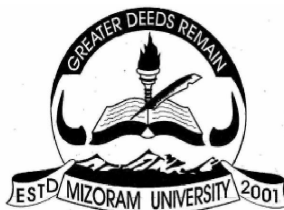


**THE PATTERN OF MIGRATION AND ITS EFFECT ON
ECONOMIC DEVELOPMENT
WITH SPECIAL REFERENCE TO MIZORAM**

By

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**THESIS SUBMITTED IN FULFILMENT OF THE DEGREE OF
DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY IN ECONOMICS**



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7th Nov. 2007

DECLARATION

I, K Zirnunsanga, hereby declare that the subject matter of the thesis entitled '*The Pattern of Migration and Its Effect on Economic Development, with special reference to Mizoram*' is the record of the work done by me, that the contents of this thesis did not form basis for the award of any previous degree to me or to the best of my knowledge to anybody else; and that the thesis has not been submitted by me for any research degree in any other University/Institution.

This is being submitted to Mizoram University for the Degree of Doctor of Philosophy in Economics.

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

The word migrate originates from Latin word *migrare* which means to move. The same Latin verb gives us immigrant (one who moves into one country or region from another) and emigrant (one who moves out of a given country or region to go elsewhere). The United Nations' Multilingual Demographic Dictionary defines migration as 'form of geographical mobility or spatial mobility between one geographical unit and another, generally involving a change in residence from place of origin or place of departure to the place of destination or place of arrival. Such migration is called permanent migration and should be distinguished from other forms of movement which do not involve a permanent change of residence'.

Migration has become a world-wide phenomenon in recent years. Millions of people all over the world move out of their normal place of residence to seek fortune elsewhere. If military operations or political oppression or religious persecution were the major causes of exodus of people on various occasions in the past, it is by and large economic

factors that include people to migrate in the modern period. However, the exact circumstances under which people migrate from time to time and place to place vary considerably.

Migration is an important aspect in population study because it is a major factor in changing the size, structure and quality of the population. The migration process affects the area, which they left and is considered as a symptom of basic social change.

The movement of people is older than recorded history. Man is a mobile creature susceptible to suggestions and endowed with imagination and initiative. Migration is an important feature of developing as well as developed parts of the world. There are definite patterned regularities in the growth of mobility and these comprise essential components of modernization. Migration has increased with technical and economic progress. Each movement provides an important network for the diffusion of ideas and information. It indicates a system of social and economic change and can be regarded as a form of human adjustment to economic, environmental and social problems.

There are various causes of human movement. One of these is population pressure, which often forces people to go out of the area in search of land, employment or any other means of subsistence or pleasure. On the other hand, better job opportunities in relatively more industrially developed areas attract people from economically backward areas.

Migration in Mizoram plays an important role in the increase of the total population and socio-economic condition of the state.

The study is an attempt to identify the factors, the impacts and the problems of migration on the development of the state.

Objectives of the Study

Considering the nature of the problem of the study, attempt will be made to investigate that Mizoram is one of the most urbanized states mainly due to internal and external migration.

The broad objectives of the study areas are as follows :

- a) It has been shown that migration has been a significant determinant of regional concentration in population and this study will therefore attempt to delineate the broad patterns of migration topology.

- b) In the study of phenomenon of migration in the state it has been observed that a sizeable number of people immigrated across international borders and that the intra-state migration also occurred at a significant level. In view of this, it will be attempted to find out the causes leading to the migration of people to different destination.

- c) Since the studies of demography at various times and places have shown that people migrated in search of better economic opportunities from low wage to high wage areas and from areas of labour surplus to those with labour shortages, this study will try to analyse how the changing condition of economic is correlated to tempo of outmigration or immigration.

d) Various studies and survey data have revealed that the state of Mizoram has emerged as one of the most urbanized state of India, and in this connection, the study will also attempt to analyse the economic consequences of mushrooming growth of population in urban centres.

Sources of Data and Methodology

This study will be based on both primary and secondary data. In order to collect primary data scheduled questionnaires are prepared as comprehensive as possible for the purpose of field investigation. To service these questionnaires in the most representative manners, area-wise random selection of subjects are made. Secondly data will be mainly collected from books, journals, official records, such as vital registrations and decennial census data, private papers, booklet, electoral rolls, and other published and unpublished work of Ph.D. scholars. As the sample Registration started functioning from 1996 in Mizoram, attempts have been made to supplement the years prior to this period with a historical study from the available records.

There were serious shortcomings of vital statistics during the District Council period (i.e. from Independence to 1972) because Mizoram was one of the districts of Assam with a tiny set up of administration. The then district administration was not in a position to keep detail records of the government activity. This prevented us from depicting all variables pertaining to migration problem. In such a situation, it is proposed to collect vital informations through historical approach and by conducting an interview with prominent citizens and important officials contemporaneous with the period.

Hypothesis

In connection with the present study of migration, the following hypothesis are to be tested :

1. Economic development in the state lead to a high rate of immigration from the surrounding state and countries.
2. A high rate of investment in the development of infrastructural facilities in the urban areas led to high rate of migration of rural population into the urban centres.

3. The exceptional rise in urban development in Mizoram during the last three decades was due more to political rather than economic factors.

Scheme of the present study

The aims of the present study is to test the hypothesis of the relationship between the levels of economic development and migration.

The present study will contain the following chapters :

Chapter I Introduction

This chapter will highlight the introduction of the present study, the objectives, sources of data and methodology and hypothesis.

Chapter II The Land and The People

This chapter will cover the physical, economic, social and administration set up of Mizoram.

Chapter III Factors Responsible and Review of literature

It deals with the factors responsible for migration – demographic, economic, social, political, geographical and religious factors. Review of

important literature on developed and developing countries, studies in India and North Eastern India.

Chapter IV Magnitude of Internal Migration

This chapter is concerned with the pattern of internal migration of Mizoram, causes of internal migration, reasons of migration.

Chapter V External migration

It deals with the pattern of external migration of Mizoram, reasons of migration and out migrants from Mizoram.

Chapter VI Impact of Migrants

This chapter is concerned with the positive and adverse effect of migrants.

Chapter VII Process of Urbanisation

This chapter is concerned with the process of urbanization in Mizoram, migrants in the urban centres, effect of urbanization. The effects of urbanization in Aizawl city.

Chapter VIII Relationship between Levels of Economic Development and Migration.

This chapter deals with the areas of different level of economic development by using 19 indices and 10 indices. The relationship between the level of economic development and migration and test the significance.

Chapter IX Conclusion and Findings

CHAPTER - II

THE LAND AND THE PEOPLE

At the outset, the researcher feels tempted to bring out a brief profile of the land 'Mizoram' and the socio-economic life of its people because the level of economic development in a particular country or area has always been determined by the geographical factors of the land and the socio-economic system operating in that land. When the people residing in a particular country or area attain high level of economic development, migration- either internal or external- has always taken place from the less developed country or area. By way of having a proper understanding of a true picture of migration and its relation with the level of economic development in Mizoram, the researcher has attempted to briefly introduce the land 'Mizoram' and the changing socio-economic activities of its people since the liberalisation of their rigid traditional prescription on occupational choice.

I. The land 'Mizoram'

A tongue-shaped Mizoram is a mountainous and hilly region located in the southernmost corner of North-East India. Mizoram is a tiny

state covering an area of 21,087 sq. Kilometres.¹ It lies between Latitude degree 21.56 N to 24.31N and Longitude degree 92.16E to 93.26E.² The Tropic of Cancer runs through the heart of Mizoram at the place called 'Thenzawl.'³ It is important to note that, as Mizoram was treated as one of the administrative Districts of Assam till attainment of Union Territory on 1972, it was popularly known as the Lushai or Mizo Hills District of Assam.

Boundary

Mizoram has a long international boundary. It is bounded on the East by Burma (Myanmar) and on the West by Bangladesh. It is also bounded by Manipur and Cachar in the north and by Tripura in the North-West.⁴ In other words, three quarters of its boundary are international having a common open border with Bangladesh over a length of about 318 Kms.⁵ and with Myanmar another 404 Kms.⁶ It is, therefore, evident that the Mizos have been surrounded by different nations and states inhabited by different ethnic communities. Hence, it is correct to state that Mizoram occupies an area of strategic importance due to its geographical location.

POLITICAL MAP OF MIZORAM

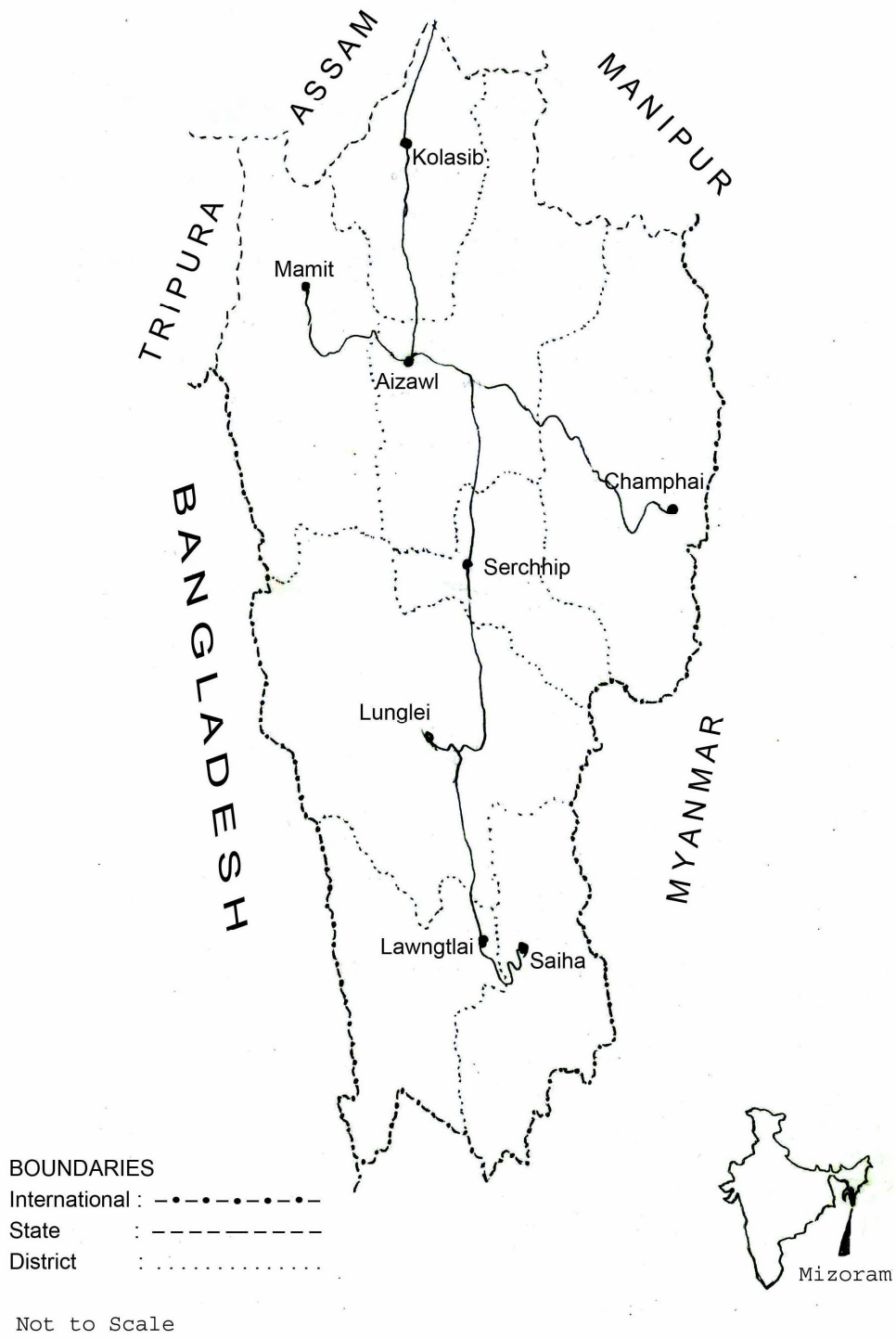


Fig. 1.1 : Map of Mizoram

Topography

The topography of Mizoram consists of six parallel hill ranges which run mostly from north to south with a tendency to be higher in the east of the territory and tapering in the north and south “enclosing between them deep river valleys.”⁷ The southern mountain ranges join Arakan Yoma of Burma (Myanmar). As the western side of each range is normally full of gorges and cliffs, suitable lands for cultivation are naturally available in the eastern side of each range. Except in the low lying areas of the state, there are few suitable flat lands for paddy fields. It is due to this reason that the people of the area are accustomed to environmentally unfriendly method of cultivation called ‘shifting cultivation.’

Forests

Until the recent past, almost the entire area of Mizoram was covered with a great tangle of tropical evergreen forests and was very rich in vegetation till it was made a part of Assam. But, the Forest Department of Assam was, in those days, very much discouraged in making attempts to extend much influence over the forests in Mizoram due to the wasteful practice of jhumming throughout the district.⁸ In spite of this absence of proper supervision from the then guardian state, the

forest products have considerably made contributions towards the economic development of the people in Mizoram.⁹ The Government of Mizoram has now realised the importance of forest products for the economic development of the people and hence laid more emphasis on afforestation within the length and breath of Mizoram.

Climate

Mizoram enjoys a pleasant climate, which is neither too hot nor too cold throughout the year. In the higher ridges it is fairly cool and pleasant even at the hottest season of the year. As the climatic condition of the state is generally moderate, the people are very active in their economic activities. As few low lying areas are hot, the people living in the low lying areas are generally lethargic because those areas are normally hot particularly during summer. Commenting on the pleasant climate of Mizoram, Lewin said: “They occupy a country of wood and dale, having an almost Italian Climate.”¹⁰

Communication networks

In spite of the absence of navigable rivers of economic importance in Mizoram, the only means of transport and communication available to

the people in the erstwhile Mizoram for transportation of men and materials was “through water route by means of country boat of primitive type.”¹¹ Prior to the advent of the colonial power, most of the essential commodities were transported from Cachar district to the present Mizoram by country crafts through rivers of Tlawng (Dhaleswari), Tuirial (Sonai) and Tuivawl, whereas oranges, gingers, cotton, bamboos and other forest products were transported to Cachar through these rivers.”¹²

It will not be an exaggeration to point out that there was no road communication network worth the name in Mizoram. In most cases, the jhum-link bridle paths served as the main routes for the villagers and trade was done through head load or packed animals.¹³ But the Second World War had put the British-India’s Government under pressure to construct good road network for transporting soldiers and war materials as and when required. It was, in fact, against this backdrop that the Sairang-Aizawl bridle path was, for the first time, converted into truckable road in September 1942.¹⁴ This is the first truckable road available on record in Mizoram. In the later days of the same year, the Government, by mobilising tea-garden labourers from Cachar, had

converted the Silchar-Aizawl bridle path into jeepable road for defence purposes.¹⁵ Thus, the Second World War marked the beginning of large-scale road construction in Mizoram.

It is, however, important to note that, while road was the lifeline for the people in Mizoram, its construction was very expensive due to the difficult hilly terrain. In this connection, Chaube also once said: “The communication position in Mizoram is worse for the weak surface of the hills impede road buildings.”¹⁶ In spite of this natural constraint, the people’s aspiration to have better road communication networks had finally led to the construction of Aizawl-Lunglei Jeep Road by the people on a voluntary and self-help basis.¹⁷ Today, Mizoram has made a huge improvement not only on road communication networks but also on rail and air links.

II. “Mizos”: the Indigenous people of Mizoram

The indigenous people living in Mizoram are the Mizos who are believed to have migrated to their habitat from the East.

The word 'Mizo' is a generic term that is difficult to explain to outsiders. So, most of the non-local writers have made different interpretations of the word 'Mizo'. According to their popular view, the word 'Mizo' is a compound of 'Mi' and 'Zo'. While 'Mi' in Mizo language means 'person', there is ambiguity about the precise meaning of 'Zo' in Mizo language. According to their popular interpretations, the word 'Zo' is intended to mean 'high hill', 'highland', 'cold region', so on and so forth. Accordingly, the word 'Mizo' is generally translated as "hill men", "highlanders", "people in the cold region" etc. If we are to accept these interpretations of the term 'Mizo', all other hill men like Nagas and Khasis, though they are not Mizos by ethnic originality, should also be accepted as Mizos. It is, therefore, out of question for the proper Mizos to accept the term 'Mizo' to mean all other 'hillmen' or 'highlanders' even though the Mizos are of highlanders. Thus, all these interpretations do not reveal the real meaning behind the term 'Mizo' and hence the hurdle in identifying the precise meaning of the term 'Mizo.' The term 'Mizo' has rather been used by the Mizo themselves as a single collective name to mean all those original hill tribes of the Assam-Burman sub-group that branches from Tibeto-Burman group of the main Tibeto-Chinese race.¹⁸ According to one Mizo historian, Liangkhaia by name, those original hill

tribes include Lusei, Hmar, Ralte, Paihte, Pawi, Lakher, Pang and their allied tribes¹⁹ who are of the Mongoloid stock.²⁰ Thus, these various original tribes and clans including their allied tribes who are knit together by common customs, common traditions and common language and also identifying themselves are collectively known as the 'Mizos'. This is the view of the majority of the Mizos who outrightly identify themselves as Mizos within and outside Mizoram.

From time immemorial, the Mizos have been vaguely given different names. In Burma, they are called 'Chins' which literally means 'man with the basket'.²¹ B.Lalthangliana thinks that the explanation 'man with the basket' is most reasonable as the Mizos, at that time, were always found carrying on their backs bamboo baskets called 'chins' by the Burmese.²² In Manipur, they are also known as 'Kukis', which means 'wild hill tribe'. Similarly, they are called 'Kukis' by the Bengalis who lived in Cachar, Tripura and Chittagong areas adjacent to Mizoram boundary.²³ The Britishers during the time of Warren Hastings carelessly followed the Bengalis in referring to Mizos as 'Kookis' (Kuki), which is not recognised by the hill men we talk about.²⁴ The earliest use of this

name in English is found in 1792;²⁵ and the word 'Kuki' is, sometimes, written as 'cucis' or 'Kookies'.²⁶ It is

“merely a generic term coined by the plainsmen, in the remote past, to designate all the inhabitants of the Chittagong Hill Tracts, other than these belonging to Chakma, Magh and Tipperah tribes. In more recent years, it has signified the independent tribes residing in the hills beyond the north-east frontier of Bengal, now subjugated and forming a part of British India under the name of the Lushai and Chin Hills.”²⁷

The name 'Kukis' continued to be applied to the whole group until 1871.²⁸ Since that year, it was supplanted by the term 'Lushai' as a result of the active and prominent part taken by the Lushai (Lusei), sub-tribe of the Mizo race, against the British expedition known as the First Lushai Expedition.²⁹ After the consolidation of their power in Mizoram, the Britishers found that the Chiefs were of the Sailo blood group belonging to the Lushai clan.³⁰ In course of time, the Kookies came to be known as Lushais or Looshais.³¹ Truly speaking, there is no Mizo word as 'Lushai.' This is purely a corruption of 'Lusei' and not 'shai', which “is the name of only one of the many sub-tribes constituting the Mizos”.³² In fact,

Lushai is the way the Britishers spelled and pronounced the word 'Lusei'.³³ While the term 'Lushai' denotes an ethnic group only, the Britishers wrongly used it to designate the whole tribes of Mizo living in Mizoram and abroad. Owing to these confusions, the terms 'Mizo' and 'Lushai' (Lusei) are often used interchangeably as if they mean one and the same thing, although they actually represent widely different concepts.

It is a popular and strong belief among the Mizos that they started assuming the term 'Mizo' for calling themselves when they lived at a small township called 'Zopui' in the western part of Burma (Myanmar) adjacent to the present eastern boundary of Mizoram in about 1765 AD. It is since their settlement at 'Zopui,' that various tribes and clans inhabiting the present Mizoram and abroad who are knit together by common language, common customs and common traditions call themselves 'Mizo' and their land has always been referred to by the proper Mizos as 'Mizoram'. Barkataki also rightly pointed out this fact.³⁴ In the meanwhile, there are some tribes of Mizo origin like Hmars, Lakhers, Pawis and Paihte who claim to be distinct tribes. However, the process of socialisation and modernisation has steadily wiped out clan

feeling among the Mizos. Today, the feeling of clan distinction is more or less non-existent in Mizoram. But, the Mizos living outside the present Mizoram still have a problem of clan feeling and prefer to be called by their tribe names. However, when the term 'Mizo' brings in some advantages, they readily accept 'Mizo' as their nomenclature.

On the other hand, there are distinct tribes like the Chakmas and the Riangs in Mizoram who had migrated lately to the present Mizoram after the Mizos. Though these tribes have claimed Mizoram as their homeland, they are not considered by the indigenous tribes as Mizos because "they greatly differ from the Mizos culturally and linguistically."³⁵ Instead, the Chakmas are said to be the original inhabitants of the Chittagong Hill Tracts now called Bangladesh while the Riangs are the original inhabitants of Tripura.

Language

Among the Mizos, the Lusei dialect known as 'Duhlian dialect' has been developed into the major language spoken by such major tribes as the Hmars, the Paihtes, the Pawis and the Raltes living in Mizoram

though these tribes originally had their own dialects.³⁶ The language, which is now commonly understood and used as a '*lingua franca*' by different tribes and clans of the Mizo people, is 'Mizo.'³⁷ Hence, no particular tribe of the Mizo origin can claim the proprietorship of the Mizo language. It is rather the common language for all the tribes and clans of the Mizo people.³⁸ The credit of developing a common language for all the tribes and clans of the Mizo Origin goes to one Sailo chief called Lallula who was the greatest chief among the seven chiefs who ruled over Selesih Township. Lallula was convinced by the fact that "Language could break many barriers."³⁹ He, therefore, took the initiative part in developing 'Duhlian dialect,' spoken by the Lusei tribe, into the major language now known as 'Mizo'. In most cases, the dialects of the minor clans have entirely been forgotten. But, some of the tribes living in southern and eastern corners of and outside Mizoram can sustain their separate dialects till today.

Religion

The Mizos were, in the past, pagans and followed animistic rites. To the Mizos, all illness and suffering were caused by evil spirits of nature like Ghosts or Demons.⁴⁰ When a man fell sick, sacrifices were

made by the appropriate Priest called *Bawlpw* to appease these evil spirits in order to avoid the ravages of death. According to the traditional religious ideal of the Mizos, the highest goal one had to achieve was going to Paradise after death. In order to go to Paradise (*Pialral* in Mizo language), one had to achieve the status of *Thangchhuah*, which was “a title for killing a certain number of animals in the chase or giving a public feast.”⁴¹ Thus, becoming a *Thangchhuah* was the only gate pass for the common people to occupy highest positions in the old Mizo social, political and administrative set-up. It was against this background that the Christian Missionaries of western origin came to Mizoram to introduce Christianity to the Mizos. With the conversion process in operation, the traditional hold loosened and the new faith had gained a fertile ground for its growth. The Christian Missionaries were quite successful in converting the Mizos “from their animist beliefs to those of the Christian religion.”⁴²

Within a short span of time, the old religious functionaries had lost their relevance in the new religious organizational set-up. “New figures like Mission School teachers, Pastors and Church Elders have been recognised by the Mizo Society.”⁴³ Consequent upon the unceasing

works of the Christian Missionaries and their Church Workers, the number of Christians also increases.

The following table shows the growth of Christianity in Mizoram.

Table: 2.1; Growth of Christianity in Mizoram (1901 - 2001)

Years	Population in Mizoram	Christian Community	Percentage to total population
1901	82,434	55	0.45
1911	91,204	2,461	2.77
1921	98,406	27,720	28.17
1931	1,24,404	59,123	47.52
1941	1,52,786	98,108	64.21
1951	1,96,202	1,57,575	80.31
1961	2,66,063	2,30,509	86.64
1971	3,32,390	2,86,141	86.09
1981	4,93,757	4,13,840	83.81
1991	6,89,756	5,91,328	85.73*
2001	8,88,573	7,72,809	87.00**

Source : Government of India. *Census of India, 1991, Mizoram*, (Directorate of Census Operation, Mizoram), p.92.

Government of India. *Census of India, 2001, Mizoram*, (Directorate of Census Operation, Mizoram), p.12.

Economic Scenario of the indigenous People

Until recently, the Mizo economy was wholly agricultural and “the most important occupation of the society to sustain their lives was through jhuming.”⁴⁴ The modus operandi was what is called ‘shifting cultivation’ on ‘slash-and-burn’ method of cultivation.’⁴⁵ According to this method of cultivation, the fertility of the soil could not produce more than a single crop in a year and the jhum had to be “left out for a number of years to recuperate.”⁴⁶ Thus, the Mizo life was spent in search of suitable agricultural land for cultivation for the next year and the Mizo settlement was essentially determined by the availability or non-availability of suitable for cultivation. The traditional Mizo economy was undeniably a subsistence one where crops were grown in small quantities “just to meet the needs of the family for the next year.”⁴⁷ In such an agricultural economy, it was difficult for one to amass wealth over and above others.

It was against this economic background that the British administration had, for the first time, imposed house tax on every

household in terms of cash amounting to three shillings annually, which required the people to earn in cash or convert their daily products into cash “to meet the Government annual house tax of three shillings.”⁴⁸ By this new economic system, the cultivators had to produce surplus crops for sale in terms of cash, and this led to the emergence of the phenomenon of what is known as the monetisation of agricultural products. In this way, a Mizo barter economy was replaced by monetary economy in which the value of any commodity was measured in terms of cash. With the commercialization process in operation, the traditional holds loosen and gave way to the formation of new economic ideas in the Mizo society. In the absence of rigid traditional prescription to occupational choice under the new dispensation, the people could shift to other occupations whenever they could find one. Thus, the mode of evaluation of economic wealth described earlier was shifted to that of earning in cash, which gave material advantages over those who earned their living by cultivating the lands.

However, with recent flow of developmental funds from the union Government, “the temptation to ‘get-rich-quick’ with the least efforts... had been too much for many people.”⁴⁹ Thus, the process of economic

change has given way to greater emphasis on monetary value and the consequent mad race in making easy money, which, according to Chaube, “has corrupted much of the unsophisticated attitudes of the hill men.”⁵⁰

Social Life of the People

The Mizo Society was a simple, close-knit and gregarious society where there was no caste system.⁵¹ The Mizo Chief was at the pivot of a Mizo Social structure, enjoying supreme power. So far as the social formation is concerned, “for all practical purposes the village and the clan formed units of the Mizo Society.”⁵² The majority of the people were agriculturists that there was no occupational differentiation in the Mizo Society. Social interactions in the agricultural land were of intrinsically intimate nature. Jhum cultivation had provided the ethos necessary for the villagers to experience the feeling of oneness by sharing the common bond derived from the sharing of the village land in a uniform way. In the absence of occupational differentiation and caste system, there was not much difference among the general public and all “lived in an atmosphere of mutual corporation and help.”⁵³ Disabled and

needy persons due to illness or other natural calamities were promptly helped and rehabilitated by other members of the Society. Nobody starved to death for want of subsistence as the Mizo Society of the past was characterised by the “practice of mutual give and take.” Besides, the Mizo chief never allowed his subjects to do begging and, as a result, there were, ‘no beggars among them.’⁵⁴

The British occupation of Mizoram, as stated earlier, was instrumental in giving rise to a small group of privileged class to the hitherto classless simple Mizo society. While the government was contented with sustaining the law and orders, it did not interfere with the day-to-day life of the Mizos. The Missionaries who came immediately after the British administration utilised this opportunity to bring in new values, new concepts, new categories of living and institutions and the Mizos were giving up the old obligations and traditions. Thus, the Church and not the Government became the focal point in Mizoram. Parry also observed: “A more active instrument of change than the Government is the Christian Mission.”⁵⁵ One consequence of the excessive reliance of Government on the Church as an agency of education and other social services was the growth of vested interests of

the church. This was the beginning of the emergence of occupational differentiation leading to class differences in the classless simple Mizo Society. The favour of the Church was regarded as financial assistance to avoid the cultivation of a hard land. In this way, right from the time of the British occupation of Mizo Hills, outside influences have been making great impact on the Mizo's way of life, their interests, and their social and economic aspirations. Thus, old customs have been in the process of dismantling and the people have found material greatness at the cost of their individuality. In spite of this, the Mizo Society is still a close-knit society so long as there is no caste system as we find in the Hindu Society.

Education

Before the advent of the British Administration and the Christian Missionaries of western origin, the laps of the mothers and the institution of Zawlbuk (Bachelors' dormitory) served as the educational institutions in the earlier Mizo Society. In Mizoram, formal education was introduced as part of the proselytisation process by the Christian Missionaries who "came to Aizawl for the first time on the 11th January 1894."⁵⁶ Thus,

primary education was “the base created by the missionaries for the spread of Christianity.”⁵⁷ Hence, it can be said that the progress made in education was “due chiefly to the missions and their own funds.”⁵⁸ However, the British administrators and the Missionaries encouraged extensive education and imparted fundamental education to the masses required for the normal needs of the Government and the Missions. Higher education was “not greatly encouraged by the then Government and the Missionaries who held the monopoly in educational fields.”⁵⁹ In spite of the discouragement from the British rulers and the Missionaries, the Mizos’ aspirations for higher education grew more and more. Fortunately, during the time of MacDonald, Superintendent, high school for the first time was opened at Aizawl in 1944 “through public donations and collaborations” which was “taken over by the Assam Government in 1950.”⁶⁰ During the period, 1950-70, there was a rapid increase in the number of educational institutions - Primary to High Schools - partly due to the active role played by the Government in the field of education. Today, Mizoram has the privilege of higher percentage of literacy in India. The following table shows the progress of literacy in Mizoram.⁶¹

Table 2.2: The Progress of Literacy in Mizoram (1901 - 2001)

Year	Total Population	Percentage to total population
1901	82,434	0.93
1911	91,204	3.98
1921	98,406	6.28
1931	1,24,404	10.71
1941	1,53,786	19.48
1951	1,96,202	31.13
1961	2,26,063	44.00
1971	3,32,390	53.79
1981	4,93,757	59.88
1991	6,98,756	82.27
2001	888,573	88.80

Source: *Records of Directorate of Economics and Statistics, Government of Mizoram.*

Government of India. *Census of India, 1991, Mizoram,*
(Directorate of Census Operation, Mizoram).

