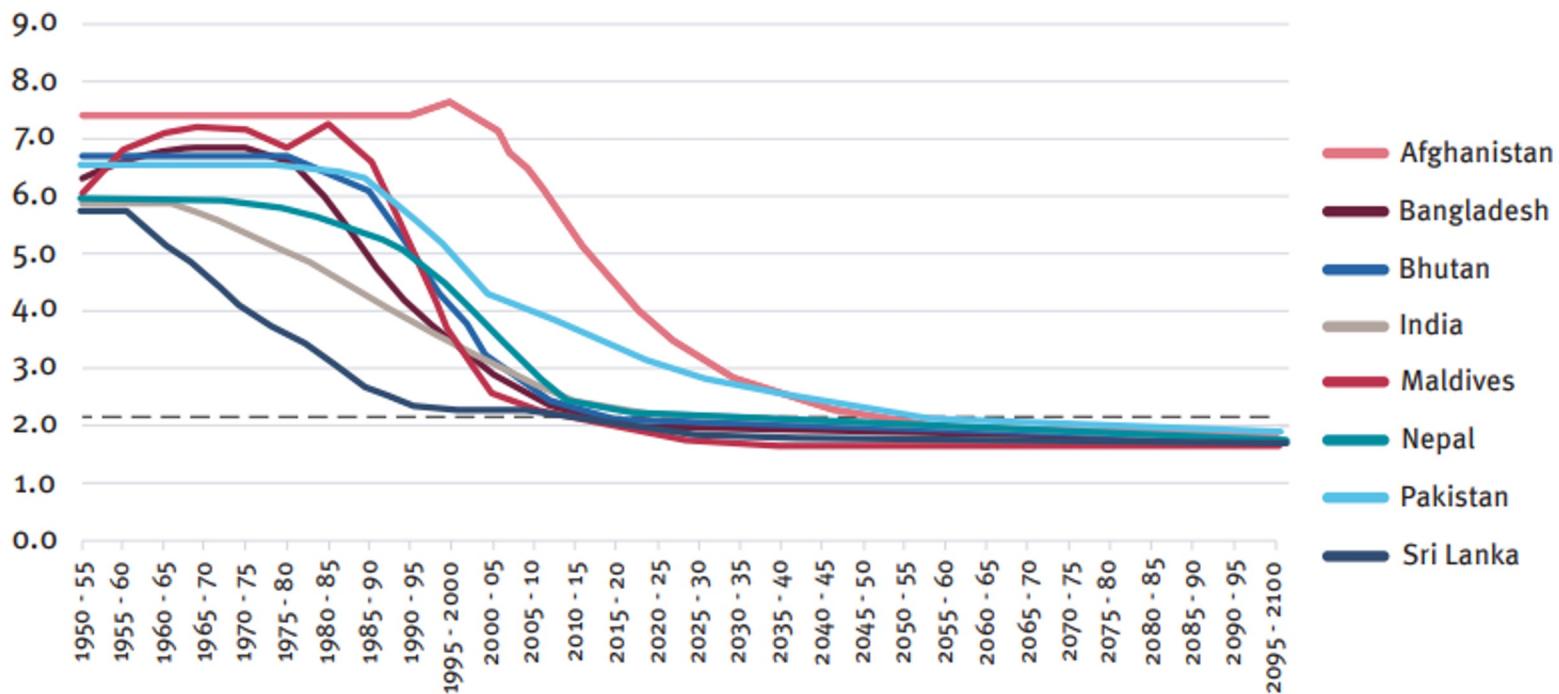
Demographic Trends

- Most South Asian countries are classified as “early-dividend” countries with an increasing working-age share of the population.
- Population will increase till 2050 (except Sri Lanka).
- Even as total pop. continues to increase, fertility rates have declined in S. Asian countries, in line with global trends.
 - Fertility rate will fall below the replacement level of 2.1 births per woman very soon in most countries.
 - Happened in Bangladesh, Bhutan, Maldives, Nepal and Sri Lanka, very recently India.
 - Afghanistan 2050 and Pakistan 2060.

Demographic Trends

- The reason population continues to increase despite below replacement fertility rates is that life expectancy has significantly increased & infant mortality significantly fallen in recent decades.
 - Infant Mortality dropped by 40 percent (1990 -2017)
 - Life Expectancy increased by 40 percent (1950 - 2015)

Fertility rates are declining in all South Asian countries, 1950-2100



Fertility in India

- On average, Indian women in urban areas have their first child 1.5 years later than women in rural areas. Among Indian women ages 25 to 49 who live in urban areas, the median age at first birth is 22.3. Among similarly aged women in rural areas, it is 20.8, according to the 2019 NFHS.
- Women with more education and more wealth also generally have children at later ages. The median age at first birth is 24.9 among Indian women with 12 or more years of schooling, compared with 19.9 among women with no schooling. Similarly, the median age at first birth is 23.2 for Indian women in the highest wealth quintile, compared with 20.3 among women in the lowest quintile.
- Among India's major religious groups, the median age of first birth is highest among Jains at 24.9 and lowest among Muslims at 20.8.

Youth Bulge

- The condition of increasing life expectancy and falling fertility rates, low old age dependency has created the conditions for a ‘Youth Bulge’ in South Asia.
- ‘Youth Bulge’ occurs when “a country achieves success in reducing infant mortality, but mothers still have a high fertility rate”
- Once it reaches working age, if the large generation can be absorbed by the labour market, income per capita should rise, other things being equal; the youth bulge will lead to demographic dividend.
- However, if young people don’t find productive opportunity it can lead to political and social instability

.

Youth Bulge

- Youth Bulge can result in
 - a. Can become demographic dividend
 - b. Fuel political and social instability (e.g. Bangladesh).
- The degree and specific generation of the bulge vary across countries.
 - a. India 2030, Sri Lanka 2005, Afghanistan 2060, Pakistan 2065

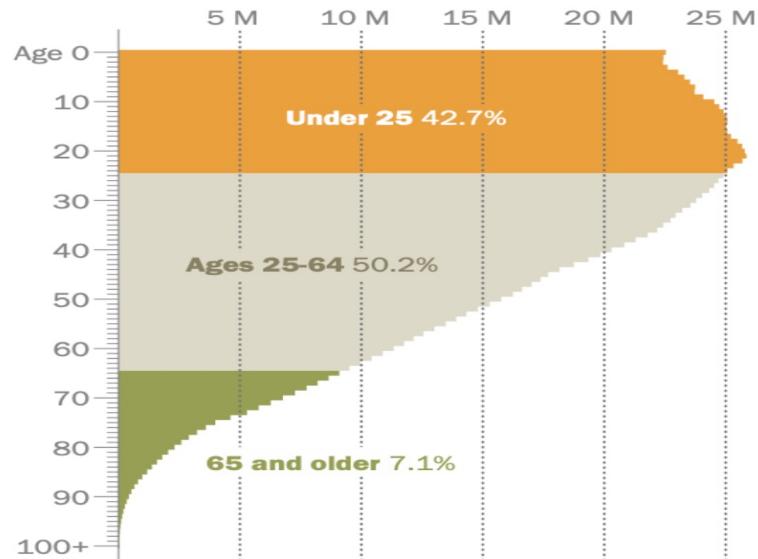
The Youth Bulge

- Employment opportunities are limited for increasing youth and working age population in South Asia.
- Youth unemployment rates are 4 times than those of adults in the region.
- Cities in South Asia will feel the effects of Youth Bulge.
 - Unable to find productive employment. The situation is even bad in the fragile and conflict affected countries (e.g. Afghanistan).

