

PATTERN OF FEMALE MIGRATION AND IMPACT OF COVID-19 ON WOMEN MIGRANTS: A REVIEW OF INDIAN SOCIETY

Dr. Supriya Srivastava

Abstract: Migration has been a common phenomenon across the world. The process of rapid migration and its consequences have attracted the attention of many scholars since past few decades. This process is closely associated with the process of urbanization along with globalization. The developmental history has been a witness that urbanization and the growth of urban economy have always attracted significant people from rural areas who play their major role in the growth of urban economy. At the same time, the economic, social and political marginalization of these migrant workers has been an area of concern. It is also seen that the pattern of migration has not influenced only male migration but also the female migration. However, in comparison to male female migrants has to face the situation of vulnerability in urban areas. In current scenario the pandemic of Covid-19 has emerged as a crisis that has impacted all spheres of human life but the situation of poor migrants were worst especially in terms of their livelihood. A massive crisis can be seen among female migrant workers. A large majority of migrants have to lose their job due to sudden locked down, resulted a new pattern of migration which termed as reverse migration. In this context, the proposed study is an attempt to understand firstly, the pattern of migration in India by using the data from Indian census report and NSS. Further, the paper also highlighted the issues emerged as the impact of C-19 on female migrant workers and their families. The study is based on secondary data. By treating females as associational migrants, the study compact the significance of various factors, specifically the socio-economic, which determine their migration pattern. The study also underlines the dismal state of women migrant workers and their families and argues that urgent policy interventions are required to address the impoverishment they are experiencing.

Key words: Migration pattern, determinants female migration, Covid-19, reverse migration

INTRODUCTION

In modern age the growth of urbanization along with globalization and migration have become universal phenomena. Since the late twentieth century the process of migration has transformed as a form movement that push people from rural to urban areas due to several of reasons. In India, migration of labor is an important factor affecting the course of its socio-economic development. The basic decision to migrate involves 'push factors' which force migrant out of the rural areas as well as 'pull factors' who attracts migrants to urban areas. A model developed by Harris and Todaro (1976) elaborates that workers will continue to migrate from rural to urban areas until wages they expect to earn in urban areas are equal to the wages they expect to earn in the rural areas. Various empirical research have built on this foundation to examine individuals' motivation to migrate from rural to urban areas and majority reveal that the primary motivation is indeed economic compulsion (Connell et. al 1976). Not only man but female also

1. Assistant Professor, FMSLA, Shoolini University of Biotech & Management Sciences, Solan, H.P.

migrate from rural to urban areas due to several reasons. It is found that since the past few decades' women have accounted for approximately half of the world's migrants (Zlotnick, 2003). Despite the growing proportion and its significance, the issue of female migration is not sufficiently explored in migration studies. The neglect of research on female's migration is attributed to a number of factors including the emphasis placed on existing economic theories of migration where migration is seen as motivated by economic opportunities i.e. male migration for economic reasons and female migration for social and family-related reasons rather than economic considerations (Premi, 1979; Nangia and Nangial, 1990). However, a large number of migrant women have to face the problem of vulnerability in urban areas like lack of social and economic security, especially when they are low skilled. A growing body of research focuses on women and migration. The proposed study is an attempt to examine the trends and pattern of female migration in the India.

MIGRATION IN INDIA

In India, several studies have been conducted by scholars like Davis (1951), Premi (1980), Singh (1990) etc. to understand the pattern of migration. The census of India has been the main source of information on migration. According to Census 2011, there were 454 million migrants in India. Marriage and other family related migration, which was 72.2 percent of all migration during 1991 to 2001, now is 74.7 percent of all migration during 2001 to 2011, however, the share of marriage is diminishing while the share of other family related migration is growing. As per census 2001, there were 309 million internal migrants and out of this total migrant population, 70.7 percent were female. It is also reported that the percentage of rural migrants were higher than urban migrants (67.2 % vs. 32.8%). Male migrants were relatively more numerous in the urban stream than female migrants (53.1 % vs. 24.4%). The percentage of male migrants in intra-district, inter-district and inter-state migration was 52.2 per cent, 26.7 per cent and 21.1 per cent, respectively, compared with 66.9 per cent, 23 per cent and 10.1 per cent, respectively, for female migrants in these three streams. Although there are several reasons of migration, the census report 2001 also reported that marriage is one of the more important reasons of female migration as compared to male (64.9 % vs. 43.8%).