Government of India. *Census of India, 2001, Mizoram,*
(Directorate of Census Operation, Mizoram).

Thus, the opening of High School marked a new epoch of event in the educational progress of Mizoram. The first U.G college was opened in 1958 called Aijal College (Present Pachhunga University College) followed by opening of NEHU (Mizoram Campus) in 1979. Finally Mizoram University in 2001. Since 1970, there has been a very rapid increase in the number of educational institutions, from Primary Schools to Colleges, due to the active part played by the Government of Mizoram in the field of education. As a consequence, Mizoram has the privilege of higher percentage of literacy in India.

Administration

The earliest record of British dealings with the hill tribes is given in a letter from chief of Chittagong, dated April 10, 1777. The English Chief Administrator of Chittagong had appealed to the Governor General Warren Hastings, for a detachment of sepoy to protect the inhabitants of Chittagong Hills against the Kukis.⁶² The first recorded encounter of the Mizos with people of the plains living in British Indian Territory appears to have taken place in September 1824, when some enterprising traders from the plain who had penetrated into the hills along River Dhaleshwari,

to collect bamboo and timber were ambushed and killed by the tribemen.⁶³

Number of encounter with the plain peoples has been recorded. The reason of encounter is not to provoke the British, the only aim was to consolidate their own territories. On January 23, 1871,⁶⁴ a day to be long remembered as significant concerning the future of the Mizo in the realm of social enlightenment, the tea garden of Alexandrapore was destroyed by a party of Haulong tribe led by chief Bengkhuaia. Mr Winchester, the tea planter was killed and his child Mary Winchester of 6 years was kidnapped.

In retaliation, the British intended to send expeditory forces to Mizoram to punish those chiefs responsible for the Alexandrapore incident and to bring back Mary Winchester, who was being kept by Bengkhuaia, Chief of Sailam, as his daughter but due to bad weather, the expedition was postponed till December 1871.⁶⁵ On 21st Jan 1872 ⁶⁶Mary Winchester was taken back.

After the expedition of 1871-72, the British reckoned the Mizos would learn to behave themselves. For fifteen years, there was no incident of major importance in the British territories caused by the Mizos. In 1888 some Englishmen were killed by the Mizos which led to the Chin-Lushai Expedition of 1889 -90. The expedition involved the government of Bengal, Assam and Burma and marked the final colonisation of Mizoram.

The operation of 1889-90 thus led to creation of the two districts of northern Lushai Hills and the southern Lushai Hills with headquarter at Aizawl and Lunglei respectively. On 1st April 1898, the two districts were amalgamated as Lushai Hills District of Assam administered under the superintendent of Lushai Hills.

Soon after the independence, the chieftainship was abolished, the political institution function though the operation of the village councils, and the administrative area under the sixth schedule provision of the constitution of India. The district Council was functioning from 1952. The first election of Mizo District Council was held on 4th Jan 1952 from

18 constituency,⁶⁷ straight fight between Mizo Union (MU) and United Mizo Freedom Organization (UMFO). The MU bagged 17 seats leaving only one for UMFO.

The uprising of Mizo National Front in 1966 led the insurgency in Mizoram. On 2nd March, 1966 the Assam Government declared Mizo Hills district as a disturbed area.⁶⁸ The Government of India also declared the MNF as unlawful organisation and also banned it on 6th March 1966.⁶⁹ In order to operate security forces against the underground elements which had taken control of interior villages spread out in far-flung areas. Shifting of remote hamlets into larger units for developmental reason was recommended by Planning Commission Study Team headed by Shri Tanlok Singh which visited the hills districts of Assam including Mizoram in the early part of 1966.⁷⁰

Grouping of Villages involved roughly 75 percent of the population of Mizoram and had four distinct categories namely 1) Protected and Progressive Village 2) New Grouping Centre 3) Voluntary Grouping Centre and 4) Extended Loop Areas. Each category of

grouping was initially undertaken by the security forces and later the centres were taken over by the civil administration.

With the implementation of North Eastern Reorganisation Act 1971, the Mizo Hills Districts was upgraded into Union Territory for the time being. The Mizo Union, The District Congress and other liberal groups among the Mizos accepted the proposal. As a result, the Mizo Hills was elevated to the status of UT on 21st January 1972 with 33 members Legislative Assembly (30 elected and 3 nominated) and one Lok Sabha seat administered by a council of minister and Lt Governor as the administrative head.⁷¹

In order to safeguard the interest of minority tribe like Pawis, Lakhers and Chakmas, three District Councils were also created.⁷²

Rounds of talk for the possibility of peaceful settlement between underground MNF and the government of India started when Ladenga, the MNF president began to talk with the Union Home Secretary Mr. S L Khurana in the month of January and February 1976.⁷³

On June 21, 1986, the draft agreement for Mizoram Accord was finalised, followed by the signing of the political settlement on June 25, 1986 between Laldenga and Mr Arjun Singh providing coalition interim government between the MNF and the Congress I. This was subsequently followed by the signing of The Mizoram Accord on June 30, 1986 between the Union Home Secretary Mr R D Pradhan, Mr Laldenga and Mr Lalkhama, Chief Secretary of Mizoram. The Accord provided among other things, full Statehood for Mizoram with 40 members Legislative Assembly. Mizoram State was inaugurated on Feb. 20, 1987 and the election to the first 40 member Assembly were held on Feb 16, 1987 in which MNF bagged 24 seats and emerged as the ruling party.

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CHAPTER III

FACTORS RESPONSIBLE AND REVIEW OF LITERATURE

Migration is one of the dynamic constituents of population change (other constituents are - fertility and mortality). Population, the size and composition of which are largely determined by migration, presents unique features demographic, economic, social and political¹. At all times, most important factor which motivated people to migrate either was economic factor, the people migrated and continue to migrate either to have better living either for themselves or their families². Pressure of population, marriage, employment or occupation achievement, education of children, cultural affinity or contrasts, conscious government policies, unfavourable topographical or climate conditions are some of the numerous factors that have motivated people to migrate from one place to another. It is always not possible to identify one single factor that has been the cause of person's migration; very often migration is motivated by the combined operation of two or more factors. Some of the important factors may be discussed as under :

Demographic Factors : The size, growth rate and age, sex and occupational composition of a population are functions as the dynamics of population change. Except natural increases, migration is the only source of population change³. The size of population depends upon the natural increase and redistribution of the population accomplished by migration. The natural increase is responsible for the overall growth rate of a population, but regional growth rate results from both differential natural increase and migration leading to redistribution of the population.

For instance, age has been recognized as one of the important demographic factors controlling the degree of desire to move among the potential migrants. No wonder, young adults were migratory than other groups. Similarly, the regional disparities in the rate of natural increase provide the basis for all movements by way of their role in giving a specific pattern to population resource nexus of an area⁴.

There is also another important demographic implication of migration, which should receive due recognition. Rural-urban migration usually reduces the proportion of people in the reproductive ages and thus tends to reduce the birth rates in rural areas (emigrating areas) and increases in urban areas (immigrating areas). Moreover, the separation of

rural male migrants from their wives in the villages for long duration tends to reduce the birth rate fell so sharply, that colonial authorities attempted to limit labour recruitment from village⁵.

Economic Factors : The most important factor of migration is economic. It has been established in several studies that the low agricultural incomes and agricultural unemployment and under employment in developing countries, are the pushing towards areas with greater job opportunity. The depressed economic conditions in an area generate tendencies of out-migration whereas the conditions reflecting the economic prosperity offer greater employment potential and attract in-migrants⁶. The growth of employment depends upon both supply and demand sides. From supply side, it is influenced by the size and growth of population and from demand side, by the level of employment generating investment in non-agricultural sector. Investment, in turns is affected by the impact of population upon saving and in shaping the composition of investment via its role in determining the alternative demands for investment, e.g. in schools, houses or directly in productive activities. A large share of children requires higher investment for providing educational facilities⁷.

Population has a dual role with economic development as related to consumption and to supply (supply of manpower)⁸. Consumption depends upon the size of population and its standard of living. High consumption provides a large market and thereby benefits of large-scale production, but retards capital formation so essential for investment. Difference in labour charge may effect the movement of population the more labour oriented attract the migrants than the capital-oriented.

Migration has differential effects on sending and receiving areas⁹, it relieves on land resources in the former and increases it in the latter. It aggregates the persons of working age groups in the receiving areas and leaves behind large number of dependents (children and old persons) in the sending areas. In an area of out-migration the marginal productivity of labour may increase while an area of in-migration, the marginal productivity of labour may decrease, the influx of unskilled labour to a region reduces per capita income and, in short run, retard economic development of the receiving region. In the long run however, they prove beneficial if adequate facilities for their training and employment are made available¹⁰.

Social Factors : Each movement provides an important network for the diffusion of ideas and informations, indicating the symptoms of social and economic changes¹¹. Thus social factors are responsible for migration. In a heterogeneous or regionally diverse society, therefore internal migration can be an effective instrument of cultural diffusion and social integration¹². People quit their place or country of origin where social barriers are rigid, which do not afford the development of individual. The people also migrate to be away from family feuds and disputed family life. The girls are migrated forever after marriage and have to move the places where they are asked or accompanied by their husbands. For instance, females move from the place of their parents' residence to the place of residences of their spouses at the time of marriage. This type of migration which owes nothing to the desire economic gains. It is due to this factor that in India the number of female migrants is undesirably high, although Indian population is considered at least mobile¹³.

The flow and characteristics of internal migrants affect social conditions in both the communities of origin and destination¹⁴. From the perspective of rural communities, they lose disproportionately more of their talented youngsters, but from the point of view of urban

communities, they are receiving a great many rural youngsters in unskilled occupations¹⁵. The rural reared migrants living in urban place have a lower social status (as measured by education, income and occupation, etc)¹⁶. In the case of immigrants to rural areas, on the other hand, migrants often insist on practising traditional methods of farming even though they may be in an environment that requires totally different treatment. The result may be catastrophic¹⁷.

The socio-economic status of the potential migrants has been considered as an important factor in determining the magnitude and direction of migration. For instance, in a society like nineteenth century Britain, the people having lower status were most mobile¹⁸. There are evidence to prove that India also the people with low socio-economic status are more mobile because they have no landed property to tie them to their native places. The communities that are ruled by ancient traditions, customs and strong communal ties are less mobile than those which are socially more awakened and where people have cultural contact with the other world and possess intense desire for social uplift¹⁹.

Political Factor : These days, political factors are becoming important for migration. The people consists of different races and creeds

with totally different attitudes towards races and creeds with totally different attitudes towards life giving birth to racial tensions and communal disputes besides other problems²⁰. People migrate to other countries when they find that political systems and institutions of their country are not suited to them. Some people do not tolerate totalitarian regimes or dictatorship and leave their country. In many cases fear of war or likely breakout of disturbances, infiltration, etc²¹. The insurgency of a certain region may increase the internal migration of short distance movement.

Government policies make their own contribution in giving a specific direction to the population movement. Examples from China, France and Russia reveal the role of government policies in the migration of population. In the early years of communist regime in China large number of people moved out from countryside to the urban areas as a result of collectivisation of farms. Similarly, the political totalitarianism in Russia resulted in the flight of people from their homeland at the time of Bolshevik Revolution²².

Geographical Factors : Geographical factors considerably help in migration process. The people migrate to place where there is better

climate or where minerals are found in abundance. Similarly, people do not wish to live at places where the chances of floods, fire or earthquake and landslide are quite frequent. The people wish to settle or migrate to places which are comparatively safe and climatically attractive²³.

Religious Factors : The people migrate to new places when there is religious intolerance and those in position do not allow other than their own religions to function, similarly, in some cases the people migrate to religious places where they find religion of their belief is followed. The large scale of 'Pilgrim Fathers' across the Atlantic was the product of the desire to pursue religious faith²⁴. The flight of Jews from Germany before the war and their post-war return to the newly created state of Israel also falls in this category.

Review of Literature :

From the recent past, the study of migration appeared to have drawn greater attention of scholars all over the world in an increasing dimension. The scholars of different disciplines, viz. demographers, sociologists, anthropologists, geographers, economists etc. have investigated the problems of migration in its various aspects however, the present day

theoretical and empirical knowledge of migration phenomena is very imperfect²⁵. In the following paragraphs is recounted a few of such scholarly studied.

It was Ravenstein who started the ball rolling by providing a theoretical analysis of migration for the first time. Through two papers published in 1885 and 1899, he formulated seven laws of migration based on the census report of England²⁶. According to him, migration between two points will inversely be related to the distance and migrants will move by stages from nearby towns to distance lands. There were practically no excursions into migration theory for a long period since Ravenstein. The sum total of the contributions upto the thirties of the twentieth century consisted of - i) the generalisation made by made by Dorothy Swine Thomas that migrants tended to be young adults and ii) a few mathematical formulations about the relationship between migration and distance²⁷. Stouffer's theory of 'intervening opportunities' as the basis of migration is yet another feeble attempt to formulate a theory of migration²⁸. A test of Stouffer's hypothesis on the inter-city data of 1940 census by Stouffer²⁹ himself and on inter-metropolitan data of 1960 census by Gally and Taeuber³⁰ establishes the supremacy of Stouffer's model with a coefficient of multiple correlation of over 0.95 which is

quite rare in social sciences. However, Stouffer's hypothesis that migrants have a complete knowledge of opportunities, may not be always realised. This model is quite satisfactory in the developed country like India, the imperfect mass media and communication facilities may result in, not too good a knowledge of opportunities.

It was Evereth Lee³¹ who took up the mantle from Ravenstein and put forward a general scheme of migration analysis. In his paper on 'A theory of Migration' has been very much aware above the unpredictable nature of migrants. He formulated that the decision to migrate and the process of migration are influenced by some important factors like area of origin and destination, intervening factors, personal factors and the fluctuations in the economy.

The push-pull hypothesis has proved to be useful for listing all the factors affecting a given migratory movement and has produced lucid and convincing exposition of the underlying factors in migration³². The approach in and by itself, does not lead to any theory, and some students of migration has question the adequacy of its basic concept³³. The forces of accumulated push and pull factors can be so overwhelming that it neglects to make clear, why some migrate, and some do not³⁴. The use of

Lee's conceptual framework which incorporates push and pull factors at the places of origin and place of destination would overcome this limitation. Zelinsky³⁵ in his 'transition of mobility' has applied the principle of spatial diffusion of innovation to the laws of migration, especially to Lee's assertion that 'unless severe check are imposed, both volume and rate of migration tend to increase with time'³⁶. The results are set within the same sort of temporal structure that has been developed for demographic transition. Zelinsky³⁷ has emphasised that for any specify community, the course of mobility transition and other transitional sequences.

The flow of migration from one region to another over along period of time is that of a prolonged disequilibrium of particular type. The type of disequilibrium exists not only between the countries but also between the different regions and sectors of a country. In order to find out the causes of disequilibrium, Lewis³⁸ has formulated a row sector model namely rural and urban in which he has found that there exists an usual gap of 30% or even more, between the rates of wages in the two sectors as a result, migration takes place from rural to urban sector. On the other hand, Todaro³⁹ argues that the rural-urban wage differential may be the key determinant of rural-urban migration in the advance

country of the west, but may not be valid in most of the Third World countries. Hence Todaro has pointed out that the urban areas of the less developed countries is characterised by the existence of vast unemployment. Thus, probability obtaining an urban job may be a more important factor in rural-urban migration in the less developed countries. Carvajal and Geithman⁴⁰ have observed in Dominican Republic that migration flows are strongly affected by economic conditions both in the areas of origin as well as that of destination.

The ideas of inverse distance or distance decay relationships, widely developed by Zipf, Steward, Warntz and other have been found applicable in many kinds of movements⁴¹. It has been found that whereas moves cannot be precisely determined, the destinations chosen are strongly influenced by systematic forces⁴². Vendercamp⁴³ has observed that unemployment has a significant and substantial impact on the overall rate of geographical mobility in Canada, and particularly on the rate of migration to such regions in which migration add to their population. Hypothesis that inter-provincial mobility is positively related to differential provincial incomes and negatively related to distance have received impressive empirical support in Canada⁴⁴. Richardson⁴⁵ has observed that migrants tend to move from low wage to high wage areas

and from areas of labour surplus to those with labour shortages. In other words, net migration flows some tendency to be functional related to the wage or per capita income differential between regions of destination and origin.

Davis⁴⁶ comes to conclusion that modern migrations are an ebb and flows that result from technological and economic inequalities. Glantz⁴⁷ has also observed that the poor migrates to areas offering more employment opportunities and higher welfare benefits. Protharo⁴⁸ has observed in West Africa that economic opportunities in better developed areas offer an incentive for migration, but this is followed if conditions are unsatisfactory in homes areas (areas of origin) for stimulating the people to take up the employment opportunities offered elsewhere. Addo⁴⁹ is of the opinion that migration, both internal and international are economic demographic, environmental, political and to some extent religious in character. Todaro and Maruszko⁵⁰ observed that migration is caused by geographical differences in the supply of and demand for labour. A country with large endowment of labour relative to capital will be interaction of labour surplus country to move to the high wage or labour scarce country⁵¹.

Studies in India

Though migration is as important phenomenon in population changes, a historical survey of literature on the pattern of migration reveals that it is only in the mid-sixties that a number of studies on the pattern and trends of migration were studied but material for earlier periods was little available. Davis⁵² is probably the first scholar to study in detail the pattern of migration in India. He discussed the extend and direction of migration like immigration, emigration and internal migration. He has studied in detail the volume and types of internal migration like short run migration, marriage migration and rural-urban migration etc. He has also discussed the causes of an overall immobility of the population of India but the studies relate to 1931 and earlier periods only and describe only in broad terms of the pattern of migration between various region of India and Pakistan.

Dayal⁵³ has studied the growth of population and rural migration in India. Gostal⁵⁴ has dealt with the regional pattern, magnitude of internal migration in India in 1931 and 1951 and the pattern of change during 1931-51. A more detail of historical study of internal migration in India during 1901-31 has been done by Zachariah⁵⁵. Mitra⁵⁶ submitted the report based on migration data of 1961 census to ECAFE. In this study

almost all the new features of 1961 census have been utilised to analyze different aspects of migration pattern in India. In this connection, it is to be noted that the census of 1961 is considered as the landmark in the history of census operations in India as far as the collection and tabulation of data on internal migration and levels of economic development have also been studied. An overall picture of inter-state and intra-state migration in detail has been done by Bose⁵⁷. Though this study recognises four types of flows according to rural-urban composition of the migrants, he does not discuss the state wise pattern. Lopo⁵⁸ has given a quantitative description of internal migration in Bihar during 1921-51 by using linear programming technique in the analysis of migration. Hussein⁵⁹ in her review of the demographic research undertaken during 1966-69 in India has found that twelve percent of the total studies undertaken were devoted to migration and urbanisation. Kumar⁶⁰ has studied the trend of inter-district migration in Bihar during 1951-61. Premi⁶¹ studied the problems given rise by using place of last residence concept. He pointed out that a person born in India becomes an emigrant provided that the person did not change his/her residence after returning to India. Saxena⁶² has analysed the streams of inter-state migration in detail but his discussion regarding intra-state movement is confined to all India. Roy⁶³ brings out the characteristics of migration streams in

India, based on 1971 state level data, and reveals some sociological imbalances in the regions of out migration, he has analysed on the sociological factors only.

Gulati⁶⁴ has attempted an analysis of the relationship between migrant and some indicators like per capita income, urbanisation, literacy and density in India, both at the district and state levels. K V Joseph⁶⁵ analysed the pattern of migration in the state of Kerela, emphasised that migration took place due to numerous development of the district which changed its entire socio-economic fabric. Narain⁶⁶ in her study of 15 villages in Southern Maharastra has shown that female dominates in out-migration to short distances on account of their marriage and migration among males is primarily for economic and educational reasons. Oberoi and Singh⁶⁷ make report based on a comparative survey on labour force in selected villages of Ludhiana district in Punjab state in 1977-78 attempted to ascertain the characteristics and motives of out-migration, in-migrants, return migrants and potential migrants and examined the implications of migration for rural and urban development. Mehrotra⁶⁸ study related at the salient results of the one percent sample tabulation of 1971 census. He analysed not only the quantitative and qualitative characteristics of internal migration to some extent but limited to place

of birth concept only. Mahto⁶⁹ pointed out that short distance migration were more influence by social causes viz. marriage migration are comparatively long distances.

Rao⁷⁰ used the data collected by the Indian Statistical Institute, Calcutta, to investigate the applicability of Strauffer's model to inter-state migration in a developing country like India. He pointed out how the spatial distribution of migrants as explained by Strauffer's theory can be applied in a country like India with a different social, economic and communication set up as compared to the USA. However, the study could not throw light on how the model fit to inter-state migration streams and inter-city migration streams. Roy⁷¹ has done a general empirical study of migration pattern in Uttar Pradesh without any generalisation on statistical grounds. Kshrisagar⁷² deals only with male migrants in the fifteen states (Union territories excluded) of India during 1951-61. She has given special emphasis to intra-district, inter-district and inter-state migration. Kumar and Sinha⁷³ deal with the index of migration and formulation theories related to migration. Trewartha⁷⁴ discussed migration pattern between 1941-61, particularly during 1951-61 decade trend of increase population mobility during 1901-61. George⁷⁵ takes into account migration streams between rural and urban

areas within Assam and West Bengal. He highlights the magnitude of internal migration in India and suggests the importance of intra-provincial migration in internal migration analysis.

Regarding the North East India, we find a lot of literature on migration particularly in the context of Assam. Possibly Goswami⁷⁶ was the first scholar of Assam to study the problems of immigration into Assam on the basis of 1961 census. Pathak⁷⁷ pointed out the unbiased documentation of the background and various phases of the eighty years of immigration stream from East Bengal into Assam Valley. Alam⁷⁸ has restricted his study to the adverse impact of the unprecedented growth of population caused mainly by the incidence of heavy influx on the various sectors of the economy of the State. Bhuyan⁷⁹ has analysed how international migration is a significant factor for high population growth rate in Assam after the partition of the country. Gogoi⁸⁰ has studied in details the various streams of inter-state, intra-state and international migration into Assam and found out various push and pull factors behind it. He also tried to find out the impact of these different categories of migrants on the economic development of Assam. Saha⁸¹ has attempted to build a theoretical model of Lewis type in a single framework and investigated its applicability in the North East India, the rural-urban

income differential and probability of getting an urban job are the most important factors behind the rural-urban migration in North East India. But his analysis is limited to only theoretical concept. Goswami⁸² has tried to analyse population trend in the Bramaputra Valley of Assam during 1881-1931, but his analysis dealt with the component of population change rather than migration specifically. Choudhury's⁸³ work covers the period from 1931-61, like the former scholar, he also analysed the trend of population in Assam and left the consequences of migration.

The theory of migration in its different aspects for the state of Mizoram is few and far between. No scholars studied the economic consequences of migration. Rintluanga Pachuau⁸⁴ analysed the population structure and settlement pattern of Mizoram. It was a study on spatial allocation of population and the finding is to establish a high correlation between job opportunities and population concentration. But his study is from a geographical point of view and left the pattern of migration. Another scholar who touched the migration in Mizoram was Laithanzauva⁸⁵, he tried to analyse the population changes in Mizoram and came to the conclusion that the cause of population concentration in urban areas in recent years was the deterioration of economic condition

in rural area and political destabilisation. Thus the two scholars who studied about the population structure of Mizoram left the consequences of Migration.

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CHAPTER – IV

MAGNITUDE OF INTERNAL MIGRATION

Internal migration refers to population mobility within a country. The two main secondary sources of data on population mobility in India are the census and the National Sample Survey (NSS). These surveys may underestimate some migration flows, such as temporary, seasonal and circular migration, both due to empirical conceptual difficulties. Since such migration and commuting is predominantly employment oriented, the data underestimate the extent of labour mobility. Furthermore, migration data relate to population mobility and not worker mobility, although economic theories of migration are primarily about worker migration. It is not easy to disentangle these, firstly because definitions of migrants used in both surveys (change from birthplace and change in last usual place of residence), are not employment related. Secondly, migration surveys give only the main reason for migration, and that only that time of migration. Secondary economic reasons could be masked, as in the case of married women, who would cite other reasons for movement. Another problem is that migration data relate to stocks of migrants and not to flows, although different policy concerns relate to

stocks (of different ages) and flows. Many of these concerns can be handled only by micro surveys, which have their own problems.

In one view, population mobility in India is low¹. Migration statistics to the early 1990s also suggest a decline in mobility. A considerable decline is found in 1981 and 1991 Census from 31.2 percent in 1981 to 27.4 percent in 1991, while the percentage increases to 30.88 in 2001 Census. This is true for male and female migrants. In the case of males, it declined from 18.1 percent in 1971 to 14.7 percent in 1991 and again increased to 17.54 percent of the total male population in 2001. In the case of females, it declined from 43.1 percent in 1971 to 41.6 percent in 1991 and increased to 44.55 percent of the total female population in 2001.

Migration in India is predominantly of short distance, with around sixty percent of migrants changing their residence within the district of enumeration and over twenty percent within the state of enumeration while the rest move across the state boundaries. A significant proportion of women migrate over short distances, on account of marriage to outside of their own place of origin.

Based on the place of last residence and on the place of birth, migrants are generally classified into four migration streams. Rural areas are still the main destination for migrants, but urban destinations are more important for male migrants (53.89 percent of male migrants to urban destinations in 2001, compared to 24.09 percent female migrants).

Between 1992-1993 and 1999-2000, NSS data indicate an increase in urban migration, but this is mainly due to urban-urban flows².

In Mizoram the total population mobility is 30.27 percent of the total population which is nearly equal to the national average of 30.58 percent.

Table 4.1 Components of Total Migrants to Total Population in Different Districts 2001

District	Total	Rural	Urban
Mamit	27.25	27.45	22.77
Kolasib	28.17	23.66	28.21
Aizawl	41.05	20.64	46.27
Champhai	23.85	24.23	23.26
Serchhip	16.35	12.00	20.42
Lunglei	24.18	20.60	25.34
Lawngtlai	30.58	30.58	-
Saiha	12.79	8.25	21.66

Source : Calculated from CSI 2001 DS-1500-001-D01-2001

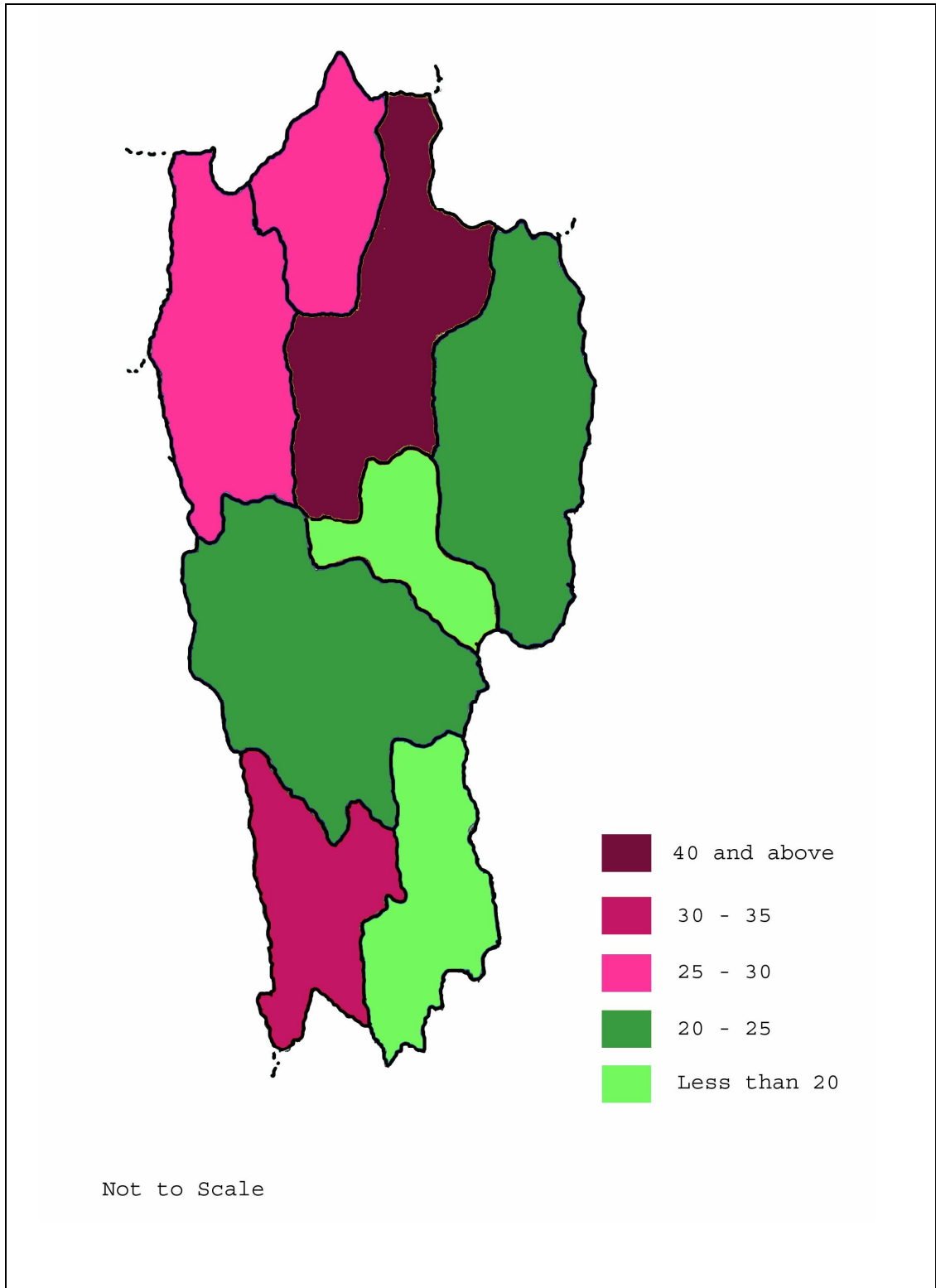


Fig 4.1 : Mizoram: Percentage Distribution of Total Migrants

The total migrants in Aizawl district which was recorded at 133678 persons constituted 41.05 percent of the total population, become the highest in terms of percentage to total population as well as absolute value. In terms of percentage Lawngtlai district occupies the second position with the level of migration at 30.58 percent of the total population. Since there is no urban centre in the whole of Lawngtlai district, all migrants were migration that took place was rural migration.