India: People under the age of 25 account for more than 40% of India's population.

More than four-in-ten people in India are under 25 years old

Number and share of people in India, by age



Note: The projection depicted is the UN's "medium variant" scenario for the year 2023.

Source: UN Population Division's World Population Prospects: The 2022 Revision.

Aging

- Aging is not an immediate concern for the region but may emerge as an important issue after 2050, when the largest generation reaches age 65.
- Shifting of composition of the dependent population from young to old.
- The other two most populous countries in the world, China and the U.S., have rapidly aging populations – unlike India.

Aging

- Adults ages 65 and older comprise only 7% of India's population as of this year (2022-2023), compared with 14% in China and 18% in the U.S., according to the UN.
- The share of Indians who are 65 and older is likely to remain under 20% until 2063 and will not approach 30% until 2100, under the UN's medium variant projections.

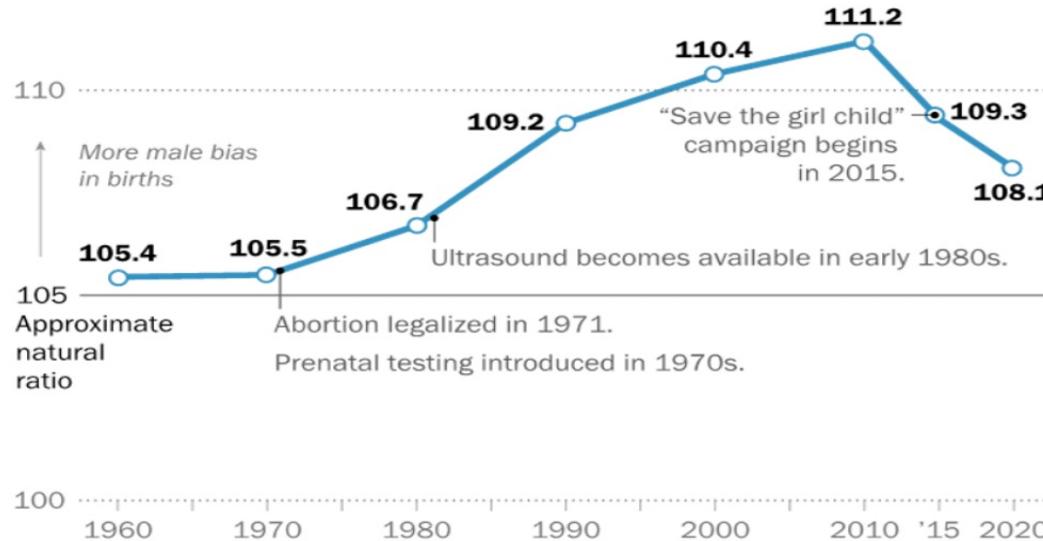
Missing Women

- The demographic phenomenon of ‘missing women’ - disproportionately fewer women than men, especially at birth, compared with the global average.
 - Appears in South Asia
- For all South Asian countries, the sex ratio (women per 100 men) has consistently been slightly lower in the youngest cohorts.
 - Causes - availability of sex selective abortions and neglect of young girls.
- In older cohorts, the ratio evens out.
- However, the regional trend conceals significant variation across countries.

India's sex ratio at birth has been moving toward balance in recent years

Sex ratio at birth, or the number of male births per 100 female births

115



Notes: The natural sex ratio at birth is about 105 boys per 100 girls. Numbers in this chart generally describe the sex ratio of births in the previous five years, except for the 2001 and 2011 numbers, which are from the census and are based on a question introduced in 2001 measuring the sex of babies born in the previous year.

Sources: Census of India, 2001 and 2011; National Family Health Survey, 2015-16 and 2019-21; UN Population Division's World Population Prospects 2019.

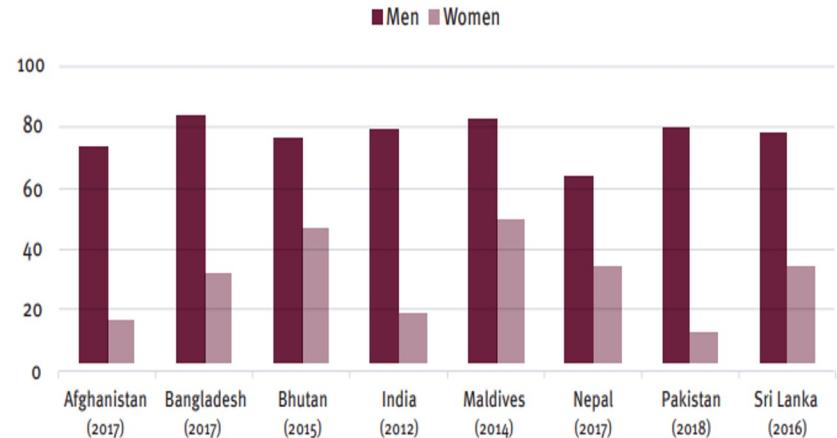
Missing Women

- Variation across countries continues -
 - Bangladesh and Pakistan - historically wide gender gap disappeared by 2010.
 - Nepal - reversed its gender disparity.
 - Sri Lanka - reversed
 - Bhutan - gender gap in survival is negligible for children and youth but diverges quickly for ages 25 and older.
 - Maldives - also made progress.
- The relative scarcity of women of marriage and child-bearing age may reinforce women's traditional role as caretakers, withdrawing them temporarily or permanently from the workforce.
- Effects - on marriage rates, class-based tensions, gender-based violence, political engagement, and sex trafficking.

Missing Women

- As with the youth bulge, the impact of the missing women phenomenon are more pronounced in urban areas than in rural areas in South Asia.
 - Female Labour Force Participation Rate (15-64 age) lower in urban areas than in rural areas for all the countries in South Asia.
 - One of the lowest in world (except Nepal).
 - Disparities are largest in Pakistan (12 percent) and Afghanistan (17 percent)
- Changes in structure of employment (decline in agricultural employment share) - leads to decreasing FLFPR.

FIG 5 Female labor force participation rates in urban areas are far below that of males in all South Asian countries



Labor force participation rate, female (% of female population ages 15-64) (modeled ILO estimate) - India



Main Urban Trends

1. Limited Rural to Urban Migration

- Not highly urbanized region
- Is only 1/3rd urban - less than any other region in the world.
- However, in South Asia urban population. is growing by more than 2.5 percent (14 million people a year).
- However, these estimates may substantially underestimate the levels and rate of urbanisation in South Asia.
- In general, national urban population growth can be disaggregated into 3 sources - natural population growth in existing urban areas, in-situ reclassification of rural settlements to urban settlements, and physical migration of people from rural to urban areas.
- Globally, about half of the growth in urbanisation is attributed to rural to urban migration and reclassification.

1. Limited Rural to Urban Migration

- Geographic mobility appears generally low in South Asia in comparison to other regions.
- In some South Asian countries, reclassification accounts for more urban growth than does migration.
 - India
 - Migration - 20-25 percent
 - Natural increase - 44 percent
 - Reclassification - 30 percent
 - Pakistan - 26 percent (migration)
 - Nepal - 1/3rd (migration)
- Population growth of South Asian cities is majorly driven by natural increase and reclassification rather than internal migration.

2. Congestion and Low Liveability in South Asian Cities

- Poor liveability in South Asian cities might explain the lower than expected rates of rural to urban migration and the generally slow pace of urbanisation compared to other regions.
- Weak pull factors of major cities can slow a country's demographic transition toward a modern economy.
- Congestion forces arising from inadequate urban infrastructure, services, land, housing markets, and environment work against agglomeration economies : they stall city growth and urbanisation, stifle productivity and real wage growth, and slow the demographic transition toward a modern economy. (for e.g. - Dhaka and Karachi).

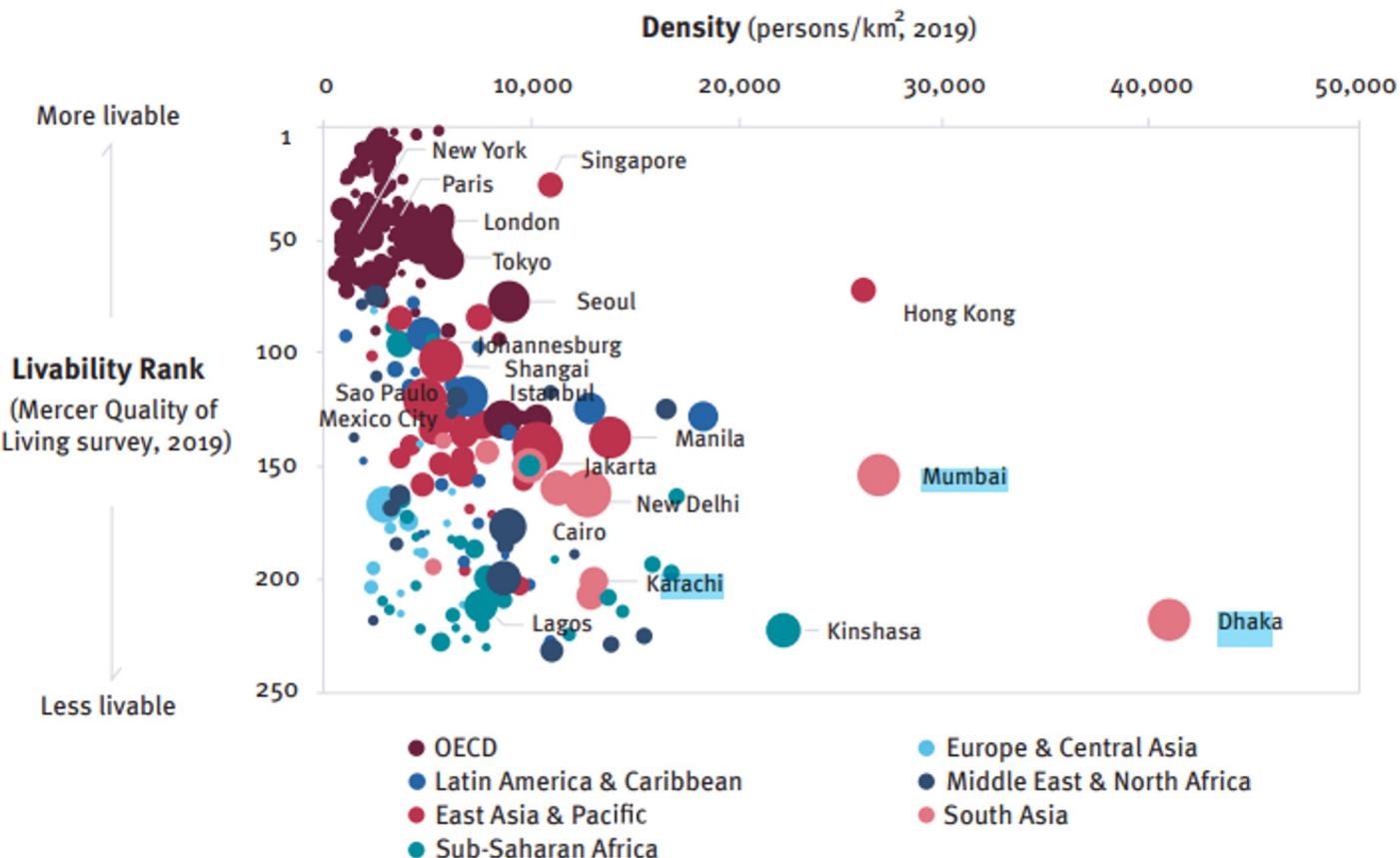
Agglomeration Economies

- Agglomeration economies fall into two basic categories as discussed previously— localization economies (which benefit firms in the same industry) and urbanization economies (which benefit firms in different industries).
- Recognition of localization economies dates back to 19th-century England and the founding father of modern microeconomics, Alfred Marshall (Marshall 1890). He identified three basic types of localization economies— labor-market pooling, intermediate-input sharing, and within-industry knowledge spillovers
- These economies helped drive the localization of Bangladesh's garment industry in Dhaka and Chittagong (Muzzini and Aparicio 2013), India's information and communication technology industry in Bangalore (World Bank 2013b), and Pakistan's finance industry in Karachi (World Bank 2014)

BOX 1 Types of localization economies

- *Labor-market pooling.* Both firms and workers enjoy advantages from the dense labor market their colocation creates. Both benefit from better matching. An information technology (IT) firm looking for a programmer is more likely to find one if it is located in Bangalore rather than in Chittagong. Similarly, a programmer is more likely to find work in IT if she lives in Bangalore than if she lives in Chittagong. Another benefit for a worker is that if she is unfortunate enough to lose one job, she is more likely to find another job if other firms in the same industry are located nearby. The worker benefits from reduced risk and, therefore, a more certain income; this course of events also benefits firms in the industry, because the worker is more likely to be willing to accept a lower average wage in Bangalore given the lower chance of reemployment in Chittagong.
- *Sharing of intermediate inputs.* When a number of firms in the same industry locate close to one another, they create a large local market for intermediate inputs. This large local market then encourages the growth of a diversity of local specialized suppliers, which creates cost and productivity advantages for the downstream industry.
- *Within-industry knowledge spillovers.* Firms in the same industry glean ideas and information regarding best practices from one another as a result of locating in the same city. Knowledge spills over as one firm observes how another firm in the same industry operates, as workers move between different firms in the same industry, and as friends who work for different firms talk shop in the street or at social occasions. These spillovers also benefit workers when they learn the latest developments in their industry, giving them a competitive edge in the labor market that can help them enjoy faster wage growth over time.