It was found from the Census data that the total number of persons migrated in Saiha district in 2001 was 12.79 percent of the total population. This is also found to be the lowest in terms of percentage and of absolute value.

With regards to rural migration, the highest percentage is recorded by Lawngtlai district at 30.58 percent of the total population. In contrast, Saiha district has the lowest record of rural migration which was to the tune of 8.25 percent of the total rural population. Aizawl district has been found to have the highest percentage of urban migrations, the total

immigration in urban places was as high as 46.27 percent of the urban population.

The present chapter will highlight the internal migration, i.e. the mobility of population from one location to another within the state of Mizoram. The share of mobile population to total population is very high. According to 1961 Census, the percentage of internal migrants was 26.25 percent of the total population of the state. And a tremendous increase was found in 1971, as the migrants accounted for 50.07 percent of the total population of the state. The share of internal migration declined to 37.58 percent of the total population in 1981, and there was a further decline to 12.5 percent in 1991 Census. Then, it was found again that there was a reversal in trend of internal migration which rose to 22.01 percent of the total population of the State in 2001 Census. In the meantime, the share for intra-state migration for the country as a whole accounted for 84.21 percent of the total migrants.

The variation in the percentage distribution of migrants over the Census years is attributable to the following factors –

- i) The high percentage in 1971 and 1981 was due to the introduction of anti-insurgency measure of forcible grouping of several villages in the selected centres in 1967-70 in the name of Progressive and Protected village policy.
- ii) The fast development of the state and the implementation of various developmental projects in the wake of the upgradation of Mizoram to Union Territory status in 1972 and to Statehood in 1987.
- iii) The drastic downward deviation in the percentage record of migrants in 1991 may be either due to the effect of resettlement of migrants at their original place who have been enumerated in their place of birth or due to large number of wrong reporting.

The Census figures give first hand information data on migrations. Internal migration is deducible from the difference in records of place of birth and place of last residence. In order to determine the direction of movement, the geographical location of the migrant has to be ascertained. This is also the method used in determining whether the movement is intra-district or inter-district. Intra-district migration refers to population mobility within the district, and they do not cross the district boundary, while inter-district migration refers to the change of population who cross the district boundary, but within the state.

Total migrants classified by distance covered (on the basis of place of birth)

On the basis of distance covered, the internal migration has been classified into two categories – intra-district migrants and inter-district migrants. As stated earlier Mizoram was one of the districts of Assam before 1972, there could be no record of inter-district migration and all the migrations recorded in 1961 and 1971 Census were of intra-district migrants.

Table 4.2 : Migrants Population Classified by Place of Birth

		Intra-district	Inter-district	Total	Percentage to total population
1961		70,379(50.13)		70,379	26.45
1971		166,421(49.49)		166,421	50.07
1981		167,554(49.36)	16,864(52.73)	184,428	37.58
	Male	90.29 percent	9.71percent	100.00	
	Female	91.46 percent	8.54percent	100.00	
1991		76,528(43.71)	9,667(49.92)	86,195	12.50
	Male	87.61 percent	12.39 percent	100.00	
	Female	81.88 percent	12.12 percent	100.00	
2001		1,19,715 (49.95)	84851 (50.75)	2,04,566	22.01
	Male	58.13	41.87	100	
	Female	58.91	41.09	100	

Source : Census of India, Migration table, 1961, 1971, 1981, 1991 and 2001
 Figures in the bracket indicates male's share

Table 4.3 is depicted the migrant population classified by place of birth over the Census years beginning from 1961 to 2001. As stated above, there was no record of inter-district migrants in the Census years of 1961 and 1971 and the column is left blank. In 1981 Census, the intra-district migrants accounted for 90.85 percent of the total internal migration. The percentage declined to 88.78 percent in 1991 Census which further declined in 2001 Census accounting for only 62.2 percent of the total internal migration. The inter district migrants account only for 9.51 percent and 11.22 percent in 1981 Census and 1991 Census respectively while in 2001 Census the percentage increased to 37.8 percent. A high percentage of intra-district migration was attributable to short distance migration resulting from post-grouping. If we analyse the subject of migrants by sex composition, male migrants constitute a lower percentage in intra-district migration except in 1961 Census which was almost an equal ratio, touching a mark of 50.13 percent of the total intra-district migrants. There is a higher percentage of male migrants in inter-district migration in 1981 Census, however, the male inter-district migration in 1991 Census was 49.92 percent only of the total intra-district migration which was still higher than the male intra-district migrants in 1991 Census, constituting only 43.71 percent. In 2001

Census, male and female component in the internal migration were more or less the same. The male migrants occupied 49.95 percent of the total intra district migrants and 50.75 percent of the total inter district migrants.

In a comparative study of the intra-district and inter-district migration flow, the 1981 Census showed that the intra-district male migrants accounted for 90.29 percent of the total male internal migration while female migration accounted for 92.46 percent of the total female internal migrants and 9.71 percent of the total male migrants were inter-district migration while that of the total female migrants was 8.54 percent. In 1991 Census, 87.61 percent of the total male internal migrants were intra-district migration, female migrants occupied 87.88 percent of the total female internal migration and male inter-district migration occupied 12.39 percent of the total male internal migration while that of the female occupied 12.12 percent of the total female internal migration. There had been a change in the pattern of migration for both male and female in 2001 Census, the percentage of short distance migration decreased, the percentage of male intra district migrants reduced to 58.13 percent of the total internal male migration while female percentage reduced to 58.91 percent.

The above figures revealed that, migration occurs usually within the district requiring movements of short distance in the past. Long distance migration occurred more frequently in 2001 Census. A high share of female migration to the total migrants can be summarized by marriage migration which seems to be a common feature in India. Similarly, a higher percentage of inter-district male migrants can be explained by the motivation of economic opportunity. This clearly reveals that marriage migration, mainly connected with females, is usually for short distance, and economic migration, mainly connected with males is usually for long distance. The difference in the pattern of migration in 2001 Census is attributed to the effect of the increase in the number of districts in the state and also due to fast development of the service sector.

Spatial Pattern of Total Migrants Classified by Distance Covered :

The spatial pattern of total migrants will be studied in terms of intra district migrants and inter district migrants. Mizoram was divided into eight districts in 1988, and the former Aizawl district was divided into five districts namely Aizawl, Champhai, Kolasib, Serchhip and

Mamit. District of Lunglei remains the same and Chhimituipui district was divided into two districts namely, Saiha and Lawngtlai.

Table 4.3 : Internal Migrants Classified by Distance Covered in the Districts of Mizoram

	1991		2001		P.c. of migrants to total pop. (2001)
	Intra-district migrants	Inter-district migrants	Intra-district migrants	Inter-district migrants	
Aizawl	92.73 (42.81)	7.27 (45.17)	51.35 (49.77)	48.65 (49.72)	22.92
Male	92.36	7.64	51.38	48.62	
Female	93.01	6.99	51.33	48.67	
Champhai			81.62 (49.82)	18.38 (52.26)	17.30
Male			80.89	19.11	
Female			82.36	17.64	
Kolasib			41.09 (50.57)	58.91 (51.56)	17.13
Male			40.62	59.38	
Female			41.57	58.43	
Serchhip			30.76 (48.98)	69.24 (50.57)	13.97
Male			30.09	69.91	
Female			31.43	68.57	
Mamit			51.54 (51.58)	48.46 (54.62)	18.68
Male			50.11	49.89	
Female			53.16	46.84	
Lunglei	84.14 (45.59)	15.16 (50.80)	78.66 (49.56)	21.34 (52.06)	18.68
Male	82.64	17.36	82.33	17.67	
Female	85.44	14.56	84.31	15.69	
Chhimituipui	77.03 (46.02)	22.92 (46.02)			
Male	74.37	25.63			
Female	79.08	20.92			
Saiha			63.33 (49.43)	36.67 (53.06)	8.39
Male			61.67	38.33	
Female			65.04	34.96	
Lawngtlai			73.57 (50.64)	26.43 (52.30)	27.73
Male			72.94	27.06	
Female			74.23	25.77	

*Source : Calculated from Census of India 1991 and 2001
Figures in the brackets indicate share of male migrants*

From the above table, the share of intra district migrants occupied a very high percentage in 1991 Census, i.e. the distance of the movements of migrants was usually short. The 2001 Census shows a decline in an intra district migration as compared to the previous census record. We also find that the percentage of intra district migrants were very low in Serchhip and Kolasib districts. In these two districts long distance migration is more important than short distance migration. This may be due to the fact that these two states are very small in geographical areas and also the National Highway which passes through these districts offers an opportunity to move to far off places.

A high percentage of intra district migration was found in Champhai district, as the district capital, Champhai is one of the important trade centres with Myanmar and therefore migration is attracted to commercial centres within the district. Lunglei district exhibited a high ratio of intra district migration as the district is the largest in the State in terms of geographical area.

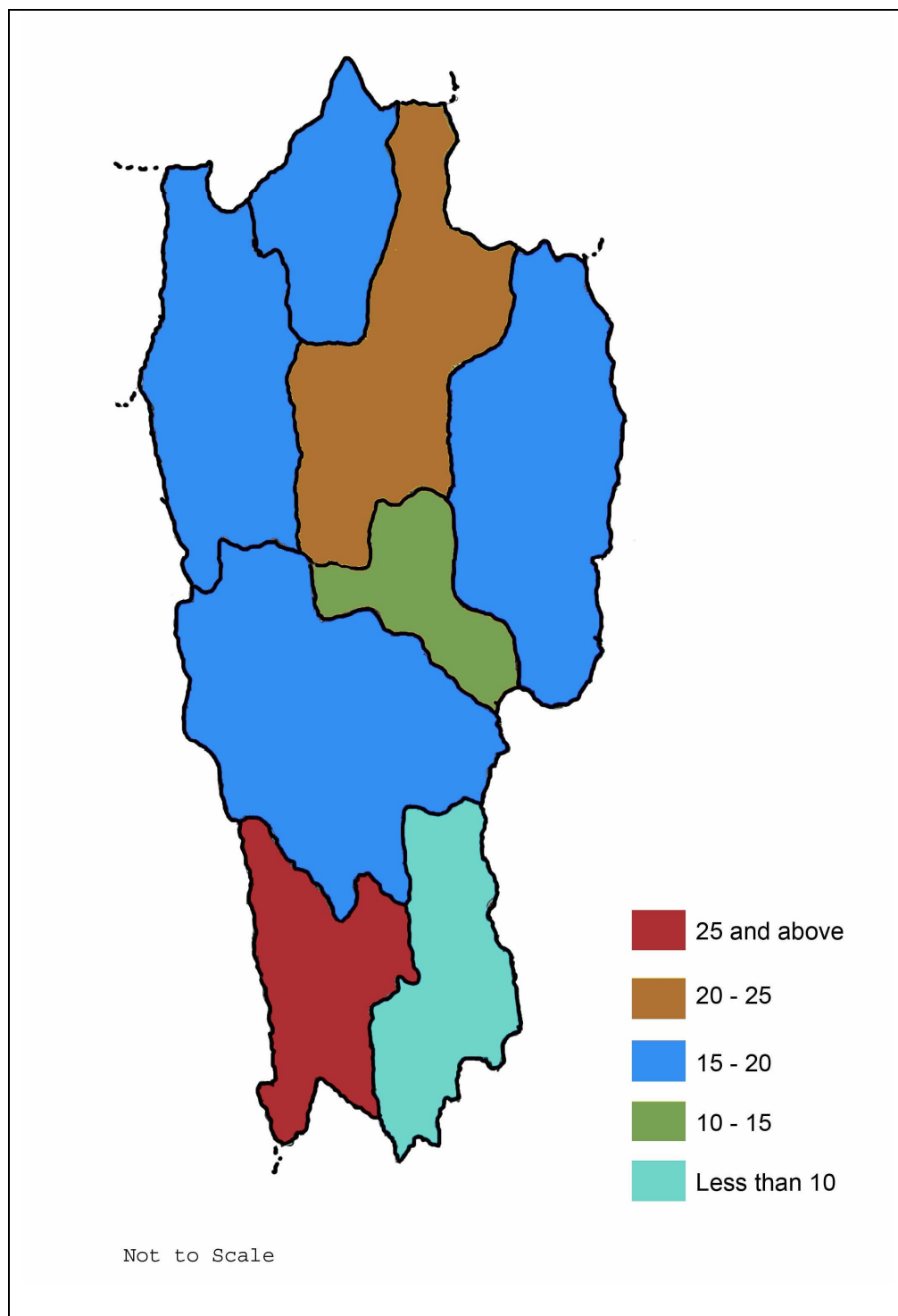


Fig4.2 : Mizoram : Percentage Distribution of Intra- State Migrants

According to the sex combination, the male migrants of intra-district migration is always lower than the inter-district migration for all the three districts in 1991, and a similar pattern is also observed for all the eight districts in 2001 Census.

Another important picture that emerges from the study is that the ratio of female intra-district migration to the total internal migration is higher than that of male. Similarly, the ratio of male inter-district migration to the total internal migration is higher than that of female.

From this table, it is found that the spatial distribution of intra-district and inter-district migrants reveal a similar pattern to those of total migrants. The higher share of intra-district migration may be due to the inclusion of female migration which is mainly short distance resulting from marriage. It is also observed that the share of inter-district migration is low in all the three districts. The reasons for the low inter-district migration may be due to –

- a) Mizoram is a hilly region dissected by innumerable streams and rivers. As a result, to undertake long distant movement is difficult.

- b) There is a poor road communication which must have acted as a prohibiting factor.

Migrants classified by direction of movements

The migrants can be classified into four categories :

- i) Rural to rural
- ii) Rural to urban
- iii) Urban to rural
- iv) Urban to urban

On the basis of their classification, the direction of the movements of migrants over the four Census periods is shown in the following table.

Table 4.4 : Direction of Movement in Mizoram 1971, 1981 and 1991 (In percentage)

	1971	1981		1991		2001	
		Intra-district	Inter-district	Intra-district	Inter-district	Intra-district	Inter-district
Rural to Rural	85.70 (49.64)	59.72 (49.24)	5.01 (51.42)	34.96 (41.22)	4.67 (49.64)	24.54 (50.43)	6.45 (52.49)
Rural to urban	12.57 (50.99)	26.91 (49.51)	2.40 (53.75)	41.42 (44.55)	3.74 (49.80)	22.52 (49.07)	20.49 (50.07)
Urban to rural	1.47 (30.33)	2.61 (51.40)	0.65 (56.39)	2.89 (48.93)	0.63 (55.25)	3.10 (54.09)	2.52 (53.44)
Urban to urban	0.27 (49.21)	1.60 (64.39)	1.10 (53.38)	9.55 (47.47)	2.14 (49.37)	9.82 (53.26)	10.55 (51.03)

*Source : Calculated from census of India migration table 1971, 1981, 1991 and 2001
Figure in the brackets indicate share of male migrants*

The percentage of rural to rural migration is very high in 1971, more than four-fifth of the total internal migration is shared by this category. This is due to the effect of forced grouping of villages by the government in 1967-70 while the urban centres were unaffected. The male migrants occupied a lower share in all the categories except in the case of rural to urban migration.

According to 1981 Census, the movement of Rural to rural direction was found to occur most frequently in internal migration mostly with short movement accounting for 64.73 percent of the total internal migrants. Rural to urban migration accounting for 29.31 percent of the total internal migrants mostly in the nature of short distance movement. Urban to rural movement was found to be 3.26 percent while that of urban to urban was 2.70 percent only. The male migrants were more or less the same with female migrants for the type of rural to rural and urban to urban. In 1981 census, the percentage of male migrants was higher than the female migrants in inter-district migration.

The reason why inter-district male migration was found to be higher than that of female was the larger opportunity for male to get

outside employment. Generally, educated males found employment in the urban centres and the rural workers shifted to urban in this way as and when such opportunities were available. On the other hand, it is customary for female to live with the family of her husband and if she happens to marry outside her village, movement is automatic. This is mainly the reason why female migration of rural to rural and urban to urban is higher.

The 1991 Census marked an important diversion of migration history in Mizoram as there has been unprecedented increase in rural to urban migration, accounting for the highest percentage (i.e. 45.16) of the total internal migrants. Increased opportunities of employment, education and business have been a pull factor attracting migration from rural to urban areas. Rural to rural migration occupied 39.63 percent only. The percentage of urban to rural is 9.52 percent only and that of urban to urban is 11.69 percent. The movements were usually short distances. However, the percentage of long distance migration i.e. inter district migration increased in 1991 Census.

In 2001 Census, rural to urban accounted for 43.01 percent of the total internal migration. Rural to rural migration was only 31 percent of the total internal migration while urban to urban migration occupied as much as 20.37 percent of the total internal migration. The share of urban to rural migration was only 5.62 percent. So far as the direction of movement is concerned, migration to urban centres increased, in 1971 Census. It was found that 12.84 percent of the total internal migrants moved from rural to urban places which increased to 32.01 percent in 1981 Census, and 56.85 in 1991 Census and finally to 63.38 percent in 2001 Census. This trend shows the urbanization that has been taking place during the last 40 years and it is likely to keep growing in view of the fast deterioration of rural economy.

On the composition of sex, share of male and female migrants were more or less the same. The male migrants always showed a lower share in short migration upto 1991 Census while in 2001 Census we found that male migrants occupying a higher share than female

Table 4.5 : Migration Streams for Top Ten States for Internal Migration by Last Residence Duration 0 to 9, 2001

Rank	Rural to rural	Rural to urban	Urban to rural	urban to urban
1	Bihar (79.9)	Mizoram (39.1)	Goa (26.7)	Tamil Nadu (27.4)
2	Jharkand (75.8)	Meghalaya (27.4)	Kerala (13.3)	Mizoram (25.5)
3	Assam (73.0)	Nagaland (26.8)	Nagaland (13.2)	Goa (21.9)
4	Himachal Pradesh (71.8)	Arunachal Pradesh (26.1)	Sikkim (11.8)	Nagaland (20.3)
5	Sikkim (70.8)	Gujarat (25.9)	Tamil Nadu (11.5)	Maharashtra (19.2)
6	Uttar Pradesh (69.8)	Tamil Nadu (23.3)	Meghalaya (11.0)	Punjab (15.5)
7	Rajasthan (67.2)	Haryana (21.9)	Mizoram (8.5)	Karnataka (15.3)
8	Chhattisgarh (69.2)	Maharashtra (21.2)	Andra Pradesh (8.4)	Gujarat (14.6)
9	Orissa (67.5)	Karnataka (21.2)	Maharashtra (8.2)	Arunachal Pradesh (12.9)
10	West Bengal (66.5)	Jammu & Kashmir (21.1)	Karnataka (7.4)	Manipur (12.5)

*Source : Census of India : Data Highlights – table D1,D2 & D3 CSI 2001 page 17
Figure in the bracket indicate percentage to total migrants for duration 0-9 years*

Rural to urban migration is the most important for migration streams in Mizoram. In terms of internal migration in the states of India, by last residence with duration less than 10 years, it was reported in Mizoram that as high as 32,555 persons were moving from rural to urban areas constituting 39.1 percent of internal migrants and ranked first, followed by Meghalaya (27.4 percent) and Nagaland (26.8 percent). For urban to rural migration, the report for Mizoram was 8.5 percent of the total internal migration and with 7th position in ranking and urban to

urban migration accounted for 25.5 percent of the total internal migration which ranked it second next to Tamil Nadu (27.4 percent).

The above discussion clearly indicates that urbanization plays a very important role for migrants in the state.

Table 4.6: Percentage of Variations of Migration During the Last Three Decades

	1971	1981	Variation (1971-81)	1991	Variation (1981-91)	2001	Variation (1991-01)
Rural to Rural	85.70	64.73	-24.47	39.63	-38.78	30.99	-21.80
Rural to urban	12.57	29.31	133.17	44.16	50.67	43.01	-2.60
Urban to rural	1.47	3.26	121.77	3.52	7.98	5.62	59.66
Urban to urban	0.27	2.70	900.00	11.69	332.96	20.37	74.25

Source : Calculated from Census of India, migration table, 1971, 1981, 1991 & 2001

The percentage of variation shows a very unique pattern in each decade. In 1971-81 Census we find a negative rate of 24.47 percent in the rural to rural migration. Urban to urban migration shows an increase by 900 percent during this decade, this may be due to the increase in the number of urban centres from 5(five) in 1971 to 21(twenty one) in 1981. In the decade of 1981-1991, rural to rural migration decreases by 38.78 percent. Increase in urban to urban migration still showed the highest percentage of variation attaining 332.96 percent which may be due to the

effect of Peace Accord the change in political atmosphere after signing the so called by the MNF and Govt. of India in 1986. Rural to rural migration was also growing importance and the increase rate was 50.67 percent. During the last decade (1991-2001), the rural to rural migration decreased by 21.80 percent. In terms of the number of migration, rural to urban migration plays the most important role for direction of movement, but the increase was reduced by 2.60 percent. The urban to urban migration still registered the highest increase rate, the percentage of variation being 74.25 percent. From this discussion, it can be inferred that the variation was due to the effect of grouping in 1968-69 and the upliftment of political statues to a statehood in 1987. The increase in urban migration is mainly due to urban-urban flows and rural-urban migration.

The percentage of urban to rural migration was 3.26 in 1981 census and a high percentage of variation registered during the decade may be due to the effect of grouping. The percentage of urban to rural migration was 5.62 percent in 2001 Census, and there was a high percentage of variation during the decade of 1991-2001. A high percentage of increase in urban to rural areas in the last decade has been

attributed to the policy of transfer and posting, retirement, illness or returning to parental home.

Table 4.7 : Persons Born in Other Districts 2001

Place of enumeration	Place of birth							
	Mamit	Kolasib	Aizawl	Champhai	Serchhip	Lunglei	Lawngtlai	Saiha
Mamit	0	5.56 (58.23)	57.91 (52.96)	8.82 (58.08)	3.22 (57.38)	22.56 (56.79)	0.51 (41.38)	0.55 (58.06)
Kolasib	9.14 (50.82)	0	66.75 (51.82)	11.69 (49.87)	3.35 (52.02)	7.03 (54.70)	0.72 (41.67)	0.99 (42.42)
Aizawl	10.42 (49.71)	11.53 (48.42)	0	42.74 (49.48)	15.01 (49.01)	15.07 (51.06)	1.13 (54.01)	2.64 (54.29)
Champhai	3.11 (51.40)	6.27 (51.85)	69.94 (52.07)	0	10.45 (52.22)	6.59 (54.19)	0.67 (56.52)	1.28 (59.09)
Serchhip	0.79 (43.90)	1.59 (57.83)	66.56 (50.48)	11.19 (51.11)	0	18.00 (50.00)	0.50 (46.15)	1.19 (56.45)
Lunglei	2.66 (53.16)	2.78 (53.33)	48.53 (52.77)	14.64 (53.10)	9.54 (50.09)	0	11.74 (48.57)	8.73 (51.83)
Lawngtlai	0.78 (61.90)	0.44 (66.67)	6.17 (56.16)	4.15 (56.25)	1.22 (56.06)	70.11 (52.14)	0	15.54 (50.72)
Saiha	4.76 (55.56)	1.76 (48.48)	26.56 (54.91)	11.87 (60.54)	3.89 (41.10)	28.85 (53.69)	24.85 (50.11)	0
Total migrants	6242	6675	17328	24825	9075	14871	1865	2899

Unclassified districts = 1071 persons

Source : Calculated from Census of India migration table DS-1500-016-D11-2001

Figures in the brackets indicate share of male migrants

From the above table, it is found that the number of out-migrants is the highest in Champhai district. The total number of persons who migrated from Champhai district to other district is recorded as high as 24825 which constituted 29.26 percent of the total out migrants. This is due to the result of illegal immigration from Myanmar and a high

proportion of outmigrants who claimed to come from Champhai district were in fact coming from Myanmar and they first used Champhai as a sheltering place. Migrants from Aizawl district constitute 20.42 percent of the total out migrants while Lunglei district constituted 17.53 percent.

For all the districts migrants from Aizawl district have been found to be the maximum in number except in Lawngtlai and Saiha, where migrants from Lunglei were found to be the largest in number in these two districts.

Table 4.8 : Persons Born in Other Districts (Rural & Urban) 2001

District	Place of enumeration		
	Total	Rural	Urban
Mamit	6.70 (54.62)	5.39 (54.90)	1.30 (53.48)
Kolasib	7.84 (51.56)	3.42 (50.52)	4.43 (52.36)
Aizawl	59.68 (49.72)	1.46 (49.92)	58.22 (49.72)
Champhai	4.06 (52.26)	2.04 (51.18)	2.02(53.36)
Serchhip	6.14 (50.56)	1.96 (48.71)	4.18 (51.42)
Lunglei	7.01 (52.06)	2.07 (53.87)	4.94 (51.23)
Lawngtlai	6.36 (52.30)	6.36 (52.30)	-
Saiha	2.21 (53.06)	0.52 (50.57)	1.69 (53.82)
Total	100 (50.75)	23.22 (52.21)	76.78 (50.31)

*Source : Calculated from CSI 2001 DS-1500-001-D01-2001
Figures in the brackets indicate share of male migrants*

From the table given above, more than three-fourth of the total internal migrants were concentrated in urban places. 59.68 percent of the total internal migrants migrated to Aizawl. 58.22 percent of the total internal migrants migrated to different parts of urban places in Aizawl districts. From the table it can be observed that no other centre in other districts contribute more than 10 percent. The next highest percentage of rural out migration was found in rural places of Lawngtlai district where there is no town classified as urban centre.

So far as the sex combination is concerned, the share of male and female were more or less same. The male component were slightly higher than the female component, the lower component of male migrants were found only in Aizawl district and rural places of Serchhip district.

Migrants on the basis of last residence

The internal migration that is studied so far is on the basis of place of birth only. Data have been collected on the basis of last residence to study the current pattern of migration. It is likely that after one moved out of the place of birth, one may continue to migrate from one place to

another. Study of migration by place of birth is like studying one time event. Therefore, the migration data by place of birth concept has certain limitations. Some of the limitations have been overcome by taking into account the last residence concept.

According to the place of last residence concept, total internal migrants are those – i) who moved from their place of last residence to the place of enumeration within the district itself, ii) between districts of a state.

On the basis of last residence concept, the internal migration occupied 41.5 percent of the total population in 1981 Census against 37.58 percent on the basis of place of birth concept, and 13.24 percent in 1991 Census against 12.5 percent on the basis of place of birth. In 2001 Census, the share of internal migration to the total population on the concept of last residence was 24.48 percent against 22.01 percent on the basis of place of birth. The higher percentage in last residence concept is due to a significant number of persons who go out for various reasons like education, as agricultural labourers on seasonal migration etc. but return to the place of birth and were found to be present at the time of

enumeration and thus were not migrants by place of birth but were migrants by last residence.

Table 4.9 : Percentage of Migrants to the Total Internal Migrants on the Basis of Last Residence and Duration of Residence in 2001

	Less than 1 year	1 – 4 years	5 – 9 years	10 – 19 years	Above 20 years	Period not stated
Mamit	6.42 (83.76)	40.47 (59.77)	10.52 (60.57)	12.52 (56.80)	25.95 (54.71)	4.12 (62.00)
Kolasib	4.03 (55.91)	41.15 (55.51)	23.75 (58.81)	16.53 (58.27)	8.16 (61.90)	6.38 (52.72)
Aizawl	5.12 (65.13)	38.27 (65.51)	20.52 (67.71)	21.26 (65.46)	12.17 (64.63)	2.66 (57.78)
Champhai	4.97 (83.17)	34.32 (56.67)	33.19 (51.78)	15.61 (55.84)	6.65 (63.70)	5.27 (59.81)
Serchhip	17.72 (80.00)	36.75 (78.68)	17.54 (76.60)	13.43 (73.61)	8.02 (79.07)	6.53 (68.57)
Lunglei	7.03 (63.74)	34.97 (74.48)	19.63 (74.61)	19.86 (75.88)	11.86 (76.87)	6.65 (72.67)
Lawngtlai	4.83 (52.78)	31.37 (79.91)	21.18 (79.75)	25.20 (82.45)	9.52 (77.46)	7.91 (81.36)
Saiha	4.55 (81.08)	29.12 (79.75)	22.73 (83.78)	19.16 (81.41)	10.32 (90.48)	14.13 (81.74)
Overall	5.42 (68.41)	38.02 (64.30)	20.59 (65.78)	19.23 (65.33)	12.57 (63.92)	4.17 (62.16)

*Source : Calculated from CSI ,Migration table D Series no. DS-1500-003-D02-2001
The figure in the bracket indicates male component.*

In the context of duration of residence in the place of enumeration, it was found that migration is most common within the class of 1 – 4

years duration. The percentage of migrants residing less than 5 years is 43.33 while the percentage of migrants residing more than 20 years is 12.57, hence, migrants do not usually settle down in the place of enumeration.

The above table also shows that the percentage of migrants residing in the place of enumeration less than 5 years is high compared to the duration of residence between 10-19 years which it is attributed to –

- i) The fast development of the state after attaining a statehood in 1987.
- ii) Peace agreement between the Indian government and the underground Mizo National Front in 1986.
- iii) The increase in the number of districts from three to eight in 1998 has resulted in the increase of post creation for district administration and some of the government employees were transferred to the new administrative capital.