FIGURE 7 South Asian cities are dense but not livable.



Agglomeration Economies and Congestion Forces

- In theory, unopposed agglomeration economies will increase urbanization & raise prosperity
- Increasing concentration of people and production in urban areas would stimulate improvements in productivity and greater competitiveness, which would, in turn, spur more urbanization, creating a second round of increasing productivity and competitiveness, which would lead to a third round, and so on—until urbanization is complete and high-income status attained

Agglomeration Economies and Congestion Forces

- Agglomeration economies do not operate unopposed, however. They encounter resistance from congestion forces, which can slow or, if strong enough, even halt the whole process of circular and cumulative causation.
- Congestion can arise from many different potential sources.

2. Congestion and Low Liveability in South Asian Cities

- Many urban governments are not prepared to meet the surging demand for land, jobs, transportation, housing, basic services, and resilient infrastructure.
- Providing services will only become more challenging as cities increase in area, diversity and population.
- South Asia's largest cities are some of the least liveable places in the world (for e.g. Dhaka).

Sources of Congestion Forces

- *Land and housing markets:* land markets respond slowly to pressures of urban population growth, costly & time consuming to acquire land for development, with growth in cities land prices rise, cost of production etc. rise, rents and property prices in the formal sector often cause households to choose informal housing, rise of slums
- *Labor markets.* Urban growth cause wages to be bid up, eating into profits of firms, unless urban labor markets respond with an increased supply of suitably qualified labor. When the industries fueling growth are low skilled, rural-urban migration can help release the pressure in urban labor markets.

Sources of Congestion Forces

- **Roads:** As cities grow, their roads tend to become clogged with traffic. Workers in New Delhi and Bangalore, for instance, suffer among the worst commutes in the world, according to IBM's Commuter Pain Index
- **Other infrastructure & basic urban services:** Urban growth also places pressure on other infrastructure and basic urban services, including solid waste management & such utilities as water & electricity. Unless investment is forthcoming, this pressure can lead to deteriorating levels of quality and service provision, which reduce firms' and workers' incentives to locate in a particular city—or even in urban areas at all.

Sources of Congestion Forces

- **Pollution:** Due to increased traffic congestion, building activity, bigger cities tend to suffer from poorer air quality. In India, bigger cities have higher concentrations of nitrogen oxide, both an important indicator of air quality and a serious cause of respiratory illness (Lamsal and others 2013).
- **Disease:** In addition to diseases that can arise from pollution, infectious diseases can spread faster in dense urban settings than in rural ones.
- **Crime:** Cities, by virtue of their density, can create the conditions for crime. Larger cities also provide larger markets for drug dealers, fueling the potential for drug-related crime.

Why Mumbai Has Slums

- https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=jPZp_1CmfhE&t=30s

Key Demographic Trends at the City Level

- Pop. projections for a group of selected cities illustrate the relationship between city-level and national trends (Mumbai, Kolkata, Thimphu - Bhutan, Colombo – Sri Lanka, Dhaka, Kathmandu).
- Selected cities have gone through the demographic transition at varying paces -
 - For e.g.- fertility decline, a major component of the transition, has occurred throughout region but its time of initiation and pace has differed from one city to another.
- Total fertility rates are projected to decline over the next few decades, and in 2050, city and country level values are expected to converge, at fertility rates well below replacement levels

Key Demographic Trends at the City Level

- Despite declining fertility rates, the pop. of these cities will continue to grow rapidly for several decades due to “population momentum”
 - Data shows that pop. growth in cities is greater than at the national level (except in India)
- In nearly all those cities, the size of the working age population is expected to remain stable or grow substantially through 2050.
- However, in all cases, as the population over 65 starts to increase as well, the working-age population as a share of total pop. will peak and begin to decline.
 - Tipping point - Colombo (occurred), Mumbai and Kolkata (2020), Dhaka (2030), Thimphu and Kathmandu (2040).

Key Demographic Trends at the City Level

- Nevertheless, in all cities, the share of the working population will still remain high - between 65 - 75 percent.
 - Opens a demographic window of opportunity.
 - For most cities, the relative increase in pop. will be higher than the national level increase.
 - Data illustrate reduction in child dependency ratios and related increase in old-age dependency ratios - highlights the shift towards societies with a growing proportion of elderly.

	Population aged 0 to 14 (thousand)		Population aged 15 to 64 (thousand)		Population aged 65+ (thousand)		Aging Index*	
	Baseline year	2050	Baseline year	2050	Baseline year	2050	Baseline year	2050
Mumbai Municipal Corp.	3,052	2,428	9,024	9,721	693	3,226	22.7	132.9
Kolkata Metro. Region	3,189	2,347	10,287	9,798	1,118	3,574	35.1	152.3
	-	-	-	-	-	-	17.1	71.2
Thimphu Municip.	28	39	84	158	4	23	14.7	60.0
	-	-	-	-	-	-	17.7	102.5
Colombo District (Urban Population)	393	579	1,269	2,224	163	628	41.6	108.4
	-	-	-	-	-	-	32.0	133.8
Dhaka Metro. Area	2,602	2,445	6,778	10,968	241	2,274	9.3	93.0
	-	-	-	-	-	-	15.2	94.2
Kathmandu District	457	642	1,251	2,944	70	531	15.3	82.7
	-	-	-	-	-	-	13.8	72.4

Policy Implication

- Need for institutions - to address the important interactions between urbanisation and demographic change.
- As South Asia's cities become larger and more economically important, proactive and effective, urban management is urgently needed.
 - Most countries' local governance system struggle with unclear or overlapping institutional roles, limited formal functional and revenue roles and insufficient autonomy to make independent decisions on important matters.

Ageing

Learning Objectives

- Learn some basic facts about the increase in the proportion of population that is age 65 and older. Recognize that aging is a combination of biological, psychological, and social processes. Understand how technological advances affect each of the three aging processes.
- Understand key theories of aging, particularly those that focus on how society shapes the social roles of older adults and that emphasize aspects of age stratification.

12.1 Basic Concepts

The Graying of Society

- **Graying:** A term used to indicate that an increasing proportion of a society's population is older.
- **Older adults:** Adults ages 65 and older.
- Graying is the result of two long-term trends in industrial societies: the tendency of families to have fewer children and the fact that people are living longer.

How Do People Age?

- **Social gerontology:** The study of aging and older adults.
- **Aging:** The combination of biological, psychological, and social processes that affect people as they grow older.
 - Biological: The physical body.
 - Psychological: The mind, including one's mental, emotional, and cognitive capabilities.
 - Social: Cultural norms, values, and role expectations related to age.

Biological Aging

- The exact chronological age at which the biological effects of aging occur vary greatly depending on one's genes, lifestyle, and luck.
- Senescence is inevitable, but today's older adults now have unprecedented access to many assistive technologies that enable them to live full and active lives.



Psychological Aging

- For most people, memory and learning ability do not decline significantly until very late in life, although the speed with which one recalls or analyzes information may slow somewhat.
- **Alzheimer's disease:** A degenerative disease of the brain resulting in progressive loss of mental capacity.
 - It is relatively rare in noninstitutionalized persons under 75, although it afflicts about one-third of all people over 85.

Social Aging

- **Social aging:** The norms, values, and roles that are culturally associated with a particular chronological age.
- Historically, social roles in the United States have been closely tied to one's age, but this relationship has become more tenuous over time.
- Having children later in life, “nontraditional age” students, delayed retirement, early retirement, and medical technology are some factors that have disrupted the historical relationships between age and social roles.

12.2 Growing Old: Theories of Aging

Review of Theoretical Approaches

- Functionalism
 - Society is made up of parts that carry out functions and play different roles in creating social order
 - Sees morality as the foundation for social order

Review of Theoretical Approaches

- Marxism and Class Conflict
 - **Conflict** is a normal feature of society
 - Individuals and groups use **power** to promote their interests
 - Power is exerted through force, rules, laws, and ideologies

Review of Theoretical Approaches

- Symbolic Interactionism
 - Exchanges of **symbols** through social interaction
 - How symbols/meanings are socially constructed

Review of Theoretical Approaches

- Rational Choice Theory
 - Self Interest lies in the heart of most behavior
- Postmodern Theory
 - Social life has no “grand narrative”, no “progress”

The First Generation of Theories: Functionalism

- Functionalist theories emphasized how individuals adjusted to changing social roles as they aged and how the roles older adults fulfilled were useful to society.
- Talcott Parsons, one of the most influential functionalist theorists of the 1950s, argued that U.S. society needs to find roles for older persons that are compatible with their advanced age.

Disengagement Theory

- **Disengagement theory:** A functionalist theory of aging that holds that it is functional for society to remove people from their traditional roles when they become older adults, thereby freeing up those roles for others.
- Disengagement is assumed to be functional for older adults, who can leave potentially taxing social roles and instead invest their energies in more private introspective activities.
- **Socioemotional selectivity theory:** The theory that adults maintain fewer relationships as they age, but that those relationships are of higher quality.

Activity Theory

- **Activity theory:** A functionalist theory of aging that holds that busy, engaged people are more likely to lead fulfilling and productive lives.
- **Continuity theory:** The theory that older adults' well-being is enhanced when their activities are consistent with their personality, preferences, and activities earlier in life.



The Second Generation of Theories: Social Conflict

- **Conflict theories of aging:** Arguments that emphasize the ways in which the larger social structure helps to shape the opportunities available to older adults. Unequal opportunities are seen as creating the potential for conflict.
- According to this view, many of the problems of aging—such as poverty, poor health, or inadequate health care—are systematically produced by the routine operation of social institutions.

The Third Generation of Theories: Life Course

- **Life course:** The various transitions and stages people experience during their lives.
- According to the life course perspective, the aging process is shaped by historical time and place.
- The most important theme of the life course perspective is that aging is a lifelong process.



INTERNAL MIGRATION IN INDIA: MEASURES

Measures of Internal Migration in India

- National Data Sources:
- Census: Data on place of birth, place of last residence, reason for migration, duration of stay
- National Sample Survey (NSS): collected socioeconomic and migration data as part of its 'Employment & Unemployment' schedule every six to seven years since 1955; includes migrants' housing conditions, return migration, reasons for moving, and more recently information on temporary migration, including rural & urban status of place of destination & reason for migrating temporarily

Measures of Internal Migration in India

- Indian Human Development Survey (IHDS) : includes data on seasonal and short-term migration and remittances
- National Family Health Survey (NFHS): includes data on duration of residence and permits the analysis of permanent internal migration
- Periodic Labour Force Survey (PLFS) : In 2020 -21 PLFS canvased information on migration particulars of the household members, information on the temporary visitors in the household who arrived after March 2020 and stayed in the household continuously for a period of 15 days or more but less than 6 months

Introduction

- Migration Characteristics
- Question 23: Place of Birth
- Question 24: Place of last residence
- Question 25: Reason for migration
- Question 26: Duration of stay since migration

Migration Characteristics

What is migration? contd...

Some examples:

- Change of residence after marriage – mainly in case of women
- Migration to cities and towns for employment
- Migration (displacement) due to construction of dams, roads, etc.
- Migration of refugees from Pakistan after Independence
- Migration due to education.

Migration Characteristics

What is migration? contd...

Movements not considered as migration?

- Highly localized movement, say from one apartment to another in the same building
- From one house to another in the same neighbourhood
- From one part of the village to another part of the same village
- From one Ward in a town to another.

Migration Characteristics

What is migration? contd...

Movements to be considered as migration?

- A movement will be termed as ‘migration’ ***if*** it involves change of residence from one village /town to another village / town).

What the panel discussion is about

Interdisciplinary panel of researchers, policymakers, and journalists, who have studied migration extensively discuss the following:

- Can we begin to define different types of internal migration?
- What would it take to improve the existing data collection mechanisms to better capture migration flows?
- What would new data systems look like?
- How would measurement differ for migrant men and women?

Panelists focused on in class

- Moderator: **Prof. Sonalde Desai**: Professor at NCAER with a joint appointment as Distinguished University Professor in the Department of Sociology at the University of Maryland. She directs the NCAER-National Data Innovation Centre (NDIC). She is an internationally known demographer whose work deals primarily with human development in developing countries with a particular focus on gender and class inequalities. She leads the India Human Development Survey (IHDS), India's only nationally representative panel study spanning two decades.

Panelists focused on in class

- **Dr. Mittali Sethi** is an Indian Administrative Service (IAS) officer of the 2017 batch, Maharashtra cadre. She has served as the Sub-divisional Magistrate at Melghat in the Amravati district and as CEO, Zilla Parishad (rural local body) in the Chandrapur district of Maharashtra. She is currently serving as the Director of VANAMATI, an agricultural research and extension institute. Her areas of interest and work include forest rights and tribal issues, public health, waste, and climate change as it applies to people's lives, and participatory education-with-love for both children and adults.