Migrants classified by reason of migration

Migration occurs as a response to economic development and social change. Both the push and pull factors operate, inducing people to leave their place of normal residence. Till 1961 Census, migration data were presented with reference to place of birth only. The information on place of birth was collected since 1872. In 1961, the scope of collecting information on migration was enlarged by including the rural or urban status of the place of birth and duration of residence at the place of residence. Since 1971 Census, data have been collected on the basis of place of residence in addition to question on birth place.

The 1981 Census in India will be remembered as a landmark in the field of population statistics, for the first time it has made an attempt to collect information on the reason of migration. The reasons were broadly categorized as – i) employment ii) education iii) family moved iv) marriage and v) others. The same concepts were repeated in 1991 Census also, besides two more information – business and natural calamities have also been included. The pattern adopted in 2001 Census remained the same as in 1991 Census except that in 2001 Census, the category

Natural calamities as one of the reasons in 1991 Census was excluded and a new reason moved after birth has been added in 2001 Census.

Table 4.10 : Reasons of Migration in Percentage

		Employment	Business	Education	Family moved	Marriage	Natural calamities	others
1981	Rural	5.42 (83.40)	-	2.58 (60.38)	64.76 (49.09)	4.57 (8.65)	-	13.15 (53.66)
	Urban	1.92 (84.18)	-	0.27 (55.68)	4.70 (47.39)	0.40 (13.98)	-	1.58 (58.75)
1991	Rural	9.03 (79.21)	1.05 (57.93)	1.74 (55.36)	49.48 (40.08)	8.15 (7.95)	0.35 (52.78)	10.25 (50.14)
	Urban	4.71 (80.73)	0.34 (65.07)	0.80 (58.44)	8.86 (40.44)	1.63 (11.89)	0.04 (30.00)	3.13 (57.23)

2001 Census

	Work Employment	Business	Education	Marriage	Moved after birth	Move with household	Others
Rural	3.75 (75.48)	0.35 (64.71)	0.37 (58.86)	3.97 (17.16)	1.52 (54.32)	15.90 (48.58)	12.19 (56.53)
Urban	11.86 (75.17)	1.20 (57.76)	4.09 (55.29)	4.51 (7.05)	0.60 (52.92)	25.24 (43.93)	14.73 (52.50)

*Source : Calculated from Census of India, Migration table, Mizoram 1981, 1991, CSI, 2001 D-Series noDS-1500-006-D03-2001
Figures in the bracket indicate share of male migrants*

From table 4.11, migration due to family moved is the most important cause of migration. In 1981 Census, 64.76 percent of the total internal migration was found to be the result of family moved from rural areas. The reason of migration from rural areas due to employment accounted for 5.42 percent and due to marriage is 4.47 percent of the

total internal migration. In 1991 Census, migration due to family moved from rural areas occupied a lower percentage of the total internal migrants than in the previous census which stood at 49.48 percent still remain to the most important reason for migration. Migrants from rural areas declined every successive decadal census. In 2001 Census, it was recorded that 15.90 percent of the rural migrants reported of family moved as a reason for their migration. Migration due to employment from rural areas is increased from 5.42 percent in 1981 Census to 9.03 percent in 1991 Census and it was observed that there has been a decrease in percentage in 2001 Census occupying only 3.75 percent of the total internal migration.

So far as the migration from urban is concerned, it has been found that for every category is registered an increase in percentage of migration, this may be due to the increase in urban population and urban centres from 6 in 1971 Census to 21 in 1981 Census. The main reasons for migration are family moved and employment and it has been observed that migrations arising from family moved and from employment are positively correlated. This is because the family also moved to the place of employment of person in most cases. The reasons

reported as business and natural calamities in 1991 Census occupied only a fractional percentage to the total internal migrants, in 2001 Census these reasons are omitted. From the table, it is also found that, male migrants and female migrants in family moved are almost same in 1981 Census, and female migrants are higher in 1991 Census and 2001 Census. There is a high component of male in the reason categorized as employment and business. For female, the most important reason of migration is due to marriage. It can be concluded that marriage is the important reason for migration for female while employment and business are the important reasons of migration for male migrants. While counting of the reason of migration, military personnel are not to be asked the reason as per instruction of the census authority, the reason stated as others occupy a high percentage.

Migrant workers and non-workers

Migrants, reporting employment as a reason for migration have broadly been classified into three categories – main workers, marginal workers and non-workers. In fact, the migrants reporting employment as a reason for migration are more important from the economic point of

view. Hence the economic status of employment – classified on the basis of origin will throw some light in the status of migrants as given in the table below:

Table 4.11 : Migrants Classified by Workers and Non-Workers in 2001

Last Residence	Main workers	Marginal workers		Non-workers	
		Total	Seeking/ Available for work	Total	Seeking/ Available for work
Rural	42.03 (63.49)	9.66 (31.14)	1.66 (54.09)	21.47 (37.73)	1.47 (45.67)
Urban	13.08 (71.06)	3.06 (36.11)	0.63 (54.77)	10.70 (41.97)	0.80 (41.04)

*Source : Calculated from CSI,2001 D-Series no DS-1500-011-D06-2001
Figures in the bracket indicate male composition.*

From the table, migrants motivated in urban centres are less than rural areas. As revealed by the table in the column under main workers 42.03 percent of the total migrants in the rural said that employment in the reason for their migration while only 13.08 percent of urban migrants gave it as a reason. There is a high percentage of non-workers at 21.47 percent from rural areas and 10.70 percent from urban centres. Out of the category of non workers, 1.47 percent from rural areas and 0.80 percent from urban centres are available for work. Marginal workers are reported

to be as high as 9.66 percent from rural areas and 3.06 percent from urban centres. A high percentage of non-workers in urban centres indicate that pensioners and job seekers are concentrating in urban centres.

As depicted in the table, it was found that 63.49 percent of the main workers from rural areas and 71.06 percent from urban centres were male. Among the marginal workers the male components were 31.14 percent from rural areas and 36.11 percent from urban areas. In non-workers, the male component is as high as 37.73 percent from rural areas and 10.70 percent from urban centres.

It can be concluded that, migrants seeking for opportunity of work from rural areas were able to secure employment more frequently than from urban centres, it may also be said that urban peoples get their job at their place of residence and need not to migrate for employment in other places. The existence of a higher percentage of non-workers than marginal workers may be due return of pensioners to settle again in their original places. Among those who secured regular employment, the

number of male was in high majority. It is also evident that in the large majority of households, the male worker is found to be the sole income-earner. A high number of female in marginal workers indicates that most of the females were housewives whose work is confined to household activities only.

Table 4.12 : Percentage of Migrants Classified as Literate and Illiterate 2001

Last residence		Literate	Illiterate	Total
Total	Rural	54.78 (53.69)	11.19 (41.74)	
	Urban	21.49 (55.80)	2.71 (52.93)	
	Total	76.27 (54.28)	13.90 (44.07)	90.17*(52.68)
Rural	Rural	19.90 (56.21)	8.71 (41.46)	
	Urban	3.94 (57.75)	0.92 (50.12)	
Urban	Rural	34.88 (52.24)	2.48 (42.74)	
	Urban	17.54 (55.36)	1.72 (54.37)	

Source : Calculated from CSI 2001, D-Series no. DS-1500-009-D04-2001

Figures in the bracket indicates male percentage

**The remainder of the percentage indicates unclassified rural and urban.*

The above table clearly reveals that literate migrants were more numerous than illiterate migrants on account of the fact that the literacy percentage of Mizoram is very high. Literate migrants from rural places

occupy 54.78 percent of the total migrants while 11.19 percent of the total migrants were illiterate migrants from rural places. Literate migrants from urban places occupy 21.49 percent of the total migrants and 2.71 percent of the total migrants were illiterate migrants from urban places.

In the rural sector, 19.90 percent of the total migrants were literate migrants from rural places i.e. rural to rural migration, while 8.71 percent of the total migrants were illiterate migrants from rural areas. 3.94 percent of the total migrants were literate migrants from urban centres and 0.92 percent of the total migrants were illiterate migrants from urban centres.

In urban places, 34.88 percent of the total migrants were literate migrants from rural places, while 2.48 percent only of the total migrants were illiterate migrants from rural places. 17.54 percent of the total migrants were literate migrants from urban places. 1.72 percent of the total migrants were illiterate migrants from urban places.

Regarding the sex combination, literate male migrants were higher than that of female while illiterate female migrants were higher than

illiterate male migrants. This may be due to the literacy percentage of female was less than male literacy percentage.

It can be concluded that, migrants from rural places were more important than migrants from urban places.

Table 4.13 : Educational Level of the Migrant Workers in 2001

Place of Enumeration	Last Residence	Total	A	B	C	D	E
Total	Rural	59.89 (73.66)	65.50 (72.32)	20.54 (73.37)	0.57 (80.70)	9.50 (81.61)	2.64 (87.40)
	Urban	40.11 (75.78)	52.59 (78.03)	25.22 (69.15)	1.29 (83.72)	14.51 (76.60)	4.48 (83.01)
Rural	Rural	62.85 (77.29)	59.34 (77.50)	24.34 (73.13)	0.34 (88.89)	11.11 (83.22)	2.89 (93.42)
	Urban	37.15 (78.06)	50.00 (83.66)	27.80 (65.51)	0.77 (100)	14.09 (79.45)	5.86 (85.71)
Urban	Rural	58.90 (72.37)	67.72 (70.68)	19.17 (73.54)	0.66 (79.17)	8.93 (80.25)	2.54 (84.95)
	Urban	41.10 (75.09)	53.38 (76.43)	24.44 (70.41)	1.45 (81.08)	14.64 (75.77)	5.25 (82.09)

A – Literate but below Matric/Secondary

B – Matric/Secondary but below graduate

C – Technical diploma or certificate not equal to degree

D – Graduate and above other than technical degree

E – Technical degree or diploma equal to degree or post-graduate degree

Source : Calculated from CSI 2001, D-Series no. DS-1500-009-D04-2001

From the table 4.15, it is found that percentage of migration is much higher among the lower education level. More than half of the total migrant workers were literate but below matric / Secondary. 65.50 percent of the migrants from rural areas were literate but below matric and the percentage migrants having below matriculation level of education is 53.59 percent. Technical Education did not figure at all with a minimal percentage of migration. On comparing the percentage to the total migrants in respect of educational level, migrants from rural areas accounted for a higher percentage than migrants from urban places in the case of lower educational level, while in the case of higher educational level the percentage share of migrants from urban centre is much higher than that of the rural areas.

¹ Kundu, A and Gupta, S (1996) *Migration, urbanisation and regional inequality*. Economic and Political Weekly, December 28, pp 3391-98

² Srivastava, R.S. and Bhattacharya, S (2002) *Globalisation, Reforms and Internal Labour Mobility : Analysis of Recent Indian Trends*. Paper presented at a seminar 'Labour Mobility and Globalising World: Conceptual and Empirical Issues'. September 18-19 2002, V V Giri National Labour Institute, ISLE, and IHD

CHAPTER – V

EXTERNAL MIGRATION

External migration refers to migrants from other states and countries to Mizoram. Before the British expeditions, the land was originally occupied by the Mizo and its clans classified as Tribals. Non-tribals are migrants from other land. The imbalanced growth rates between the tribal population and the general population in Mizoram is apparent. It may be due to either inter-state migration or an illegal influx of population from other countries or both. The following table gives the percentage of tribals and non-tribals from 1961 census.

Table 5.1 : Non-Tribals Population of Mizoram

	Percentage of tribal to total population	Percentage of non-tribal to total population	Growth rate of tribal population	Growth rate of non-tribal population
1961	98.10	1.90	-	-
1971	94.26	5.74	20.03	278.11
1981	93.54	6.44	47.42	66.55
1991	94.75	5.23	41.51	13.82
2001	94.46	5.51	28.42	35.37

*Source : Calculated from CSI 1961, 1971, 1981, 1991 and 2001
No of Scheduled caste in the state is negligible*

From the above table it may be observed that the percentage of non-tribal population in 1961 Census which was very small, numbering only 5049 persons, witnessed a three fold increase in between 1961 and 1971 Census. This abnormal increase in non-tribals population is most probably due to migration. The decrease in percentage of non-tribal population in 1981 Census to 1991 Census may be due to the effect of the Peace Accord in 1986 resulting in migration of a large number of Bangladeshi Tribals called Chakmas who migrated to Mizoram claiming themselves as originating from Mizoram. It has also been found that there is an increase in the non-tribal population in 2001 Census as compared to 1991 Census, which may perhaps be due to the development of the State.

Table 5.2 : Percentage of Population According to Major Religion in Mizoram

	Christian	Buddhists	Hindus	Muslims
1981	83.81	8.19	7.14	0.45
1991	85.73	7.83	5.04	0.66
2001	86.97	7.93	3.55	1.14

Source : Calculated from Statistical hand book Mizoram 1986 and 2006

From the above table it may also be observed that the percentage of Christians and Muslims has increased while that of the Hindus has decreased. The decrease in percentage of Hindus may be caused by the fact that migrations from Nepal and other states has not increased while an increase in the percentage of Muslims clearly indicates that there is an increase in migrants from the nearby districts of Assam. The Buddhists are mainly Chakmas settled in the western part of Mizoram along the border of Chitagong Hills Tract of Bangladesh where bulk of the them reside.

Table 5.3 : Percentage of External Migrants to Total Population 2001

District	Percentage to total migrants	to ext. to total population
Mamit	8.99	7.98
Kolasib	10.72	9.06
Aizawl	47.93	8.20
Champhai	12.76	6.56
Serchhip	2.00	2.07
Lunglei	9.65	3.92
Lawngtlai	3.34	2.53
Saiha	4.61	4.21
Total	100	6.27

Source : Calculated from CSI 2001 DS-1500-001-D01-2001

From the table above, it has been observed that Aizawl district accommodates the largest number of external migrants (inter-state and

international) with 47.93 percent of the total external migrants. Champhai and Kolasib receives 12.76 percent and 10.72 percent of the total external migrants respectively. As a proportion to the total population of the district, Kolasib receives the highest number of external migrants, which is 9.06 percent of the total population of the district. In Aizawl and Mamit districts, external migrants occupy 8.2 percent and 7.98 percent of the total population respectively.

Inter-State Migration

On the basis of place of birth, the total inter-state migration in India constitute 13.79 percent of the total migrants, which is 4.12 percent of the total Indian population while percentage of inter-state migrants constitute 13.11 percent on the basis of last residence concept.

Mizoram receives migrants mainly from the neighbouring states of North-East. Due to Inner Line Permit¹ and lack of transportation, migration to Mizoram for the plain people is not easy. The causes for inter-state migration may differ from one area to another. Majority of the migrants are not highly educated, employment opportunities being an important reason of migration. The state is agriculturally backward and

has no big industries. All finished products are imported from other states. Due to problems in transportation, cost of living is higher than other Indian States, hence, the daily wage rate for labour is higher than other Indian States. Though the state does not produce significant finished products, the people are advanced and educated and also the population is sparsely distributed. Other Indian states are densely populated resulting in unemployment and underemployment and have unlimited supply of labour which is available at the subsistence wage rate. Lack of employment and lower wage rate in their home states attracts the labourers to go to Mizoram. There is no division of class or sex in Mizo society, hence, the state receives a good number of migrants from other states.

On the basis of place of birth the total migrants into Mizoram from other states and Union Territories are 35,293 only in 2001 Census i.e. 3.97 percent of the total population of the state, out of which male migrants are 22,907 (64.91 percent). High components of male migrants indicate that migration is mainly due to work and employment. As the state is at the tip of North East India, transportation is difficult and inner line permit is required for plain people. Migrants from the neighbouring

states are higher in comparison with migrants from the rest of the country.

Table 5.4 : Migrations from Other States 2001

	Persons	p.c to total migrants
Assam	13067 (74.39)	37.02
Manipur	9640 (53.54)	27.31
Tripura	3308 (54.90)	9.37
Meghalaya	2084 (52.11)	5.91
Jharkhand	1708 (90.63)	4.84
Bihar	1543 (79.52)	4.37
West Bengal	751 (66.71)	2.13
Uttar Pradesh	466 (62.88)	1.32
Kerela	431 (55.68)	1.22
Nagaland	404 (50.00)	1.15
Others	1891 (58.80)	5.36
Total Migrants	35293	

Source : Calculated from CSI 2001 migration table D Series no. DS-1500-006-D03-2001

The figures in the parenthesis give component of male migrants.

Others include all other states in India not mentioned in the column.

From table 5.4 it may be observed that most migrants come from the North Eastern States in general and the neighbouring state in particular. Assam contributes more than one third of the total inter-state migrants occupying 37.02 percent of the total inter-state migrants

followed by Manipur and Tripura with 27.31 and 9.37 percent respectively.

Migrants from Assam are usually from the nearby Assam districts of Cachar, Karimganj and Hailakandi. Although they claim they are coming from Assam, some of them are from Bangladesh².

Table 5.5 : Distributions of Inter-State Migrants in Different Districts in 2001

	Total	Rural	Urban
Aizawl	57.59 (65.62)	15.69 (58.26)	84.31 (66.98)
Champhai	5.75 (56.87)	83.01 (53.91)	16.99 (71.30)
Kolasib	13.06 (57.09)	52.04 (54.65)	47.96 (59.74)
Lawngtlai	2.11 (79.09)	2.11 (79.09)	-
Lunglei	7.33 (74.57)	17.66 (74.84)	82.34 (74.52)
Mamit	10.32 (59.80)	88.47 (58.22)	11.53 (71.90)
Saiha	2.32 (82.43)	17.94 (87.67)	82.06 (81.28)
Serchhip	1.52 (77.24)	27.98 (84.67)	72.02 (74.35)
Total	100 (64.90)	33.99 (59.53)	66.01 (67.67)

Source : Calculated from CSI 2001 migration table D Series no. DS-1500-016-D11-2001

The figures in the parenthesis give component of male migrants.

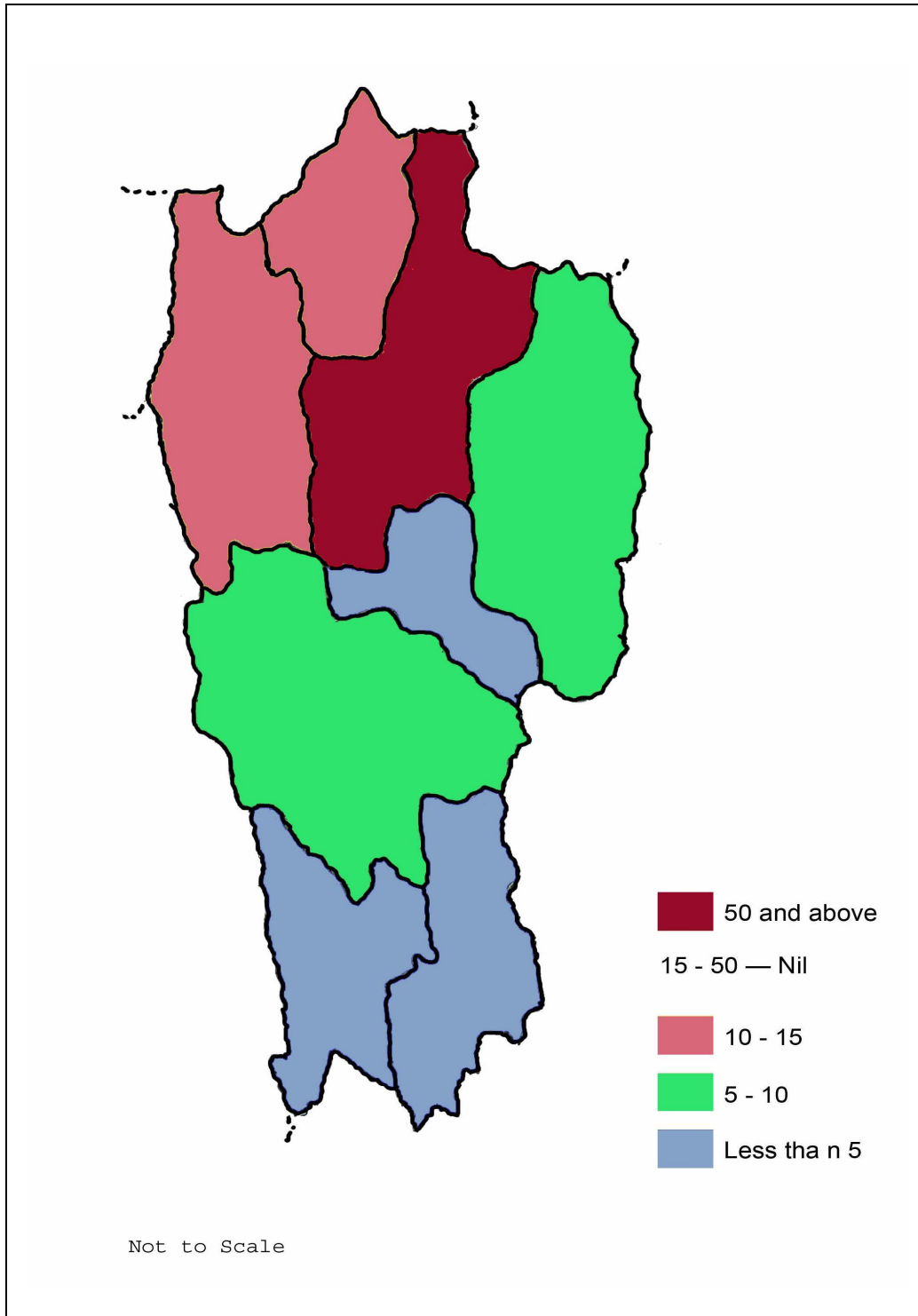


Fig5.1 : Mizoram; Percentage Distribution of Interstate Migrants

The above table shows the distribution of migrants in different districts, where 57.59 percent of the total inter-state migrants are concentrated in mostly urban places of Aizawl district. This is due to the more advantageous location of Aizawl which is the capital of the state and is able to attract lot of inter-state migrants on account of its increasing regional as well as commercial importance. Other attractive districts for inter-state migrants are Kolasib and Mamit districts. Kolasib district is the bordering district of Assam connected by the national highway³, where lots of migrants from Assam are settled. Mamit is also located on the bordering area of Assam and Tripura, most migrants from rural areas of Tripura are Riang or Bru who are semi nomadic in nature have mostly settled in rural areas of Mamit district. Migrants in Lunglei district are mostly settled in urban centres due to the location of Lunglei which is the second most important town of the state, and migrants from other states are concentrated due to place of posting. Champhai district which is neighbouring Manipur receives 5.75 percent of the total inter-state migrants mostly coming from Manipur. Majority of them are Mizo clans settled in rural areas of Manipur and they leave their Manipur home states mainly due to problems of insurgency and inter-tribe rivalry.

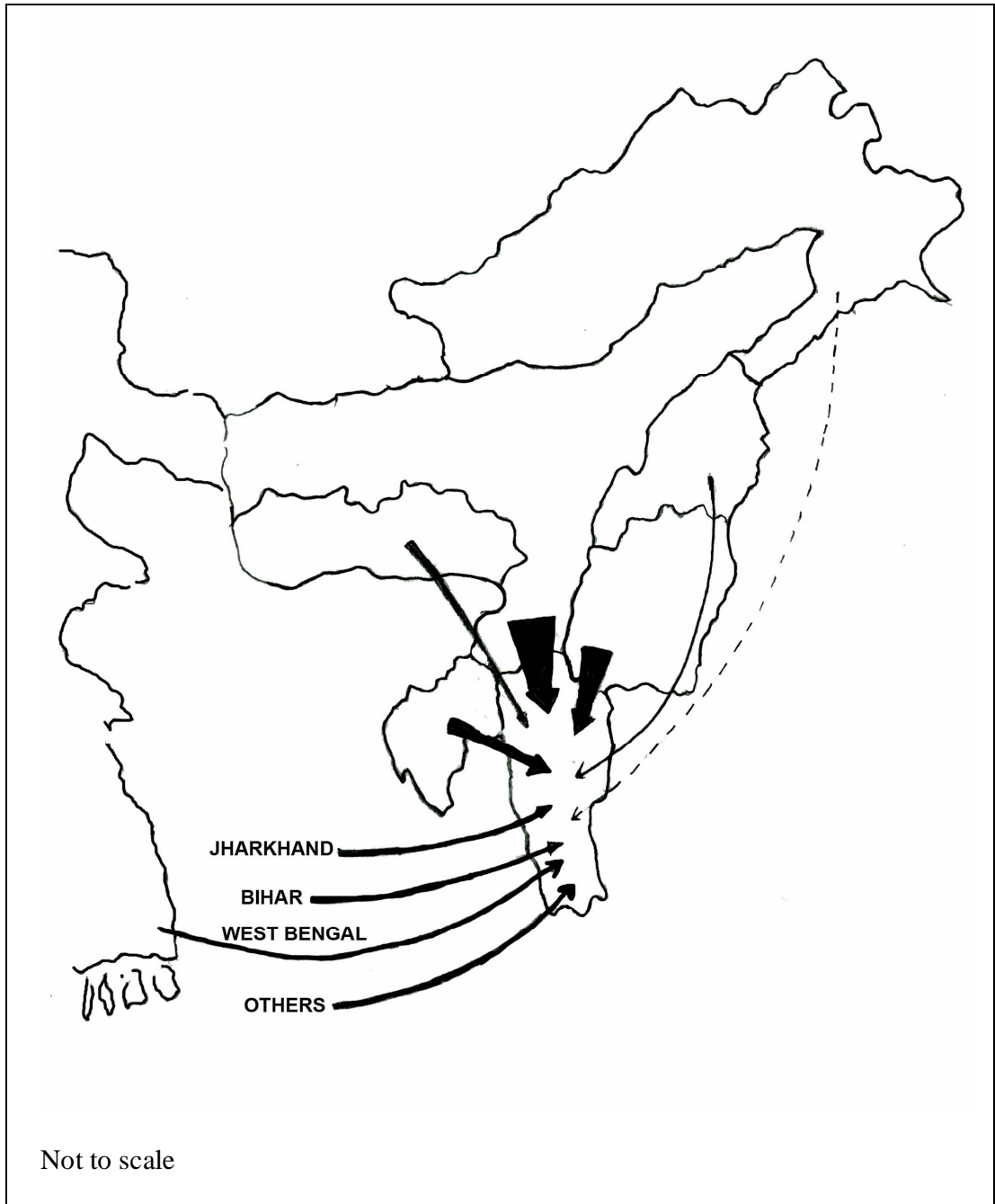


Fig5.2 : Pattern of Migration into Mizoram from other states

Table 5.6 : Economic Characteristics of Inter-State Migrants 2001

	Work/ Em- ployment	Bussiness	Education	Marriage	Move after birth	Move with household	Others
Assam	51.46 (93.19)	4.48 (95.90)	1.03 (60.00)	4.79 (11.18)	0.73 (53.68)	21.91 (45.20)	15.60 (68.54)
Manipur	17.43 (75.00)	1.78 (66.86)	3.44 (47.89)	5.29 (16.08)	0.57 (47.27)	48.56 (48.60)	22.93 (56.29)
Tripura	18.56 (79.15)	1.12 (86.49)	5.29 (54.29)	8.25 (17.22)	0.73 (33.33)	48.55 (50.44)	17.50 (58.38)
Meghalaya	23.08 (72.56)	2.45 (60.78)	3.89 (49.38)	6.53 (12.50)	1.58 (45.45)	46.93 (45.50)	15.55 (58.33)
Jharkhand	69.96 (98.58)	0.41 (100)	0.29 (60.00)	2.75 (40.43)	0.23 (62.50)	7.90 (35.56)	18.44 (92.38)
Bihar	54.31 (92.26)	4.41 (95.59)	0.91 (57.14)	5.70 (13.64)	0.52 (62.50)	17.43 (38.66)	16.72 (84.50)
West Bengal	40.88 (93.81)	4.13 (74.19)	1.86 (64.29)	11.58 (14.94)	9.85 (24.32)	22.90 (37.21)	16.25 (77.05)
Uttar Pradesh	35.41 (90.91)	1.07 (80.00)	1.50 (100)	8.15 (5.26)	1.50 (42.86)	32.40 (41.06)	19.96 (69.85)
Kerala	40.14 (82.66)	0.46 (50.00)	0.46 (100)	11.14 (4.17)	3.71 (81.25)	29.93 (35.88)	14.15 ((55.74)
Nagaland	23.02 (65.59)	0.74 (66.67)	9.41 (42.11)	2.23 (100)	0.74 (33.33)	47.52 (45.31)	16.34 (53.03)
Total	36.34 (89.38)	2.83 (87.30)	2.54 (52.12)	5.57 (14.46)	0.83 (50.00)	33.62 (46.45)	18.27 (64.54)

Source : Calculated from CSI 2001 migration table D Series no. DS-1500-006-D03-2001

The figures in the parenthesis give component of male migrants.

From the table 5.6 it may be found that migrants reported work or employment as the most important reason for migration occupying 36.48 percent of the total inter-district migrants while move with household occupy 33.62 percent. Work or Employment as a reason is the most

important reason for migration from Assam which is the largest contributor of inter-state migration. This is due to engagement of a large number of the unskilled and semi-skilled labour in construction works, especially of RCC (Reinforced Cement Concrete) works. The important reason for migration from Tripura and Manipur is 'moved with household', the reason being that the nearby inhabitants of the state with similar culture and language have usually settled in rural places and migrate freely along with their family. A high percentage of work or employment for migrants from Jharkhand and Bihar is due to the fact that most of them are engaged in construction of Highway Roads under BRTF (Border Road Task Force) while some are engaged as labourers in cattle farming. Kerala which is the farthest from Mizoram contributes more migrants than the North Eastern states like Nagaland and Arunachal. This may be due to the migration on transfer or posting of religious leaders of the Roman Catholic Church. Kerala has the highest literacy rate in India and a great number from the state have migrated to North Eastern states for employment, where the Christian population is high and most of them are engaged as teachers in Schools and colleges.

So far as the sex combination is concerned, work or employment is the main reason for migration for male migrants while marriage remain the most important reason for migration of women or female migrants. 'Family moved' may also be an important reason for migration for female as the workers of male migrants bring their family along with them.

Table 5.7 : Percentage Distribution of Inter-State Migrants Reporting Employment as Reason for Migration by Educational Level for Duration Less Than 10 years in 2001

	Rural	Urban	Total
Total	21.97 (81.06)	78.03 (96.05)	100 (87.81)
Illiterate	32.84 (65.97)	11.58 (96.05)	16.26 (86.95)
Literate but below matric / secondary	50.53 (83.32)	65.00 (89.89)	61.82 (91.13)
Below graduate	9.65 (80.43)	11.79 (84.79)	11.32 (83.20)
Technical diploma or certificate not equal to degree	0.47 (100)	0.68 (97.83)	0.63 (94.55)
Graduate and above other than technical degree	4.88 (90.32)	8.79 (79.16)	7.93 (80.67)
Technical degree or diploma equal to degree or PG degree	1.63 (83.87)	2.16 (81.51)	2.04 (81.92)

Source : Calculated from CSI 2001 Migration Table D-Series No. DS-1500-012-D07-2001

The figures in the parenthesis give component of male migrants.

Out of 12,826 persons who reported employment as reason for migration, 70.03 percent of them stayed for a duration less than 10 years while 78.03 percent of them for duration of less than ten years and concentrating mainly in urban places. Illiterate migrants constitute 16.26 percent, majority of which are Riang people usually settled in rural areas. High percentage of short duration stay indicate that migration during the decades of 1991 to 2001 was high, mainly due to the effect of Peace Accord signed in 1986 and rapid development of the State after attaining statehood in 1987. Table 5.7 shows that 61.82 percent of the employment motivated migrants are literate but below the matriculate level which clearly indicates that among the employment motivated migrants, educational level is low. This is due to the fact that in Mizoram a large number of unskilled and semi-skilled labourers are engaged in the construction of buildings and bridges usually Reinforced Concrete Cement works. A high percentage of illiterate migrants in rural areas are migrants from the rural areas of their home state. We also found that there are some highly educated migrants mostly concentrated in urban areas which may be due to place of posting.

Out Migrants from Mizoram

A modest attempt has been made here to highlight the nature of out migration from Mizoram i.e. migration from Mizoram. Migration from Mizoram usually takes place to the neighbouring states.

Table 5.8 : Out-Migrants from Mizoram, 2001

States	P.c to total
Tripura	77.48 (51.29)
Assam	4.90 (50.59)
Meghalaya	4.36 (42.48)
Maharashtra	1.65 (59.30)
Uttaranchal	1.52 (36.15)
Delhi	1.37 (56.49)
West Bengal	1.21 (60.23)
Manipur	1.19 (48.05)
Others	6.32 (52.71)
Total	100 (51.44)

Source : Calculated from Census of India 2001, Migration Table all D Series.

The figures in the parenthesis give component of male migrants.

Out of a total out migrants from Mizoram to other states constituting 36,513 persons, 77.48 percent of them migrated to Tripura. This is due to the effect of large influx of Riang in Mizoram to Tripura.

Out migrants to Assam and Meghalaya occupy 4.90 percent and 4.36 percent of the total out migrants from Mizoram respectively. Due to counter insurgency operation in Mizoram a large number of Mizos were uprooted and grouped in the so called protected and progressive villages. This had a direct effect on the Mizo economy and many of them left Mizoram⁴, and settled in the neighbouring states. Many of the Mizo youths were recruited to Assam Regiment and Assam Rifles and settled in and around Shillong after attaining retirement. Beside this, the only connecting highway and most important road connected to Mizoram passes through Cachar district of Assam and Meghalaya, it is easier to migrate to Assam and Meghalaya than other north eastern states. High percentage of out migrants to states other than those in North Eastern region shows that migrants to these states are because of employment as well as education.

International Migration

All the north eastern states are experiencing alarming illegal migrants from foreign countries which has become a common problem. International migrants in this area usually come from the nearby

countries like Nepal, Bhutan, Bangladesh and Myanmar. Mizoram with more than three fourths of its area bounded by international boundary, therefore receives a good number of international migrants.

Table 5.9 : Distribution of International Migrants in Different Districts, 2001

	Persons	p.c to total
Aizawl	19460 (48.89)	31.41
Champhai	20212 (48.47)	32.63
Kolasib	1028 (70.04)	1.65
Lawngtlai	2624 (55.64)	4.24
Lunglei	8344 (56.51)	13.47
Mamit	2496 (61.70)	4.03
Saiha	6484 (47.81)	10.47
Serchhip	1300 (54.77)	2.10
Total	61948 (50.93)	100

*Source : Calculated from Census of India 2001, <http://www.censusindia.gov.in>
The figures in the parenthesis give component of male migrants.*

On the basis of last residence concept, the number of persons reported as international migrants are 61,948 comprising 6.97 percent of the total population of the state. The total migrants on the basis of place of birth are 17,160 which is 1.93 percent of the total population. The reason may be due to the fact that majority of Myanmarese claim

themselves to be born in some eastern part of Mizoram bordering Myanmar. Most migrants coming from Asia comprise 99.86 percent of the total international migration. Myanmar alone contributes as high as 84.08 percent of the total international migration while Nepal and Bangladesh contribute 9.61 percent and 6.01 percent respectively. Migrants are mostly concentrated in Aizawl district and Champhai district comprising 31.41 percent and 32.62 percent of the total international migrants respectively.

Migrants concentrated more in Aizawl district due to the location advantage of the place and Aizawl, the state capital is the most important commercial centre of the State while Champhai town is the most important centre of foreign trade between India and Myanmar.

International migrants are usually coming from Bangladesh, Myanmar and Nepal The following table shows the distribution of migrants from these countries in different districts.

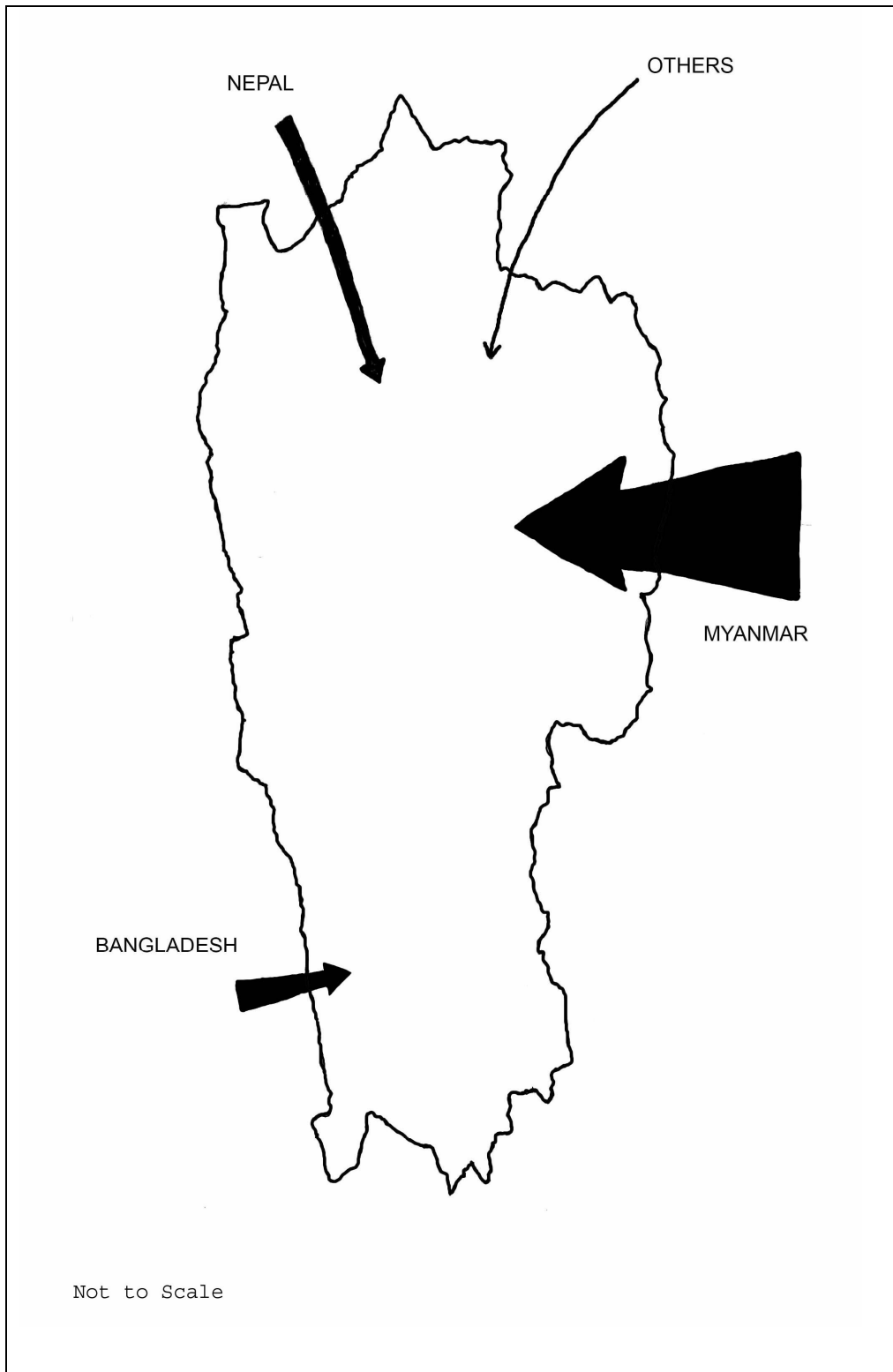


Fig5.3 : Pattern of International migration

Table 5.10 : Percentage of Distribution of Migrants from Bangladesh, Myanmar and Nepal in 2001

	Bangladesh	Myanmar	Nepal
Aizawl	10.08 (52.38)	28.91 (44.11)	60.16 (68.12)
Champhai	0.00	38.65 (48.30)	1.68 (92.00)
Kolasib	1.61 (60.00)	1.14 (68.92)	6.33 (73.40)
Lawngtlai	30.46 (54.77)	2.75 (55.03)	0.61 (100)
Lunglei	21.74 (48.02)	12.30 (53.72)	18.51 (78.91)
Mamit	27.66 (48.64)	2.02 (64.64)	6.59 (86.73)
Saiha	0.22 (50.00)	11.89 (45.80)	4.85 (90.28)
Serchhip	0.22 (0.00)	2.34 (53.29)	1.28 (84.21)
Total	6.01 (51.13)	84.08 (48.30)	9.61 (73.55)

*Source : Calculated from Census of India 2001, <http://www.censusindia.gov.in>
The figures in the parenthesis give component of male migrants.*

From table 5.10 it may be observed that the district of Aizawl receives a good number of migrants from all the three countries. Champhai district receives a huge number of migrants from Myanmar while migrants from Bangladesh is nil. This is because the only connecting road between Mizoram and Myanmar is located in this district. The districts of Lawngtlai, Mamit and Lunglei receive good number of migrants from Bangladesh for these three districts are the bordering districts with Bangladesh.

Table 5.11 : Percentage of Reason for Migration, 2001

Reason	Percentage to total international migrants
Work/Employment	18.67 (65.33)
Business	4.23 (53.36)
Education	0.60 (66.67)
Marriage	9.66 (17.14)
Moved after birth	0.42 (58.46)
Moved with household	40.04 (46.98)
Others	26.38 (58.28)

Source : Calculated from Census of India 2001, <http://www.censusindia.gov.in>

The figures in the parenthesis give component of male migrants.

From the above table it may be observed that the most important reason for migration is family moved occupying 40.04 percent of the total international migrants while 26.38 percent of the total international migration do not specify their reasons for migration. High percentages of family moved and unspecified reasons indicate that Mizoram receives good number of illegal migrants from other countries. Marriage is an important reason for migration for females.

Analysis of Chakma Population in Mizoram

Chakmas who are the original inhabitants of the Chittagong Hill Tracts of Bangladesh⁵ have been passing through very critical phase of their political history and play a very important role in Mizoram. The first Chakma immigration took place around 1895-1905 when Chief Zekhupa, son of Vannawla chief of Lunginkhar (now Bangladesh) occupied Muallianpui Tlang with his subjects along with Chakma families. It is alleged that some of them came to Mizo Hills in order to escape the consequences of the infringement of law and order which they committed under their own chief in East Bengal⁶. The government learnt that there were a large number of illegal immigrants sheltered by the Mizo chiefs so as to get more tax. As a result, in 1928, the government issued a Standing Order that Non-Lushais (Non-Mizos) should pay a Foreigner Tax of Rs 5 per year to the government⁷. It may be noted further that the British government, on temporary basis, gave land to Tangchangya sub-tribe of the Chakmas named Debicharan by cutting off Bawtlira's land⁸. Again in 1937, the government notified that non-Lushais should pay a house tax of Rs 5 per annum to the government⁹. Though the registration of Foreign Act was implemented, owing to the

lack of farsightedness of the Mizo chiefs, within five decades the Chakmas outnumbered the indigenous people within the chiefs domains of Vaseitlang, Muallianpui, Tiante, Saizawh, Serhmun, Saisih and Sirte¹⁰.

A great wave of Chakma infiltration took place from 1936 to 1944. The main reasons were the Second World War and the greediness of the Mizo chiefs. Because of this, certain principles were made to deal with Chakma settlement in the South Hills of Mizoram. In fact the partition of India had greatly changed the political situation of East Pakistan,¹¹ which considerably altered the attitude of the Chakmas living in the Chittagong Hills. The colonial power was also politically responsible for the coming of the Chakmas into Mizoram. They snatched away some parts of their lands or they abolished some chiefs in order to accommodate some Chakmas. Such cases had occurred in 1934 when British portioned out Serhmun which was then given to Debicharan, a Tangchangya Chakma. They also transferred Lunginkhar, Saichar, Mahmuam and Bawrkawlh to Chakma Chief Ang Mong.¹² As a result, the Chakmas started to cross the border land in swarms seeking a new home in India.

Table 5.12 : Yearly Total Population and Growth Rate of the Population of Chakma

Year	Growth rate of Total population	Chakma population	Percentage to total population	Growth rate
1901	-	128	0.15	
1911	10.64	306	0.34	139
1921	7.90	608	0.62	98.69
1931	26.42	936	0.75	53.94
1941	22.81	5088	3.33	443.58
1951	28.42	11435	5.83	124.75
1961	35.61	19377	7.28	69.45
1971	24.92	22393	6.74	15.53
1981	48.54	39696	8.04	77.27
1991	39.69	54,217	7.86	36.58
2001	28.82	71238	8.01	31.39

Source : Calculated from a) Census of India, 1961,1971, 1981, 1991, 2001
b) Statistical handbook 1996, 2005
c) Data collected by JV Hluna¹³

From table 5.2 the rates of growth of Mizoram and Chakma peoples may be noted, and it may be observed that the increase in Chakma population is much higher than the increase in the total population of Mizoram. The first and second census show the Chakma population in Mizoram is quite low and practically negligible to total

population. However, more than five fold increase was found in the decade of 1931-1941. The growth of Chakma population cannot be attributed to natural increase. It is because of illegal migration. The growth rate of Chakma population is always higher than the growth rate of total population. It may therefore be concluded that the rise in the population of Chakma is due to their illegal influx from Bangladesh.

During Bangladesh liberation movement of 1971-72, the government of Bangladesh created a problem for Non Muslims in the country and a large chunk of Chakmas from Chitagong Hills Tract found their way to Mizoram and Tripura¹⁴.

In 1988, Bangladesh parliament (Jotya Samsad) declared Islam as a state religion. Its rationale was based on more than 90 million population of the country¹⁵. Bangladesh has more than 10 million Hindus and there are few Buddhist and other religious communities. The people of the Chitagong Hills Tracts are Buddhist Chakmas. But the government's policy to declare Islam as the state religion was criticised by the minority communities and the major opposition parties that believed in the secular nature of the state. Since the Hindus and

Buddhists were frightened by such a state policy, a large number of Hindus including Buddhists Chakmas were reported to have migrated to India.

Population reported as migrants from Bangladesh residing in Mizoram are very few. By comparing the growth rate of the Chakma population and the total population, it may be perceived wrong reporting may be the reason for the less number of migrants from Bangladesh. The Chakmas claim that the actual number of population was 52,000 in 1971 and 71,000 in 1991¹⁶. If this estimation is correct, it is evident that the number of influx of Chakmas in Mizoram was quite large.

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- ¹ The inner Line Regulation of 1873 and the Chin Hills Regulation of 1896 required the plains people a special permit to enter and stay in the Hills
- ² The information was received from Abdul Hague, a senior skilled labour in Aizawl.
- ³ National Highway no.54 plying between Silchar, capital of Cachar and Tuipang, a village in South Mizoram
- ⁴ I.J.S. Jaswal and Choudhuri S.S Datta(1986) *Biological Demography in North East India in The Pattern and Problems of Population in North-East India.*, B Datta Ray (Ed) Uppal Publishing House, New Delhi p 22
- ⁵ R.H.S. Hutchinson, *The Chittagong Hill Tracts*, (Vivek Publishing Co. Delhi) p 21
- ⁶ F.Lianchhinga,(2004) *The coming and Settlement of Chakmas* in Sangkima (Ed) *Cross- border Migration* Shipra Publications Delhi p 18
- ⁷ A.G McCall, *The Lushai Hills Distric Cover (1938-1939)*, (reproduced by Raltawna, Deputy Commissioner, Aizawl District 1987-88) p492
- ⁸ F Lianchhinga op.cit., p 19
- ⁹ A.G McCall op.cit., p111
- ¹⁰ Ibid., 112
- ¹¹ Chawngkunga. C.,(1983) *Chakma Settlement in Mizoram*,
- ¹² R.H.S Hutchinson, op.cit., p24
- ¹³ J.V Hluna;(1983) *A Search for Mizo Identity*, Synod Press, Aizawl, pp 244-45
- ¹⁴ Biman Kar,(1988) *Socio-Economic Implicaitions of the migration – Dominated High population growth rates of North East India* in Datta Roy., B., (Ed) *The pattern and problems of education in North East India* Uppal Publishing House New Delhi, . P288
- ¹⁵ Lok Raj Pal,(1990) *South Asia : Interstate migration, Ethnicity & Society*, Steerling Publisher Pvt. Ltd New Delhi, p134
- ¹⁶ Lianchhinga F., op.cit., p25

CHAPTER – VI

ECONOMIC IMPACT OF MIGRATION

The plan of economic impact studies falls under three categories consisting of internal migrants, inter-state migrants and international migrants. This is found convenient on account of easy identifiability for the purpose of analysis. Migration of the population took place under the force of circumstances which are quite differing in nature, all of which cannot be attributed to economic effects.

Consequences of Internal Migration

In chapter VII, we have dealt with urbanization process and in this chapter, we shall deal with the case of rural migration. It is thus attempted to study how the rural migration is related to the economic and socio-cultural environments. By economic effects we mean the opportunity of earning livelihood and improving one's living standard. Socio-cultural effect are concerned with ethnicity, cultural homogeneity and marital status.

Economic Effects

The most important stream of intra-state migration in Mizoram is migration to urban places constituting 43.01% of the total internal migration. This out migration from rural areas reduces its population which has resulted in per unit availability of agricultural land. The agricultural expansion will happen due to two reasons – first, declining labour/land ratio provides a new environment conducive to changing rural production technique, second, the reduced supply of labour is also likely to push up agricultural wage rates and stimulate the adoption of labour saving technology. Migrants through augmented contacts with the more modernized sectors may influence the value system of the rural communities and rural inhabitants may internalize better standard of living. Remittances from urban areas are also likely to raise rural incomes, and may not only increase the levels of consumption, but also encourage technological change that further raises rural incomes.

On the other hand, rural-urban migration may lead to the lowering of rural incomes. Migrants from rural areas were usually educated and enterprising persons, their movement involves a sizable transfer of human capital out of the rural sector which adversely affect the rural

incomes. For every new job created, some migrants who were productively occupied in rural areas may come to the city, this may lead not only to higher levels of urban unemployment but also to lower levels of agricultural output due to induced migration. But in the overpopulated area, because of the existence of disguised unemployment, even the withdrawal of sizable labour force would not result in the reduction of agricultural production. It was found that there has been fast declining productivity of agriculture especially in the jhum system and this shows that there has been excess pressure on land. This is one of the reasons why population migration from rural to urban areas has been exacerbated.

Social and Cultural effects

When people leave a community, the social fabric of the community inevitably changes. The social impact of migration at the village of origin can be seen in terms of the breakdown of formal relationships even though the extended family is becoming more important. Social ties between two nearby villages are breaking down.

Out migrants tend to result in a greater integration of the village with outside communities. This is resulting in a closer contact between those who migrated from town and those who stayed behind in the villages. From such frequent contact and visit of one another, the villagers come to know more about town life and varied consumption goods and this experience changed their outlook.

There is also the effect of cultural change brought about in return by migrants. The migrant brings with him his own norms, value and attitudes and over a course of time, learns those of the place of destination. If he visits his home (town or village) quite frequently, he carries back many ideas from the new place. He thus becomes an instrument of cultural diffusion. Where families have members living in both urban and rural areas, their social networks expand to include persons in both areas. This bridging facilitates cultural diffusion from city to countryside. The resulting diversity may enhance flexibility in coping with the ups and downs of life.

Economic Impact of Migrants of Inter State Migration

Migrants from other states were mostly coming from the nearby states of the North Eastern States. Migrants from farther states were mostly on job posting. A high percentage of migrants from Bihar and Jharkhand have been engaged as labourers for road construction under BRTF, while some of them were engaged in cattle rearing. Singh and Iyer¹ found that there are clearly multiple rationale for the use of migrant labour in destination areas. While shortage of local labour provides one important rationale, virtually all available evidence shows that recruitment of migrants is as much motivated by the strategies of labour control and wage cost reduction. Labourers from other states are preferred because they are easier to control. Moreover the supply of labour can be easily increased or decreased with little cost to employers and these peoples can work for long and flexible hours, which has an important effect of reducing labour cost to employers.

Most migrants from Bihar and Jharkhand were confined to the enterprise of Cattle Rearing². The three big producers of milk are Durtlang, Sihphir (both are located at the outskirts of Aizawl city) and

Lungdai (24 km from the State capital) produces 10500 litres tones which is 65.63% of the total production of milk from Mizoram³. More than 70% of the employees are Bihari migrants hired by the owners of livestock enterprises and there are also few Nepalis and Mizo engage in Cattle farming. These migrants have a much higher proficiency in cattle rearing and are highly efficient in the management of production and marketing of milk products. But at the same time, they are paid a lower wage rate than the local labourers. It is this cheap availability of efficient labour force which has made in the success in milk production.

Migrants from the plain of Assam were usually coming from the nearby districts of Cachar, Hailakandi and Karimganj. They were mostly displaced muslim workers from Bangladesh and their main work is usually associated with hard physical labour such as construction and road- buildings and a few of them are engaged in business. Almost all the RCC works in urban places were done by these peoples except in Champhai, the capital of Champhai District where the percentage of plain people is almost nil.

Economic Impact of Riang Community

Riang is a tribal group who have settled in Tripura, Mizoram, Manipur, Cachar district of Assam and Chittagong Hill Tracts of Bangladesh. A census report of 1991 says that there were 23,355 in number mostly coming from the nearby states and Bangladesh.

Riang settlers in Mizoram have never been so aggressive, nor known to be very conscious of political or communal feeling in the past against the indigenous Mizo inhabitants. As such there has not been any ill-feeling or problem from them as a community and there was no restriction on their entry to Mizoram. But as the time passed by, the increase of their population by biological and cross border movement, problems have come to surface for the people politically and economically.

As far as the Riang economy is concerned, jhum cultivation is the sole system of economic activity with the community. As the jhum cultivation requires a vast area of land for rotation, the less is the period of the cycle, the less fertile is the land with low productivity. Moreover, they do not live in a permanent village site but move from place to place

wherever the jhum cultivation takes place. Many of them are found settling within and around the Tiger Wild Life Sanctuary at Dampa⁴. It is found that some parts of the forest have been deforested for the jhum cultivation. So the direct impact of the Riang settlement here is the shortage of land for jhum cultivation and deforestation of the Tiger Wild Life Sanctuary at Dampa which has been looked after by the State Forest Department of Mizoram⁵.

On the other hand, jhuming is the only traditional profession of the Riang people, they are very adept at or good in this work. Many Mizo in the western Mizoram make use of their services not only in Jhum cultivation but also in other hard and rough works. Without the presence and the involvement of Riang workers the Mizo in these areas would have faced acute labour problem. Diligent, perseverant and hard working, the Riang, therefore, contribute a good labour force which may be said to be a positive impact of their settlement. In the recent past like any other Mizo, the Riang were also given financial assistance under various schemes by the State government. Some beneficiaries amongst them in Darlak and Zamuang villages are reported to be very successful in the trade of orange and other crops plantation⁶. It may be concluded that if

this trend in the growth of production keeps up, they will soon become self-sufficient in food-grain and horticultural production.

Regarding the involvement in the service of Mizoram State Government, the contribution of the Riang is very poor. As they are economically backward and semi-nomadic in nature, it is practically difficult for them to have educational institution as a result of which most of the young do not have chance to attend schools and the literacy rate within the community is especially very low. Since Mamit district is the main area of their settlement, the literacy percentage in the district is also found to be exceptionally low.

Economic Impact of International Migrants

Illegal migrants constitute a very high percentage of immigrants in Mizoram. Mizoram receives international migrants mostly from Myanmar, Bangladesh and Nepal, they contribute positive as well as adverse economic effect in Mizoram. As the state receives more than 99% of international migrants from these three countries, the economic consequences will be studied in three different streams only as – migrants from Nepal, migrants from Bangladesh and migrants from Myanmar.

Migrants from Nepal

The history of Nepali movement in the state began towards the late 19th century and the beginning of the twentieth century⁷. The reason behind their movements have been varied in nature from time to time. It may be shortage of food, lack of employment, political persecution or urge for military adventures. It is perceived that the main reason for their coming to this part was the allurements of military adventure. The first Nepali families who settled down permanently in 1889-90 were found in some part of Aizawl, however as per government records, their settlement in Mizoram began in 1891⁸. The Nepalis were actively involved in local government. Before 1980s there was no restriction at all for them in regard to trade, employment etc, some were elected as a president⁹ in Village Council/Court and it was in the mid 1980s that the permanent Nepalis began to face problems, the main reason behind this was the recent illegal infiltration of the Nepalis from Nepal. Majority of the migrants were engaged as labourers, cowherds, lumberjacks etc.

The physical setting of Nepal which is bordered by India on three sides has made it dependent on India. Nepal's dependency syndrome will

continue unless unless 'measures are taken to encourage indigenous production and also to ensure that surpluses produced within Nepal do not merely leak out through illegal transactions across the Nepal-India border'¹⁰. To whatever level the production is raised it will be 'eaten away by the growing population'¹¹ which is also contributed to by an open-migration pattern existing between India and Nepal. Nepalis in India are getting employment and in a way India is a safety valve for Nepal¹². Most of the lower class of Nepalis were able to do the lowest work, most traders employed these peoples as they are hardy, tough and able to work at a lower wage rate, to the advantage of the employers.

Migrants from Bangladesh

Migrants from Bangladesh were usually Chakmas and Riang while a few other migrants from muslim community enter into Mizoram through Assam claiming to be of Indian origin of Assam State.

The Chakmas who have had a long practice of shifting cultivation know that there are fertile and cultivable areas within the lands of the Mizo chiefs bordering their settlements and these attracted them. In the

Chakma areas we can also find sub-tribes of the mizo such as Pang, Bawm and Tlanglau who were originally the inhabitants of the present Chakma district but were forced to succumb to the rule of foreign settlers in their own land. Since cross border movement could not be easily checked, the influx of the Chakmas also increased year by year.

Politically, the Chakmas become quite active soon after the Pawi Lakher Autonomous Region was inaugurated on 23rd April 1953 at Lunglei. This had brought about certain changes in the minds of the Chakmas of India and had started to press their demand for a separate administrative body known as the Chakma District Council.

Prior to this, from 1952 most of the Chakmas got voting rights and even cast their votes in the first Mizo District Council Election and this was retained till date. This was the time when the people of Mizoram were debating whether to be part of India or part of Burma and the political leaders were at loggerheads. Mizo Independent movement started in 1966. Taking the advantage of this trouble, the Chakmas clandestinely made effort to gain political advantage in Mizoram.

Finally by 1972 under the so called North-Eastern Reorganisation Act. The Chakmas were given a separate Autonomous District Council.

Oversees employment of a large number of Bangladeshis has also to a certain extent lightened Bangladeshi economic problem¹³. Although the increased Middle Eastern Connections has helped the Bangladeshis migrants to find good employment and business enterprises in their newly adapted land. This development was looked upon as a destabilizing force in the North East Region by the Hindus and Buddhists. Conceivably, the prospect of conflict between the fundamentalist Muslims and alienated ethnic or tribal groups cannot be ruled out. And Indo-Bangladesh relationship which already soured by the migration problem and the Chakmas would deteriorate further. Examining the tribal problem from a long term perspective several opposition leaders of Bangladesh have demanded a solution to the Chakma problem that entails a political rather than military or an administrative approach. Even regional state for the Chitagong Hill Tracts, adjoining the Indian State of Tripura and Mizoram was supported by a Bangladeshi opposition leader¹⁴. The intention of the Chakma was to have Free Chakma Zone in Mizoram.

A relatively large number of illegal migrants caused social tension and sporadic ethnic strife in the fringe areas of Lawngtlai District. As the infiltration of the Chakma increased, the sub tribes of the Mizo of the western belt such as Pang, Bawm and Tlanglau begun to lose their ancestral land. A small section of the mizo Tribes who were in the Chakma district were evicted for their ancestral land and they were now pushed to the corner by the so called permanent immigrants of India. Within the jurisdiction of Chakma Council a sort of racist policy has been followed in the school curriculum. It is said that the Chakma District council does not give any grants, in cash or in kind to the school where Mizo is used for the medium of instruction¹⁵.