Panelists focused on in class

- **Chinmay Tumbe** is passionate about migration, cities and history, and is currently a faculty member in the Economics Area at the Indian Institute of Management Ahmedabad (IIMA). His first book, India Moving: A History of Migration, was published in 2018 and second book The Age of Pandemics, 1817-1920: How They Shaped India and the World, was published in 2020. He is a member of the The Lancet COVID-19 India Taskforce and was a member of the Working Group on Migration of the Ministry of Housing and Urban Poverty Alleviation in 2016-17. He has published widely in leading journals and newspapers and helped set up the IIMA Archives.

Panelists focused on in class

- **Prof. Chandrasekhar S.**, an alumnus of Delhi School of Economics and Pennsylvania State University, is Professor at Indira Gandhi Institute of Development Research, Mumbai. He was awarded the Mahalanobis Memorial Medal 2016 by The Indian Econometric Society, for outstanding contributions to the field of quantitative economics. He has worked extensively on the issues of urbanisation, labour markets, and internal migration in India. He coordinated the research initiative, "Strengthen and Harmonize Research and Action on Migration in the Indian Context", which was supported by a grant from Tata Trusts. The project also coincided with the Government of India constituting the Working Group to Study the Impact of Migration on Housing, Infrastructure, and Livelihood, of which Chandrasekhar was a member. He serves on a variety of government advisory panels connected with key statistics, including the Standing Committee on Statistics, Ministry of Statistics and Programme Implementation, Working Group of Select Surveys, and the All India Financial Inclusion Survey by NABARD.

Video

- DataTalk: A Conversation about Defining and Measuring Internal Migration in India
- <https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=Iz6GaK0QeRQ&t=3120s>
- <https://www.ncaer.org/event/datatalk-a-conversation-about-defining-and-measuring-internal-migration-in-india#:~:text=Internal%20migration%20is%20likely%20to,to%20augment%20their%20aging%20workforce.>

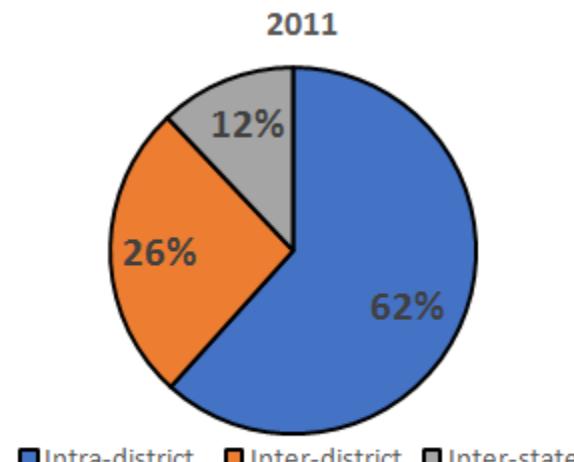
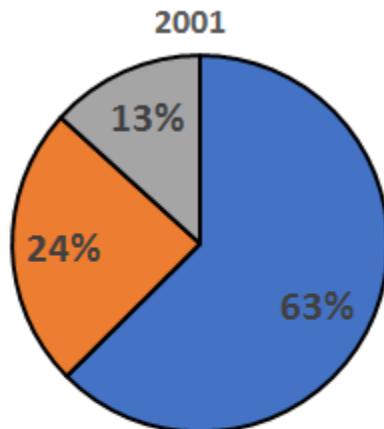
MIGRATION 2

Examples of Empirical Studies in India

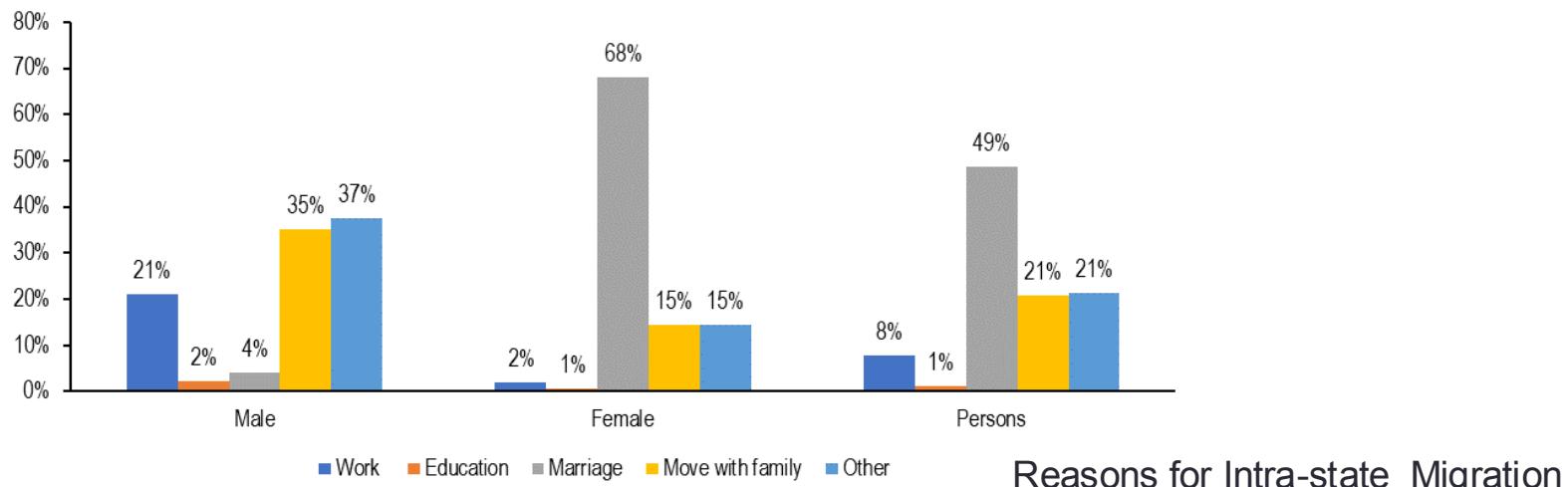
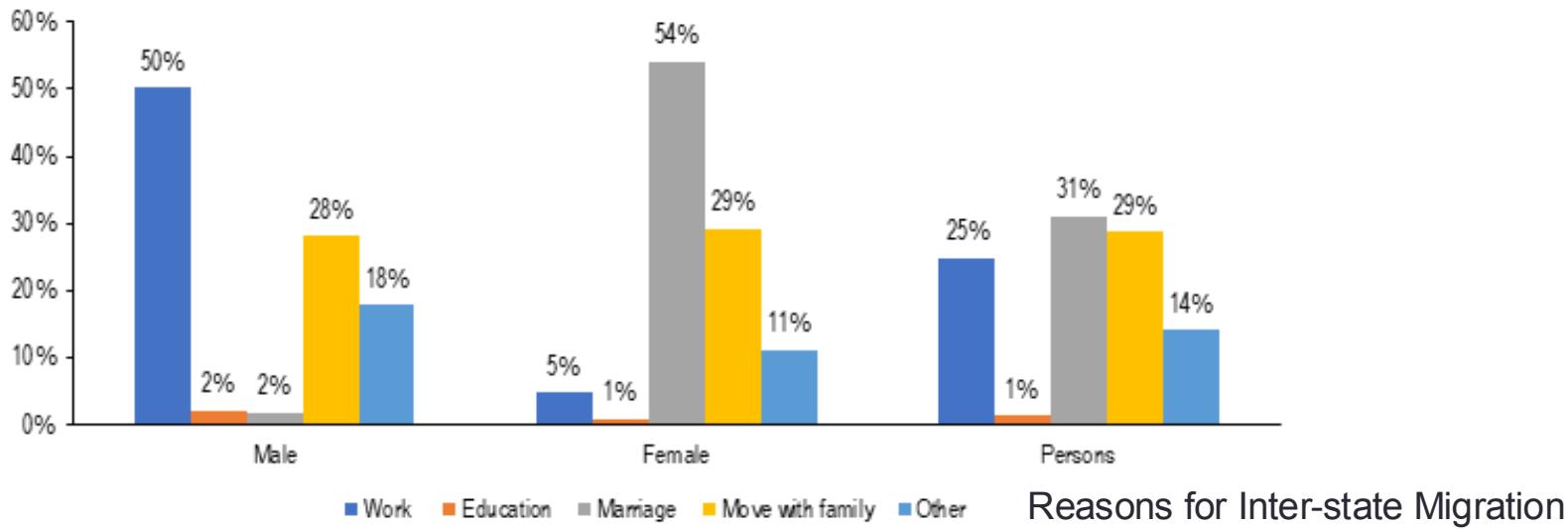
- Overview
- Example 1: Male out-migration and the health of left-behind wives in India: The roles of remittances, household responsibilities, and autonomy
- Example 2: Fathers' Migration and Nutritional Status of Children in India: Do the Effects Vary by Community Context?
- Example 3: Physical vs. Imagined Communities: Migration and Women's Autonomy in India