In table 5.12 is depicted that the population of Chakma increased tremendously. Since the additional population is a liable to the State and their support is a budgetary burden on the State. It is increasingly difficult for the State to maintain balanced budgetary provision. The budgets are usually made to sustain a specific population but once the number increased the amount of budget estimates submitted to the State Government or to the Central could have been very high. It therefore follows that due to the influx of the Chakma migrants, the budget estimates of the State as well as the central Government has to rise at a

rapid stride. While many poorer people in the state lead a miserable life, the so called immigrants devoured the meagre resources of the state and this is amounting to drainage off the wealth of the nation.

Migrants from Myanmar

Migrants from Myanmar were usually of Mizo ethnic origin called chin-group whose dialects are variously different from that of the Mizo dialects and the Myanmarese (Burmese). In 1960s General Ne Win subverted the democratic set up and turned over to military junta in the name of Socialist government. It was in practice an autarchy with complete suppression economic freedom. All the agricultural products were requisitioned at a low flat rate. People could hardly tolerate this policy¹⁶. The Burmese government failed miserably in their aim of achieving a socialist state. Mismanagement of economy, corruption and lust for power disrupted everything. The morale of the common people remained very low. Although she has the potential in terms of raw material to elevate her position, mismanagement and misappropriation of national wealth has hindered her progress towards development. Those who suffered most under this are the proletariat who have nothing to hang on to. A daily labourer could earn doubled of daily earning to pay

for one day meal¹⁷. Their poverty and hunger has forced them to move to somewhere else in search of better living and security. This rightly applies to the case of Myanmarese who migrated into Mizoram in search of employment. The inadequacy of the management caused to lower the morale of the people and force to work doing whatever they can, legally or illegally, from the lowest work to smuggling, and even robbery.

The people of Myanmarese in Mizoram engaged themselves as weavers, domestic servants, daily labourers and even employees under the government of Mizoram. The important contribution of the Myanmarese includes in the field of music, painting, sports and education. Talented musicians and pop singers were the Myanmarese and the young people of Mizoram received them with great enthusiasm in the eighties of the last century¹⁸. Some of the talented persons of painters and sportspersons were Myanmarese origin, which increase the quality of painting and promote the sports.

There is also a small community of educated employed Myanmarese in Mizoram. Most of them were employed as teachers in

different Schools, more than 250 persons were engaged under the government of Mizoram¹⁹.

As stated earlier, migrants from Myanmar are able to work doing everything whether hard or soft, most of them have been engaged as labourers and households servants. As they live a hard life, their capability to work is much more than the local and the wage rate can be at a lower rate, their contribution is very important for increasing the income of the employers.

Being a bordering State, and due to the formal opening of Indo-Myanmar trade on 12th April 1995 as a follow up measure of the Border Trade Agreement signed between the two countries on 21st June 1994 at New Delhi²⁰ a lot of foreign goods have been imported legally or illegally and have become available in Mizoram. Actually Mizoram is only a consumer state with no industry label at the national level²¹. The State has no export items, the beneficiaries are only the Myanmarese. Myanmarese are actively involved in border trade, they informally come from Myanmar, stay at different places in Mizoram, particularly in Aizawl for trade and get the lion's share of the profit.

On the other hand, immigration of foreigners from Myanmar has its negative impact on the social and economic life of the people of Mizoram. About 10%-15% of hawkers and vendors within Aizawl city are constituted by Myanmar people. More than a hundred shops of almost all varieties including motor vehicle repairing workshops are run by them. With the growth of service sector, there has been rapid increase in the demand for labour and the Myanmar people are the ones who provide labour supply. These clearly indicate that a huge amount of Indian rupees flows out of India to Myanmar through this channel each day of the year.

The rise of criminal activities such as theft, robbery, burglary, drug abuse and murder, is attributed by some people to the Myanmar people. Drug like heroin which came from Myanmar are not consumed in large quantities as the demand is less, therefore, Mizoram only serves as a route of trafficking²². However the involvement of people Myanmar origin in smuggling case has been on the rise.

People from Myanmar are not subject to inner line regulations or passport due to difficulty in identifying them as majority are of Mizo origin. Immigration of foreigners from Myanmar increases year by year.

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- ¹ Singh, M., and Iyer, K. C. (1985) *Migrants labours in rural Punjab* in Patnaik, U and Dingwaney M (Eds) *Chains of Servitude : Bondage and slavery in India* Sangam Books. Delhi
- ² This information is taken from owners of cattle firming at Lungdai
- ³ Mizoram Statistical Handbook 2006 p22 and information received from MULCO Office Zuangtui, Aizawl
- ⁴ Lianhmingthanga and Hluna, J.V., (2004) *Riang in Mizoram Settlement and its impact* in Sangkima (Ed) *Cross Border Migration, Mizoram* Shirpra Publications New Delhi, p43
- ⁵ Ibid
- ⁶ Ibid., p 44
- ⁷ Pradhan, K.L., *Settlement of Gorkhas* in Sangkima (Ed) op.,cit. p56
- ⁸ Ibid., p58
- ⁹ The first Village Council President was Bir Bahadur Limbu in 1958
- ¹⁰ Lok Raj Baral., (1990) *The South Asian Case Regional Migration. Ethnicity and Security* Sterling Publishers Pvt. Ltd. New Delhi p 2
- ¹¹ Piers Blaikie et al. (1980) *Nepal in Crisis : Growth and Stagnation At the Periphery* Oxford University Press Delhi p19
- ¹² Lok Raj Baral op.cit., p3
- ¹³ Bangladesh Economic Survey 1985.86 Dhaka Ministry of finance 1986 p335
- ¹⁴ Lok Raj Baral (1990) Ibid.
- ¹⁵ Chawngkunga, C. (1983) *Chakma settlement in Mizoram*, p6
- ¹⁶ Sangkima, (2004) *Myanmarese in Mizoram since the beginning of the twentieth Century AD to the present in Sangkim (Ed)* op.cit., p84
- ¹⁷ Ibid
- ¹⁸ Lalremsiama, F. (2004) *Impact of Myanmarese Settlement, in Sangkima (Ed)* op.cit., p115
- ¹⁹ Ibid
- ²⁰ Indo Myanmar Border Trade, north East Trade Line Vol. I no III Feb. 2003 p5
- ²¹ Lianzela, (1994) *Economic Development of Mizoram*, New Delhi Spectrum Publications p142
- ²² Lalremsiama, F., ibid., p118

CHAPTER – VII

PROCESS OF URBANISATION

The process of urbanization has been described as a technological and organizational change brought about by modernization and migration. Migration is one of the significant contributing factors of urbanization. Almost all developing countries consider migration and urbanization to be one of their most pressing population problems.¹ It is observed that the larger the urban centre, the larger the range of the territory from which it draws its migrants and are considered to have outgrown their ideal size and to be continuing to grow rapidly in comparison with smaller towns and villages. In other words, bigger size cities not only attract more migrants, but also their spectrum of influence is wider. The most important from the standpoint of long-run development is rural-urban migration, but a great deal of rural-rural, urban-urban, and even urban-rural migration also takes place. Rural-urban migrations occurs due to operation of push and pull factors and is most important because the population share of cities is growing, despite the fact that fertility is much lower in urban areas, and the difference is

accounted for by rural-urban migration. It is happening everywhere in the world, although at different rates. One of the most significant of all postwar demographic phenomena and the one that promises to loom even larger in the future is the rapid growth of cities in developing countries. In 1950, some 275 million people were living in cities in developing world, some 38 percent of the 724 million total urban population. The growth of urbanization is closely linked with the economic development and social transformation of a state or a region. It is generally argued that urbanization and economic development re-inforce each other. Structural changes in the economy are generally associated with urbanization. On the other hand, urbanization stimulates economic changes. Some economists like Colin Clark² go so far as to assert, that the acid test of development lies in the shift of population from rural to urban areas.

The positive association between urbanization is one of the most obvious and striking stylized facts of the development process. Generally the more developed the country by per capita, the greater the share of population living in urban areas. The countries with highest income like Denmark, Switzerland are among the most urbanized while the very poorest countries like Rwanda are among the least urbanized³. At the

same time, while individual countries are far more urbanized than today's developed countries were when they were at a comparable level of development as measured by income per capita, and low developed countries are urbanising at a faster rate⁴.

The rural to urban migration is an important component of urbanization in most of the countries and regions. The Western countries have become predominantly urban due to large scale movement of population from rural to urban areas. It was once viewed favorable in the economic development literature. Internal migration was thought to be a natural process in which surplus labour was gradually withdrawn from the rural sector to provide needed manpower for urban industrial growth. The process was deemed socially beneficial because human resources were being shifted from locations where their social marginal product was often assumed to be zero to places where this marginal product was not only positive but also rapidly growing as a result of capital accumulation and technological progress. Due to abundant inflow to urban region, the rates of rural-urban migration continue to exceed rates of urban job creation and to surpass greatly the absorption capacity of both industry and urban social services. No longer is migration viewed by

economist as a beneficent process necessary to solve problems of growing urban labour demand. On the contrary, migration today, particularly to the largest cities of Less Developed Countries, must be seen as the major factor contributing to the ubiquitous phenomenon of urban surplus labour, as a force that continues to exacerbate already serious urban unemployment problems caused by economic and structural imbalances between urban and rural areas.

Migration exacerbates these rural-urban structural imbalances in two direct ways. First, on the supply side, internal migration disproportionately increases the growth rate of urban job seekers relative to urban population growth, which itself is at historically unprecedented levels, because of the high proportion of well educated young people in the migrant system. Their presence tends to swell the urban labour supply while depleting the rural countryside of valuable human capital. Second, on the demand side, urban job creation is generally more difficult and costly to accomplish than rural job creation because of the need for substantial complementary resource inputs for most jobs in the industrial sector.

During 1970-75, rural-urban migration accounted for fifty-one percent of the urban growth in more developed regions and 43 percent in the less developed regions. According to this standard, great urbanization programmes have been undertaken in the recent past more specifically in the North Eastern region. Since migration is closely linked with urbanization, our main study of migration will remain incomplete if we do not analyse the trends of urbanization of the area selected for the study. Hence, the present chapter examines briefly the temporal and spatial aspects of urbanization, rate of urbanization and growth of urban centres.

A number of criteria have to be fulfilled before a place can be declared as urban area. Certain basic amenities are to be provided in urban areas like provision of housing facilities, roads, water supply, recreation centres, vehicular traffic, educational institutions, postal & banking services, residential, industrial and commercial growth. Urban areas may be classified on the basis of a qualitative assessment of their characteristics and roles, or alternately on a qualitative analysis of the people and their occupations. It was stated by the Superintendent of Census Operations, 1891, that for a place to “qualify for an urban area a

place should first be a municipal corporation or a municipal area or under a town committee or cantonment board”⁵. On the basis of the census reports of earlier decades, Bose⁶ has indicated the extent of variation in the application of census definition of urban areas in different states. On the other hand, Premi, Gupta and Kundu⁷ have pointed out that this variation was largely due to the fact that the Superintendent of Census Operations had the discretion to determine the status of a place as a town even if it was not having local self government. They also pointed out that the 1971 Census definition departs definitely from the earlier definition, (1961 Census) on the criterion of employment in non-agricultural pursuits. However, it has been observed that no rigorous classification can be made regarding this. But some of the above mentioned criteria will have to be fulfilled and certain basic amenities should be available in the urban areas.

The definition of an urban area which was adopted in 1971 and followed in the 1981 census, and still in the 1991 and 2001 Census, with minor modifications, is as follows :

- a) All places with a Municipality, Corporation or Cantonment Board or Notified Town Areas

- b) All other places which satisfying the following criteria :
 - i) A minimum population of 5000

 - ii) At least 75 percent of the male working population are engaged in non-agricultural and allied activities.

 - iii) A population of at least 400 persons per sq. kms.

 - iv) Places which, though not satisfying the above criteria, have pronounced characteristics

On the basis of the above criteria, let us first examine briefly the degree of urbanization in India has increased from 17.97 percent in 1961 Census to 19.91 percent in 1971 Census, 23.34 percent in 1981, 25.75 percent in 1991 Census and 27.78 percent in 2001 Census. Obviously, India ranks quite low among the countries of the world in the degree of

urbanization. Since the actual process of urbanization started in India about three decades or so ago, it has got gathered enough momentum so as to enable it to absorb a significant chunk of the rural population. For example, according to the United Nation's World Population Chart, 1990, in more developed regions of the world, the percentage of urban population varies from 66 to 85. In less developed regions of Africa and Asia (including Japan) etc. the percentage of urban population is 34 or below. As already pointed out the percentage of urban population in India as per the 2001 Census is 27.78 percent.

Trend and Pattern of Urbanization of North East Region of India

On the basis of the statement mentioned above, let us first examine the temporal and spatial pattern of urbanization in NE India. In this connection, it should be noted that in Assam which is the most populous state in the region, no census could be undertaken in 1981 due to unfavourable conditions prevailing there. Looking at the urbanization as dynamic process, it is necessary to find out some kind of temporal and spatial pattern so that the inter-regional and inter-state differences in the growth of urban population can be explained. This aspect of urbanization

is explained through the examination of degree of urbanization and rate of urbanization in the following table :

Table 7.1 : Degree and Rate of Urbanization in North Eastern Region of India 1971 – 2001

Sl No	State / country	Degree of urbanization					Rate of urbanisation			
		1961	1971	1981	1991	2001	1961-71	1971-81	1981-91	1991-02
1	Arunachal Pradesh		3.70	6.65	12.21	20.41	79.73	83.61	67.16	67.16
2	Assam	7.37	8.39	Na	11.00	12.72	Na	31.11	15.64	15.64
3	Manipur	8.68	13.19	26.42	27.69	23.88	51.9	100.3	4.81	13.76
4	Meghalaya	12.48	14.55	18.07	1.69	19.63	16.3	24.19	3.43	5.03
5	Mizoram	-	11.36	24.67	46.20	49.50	-	117.17	87.27	7.14
6	Nagaland	5.19	9.95	15.52	17.26	17.74	91.7	55.98	11.21	2.78
7	Tripura	9.02	10.43	10.99	15.16	17.02	15.6	5.37	37.94	12.27
8	All India	18.26	20.22	23.34	25.72	27.78	10.7	15.43	10.2	8.01

Note Calculated from Census of India 1961,1971,1981,1991 and 2001

$$\text{Degree of urbanization} = \frac{\text{Urban Population} \times 100}{\text{Total population}}$$

$$\text{Rate of urbanization} = \frac{\text{Degree of urbanization in 1981} - \text{Degree of urbanization in 1971}}{\text{Degree of urbanization in 1971}} \times 100$$

The above table shows that the degree of urbanization is much lower for all the states of this region than the national average for all the time, the only exception were Mizoram and Manipur, these are the two

most urbanized states in these region. The degree of urbanization is lowest in Assam (12.72 percent), the most populous state in North Eastern States and the process of urbanization started from the beginning of this century. The degree of urbanization in Manipur is highest in 1961 Census but shows a decline rate in 2001 Census. Meghalaya and Nagaland shows a relatively stable growth and consistent pattern of urbanization.

The rate of urbanization has declined for all the states in 1981-1991 as compare to 1971-81 the only exception were Arunachal Pradesh where the process of urbanization started only in 1971 Census. In 1991-01, the rate of urbanization decline for all the states as compare to the previous decade, the state of Manipur shows a negative rate.

From the table given above, we can conclude that the process of urbanization is still in a youthful stage of development, is highly inconsistent and variable within the region. In Manipur, the degree of urbanization is highest in 1981 Census but shows a negative rate in 2001 Census. This has possible to conclude that the process of urbanization has a direct bearing to the intensity of insurgency.

Urbanisation in Mizoram

The concept of urbanisation is not very old in Mizoram. It came in the map of urban centres of India only from the 1951 Census, when Aizawl, the capital of the State was classified as Class V Town. At that time urban population was 3.54 percent against the country's urban population of 17.29 percent. The number of towns increases from one to five in 1971 Census and again increases to 21 in 1981 Census and the number of town remains unchanged in 1991 and 2001 Census. Most of the towns were class V. Out of 22 urban centres, eight of them were with a population of less than 5000 in 2001 census. The process of urbanization is at a high speed in Mizoram. This has a direct bearing to the intensity of insurgency or underground activity of certain political group. The percentage of urban population to the total population in Mizoram in 1971 Census was 11.36 percent only. It increases to 24.67 percent in 1981 Census and again increases to 46.10 percent in 1991 Census. The percentage of urban population increases to 49.63 percent in 2001 Census. The distributions of urban population in 2001 among different districts are shown in the table.

From 1981 onward, Mizoram is the highest urbanized state in this region, 2001 Census shows 49.63 percent which is much higher than the national average and the second highest urbanized state in India (Goa - 49.77 percent) while the rate of urbanization shows a high rate decline.

Table 7.2 : Population Growth Rate in Rural & Urban in Mizoram during 1951-2001

	Rural	Urban	Percentage of urban population to total population		Growth rate	
					Mizoram	All India
1951-61	33.09	102.86	1961	5.34 (17.97)	26.42	21.51
1961-71	17.00	166.20	1971	11.36 (19.91)	24.93	24.80
1971-81	26.24	222.61	1981	24.67 (23.34)	48.55	24.66
1981-91	-0.04	161.01	1991	46.10 (27.72)	39.70	23.85
1991-01	20.38	38.70	2001	49.63 (27.82)	28.82	21.34

Source : North Eastern Council, Basic Statistics of North-Eastern Region, 1995, (Shillong, 1995) and calculated from census of India 2001 D-Series
Note : figure in the parenthesis shows all-India percentage.

From table 7.2, we found that there is a high growth rate of urban population in every decade except during the last decade. This may be due to increase in urban centres. There is only one urban centre in 1951 and 1961. A high growth rate of urban population is found in 1961-71 decade, this is due to increase in urban centre from one to two and also

due to insurgency in 1966. The growth rate of urban population in 1971-81 is 222.61 this is also due to an increase in urban centres from two to six in 1981 Census, insurgency and village grouping may be another reason. The growth rate of urban population in 1981-91 decade is 161.01, this is also due to the increase in urban centres from six to twenty two in 1991 Census and also due to the effect of peace accord in 1986. The growth rate of urban population in the last decade is lower than the previous record and was 38.70 percent only, this is due to the number of urban centres remaining same with the previous census and also the population of the state are in a steady position as the effect of insurgency and peace accord becomes less felt.

Population growth is affected by urbanization for a simple reason that the latter helps spreading education facilities, accessibility to health care, mortality and causes improvement in housing and living condition and a vertical occupational shift. But as it is evident from the above table, the high rate of urbanization could not slow down population growth rate. Paradoxically, Mizoram exhibits on exceedingly high rate of urbanization with an equally high population growth rate, the growth rate of the total population of the state is always higher than the national average. Our

reason for this apparent contradiction seems to be that the so called urbanization, as we have seen before, is mainly the result of village regrouping which did not emerge from any industrial location but arose out of administrative reason. Secondly, Indian census defines an urban area in somewhat technical way where even some subjective considerations cannot be entirely of 400 persons per km² and three-fourths of the workforce belonging to non-agricultural occupation, there are certain undefined urban features which, if found present in certain area, may over rule any of the objective criteria.

Table 7.3 : Total Urban Population in Different Districts 2001

	Total urban population	No of urban centres	Percentage of urban population	Percentage of urban total
Mamit	10,653	3	16.97 (51.73)	2.42
Kolasib	36,499	4	55.33 (52.06)	8.28
Aizawl	2,48,145	4	76.19 (51.00)	56.27
Champhai	42,049	3	38.79 (52.22)	9.53
Serchhip	25,878	4	48.05 (50.28)	5.87
Lunglei	57,956	3	42.23 (51.97)	13.13
Lawngtlai	0	-	0	0
Saiha	19,826	1	32.42 (51.63)	4.50
Mizoram	4,41,006	22	49.63 (51.33)	100

Calculated from Census of India 2001 D-Series DS-1500-006-D03UC-2001

The urban populations have a great variation between districts. Aizawl district has as many as 76.19 percent of the district population while it occupies 16.97 percent only in Mamit district and Lawngtlai district has no urban centre. This may be due to inequality of urban population in different districts and number urban centres.

Unlike Western experience, urbanization in Mizoram has not been accompanied by industrialization and a perceptible rise in labour productivity in agriculture and industry and the external economic opportunities that they gave rise to. There has been no historically evolved causal mechanism in urban agglomerates due to clustering of manufacturing activities except to some extent in the vicinity of Aizawl town and to a much lesser extent in other district towns. Of the urban centres, Aizawl town is the biggest and largest urban centre and is classified as Class I town (City M2) in 2001 census with a population of 2,29,714. Other towns in the state fell within the range of Class III to Class VI with 2408 population in Khawhai of Serchhip district. It shows that there is enormous variation of the process of urbanization in Mizoram.

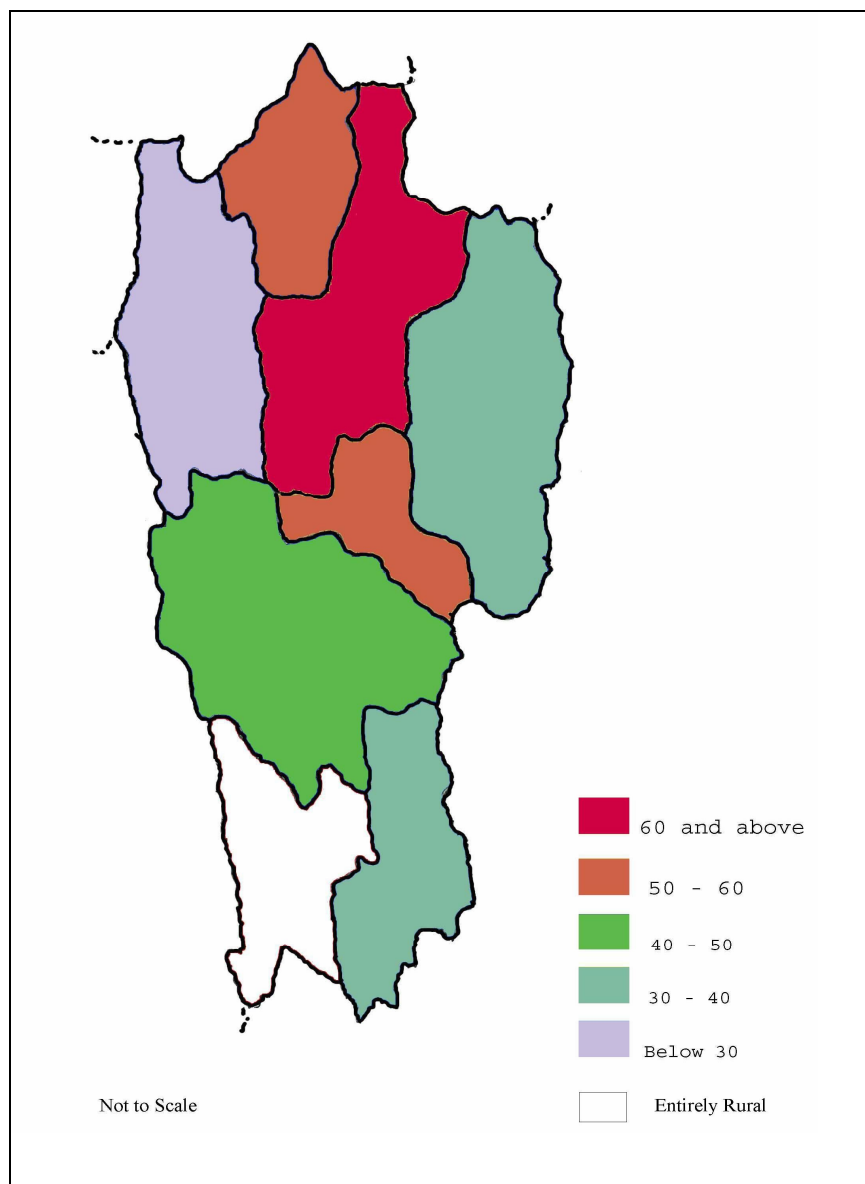


Fig. 7.1. Mizoram; Percentage of Urban Population

The degree of urbanization in Mizoram is 49.63 percent which is higher than the national average of 27.78 percent. Mamit district is the least urbanized (16.97 percent) neglecting Lawngtlai district where urban population is nil and Aizawl is the most urbanized district (76.19 percent). Only Mamit and Lawngtlai falls below the national average.

The trends of urbanization can be better understood if we take into account the number of towns with their status & size in the different districts.

Table 7.4 : Population of Urban Centres 2001 and Growth Rate

Town	Urban population 2001	Area in Sq. Km*	Density	Growth rate		P.C to urban total	P.C of male workers engage in non agri. Activities [#]
				1981-91	1991-01		
Aizawl	2,29,714	128.98	1781	108.4	47.97	52.81	88.47
Champhai	26,465	52	509	177.94	27.01	6.00	38.06
Kolasib	18,825	36	523	62.79	39.83	4.27	51.37
Serchhip	18,185	23	791	86.76	32.85	2.32	39.11
Saitual	10,243	9	1138	-	21.91	1.25	31.55
Khawzawl	9,286	19	489	-	30.72	2.11	27.32
Vairengte	7,687	20	384	-	37.10	1.74	48.72
N Kawnpui	6,328	22	288	-	19.62	1.43	24.64
Thenzawl	5,519	36	153	-	22.59	1.25	28.47
Mamit	5,261	13	405	-	48.36	1.19	33.08
Sairang	5,036	22	229	-	42.78	1.14	46.02
Darlawn	3,859	16	243	-	6.93	0.87	37.47
Bairabi	3,304	26	127	-	36.47	0.75	23.41
N Vanlaiphai	3,275	8	409	-	16.80	0.74	37.72
Zawlnuam	3,119	11	284	-	9.72	0.71	49.93
Lengpui	2,422	17	142	-	34.02	0.55	21.91
Khawhai	2,408	7	344	-	14.56	0.55	13.93
Biate	2,227	2	1134	-	4.22	0.50	24.10
Lunglei	47,355	44	1076	105.75	33.02	10.74	65.75
Hnahthial	7,123	10	712	-	28.39	1.61	44.79
Tlabung	3,675	11.94	308	-	7.80	0.83	60.69
Saiha	19,731	53	372	94.77	44.35	4.47	66.31

* No. B. 12018/2/99-Tech/DTE(REV) Dated Aizawl 8th June 2001, Directorate of Land, Revenue and Settlement Mizoram, Aizawl

As per 1991 census

Source : i) Census of India Primary census Abstract, Mizoram 2001,

ii) Statistical handbook Mizoram 2002

From the above table, we find that the degree of urbanization has increased more in larger town. The highest growth rate was found in Mamit and Aizawl. In 1981-91, the highest growth rate was found in Champhai town, this may due to increase in boundary of urban area and bordering trade centre.

From the table, urban population were usually concentrated in Aizawl City occupying 52.81 percent of the total urban population. Lunglei, Champhai, Saiha and Kolasib contribute 10.74 percent, 6.00 percent, 4.47 percent and 4.27 percent respectively. There are eight urban centres contributing less than one percent of the urban population. It may be also noted that except few towns like Aizawl, Lunglei, Champhai, Saiha and Kolasib almost all the urban centres do not have any urban characteristics.

According to the Census Classification of Towns, Mizoram did not have any Class I towns in 1981 Census. Aizawl was classified as Class I town from 1991. The State does not have any Class II town in 2001 Census (inhabitants of 50,000 – 99,999 persons). There are only two class III town in 2001 Census – Lunglei, capital of Lunglei district and Champhai, a bordering town. There are four Class IV towns in 2001

Census – Saiha, capital of Chhimituipui district, Saitual, in Aizawl district, Serchhip, capital of Serchhip district and Kolasib, capital of Kolasib district. Sairang, Hnahthial, Thenzawl, Khawzawl, North Kawnpui, Vairengte and Mamit came under class V town. All other towns i.e Darlawn, Tlabung, North Vanlaiphai, Biate, Khawhai, Bairabi, Zawlnuam and Lengpui emerge in the category of class VI towns since they had a population of less than 5,000 persons.

We can observe from the above table that the highest growth rate is found in Class I town and Class III towns where as the lowest growth rate were found in Class VI towns, so, urbanization has a positive correlation with the number of population, the only exception were Lengpui and Bairabi, location of Airport and Railway station respectively. Kundu's⁸ analysis that the acceleration in growth rate is significantly higher in upper classes of towns of all the categories seems to hold good in the case of Mizoram also. In this connection, it should be noted that the problem of urbanization in the hilly areas are quite different from those in the plains. In the case of plain areas, a vast area of the flat land is available for further expansion, this is not so in the case of hilly areas, as for example, Lunglei, capital of Lunglei district, growth rate is very high in 1971-81 attaining 185.84 and also in 1981-91, the growth rate is

105.75, but the rate of growth is very low in 1991-01 comparing with the above two decades, this may be limited area of the town due to hilly and steepness of the other side of the town, so the growth rate is only 33.02 percent which is lower than the other Class III towns. Hence, higher growth rate of a particular town in hilly areas may easily lead to congestion and other related problems.

So far as the sex ratio is concerned, it is quite favourable unlike those in other parts of India. Probably, towns in Mizoram are attracting not only able-bodied males but also females. This may be probably due to the tendency of family type of migration to those towns.

From the above discussion, Mizoram has 22 urban centres as per 2001 Census, no single centre fully attain the status of urban laid down by Census Operation. In terms of total population 8 centres were below the required population of 5000, and in terms of density only 11 centres attained density more than 400 persons per sq.km. So far as agricultural activities is concerned, Aizawl is the only centre that more than 75 percent of the male working population were engaged in non-agricultural and allied industry. Besides this, the state capital did not have any

municipality, corporation or Cantonment Board, each locality was administered by the Village Council.

Migration Component in the Urban Centres.

As mentioned, Mizoram has been affected by migration to a remarkable extent. The impact of migration has been heavier on urban areas as these are more accessible and attractive to migrants.

Table 7.5 : Percentage of Migrants to Total Urban Population 2001

District	P.C of migrants to Urban population
Mamit	22.77 (51.73)
Kolasib	28.21 (52.06)
Aizawl	46.27 (51.00)
Champhai	23.26 (50.94)
Serchhip	20.42 (50.28)
Lunglei	25.34 (51.97)
Lawngtlai	0
Saiha	21.66 (51.63)

Calculated from Census of India 2001 D-Series DS-1500-006-D03UC-2001

Figure in the parenthesis indicates male components.

Table no 7.5 shows that migration has some effect on the growth of population in urban centres. Aizawl district is the only district where

migration plays a very important role for the growth of population. 46.27 percent of the total urban population were migrants which was much higher than the growth rate of the State i.e. 29.18 and also higher than the growth rate of urban population i.e. 38.70.

In Mizoram rural-urban migration plays the most significant role for migration streams. It is evident from the literature that influx of rural people to urban areas is mainly due to the vast difference between rural areas and urban centres in terms of living conditions, employment, income and social life. It may be noted that migration caused the increase in income due to higher wage rate and availability of works regularly.

From the above discussion, we find that migration is an important component growth of urban centres in Mizoram specially in Aizawl district. 58.22 percent of the total internal migration were concentrated in urban places of Aizawl district. 57.59 percent of the total inter-state migration were concentrated in Aizawl district and 84.31 percent of them were settled in urban places. This is due to the fact that Aizawl, the State capital is accommodating people from other places serving here for business purposes or on government duties. Finally an attempt has also

been made to analyse briefly the pattern of urbanization and growth of Aizawl, the largest town and the capital of the State.

Aizawl City Area

Aizawl city was founded with tiny hamlet in the year, 1890 and is one of the fastest growing hill towns of the country from 2325 persons in 1901 Census to 2,29,714 persons in 2001 Census. It covers an area of 110 sq. km. The density of population is 2088 per sq. km. Migrants constitute 1,10,558 persons (on the concept of place of birth) which is 48.13 percent of the total population of the city. The growth of population is due to influx of migrants from other places.

Table 7.6 : Reason of Migration to Aizawl 2001

	Total	Work/ Employ- ment	Business	Edn.	Marriage	Moved with households	Others
Intra- State	81.45 (49.72)	19.58 (73.50)	2.02 (56.51)	8.14 (55.50)	7.42 (5.11)	41.65 (43.93)	21.14 (51.88)
Inter- State	14.95 (67.18)	46.11 (91.23)	2.47 (81.17)	4.15 (49.05)	5.76 (4.41)	29.35 (43.59)	12.14 (66.04)
Inter- national	3.60 (47.10)	41.01 (53.59)	6.46 (52.92)	1.26 (60)	7.57 (3.99)	29.75 (44.29)	16.72 (45.41)
Total	100 (52.24)	24.23 (77.61)	2.25 (60.19)	7.30 (54.98)	7.17 (4.98)	38.41 (43.90)	19.63 (53.02)

Calculated from Census of India 2001 D-Series DS-1500-006-D03UC-2001

From the above table intra-state migration is the most important growth of population in the city comprising 81.45 percent of the total migrants in the city usually coming from rural areas 65.17 percent were coming from rural areas. Inter-state migration comprising 14.95 percent of the total migrants while the international migrants occupy 3.60 percent only.

So far as the reason is concerned, work/employment and business play very important role for the reason of migration for male migrants. Marriage and family moved are important reason for female migrants. High percentage of the reason moved with households may be due the fact that the earners of a family bring their families. The nature of work may be different from one person to another. Educated persons are migrated due to place of posting and also some may engage in lower works like fourth grade and clerical works. It is also found that a number of unskilled labourers migrated to the city, which may be due to increase in income due to higher wage rates and availability of works regularly in the city. It may be also noted that the life in the city is becoming costly due to rising prices and that income has not increased proportionately. However, they felt that their income are superior to the rural income and

better than ever before. Therefore it can be interpreted that migration brought economic development among the rural-urban migrants.

All the important centres and institutions were located in Aizawl City. Out of 27 colleges (including nursing, BCA and B.Ed) 14 of them were found in the Aizawl city⁹. The total enrolment as per 2005-06 record was 8279 students while 6196 (74.84 percent) of them were enrolled in different colleges of Aizawl¹⁰. The total numbers of teachers are 908 while 758 were posted in different colleges of Aizawl City¹¹. The average student per College in Aizawl is 443 students while the average students of each college in other places were 160. According to sample survey, 320 students were randomly selected from different colleges in Aizawl and found that 40 percent were coming from outside the city, among them 30 percent were from rural places while 62 percent were urban places the rest 8 percent were coming from other states and abroad. Among the University students 121 students were randomly selected and found that 44 percent were coming from other places. 55 percent of them were settled in a rented house, another 45 percent were staying with their relatives. The reason of study in Aizawl City may be different from

person to person, students coming from rural areas and some urban centres were due to non existence of college at their home village/town.

There are more than 2500¹² persons of vegetable sellers including hawkers and vendors in the city. Sample survey from randomly selected 450 persons from vegetable sellers, vendors, hawkers, etc. found that 78 percent migrated from other places, while 46 percent of them were the only earning member in their family. They migrated in search of any kind of work, and they found that their income was more than in villages and then bring their family to reside in a rented house. Hard working migrants who have settled more than 20 years have their own house. Low agricultural products of the primitive method of jhum cultivation push the villagers to migrate to city, while availability of labours, regular income, medical facilities, education etc pull the villagers.

Since Aizawl is the administrative and commercial centre, the development of the city goes on increasing day by day. As in other hilly areas, landslide is a problem in the city and the state as a whole The increase in RCC work increased considerably in Aizawl vicinity attracts the plain people to be engage in these works. Almost all the RCC works

were done by these people, demand of labours from the nearby states increased day by day. Singh and Iyer¹³ pointed out that recruitment of migrants is much motivated by strategies of labour control and wage cost reduction. The finding seems to hold good in the case of Mizoram that the plain people are preferred because their labour is easier to control and the wage rate can be lower than the local persons.

Rural – Urban Fringe

The rural-urban fringe is not just an Indian phenomenon; it has its counterparts in the west. Wehrwein¹⁴ an American land economist, was the first social scientist to define the rural-urban fringe, according to him, this is an area of transition between well organised urban landuses and the area devoted to agriculture. Blizzard and Anderson¹⁵ have attempted a more specific definition, and according to them, the rural-urban fringe is that area of mixed urban and rural landuses between the point where agricultural landuses predominate. This definition may be used to define the inner (city ward) and outer (rural areas) boundaries of the rural – urban fringe. In the Indian context, this definition cannot be clear, for example, Indian cities civic services are generally very poor, piped water

supply and sewage, are not available in some parts of the city, or may even be totally absent.

Mizoram is a hilly area, the state capital is also located on the hills with numerous gorge. The outer area of the city were usually depended on the inner areas, in terms of education, business, shopping, medical facilities etc. The areas of their location were considered as part of the city while its agricultural land is included in the fringe zone. For example, Durtlang, Sihphir in the north, Zemabawk in the east, Tanhril, Sakawrtuichhun, in the west, Saikhamakawn, Melriat in the South, were within the boundary of Aizawl City while their agricultural land were outside the city area. They were depend on their products and then supply to the inner area such as milk, vegetables, flowers, fruits, etc. Apart from the regular vegetables sellers in the market, there were more than 3000 persons gathered from these areas who sell their products every Saturday in different parts of the city occupying any place they found, like road side and near the main market.

The rapid growth of Aizawl city has its positive as well as adverse effect.

The first problem is implementation of Master Plan, though Master Plan of Aizawl city was prepared in 2002, it remain for most plan on paper, the authorities are not capable of implementing the plan. The problem is that town planning is a state subject and the state has serious financial constraints, as a result, town planning at the state level remains ineffective which is also a problem facing other states. In spite of the fact that Aizawl Development Authority was established under Aizawl Development Act in 2005 and Mizoram Municipality was passed in 2006, they are still not functioning as they are supposed to.

Secondly, another problem found in the city is that of congestion and traffic jam. The total length of Aizawl city is 220 km. and the number of vehicles on road as per Directorate of Transport Office (DTO) is 37,881 private and 5,122 government vehicles. It is estimated that 40 percent of them were running in the city. The total number of taxis in the city is 2,800 while the recognized taxi stand can accommodate only 250 taxis at a time, indicating that more than 2000 taxis were running round in the city whether they have passenger or not. The total number of city bus is 224, excluding any other bus not enrolled in Aizawl City Bus Owner Association (ACBOA) while the road length for them is only

32km i.e. more than 7 buses per km. During the peak hour, in some places a vehicle needs one hour to travel one kilometer.

Provision of safe drinking water in urban places has been an important priority of the State government. Inadequate supply of drinking water is a major problem in the Aizawl City. Though the Greater Aizawl Water Supply Scheme Phase II has been initiated by the government, it is not yet functioning. At present, the water supply in Aizawl city is supposed to cater to 80,000¹⁶ people which is 36.79 percent of the total Aizawl population, it is thus evident that a large percentage of the population do not have access to pure drinking water.

The excess in population increases the rate of educated unemployed persons. As such the youth have excess leisure time resulting in the increase social evils. From the record of Aizawl Thana, record section, 332 persons were arrested under IPC from January to September 2007. 43 of them were Myanmarese origin and 21 were plain people.

The congested housing creates many problems, no proper drainage system, no spacing between houses, no place for parking of vehicles, limited supply of drinking water. The unplanned city can also increase, pollution, house damage during monsoon. As per data collected from the office of the Deputy Commissioner, 238 houses were damaged during monsoon of 2007 in the city, 91 of them were fully damaged. The approximate value of the damage is calculated to be the worth of Rs 480 lakh. Majority of damage is due to absence of proper drainage. Another reason being constructing houses in the landslide prone areas.

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CHAPTER – VIII

RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN LEVEL OF ECONOMIC DEVELOPMENT AND MIGRATION

Levels of Economic Development

It is a historical fact that people often migrates from economically less developed region to a more developed region. In the absence of barriers to mobility, population migration has frequently been found to occur as a result of regional disparity in the levels of economic development. A differing level of economic development leads to human migration which becomes van implicit factor of population distribution. The great intensity and rapidity of migration which began in the nineteenth century is basically linked with the upsurge of industry¹. Recently, the flow of international migration has slowed down and internal migration now accounts for principal movements of population. In Brazil² and Africa³ the same trend has been observed. In contemporary African mobility, which consists of three main components in the rural-urban continuum, economic factors are of prime importance.⁴ In India also the international migration is of a much smaller significance

compared with internal migration except in a few states of NE Region like Tripura and Assam.

Hence, an attempt has been made to find whether or not the differential attainment in economic development has actually resulted in inter-district migration in the study area. In other words, an attempt has been made to study the economic structure of various districts of the state and then to see whether migration stream gets attracted to more developed districts or not. This chapter concentrates mainly on analysis of the measures development of the eight districts of Mizoram such that the postulate of migratory movement is provided with a theoretical foundation.

Some Basic Economic Problems of the Region

The region under study has some peculiar types of economic problems which are generally not found in other parts of the country. These are the inherent characteristics defying any generalisation as enumerated below:

Transport Bottlenecks

Transport and Communication facilities are the skeleton of an economy on which the body of a country can be moulded and sustained. A proper network of transport facilitates easy movement of inputs and disposal of finished products to various market centres. Unfortunately, the region under study has a poor transport link with other states. The connecting road is only National Highway No 54 linking Mizoram with the rest of the country through Silchar, capital of Cachar District, Assam. Thus, transport bottlenecks constitute a very serious hindrance in maintaining supply line to the State practically depends on the supply of most essential commodities from outside. Consequently the price level prevailing in this area is much higher than that of other parts of the country. High cost of transport also acts as a serious obstacle to the launching of various development programmes. The internal road transport system is also extremely bad. A large part of the area of the state is either inaccessible or ill served by the existing transport facilities. The difficult hilly terrain coupled with innumerable rivers and streams which are prone to floods and landslides create problems of road construction.

Agriculture Backwardness

The large practice of shifting cultivation known as jhuming, a primitive type of cultivation is a major reason for the backwardness of agriculture. The percentage of total population depending on shifting cultivation is still very high and has become a way of life of the people. However the problem is that shifting cultivation is basically a stationary one, without any scope of investment in capital and stock accumulation. In fact, the rate of agriculture growth under shifting cultivation is nil⁵.

As a result, the total production and the total gross income are quite low, the per hectare yield of paddy is as low as 1.89 quintals in 2001-02. One of the serious charges against this system is a direct consequence of jhuming. Further, we also notice the disappearance of agriculture practices in certain pockets due to the depletion of surface soil, and this is caused by deforestation.

Apart from the problem of jhuming, we find that the state is far from self sufficient in foodgrains production.

Lack of Industrialisation

In the sphere of industrialization, Mizoram is the least industrialized state in the country and its vast forests and fast flowing rivers remain untapped. The state produce only 9.12 MW but the total consumption of the state is 132.88 MW⁶, the rest being imported from the other states.

We observe that the lack of basic infrastructural facilities like transport and communication, power, skilled labour, financial constraints, lack of data and poor surveys of the regions are some of the inhibiting factors in the industrial growth of the region. Industry may be given a backseat in the budget allocation mainly because without proper research being done on the industrial front, no concrete industrial policy can yet be formulated.

Inadequacy of Skilled and Unskilled Man –Power

Skilled man power is the key factor for accelerating economic development process of a region. Though Mizoram is the second highest in literacy rate, the state is faced with scarcity of skilled man power for implementing various developmental projects mainly due to inertia, isolation and lack of higher educational facilities.

Selection of Indicators

Since the levels of economic development are not directly measurable, one must select suitable indicators. A development indicator should represent some aspect of development such as industrialization, health, equality, participation, etc., because development involves changes in structure, capacity and output. It may be a direct measure of some non-measurable phenomenon, viz., standard of living. Drewnowski⁷ is in favour of indicators limited to observable and measurable phenomena.

Indicators may be studied in three cases. In the first case, indicators are selected to represent the different components, ideally these elements should be homogeneous, mutually exhaustive and mutually exclusive. In the second case, a single indicator is constructed by combining a number of indices, involving some system of weighing indices. In the third case, a representative indicator is selected as the best measure of a particular phenomenon with other indicators of the same phenomenon. In all the three cases the validation of the indicator depends on its reliability, sensitivity and accuracy and on the consistency of its

relation to other development indicators. The justification for selection of a particular indicator and a particular process of selection will depend, however, on the purpose for which they are to be selected. Thus, the selection of indicators requires subjective judgment on the part of the researcher.

The meaning of the levels of development has had different connotations to various scholars. They have historically acquired a certain meaning, though this is not precise or universally valid. The procedure of measuring the levels of development must, therefore, attempt to tap these implications as best as possible. The essential test of acceptability of these indices is how best it approximates the essence of the concept. There is no foolproof method of reaching an operational index from the theoretical concepts except by making a number of judgements. These can roughly be grouped into two categories :

1. Selecting an indicator or indicators for formulating composite index; and
2. Deciding the nature of relationship among the variables of the composite index.

Some crude indices of development can be evolved with the help of single indicators such as the level of an activity (or some derived indicator such as the co-efficient of location), per capita income, level of urbanization, employment, etc.

The choice of indicators of regional development should distinguish between the basic forces and derivative results; and base itself on the intrinsic relationship between spatial and sectoral processes in holistic frame. With such an approach, the groups of economic, demographic, and social indicators, or individual indicators within each group, reflect different aspects of phenomenon, which in spite of its complexity and its apparently fragmented character, is essentially one.

Economic Indicators : Per capita income is perhaps the best single measure of economic development of a region.⁸ It is an aggregative type of indicator, wholly capable of evaluating the combined effect of several indicators of the economy in grading the districts on the ladder of development. However this indicator could not be used for lack of availability district level data.

The share of workers to total population is a good indicator because it shows the level of dependence on the working force which has a definite bearing on the standard of living and savings. The share of workers engage in non-agricultural activities definitely indicates the level of economic development, because it shows that the modern sectors of the economy like manufacturing, business, employment in government services etc. have been able to absorb more and more workers and relieve the pressure on cultivable land.

Socio-Demographic Indicators : With economic development, social and demographic conditions are likely to improve. So, the socio-demographic indicators would certainly point out the levels of economic development.

Urbanisation reflects the horizontal movements of people in response to changes in the sectoral structure associated with economic development.⁹ So, the level of urbanization, i.e. the percentage of urban population to total population is a well accepted indicator of development. Literacy percentage and infant mortality rate are also good indicators for economic development.

Infrastructure Indicators : The economic development of a region largely depends on the development of a sound infrastructural base. Roads constitute a very important infra-structural item of economic development. The mileage of surface roads per 100sq km. and per ten thousand population will be selected for indicators of transport development.

With economic development, the health conditions also improve. So the indicators of health condition would certainly determine the levels of economic development. The expectancy of life, the maternal death rate, infant death are used as human development index by the U.N. Since the report of these were not available at district level, only hospital beds per ten thousand population has been chosen as indicator of health conditions.

In modern sector of the economy, indices on industrial development will become one of the most important indicators of economic development. Since, Mizoram is industrially backward, having no manufacturing industries in any of the regions, we have decided to use the number of small scale industries per ten thousand population is taken

as one of the indicators. The provision and availability of banking facilities, public libraries also become good indicators for economic development.

Educational Indicators : Effective literacy is a good indicator of educational development, particularly in a case like India where literacy is very low. The percentage of school-going children in the age-group 6-14 years is another good indicator of the state of affairs in educational sphere. It throws light on the effort with which the lack of education is being made up. But such data is not available for all the districts of the study area, so this also could not be included as indicator of economic development. The indicators selected for education are number of elementary school per ten thousand population, number of enrolment in higher studies, pass percentage of HSLC results.

Above all, power development, Trade and commerce are good indicators for economic development, for example per capita electric power consumption, per capita sales tax etc. however such data are collected on the basis of commercial circles which do not correspond to

districts. Hence, these indicators were not included in the present analysis of migratory movement across districts.

To summarise, the following are the parameters finally selected for the present study to indicate the level of economic development in the State.

- i) percentage of workers to total population
- ii) percentage of urban population
- iii) literacy percentage
- iv) percentage of cultivators to total population
- v) percentage of workers engage in non agricultural activities.
- vi) Infant mortality rate
- vii) length of surface road per ten thousand population
- viii) length of surface road per 100sq km
- ix) length of total road (surfaced and unsurfaced) per ten thousand population
- x) no. of elementary School per thousand population
- xi) no. of police station per ten thousand population
- xii) no. of hospital beds per ten thousand population

- xiii) no. of LPG subscriber per households
- xiv) no. of telephone subscriber per 100 households
- xv) no. of enrolment in higher studies (College) per ten thousand population
- xvi) pass percentage of High School leaving Certificate Examination 2006
- xvii) no. of libraries per ten thousand population
- xviii) no. of small scale industries per ten thousand population
- xix) no. of commercial banks per ten thousand population

The data for the indicators of economic development were collected from the publications of the Census of India and Statistical report of Mizoram, published by the Directorate of Economic & Statistics.

In order to know the degree of association among the selected indices Kendall Coefficient of concordance¹⁰ (W) has been calculated with the help of the following formula :

$$W = \frac{12 S}{K^2 (N^3 - N)}$$

For calculating W, the districts were ranked for each of the nineteen indicators, by summing up (Appendix A) the ranks for all the indicators composite ranks (R_j) were obtained for each district. By summing up of the squared deviation of the composite rank ($R_j - \check{R}$) for each district, the value of S was obtained.

Table 8.1 : Calculation of W for the Levels of Economic Development 2000-2001

	Composite Rank R_j	$R_j - \check{R}$	$(R_j - \check{R})^2$
Mamit	90	4.5	20.25
Kolasib	73	-12.5	156.25
Aizawl	69	-16.5	272.25
Champhai	85	-0.5	0.25
Serchhip	75	-10.5	110.25
Lunglei	73	-12.5	156.25
Lawngtlai	115	29.5	870.25
Saiha	104	18.5	342.25

$$\check{R} = 85.5$$

$$S = \sum (R_j - \check{R})^2 = 1928$$

$$W = \frac{12 S}{K^2 (N^3 - N)}$$

$$= \frac{12 \times 1928}{19^2 (8^3 - 8)}$$

$$= 0.13$$

The significance of the value of W (0.13) was tested with the help of the following formula, which is suitable for large samples (N larger than 7)

$$\chi^2 = K (N-1)W$$

with degree of freedom = N – 1

$$\chi^2 = 19(8-1)0.13 = 17.29$$

The value of χ^2 (17.29) is significant at two percent level. The theoretical value of χ^2 is 16.62.

Spatial Pattern of the Levels of Economic Development

In order to know the regional pattern of the levels of economic development in 2000-2001, the districts of the study area have been categorized into five groups on the basis of the composite rank of the nineteen indices, with the help of Median, Quartiles and Octiles.

Table 8.2 : Districts According to Levels of Economic Development (19 indices)

Category	Position of Median, Quartile or Octile	Value of composite rank	District
Very High	Above Q	Below 70	Aizawl
High	Q	70 – 79	Lunglei, Kolasib, Serchhip
Medium	M	80 – 89	Champhai
Low	O	90 – 99	Mamit
Very Low	Below O	Above 100	Saiha, Lawngtlai

The above table shows the levels of economic development for different districts. From the table, Aizawl exhibited a very high level of economic development, followed by Lunglei, Kolasib and Serchhip all of which are classified in the group of High category. Champhai falls on the category of Medium and Mamit falls on Low category while Saiha and Lawngtlai recorded the lowest level of economic development.

It is shown from the table that Aizawl district is the most developed district from the study of 19 indices. The main reason for the

high ranking of Aizawl district is the concentration of commercial activity and government functionaries in the state capital Aizawl itself. The indicators like percentage of urban population, literacy percentage and no. of enrolment in higher studies were highly influenced by the existence of the capital city of the State.

The next category of the level of economic development were Lunglei, Kolasib and Serchhip districts. The most important transportation route with the nearby State passes through all these districts including Aizawl district. This may be one of the reasons for their attaining a rather high ranking enumeration in the level of economic development.

Champhai district falls on the category of a middle level of development index and this is attributed to the locational advantage. Even then, Champhai, the capital of the district is the most important centre of foreign trade. Mamit district falls under the category of Low level of economic development where urban population is least excluding Lawngtlai district. As shown in the table, Saiha and Lawngtlai districts are found to reach the lowest level of economic development. Apart from

their geographical isolation, the districts have a very poor infrastructural facilities. This is the main reason for their low achievement development.

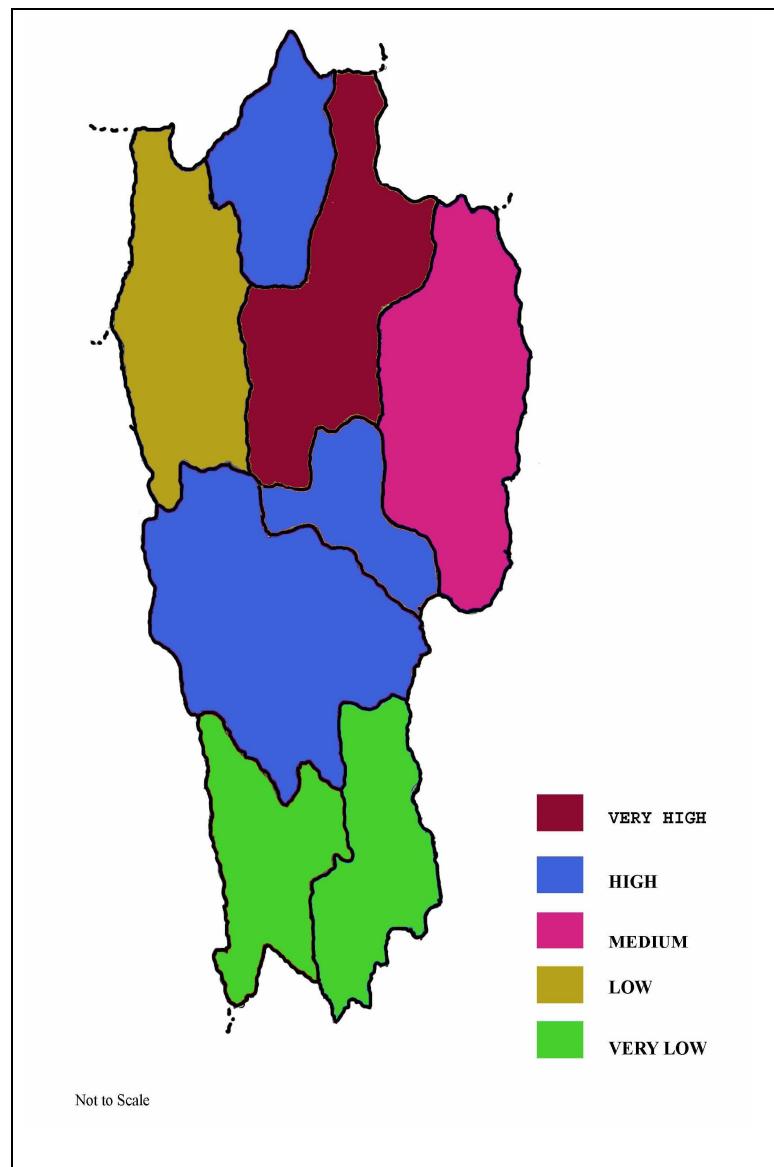


Fig8.1 : Mizoram- Levels of Economic Development (19 Indices)

The above discussions clearly show that southern areas of the state were economically backward, the next categories were found from the

neighbouring areas of other countries. These areas are usually characterized by low urbanization, lack of transportation facilities, predominance of primitive agricultural system.

The pressure of population has been emphasized in almost all the indicators, and it was found that some indicators were not relevant for the present study. Nineteen indices have been reduced to ten indices. They are as follows :

- i) percentage of workers to total population
- ii) percentage of urban population
- iii) literacy percentage
- iv) percentage of workers engage in non-agricultural activities
- v) length of surfaced roads per 100 sq km
- vi) no. of hospital beds per ten thousand population
- vii) no. of enrolment in higher studies per ten thousand population
- viii) no. of libraries per ten thousand population
- ix) no. of small scale industries per ten thousand population
- x) no. of commercial banks per ten thousand population

Table 8.3 : District According to Levels of Economic Development (10 indices)

	Composite Rank R _j	R _j - \check{R}	(R _j - \check{R}) ²
Mamit	51	6	36
Kolasib	34	-11	121
Aizawl	25	-20	400
Champhai	42	-3	9
Serchhip	35	-10	100
Lunglei	40	-5	25
Lawngtlai	74	29	841
Saiha	59	14	196

$$\check{R} = 45$$

$$S = \sum (R_j - \check{R})^2 = 1728$$

$$\begin{aligned}
 W &= \frac{S}{1/12 K^2 (N^3 - N)} \\
 &= \frac{1728}{(1/12) 10^2 (8^3 - 8)} \\
 &= 0.41
 \end{aligned}$$

$$\chi^2 = K (N-1)W$$

$$\chi^2 = 10(8-1)0.41 = 28.7$$

The value of χ^2 (28.7) is significant at .001 level. The theoretical value of χ^2 is 24.32.

From the above study, it has been found that both of them were statistically significant, however, calculations on the basis of 10 indices is more significant than calculations on the basis of 19 indices.

Table 8.4 : Districts According to Levels of Economic Development (10 Indices)

Category	Position of Median, Quartile or Octile	Value of composite rank	District
Very High	Above Q	Below 30	Aizawl
High	Q	30 – 39	Kolasib, Serchhip
Medium	M	40 – 49	Lunglei, Champhai
Low	O	50 – 59	Mamit, Saiha
Very Low	Below O	Above 60	Lawngtlai

Table 8.4 reveals that Aizawl district recorded the highest level of economic development falling under the category of Very High followed by Kolasib district and Serchhip district. Lunglei district and Champhai district falls under the category of Medium. Mamit district and Saiha district located under the category of Low level of economic development. Lawngtlai District remains at the lowest level of economic development.