Internal Migration in India

- The number of internal migrants in India was **450 million** as per the most recent 2011 census.
- This is an **increase of 45%** over the 309 million recorded in 2001.
- Internal migrants as a percentage of population increased from 30% in 2001 to 37% in 2011.



Causes of Internal Migration in India



Issues faced by Migrant Labour

- Lack of social security and health benefits and poor implementation of protections under the Inter-State Migrant Workmen Act, 1979 (ISMW Act).
- Lack of portability of state-provided benefits especially food provided through the public distribution system (PDS).
- Lack of access to affordable housing and basic amenities in urban areas.
- Other issue that prevent internal migration include: Preferential norms in educational institutions and Domicile requirements for state government jobs

Example 1: Male out-migration and the health of left-behind wives in India

- Developing countries: labor out-migration leads to millions of married couples living apart from each other.
- Economic benefits to family at place of origin + impact on left-behind wives
- Impact of husband's out-migration on wives' health (and the channels) unclear
- This study uses data from IHDS 1 & 2 and assesses the health impact of husband's out-migration for women in India
- Sample Size: 19,737 women
- Model: Ordinal logistic regression models with a lagged dependent variable (LDV)

Example 1: Male out-migration and the health of left-behind wives in India

- Results showed that left- behind wives had lower self-rated health than wives of non-migrants
- Results partly driven by low remittances sent by husband
- For women in nuclear families & in extended families, the negative health impact was partially attributable to women's added responsibilities, such as animal care & managing a bank account.
- For women in nuclear families, the negative health effect of husbands' migration has been partially suppressed by women's increased autonomy

Example 1: Male out-migration and the health of left-behind wives in India

- Out-migration can have both beneficial and detrimental effects on the health of left-behind wives in India.
- Spatial separation between spouses can lead to marital instability and emotional pain.
- Qualitative studies show:
- *'Left-behind women tend to feel lonely, miss their husbands, worry about their safety, and be upset about their husbands' potential relationships with other women in migration destinations.'*
- Long-term absence of the migrant spouse can reduce closeness and intimacy in the marital relationship
- Living separately from migrant husbands may raise stress levels of women staying behind and consequently undermine their health.

Example 1: Male out-migration and the health of left-behind wives in India

Possible mechanisms:

- Economic Resources as a mechanism:
- Women married to migrants benefit less from the economic and social resources provided by marriage than other women
- After the husband migrates, the couple can no longer enjoy economies of scale due to geographic separation, plus migration trips cost
- Migrants usually send remittances to help improve the economic conditions of the origin households (used to sustain food security, housing quality etc. which could have +ve impact)
- In case the migrant males cannot secure jobs in the destinations, the small and irregular remittances may not compensate for the lack of the husband's labor or his previous salary.

Example 1: Male out-migration and the health of left-behind wives in India

Possible mechanisms:

- Economic Resources as a mechanism:
- Staying-behind wives then face economic hardship, a chronic stressor that can alter the balance of the body's endocrine and immune system
- Overexposure to stress hormones can result in allostatic load and negative health consequences, such as cardiovascular diseases, brain dysfunction, and increased susceptibility to communicable diseases
- Economic difficulties can also drive staying-behind wives to work more hours and reduce household expenditures

Example 1: Male out-migration and the health of left-behind wives in India

Possible mechanisms:

- Women's Responsibility as a mechanism:
- Day to day support from husband reduces, mental stress
- In the husbands' absence, the wives undertake more responsibilities in farming, family business, household management, & child-rearing
- More unfamiliar tasks have to be done by wives may add to stress
- Longer work hours and the many behavioral readjustments required in a short period after men left could overtax women's abilities to cope and cause a rise in stress

Example 1: Male out-migration and the health of left-behind wives in India

- Women's Autonomy as a mechanism
- Related to the increased workload and responsibilities, husbands' migration also grants left-behind wives greater decision-making power and autonomy.
- During the husbands' absence, women in India were more likely to have a say in decisions about what to cook on a daily basis, household expenditures on valuable items, and children's health care & marriage
- Increased autonomy & decision-making power can benefit women's physical health by providing them greater control over their lives & the ability to engage in health-promoting behaviors and seek medical care when needed.
- Women's Autonomy depends on living arrangements

Dependent and Independent Variables

- Key Dependent Variable: Self Rated health : scale ranging from 1 (very poor) to 5 (very good)
- Key Independent Variable:
- Husband's migration status, based on the husband's place of residence at the time of the IHDS-2 interview. For married women, information was collected about whether their husbands were absent due to out-migration. The binary variable =1 if the husband was absent from the households due to out-migration
- = 0 if the husband was present.