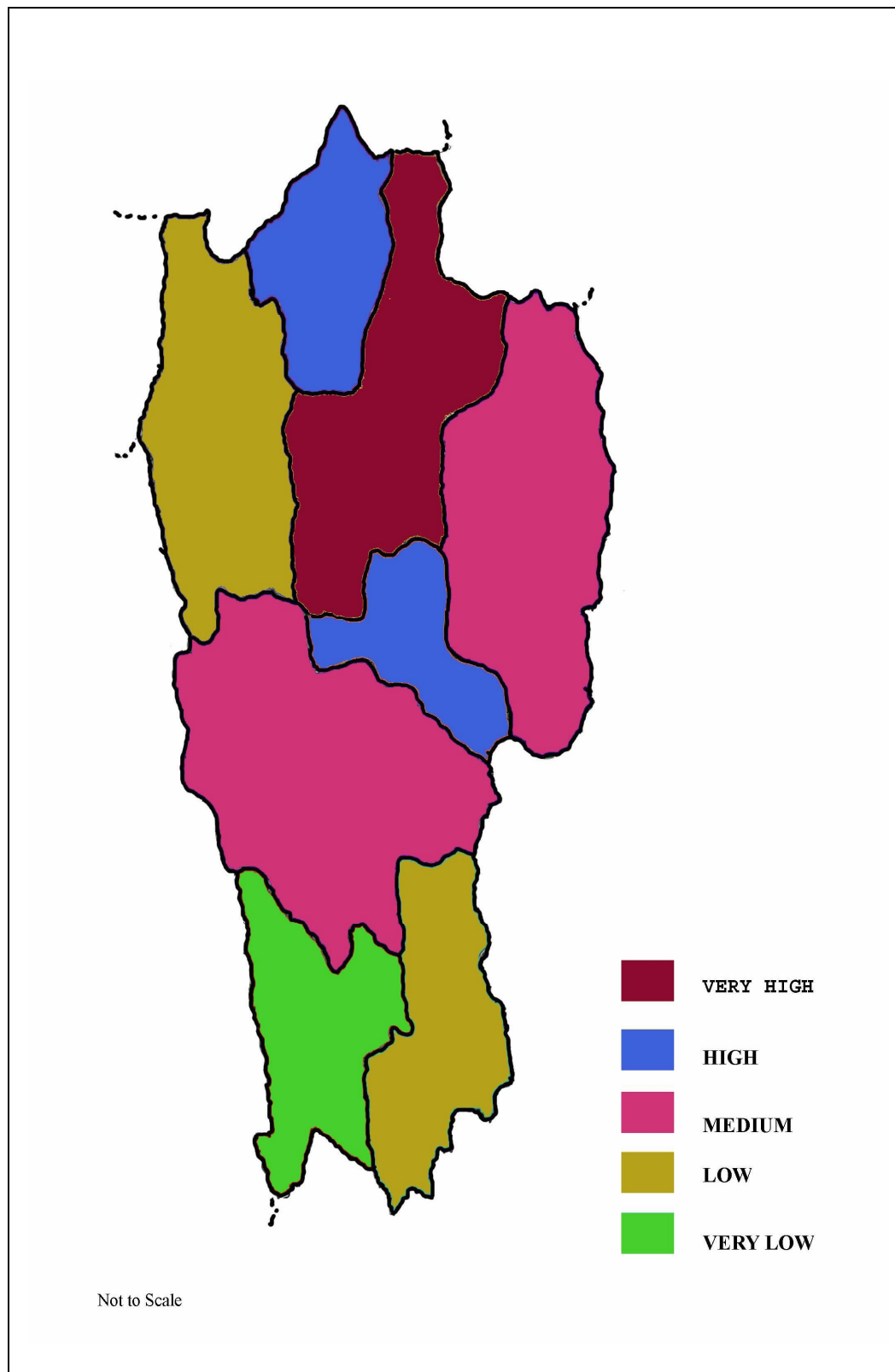


Fig. 8.2 : Mizoram – Levels of Economic Development (10 indices)

The study based on nineteen indices and ten indices exhibits almost a similar pattern with slight variation. Only two districts have changed their positions, Lunglei district moved down to the next lower category while Saiha district moved up to the next higher level.

From the study of nineteen indices and ten indices, we can conclude that. Aizawl district is the most developed district of the state while Lawngtlai district is the least developed district of the state. The developments of the state strongly depend on the urban population. The most urbanized district is the most developed district of the state followed by the second and third urbanized district i.e Kolasib and Serchhip. Lawngtlai district where urban population is nil exhibits the least achievement in economic development.

It is important to examine the relation between the level of development of a district and the rate of migration. If the district is backward and underdeveloped, the new entrance in labour force and the existing unemployed persons could not find much of the employment opportunities in that district. Naturally they would look for the employment opportunities in other districts.

In this study, composite ranks which were obtained from 10 indices will be retained as the variables are relevant to applied study on empirical basis.

In order to study the relationship between the level of economic development and migration, composite rank was converted into the real value of economic development, calculated by using the formula

$$100(1- R_j/80)$$

The number 80 is chosen as the maximum summing up of all ranks is 80 (10X8)

The value of the level of economic development ranges from 0 to 87.5 (nearly 88). The percentage of each value is calculated which gives the true value of the economic development of the district.

The value of economic development for each district are given below :-

Table 8.5 : Value of Economic Development

Districts of Mizoram	Value of Eco. Development
Mamit	48
Kolasib	70
Aizawl	82
Champhai	59
Serchhip	69
Lunglei	62
Lawngtlai	18
Saiha	37

The relationship between migration and economic development is calculated with the help of correlation co-efficient R^2_{YX} where Y is the value of economic development and X is the value for migration.

R is calculated by using the formula $R^2_{YX} = \frac{b \sum xy}{\sum y^2}$

Which may be suitable for one variable¹¹

Where $b = \frac{n \sum XY - \sum X \sum Y}{n \sum X^2 - (\sum X)^2}$

The value of R lies between 0 and 1, depending upon the value of R, the nearer the value to 1 indicates that the two variables are highly correlated while the nearer the value to 0 indicate poor correlation between the two.

The test performed in regression analysis is a test concerning the overall explanatory power of the regression as measured by R^2 . The F ratio is a test of significance of R.

$$F = \frac{R^2}{1-R^2} \frac{(N-K)}{(K-1)}$$

If F value is lower than the theoretical value, the correlation is statistically not significant, this implies that there is no linear relationship between Y and X i.e. Economic development has no effect on migration.

The value of economic development is indicated by Y whereas the value of percentage of migration to total population is shown in the column of X's

Table 8.6 : Value of Eco. Dev. and Percentage of Migrants to Total Population

	Value of eco dev. (Y)	Percentage of migrants to total population (X's)				
		Total (X ₁)	Rural (X ₂)	Urban (X ₃)	Internal (X ₄)	External (X ₅)
Mamit	48	27	27	23	19	8
Kolasib	70	28	24	28	17	9
Aizawl	82	41	21	46	23	8
Champhai	59	24	24	23	17	7
Serchhip	69	16	12	20	14	2
Lunglei	62	24	21	25	19	4
Lawngtlai	18	31	31	0	28	3
Saiha	37	13	8	22	8	4

For calculating Correlation between Y and X's, each value of X will be calculated separately.

Table 8.7 : The Calculated Value of R^2 and F

	R^2	F
Y on X_1	0.064	0.413
Y on X_2	0.051	0.323
Y on X_3	0.728	16.059
Y on X_4	0.024	0.145
Y on X_5	0.191	1.419

Table 8.7 clearly indicates that urban migrants is statistically significant. The calculated value of R^2 is 0.728 i.e. the explained variables were 73% while 27% were unexplained, which define that there is a high linear correlation between urban migration and economic development. The F value is 16.059 which is significant at .02 level.

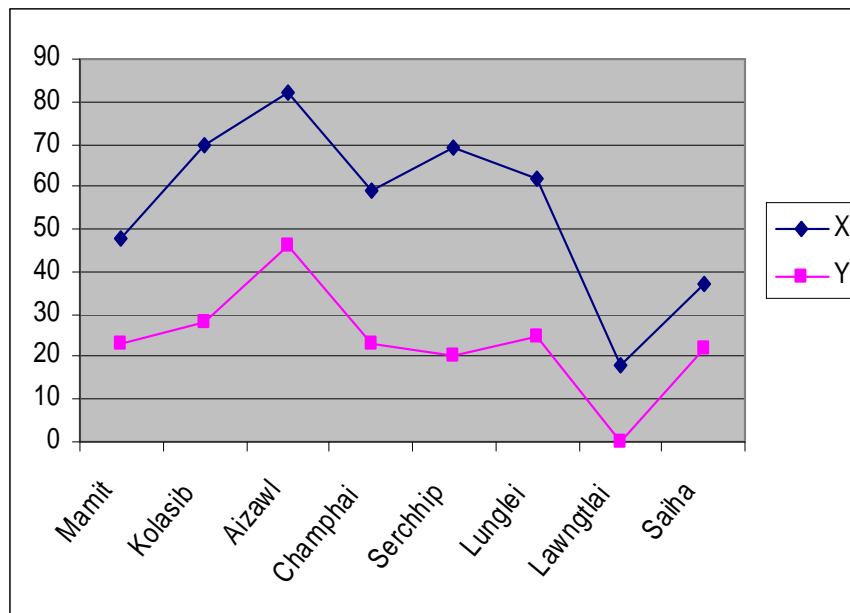


Fig. 8.3 : Relationship between Economic Development and Urban Migration

In rural migration, the calculated value of R^2 is 0.051 indicating that the explained variables were only 5% while 95% remain unexplained. The observed F value is 0.323 which is not statistically significant at any level, indicating that there is no linear relation between rural migration and economic development.

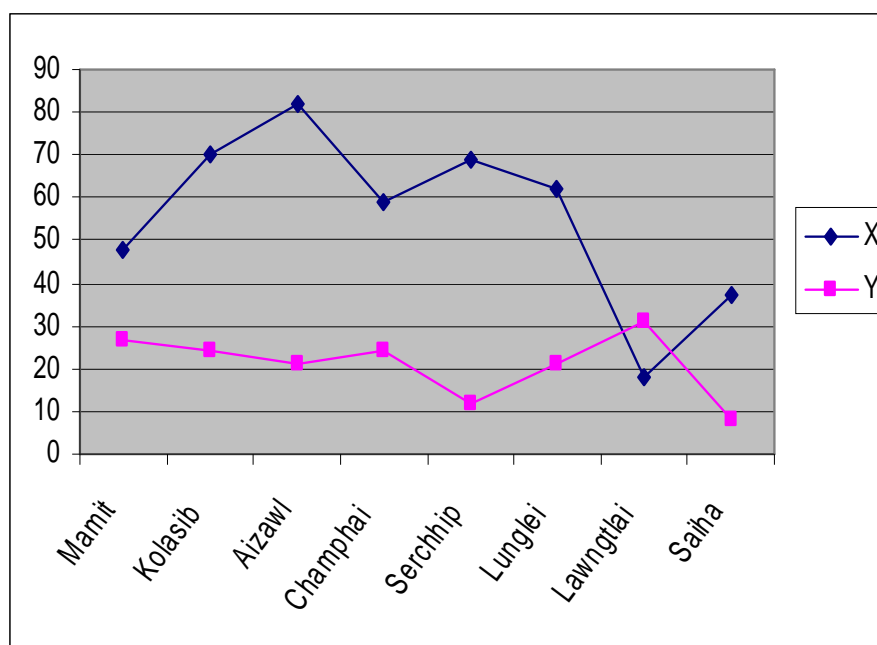


Fig. 8.4 : Relationship between Economic Development and Rural Migration

It can be said that, migrations to rural areas were not due to the development of the district, but due to the change of residence for better agricultural products or marriage.

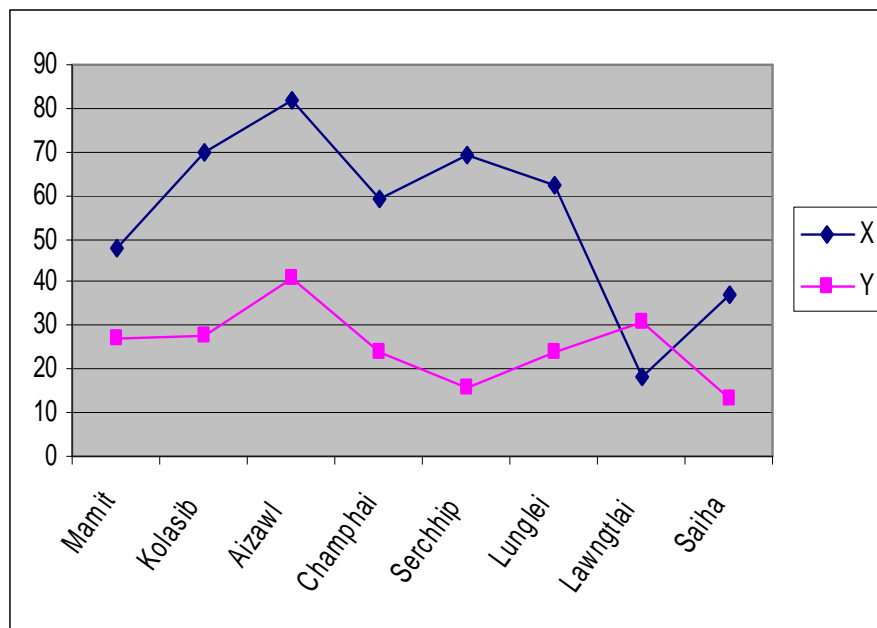


Fig. 8.5 : Relationship between Economic Development and Total Migration

In the case of Total migration, the observed value of R^2 is 0.064 and the observed value of F is 0.413 which is also not statistically significant.

Though F value is not significant at any level, it is higher than the value found out in the case of rural migration, this means that economic development has more effect on total migration than in the case of rural migration.

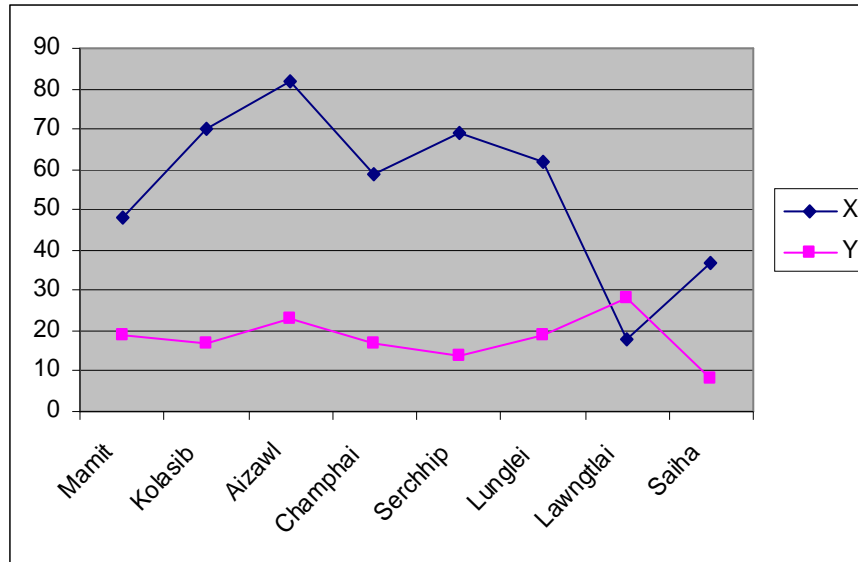


Fig. 8.6 : Relationship between Economic Development and Internal Migration

So far as the external and internal migration are concerned, the calculated value of R^2 in the case of external migration is 0.191 which is higher than the value of 0.024 in the case of internal migration. The F value for internal migration is 0.145 which is not statistically significant at any level.

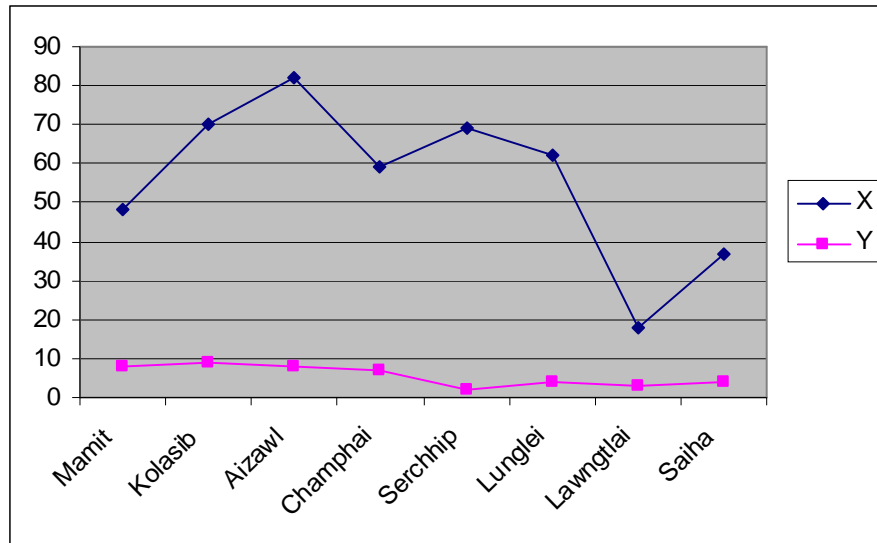


Fig. 8.7 : Relationship between Economic Development and External Migration

The observed value of F for external migration is 1.419 which is not significant at any level, it can be said that economic development effects external migration than internal migration.

From the above discussion, we can conclude that urbanization is closely related with the economic development. In other words, migrations to urban places usually depend on the development of the districts. The more urbanized districts receive more migrants than the less urbanized districts.

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- ² *Ibid* p.123
- ³ *Ibid* p 124
- ⁴ Prothero,R.M. (1971) : ‘*A Typology of African Population mobility*’ Proceedings of the symposium on population Geography 21st International Geographical Congress, New Delhi, National Committee for Geography, Calcutta. p136.
- ⁵ Ganguli, J. B - “*Planning for Forestry Development in the North Eastern Region. An Approach*”, in Dasgupta, M. et al (eds) *Forestry Development in North East India*, Omsons Publication, New Delhi, 1986 p 128
- ⁶ Statistical Handbook of Mizoram 2002
- ⁷ Baster,N. (ed) (1972): ‘*Development, Indicators : An introduction in Measuring Development*, Frank Cass & Co. Ltd., pp 1-20
- ⁸ Yadav, J.P.S., and Prasad, H. (1966): ‘*Spatial Pattern of Economic Development in India*’ The Deccan Geograpier, Vol. No 2 pp 10-42
- ⁹ Raza,M. & Chatopadhyay B.(1973): ‘*Regional Development : An Analytical Framework and Indicator*’ *Working paper presented in the Symposium in Regional Disparities in India*, First Indian Geographical Congress, New Delhi, pp19-20
- ¹⁰ Siegel, Sydney (1956) : *Non parametric Statisttic for Behavioural Sciences*, International Student Edition, McGrow Hill Book Co., Inc., Tokyo Pp 235-36
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CHAPTER - IX

CONCLUSION AND FINDINGS

Besides fertility and mortality, migration is the only source of population change. Owing to its impact on demographic, economic, social and political situation of a region, it is very important.

In the present study, an attempt has been made to study the pattern of internal and external migration, impact of migrants, trends of urbanization and finally the relationship between the levels of economic development and migration.

The study reveals that the share of population mobility in Mizoram is not uniform. The share of internal migration in 1971 Census and 1981 Census is very high. This is due to the effect of grouping policy by the Government of India in 1967-70. High percentage of internal migration during these decades is due more political rather than to economic development. However as per 2001 Census, the share of total migrants in Mizoram is 30.27 percent of the total population of the state.

The distribution of internal migration is not uniform at district level. The highest percentage of migrants to total population is found in Lawngtlai district occupying 27.75 percent of the district total population, where as in Saiha district, migrants occupy only 8.39 percent of the total population.

As far as the external migration is concerned, we also find unequal distribution of migrants in different districts. 57.59 percent of the total external migrants were found to settle in Aizawl district while 1.52 percent of the total migrants were found to settle in Serchhip district. Work or Employment opportunity is the main reason of migration for external migrants.

Migrants from other states were usually uneducated (may be literate) mostly engaged in constructions of buildings etc. as unskilled and semi skilled labour. The increase of these migrants caused excess supply of labour resulting in the reduction of wage rate in the state which works to the advantage of the employer. It is important to note that huge amount of income in the state has been continually drained off to other states.

The unwillingness of local labour to engage in hard manual labour has been the principal reason for in-migration of labour from outside the state. The attitude of shirking manual labour did not come by the effect of expansion in industrial sector, and it was the result of liberal assistance given by the centre in the form of grants-in-aid. Many ordinary persons can now get a stable source of income through government jobs and those who can escape the age old agricultural works are rising in number.

In the mean time, it has been found that the crime rate in the more advanced districts has been rising considerably. Such criminal activities as robbery, homicide, alcoholism and drug abuse have close connection with the desperate immigrants from the neighbouring countries such as Myanmar and Bangladesh. These immigrants are not distinguishable by their physical features. Illegal migrants of Chakma are usually settled in the area of Chakma district council, and they cannot be identified without proper registration system and porous rules of the government cannot check illegal immigration. But these problems are not insurmountable if at all there is a political will and effective administration.

An analysis of the trend of urbanization reveals the urban centres of Mizoram are concomitantly administrative towns (either State capital, district or sub-divisional headquarters). High percentage of urbanization in the state is more of administrative decision than of structural change. It is found that only Aizawl city, the state capital exhibits the criteria laid down for urban centres by the Census of India.

The highest level of economic development is found in Aizawl district which is because of the location of high concentration of investment in Aizawl City. Other developed districts were Serchhip, Kolasib and Lunglei. These districts were located along the National Highway which connects Assam and Aizawl, the state capital and then Lunglei, the second most important centre of the state. It can be concluded that development of the state depends on infrastructure like roads and other networks of communication. The less developed districts were characterized by poor infrastructural development of transport and communication.

It has been found that urban migration is the most important pattern of migration in the state. The rapid growth of population of

Aizawl city was due to the influx of migrants from the rural areas where the deterioration of agriculture economy has been catching up at a rapid stride. The study also found that due to centralisation of administrative set up and growth of infrastructure in Aizawl city, people tend to migrate to Aizawl city.

High percentage of workers engaged in agricultural and allied industries indicates that the state's domestic product is low. It is therefore suggested to improve agricultural product by introducing new and better cropping pattern which would give more economic returns to the local people. There is a good potentiality and experiments are also going on for the cultivation of tomato, squash, tea in the suburb area of Aizawl, betel nut plantation in the low-lying area, potato in eastern part of Serchhip district etc. It is important to note that any programme of development requires a proper planning of manpower. The very first problem to be faced is the non-availability of trained personnel and the scope of providing such training in the region.

So far as skilled man power is concerned, it is necessary to invest a large amount of money in human capital development for improved

productive capabilities in the form of i) provision of improved medical and health care ii) arrangement of more on the job training facilities iii) setting up of higher technical institutions iv) arranging study tour and training in specialized institutions. It is therefore suggested that the state should have long term manpower planning in order to accelerate the economic development as well as to reduce the in-migration problem.

It is also suggested that instead of population conglomerating in one or two towns, it is better to develop other areas by providing good transport, educational facilities, health facilities, sport facilities etc. The development of physical infrastructure and social and health care services is essential in enhancing people's choice to stay or migrate.

Another suggestion is to implement nativist policies. In India, every state government is committed to giving employment preference to persons born in the state or who have resided there for a specified length of time.

It is also suggested to develop the fringe zone for the physical expansion of the city, this expansion ought to be well planned, and the

fringe area must be made as attractive as, and perhaps even more attractive than the city area. There is no reason why fringe areas cannot be developed keeping in mind the quality of environment, even the rich in the city would migrate to the fringe zone.

Though there are many suggestions to reduce the urban migration it will continue till all administrative and commercial centre were located in urban centres. It is therefore suggested to diversify the administrative centre from the main city to other places or suburb area or decentralization of Aizawl City. To think that large cities alone generate development is fallacious. The most developed states of India – Punjab and Kerala did not have any single big city. In these two states, the lower order settlements, both urban and rural, have become vibrant with productive functions which include agricultural and allied activities, agro-processing, manufacturing, and services of various kinds centred on agricultural production and trade.

The urban hierarchy in Mizoram may be in the primate condition, i.e. the largest city in Mizoram is more than twice the size of the second city. The second largest town in Mizoram is Lunglei the total population

is only 20.61 percent of the total population of Aizawl city. To redistribute the population away from primate cities, and to reduce the adversities of over-urbanisation is therefore another objective to be implemented.

Appendix A

Total population, Urban population, and Percentage of Migrants

State & U.T. in India	Total population '000	Percentage of urban population	Total migrants. P.c to total pop.	Migrants in rural areas. P.c to total rural	Migrants in Urban places. P.c to total urban
Jammu & Kashmir	10,144	24.81	17.23	15.04	23.88
Himachal Pradesh	6,078	9.8	35.06	32.51	58.58
Punjab	24,359	33.92	37.12	33.77	43.63
Chandigarh	901	89.77	63.49	33.77	19.43
Uttaranchal	84,859	25.67	35.47	32.42	44.27
Haryana	21,145	28.92	35.44	30.65	47.22
Delhi	13,851	93.18	43	47.59	42.67
Rajasthan	56,507	23.39	28.13	28.31	27.57
Uttar Pradesh	1,66,198	20.78	23.9	23.87	23.98
Bihar	82,999	10.46	24.08	23.72	27.18
Sikkim	541	11.07	33.98	31.2	56.29
Arunachal Pradesh	1,098	20.75	36.94	30.51	61.47
Nagaland	1,990	17.23	18.06	12.36	45.56
Manipur	2,167	26.58	16.63	16.73	16.36
Mizoram	889	49.63	29.29	22.06	36.64
Tripura	3,199	17.06	29.35	26.94	41.1
Meghalaya	2,319	19.58	15.46	12.94	25.79
Assam	26,656	12.9	24.87	22.12	43.4
West Bengal	80,176	27.97	30.76	28.39	36.89
Jharkhand	26,946	22.24	56.94	24.86	34.23
Orissa	36,805	14.99	29.51	27.34	41.86
Chhatisgarh	20,834	20.09	32.57	29.93	43.06
Madhya Pradesh	60,348	26.46	29.74	28.18	34.08
Gujarat	50,671	37.36	37.12	33.42	43.32
Daman & Diu	158	36.25	43.92	50.99	31.48
Dadra & Nagar Haveli	220	22.89	35.19	25.5	67.83
Maharashtra	96,879	42.43	42.21	39.22	46.26
Andhra Pradesh	76,210	27.3	29.96	28.11	34.91
Karnataka	52,851	33.99	30.62	28.81	34.12
Goa	1,348	49.76	57.43	55.24	59.63
Lakshadweep	61	44.46	15.36	13.41	17.79
Kerala	31,841	25.96	28.37	28.54	27.87
Tamil Nadu	62,406	44.04	24.48	22.05	27.58
Pondicherry	974	66.57	46.04	47.24	45.57
A & N Islands	356	32.63	48.15	48.72	46.97
All India	10,28,610	27.82	29.86	27.59	35.76

Appendix B

Indicators of Economic Development

		percentage of workers to total population
		percentage of urban population
		literacy percentage
		percentage of cultivators to total population
		percentage of workers engage in non agricultural activities
		infant mortality rate
		length of surfaced road per 10000 population
		length of surface roads per 100 sq km
		length of total road (surface & unsurfaced) per 10000 population
		no of elementary school per 1000 population
		no. of police station per 10000 population
		no of hospital beds per 10000 population
		no of LPG subscriber per households
		no of telephone subscriber per 100 households
		no of enrolment in higher studies (College) per 10000 population
		Pass percentage of HSLC results
		no of libraries per 10000 population
		no. of small scale industry per 10000 population
		no. of commercial banks per 10000 population
Mamit	56.01	16.97
Kolasib	53.84	55.34
Aizawl	50.04	76.19
Champhai	62.86	38.79
Serchhip	60.38	48.05
Lunglei	52.32	42.23
Lawngtlai	45.06	-
Saiha	44.19	32.47
	82.2	79.1
	29.83	42.65
	11.66	9.31
	23.26	12.99
	6.43	38.6
	2.81	8.01
	42.03	82.63
	1.85	2.33
	0.96	0.8
	23.09	25.48
	0.81	0.08
	13	6
	18.84	21.18
	27.97	27.36
	1.15	5.1
	40.62	7.01
	0.82	1.44

Appendix C

Ranks of Indicators of Economic Development

Mamit	3	7	7	3	8	5	2	5	1	2	3	8	8	5	8	8	5	8	3	3	8	8	5	8	8	3	8	3	7	3
Kolasib	4	2	3	6	2	7	3	2	3	2	3	6	6	5	5	2	3	4	6	6	2	3	4	5	6	4	5	6	1	
Aizawl	6	1	1	8	1	6	4	1	7	7	8	2	1	1	1	2	7	4	2	2	4	3	5	4	3	4	3	5		
Champhai	1	5	4	2	4	4	1	3	2	8	7	6	6	1	6	7	4	7	7	2	7	5	2	8	4	2	8	4		
Serchhip	2	3	2	1	5	3	5	4	4	5	6	4	7	4	4	7	7	5	4	1	5	5	2	2	5	1	5	2		
Lunglei	5	4	5	4	3	1	6	6	5	3	5	3	3	1	3	3	2	3	6	2	6	6	6	8	4	2	6			
Lawngtlai	7	8	8	5	7	2	8	8	8	1	4	7	5	8	7	1	8	8	8	4	4	6	8	8	4	8	4			
Saiha	8	6	6	7	6	8	7	7	6	4	1	6	4	5	2	4	6	4	5	1	5	6	7	7	1	7	7			

Appendix D

Indicators of Economic Development

	percentage of workers to total population	percentage of urban population	literacy percentage	percentage of workers engage in non agricultural activities	length of surface roads per 100 sq km	no of hospital beds per 10000 population	no of enrolment in higher studies (College) per 10000 population	no of libraries per 10000 population	no. of small scale industry per 10000 population	no. of commercial banks per 10000 population
Mamit	56.01	16.97	79.1	9.31	8.01	25.48	21.18	5.1	7.01	1.44
Kolasib	53.84	55.34	91.3	17.47	17.74	16.68	36.23	4.09	9.4	1.64
Aizawl	50.04	76.19	96.5	31.54	20.58	25.95	132.5	5.04	21.92	0.97
Champhai	62.86	38.79	91.2	12.53	15.01	16.61	24.81	7.84	6.09	0.98
Serchhip	60.38	48.05	95.1	12.09	8.86	24.14	15.22	7.98	15.78	1.62
Lunglei	52.32	42.23	84.2	16.47	4.97	35.7	48.97	3.94	28.79	0.95
Lawngtlai	45.06	-	64.7	9.54	1.32	9.51	14.53	0.81	17.39	0.41
Saiha	44.19	32.47	82.2	11.66	2.81	23.09	18.84	1.15	40.62	0.82

Appendix E

Ranks of the Indicators of Economic Development

	percentage of workers to total population	percentage of urban population	literacy percentage	percentage of workers engage in non agricultural activities	length of surface roads per 100 sq km	no of hospital beds per 10000 population	no of enrolment in higher studies (College) per 10000 population	no of libraries per 10000 population	no. of small scale industry per 10000 population	no. of commercial banks per 10000 population
Mamit	3	7	7	8	5	3	5	3	7	3
Kolasib	4	2	3	2	2	6	3	5	6	1
Aizawl	6	1	1	1	1	2	1	4	3	5
Champhai	1	5	4	4	3	7	4	2	8	4
Serchhip	2	3	2	5	4	4	7	1	5	2
Lunglei	5	4	5	3	6	1	2	6	2	6
Lawngtlai	7	8	8	7	8	8	8	8	4	8
Saiha	8	6	6	6	7	5	6	7	1	7

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