Three sets of Mediating Variables via which Migration Status Impacts Health of Left-Behind Wives

- (1) Receipt and quantity of remittances: Remittances received during the year before IHDS 2
- (2) Women's responsibilities: Women's employment status and responsibilities for grocery shopping, animal care, and household financial affairs.
- (3) Women's autonomy: Need for permission to go out, the practice of eating separately, decision-making power, and control over economic resources
- Other Controls: Woman's Age, Education, SRH in 2005, Caste and religious groups, household wealth, land ownership, business ownership, and possession of animals

Method

- Ordinal logistic regression models with a lagged dependent variable (LDV) to compare the SRH of women whose husbands were absent due to migration & women whose husbands were present in the household, controlling for various individual and family characteristics and women's previous health status measured in IHDS-1.
- After controlling for LDV, the remaining variation in the outcome health variable is mainly due to changes that happened between the IHDS-1 and IHDS-2.
- Other Robustness Checks: Propensity score analyses, and fixed-effect models

Results

- Absence of husbands due to migration had a negative overall effect on wives' self-rated health regardless of whether the left-behind wives lived in nuclear families or extended families
- Remittances played an important role in shaping women's health outcomes for both women in nuclear families and extended families
- Negative health implications of husbands' out-migration partly driven by low remittances sent by the migrants, which could cause economic hardship for women left behind and lead to negative health consequences

Results

- Added responsibilities detrimental to women's health, which partially explained the negative relationship between husbands' migration and wives' self-rated health.
- Left-behind wives in nuclear families gained greater autonomy than left-behind wives in extended families, as the behaviors of the latter groups were more closely monitored and constrained by senior family members.

Limitations and Future Directions

- Though study conducted robustness checks, not fully confident to make causal inference due to the potential influence of unobserved time-varying confounders.
- Besides mechanisms found, there is still unexplained negative effect of husbands' migration (maybe due to decrease in social support & emotional strain related to the spousal absence, can't be measured here)
- Increasing education & bank account ownership among women between 2005 & 2015, gender norms slower to change & women's LFP fell: future studies can examine how the impact of male migration on left-behind wives' autonomy and well-being vary by women's education and employment status

Example 2: Fathers' Migration & Nutritional Status of Children in India: Do the Effects Vary by Community Context?

- Due to international & internal migration, millions of children in developing countries are geographically separated from one or both of their parents
- This study evaluates the overall impacts of fathers' previous & current migration experiences on children's nutritional status in India and how the impacts are shaped by community socioeconomic contexts and community gender norms
- Using data from the IHDS2 2011–2012 the study estimated community fixed-effect regression models predicting the nutritional status of children (ages 10–15) and examined the interactions among fathers' migration, child's gender, and community contexts

Example 2: Fathers' Migration & Nutritional Status of Children in India: Do the Effects Vary by Community Context?

- Results showed that children of returned migrants had lower height and Body Mass Index (BMI) than children of non-migrants
- Fathers' current absence associated with lower height & BMI for adolescents in communities with high levels of socioeconomic development but not for those in communities with low levels of development.
- Fathers' current absence due to migration particularly harmful for girls in communities with strict norms of female seclusion.
- Impact of father's out-migration on children conditioned by the level of communities' socioeconomic development & community gender contexts.

Example 3: Migration and Autonomy

- Impact of migration on individuals contested
- It could be positive if migration → increased labor force participation
- But often in low skilled work

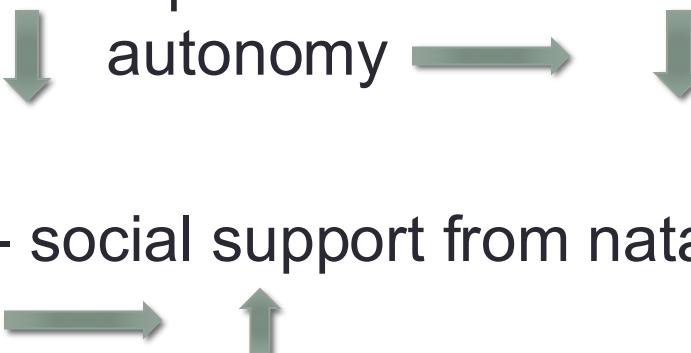
Migration and Autonomy

- Despite financial contributions migrant women often hold traditional beliefs
- Moreover, living in unfamiliar setting may constrain their movement, reduce social networks and decrease political participation

Endogamy and Exogamy in India

- Exogamy: Women move out of their own village or town to their husbands' hometowns they change both their residence and culture
- Endogamy: Marry within own village often preferred partner often being a maternal uncle or cross-cousin

Marriage patterns closely linked to Gender norms

- Gender systems and demographic outcomes across India vary due to different kinship structures (Dyson and Moore, 1983)
- Exogamy- the personal links between married woman & natal kin  & natal kin autonomy → social support → autonomy
- Endogamy- social support from natal family remains autonomy  → ↑

Research Question

- Q. Is autonomy a function of :
- A) Women's own geographical community
- B) Communities of mind (caste or subcaste) to which their families belong

Individual behavior and community norms are distinct

- Women from communities believing in endogamy could marry outside village if no matches in village
- Norms on exogamy refer to ancestral village
- For urban women following exogamous kinship pattern, husband may still come from the same urban area
- This disjunction allows us to separate these two and provides an analytical handle

Aspects of Women's Autonomy examined in this paper

- Physical Autonomy
- Economic Autonomy
- Autonomy in Civic Participation

Proposition

- Women's behavior in public spaces affected by:
- Actual communities (geographical community)
- Imagined communities (mindset of community to which woman belongs)

Data

- ❑ India Human Development Survey II,
39,523 ever-married women were
interviewed
- ❑ Urban and rural sample spread across 33
states and union territories
- ❑ Present study limited to ever married
women aged 15-49 years
- ❑ Sample size over 34,000 cases

Dependent Variables

□ Physical autonomy:

Can women can go alone to:

- a) Local grocery stores
- b) Local health center
- c) Visit friends/relatives
- d) Travel alone short distances by bus or train

Index for physical autonomy 0-4, 4 full autonomy 0 no autonomy

Dependent Variables

Economic autonomy:

Employment in wage work for more than
240 hours/year

Civic participation autonomy: Participation in self-help groups

Independent Variables

- Did the female respondent grow up in the same place where she currently resides?

- Does her community (caste, subcaste or religious subsect) allow for marriage within the village ?

Control Variable

- Woman's age
- Education
- Marital status
- No of household assets owned
- Family size
- Caste
- Religion
- Place of residence
- Number of children

Methods

- Hierarchical Logit Regressions (Ordinal logits in case of physical autonomy)
- For each dependent variable:

Model 1: Physical communities +controls

Model 2: Imagined communities +controls

Model 3: Physical communities + Imagined communities +controls

Results

- Q. Is autonomy a function of women's own geographical community or is it defined by the communities of mind to which their families belong?
- A. Imagined communities more important in determining autonomy (only economic autonomy impacted by both).

Discussion

- Personal migration important in determining women's wage work
- Non-migrants more likely to be employed
- Marriage patterns supporting village endogamy & ideologies permit greater autonomy  norms
- Changes evolved across generations, become part of gender norms , affect migrants & non-migrants
- Exogamy increases social distance between bride and groom's family

Discussion

- *'Geography and culture are connected and evolve over time; culture and social norms shape and are in turn shaped by marriage migration.'*