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

The migration models of Todaro (1970) explain the continuous flow of migration from rural to urban areas increase the rates of unemployment in the destination (urban) region which further results the growth of urban informal sector. Regarding female migration, Ravenstein's laws of migration (1885) indicates that females are more mobile than men over shorter than over long distance. Therefore the population of women among migrants moving over shorter distance is likely to be higher than that among migrants moving over long distance. Women are likely to be better represented among intra-district than among inter-district migrants and inter-state migrants (Premi, 1980). The comparison of female migrants in rural to urban stream seems to be associated with the distance involved in migration and the size of city. It is also found that the relatively

poor and backward states show large population mobility, which is primarily in search of livelihood. The mobility of male population is also found to be prominent in the relatively advanced states like Delhi Maharashtra and Gujarat (Mitra and Murayama, 2008). Considering the factors responsible for migration, Lee (1966), in his book 'the theory of migration' has categorized all major factors responsible for the migration into two groups: 1. Factors associated with the place of origin, termed as 'rural push factors' including poor rural economy, population growth causing Malthusian pressure on agriculture resources, landlessness, flood, inequality in distribution of land in those areas; 2. Factors associated with the place of destination, termed as 'urban pull factors'. These are: urbanization, creation of better job opportunity, higher wages, and comfort available in urban life (c.f. Sundari 2007). The 'rural push factors' always dominate over the 'urban pull factors'. In a study conducted by Hossain (2001) found that while poverty, job searching and family influence are the main push factors for out-migration, they dominate over the urban push factors, the better opportunity, prior migrants and availability of jobs are also the factors behind migration. The group of variables that can affect internal migration flows is quite broad and is related with the quality of life. All these factors concern public safety, social services, environmental quality, as well as political factors (Adrienko and Guriev, 2003).

METHODOLOGY

The present study has proposed to analyze the trend and pattern of female migration in the country. The data is collected from census of India and the period of the study span from 1981 to 2011. NSSO data also used to show the trend of migration in India. To study the trends and patterns of migration, indicators like percentage of migrants, their sex-ratio, rural-urban distribution and various socio-economic characteristics have been used.

OBJECTIVES OF THE STUDY

1. To understand the pattern of migration in India.
2. To analyze the factors responsible for migration in the country
3. To account the problems faced by poor migrants especially poor women migrants during COVID -19 Pandemic.

PATTERN OF MIGRATION

The data based on three decades (1981 to 2011) has shown that every decade the population of migrants increased. As per census report of 2011, highest number of migrants (57.4 million) found in Maharashtra followed by Uttar Pradesh (56.5 million), West Bengal (33.4 million), Gujarat (26.9 million), Kerala (17.9 million) then Punjab (13.7) and Assam (10.6). Table 1 shows the absolute figure of internal migration of male and female population. According to census 2011 the number of migrants has increased from 453.6 million from 201.6 million in 1981. The table also shows that in every decade

number and percentage of female migration is higher than male.

Table 1.1: Number and Percentage of Migrants by Sex, India (1981-2001)

Years	Lifetime migrants (in millions)			Percentage of migrants to total Population		
	Persons	Male	Female	Persons	Male	Female
1981	201.6	59.2	142.4	30.3	17.6	43.9
1991	225.9	61.1	164.8	27.4	14.6	41.2
2001	309.4	90.7	218.7	30.6	17.5	44.6
2011	453.6	-	-	37.0	30.0	70.0

Source: Census in India, 1981, 1991 & 2001

DISTRIBUTION OF MIGRANTS BY MIGRATION STREAMS

As per the place of origin and place of destination, internal migrants can be classified into three migration streams, which are roughly indicative of distance of migration: intra-district migrants, inter-district migrants and interstate migrants. India does not have a national policy on internal migration. Such a policy would address among other issues domicile requirements, portability of benefits within and across states etc. In the absence of a coherent policy, millions of Indians are migrating from one destination to another either permanently or for short duration within a year. While a large proportion of individuals migrate within their state of residence, others move across state boundaries. There are large variations in inter and intra state migrants across the districts of India.

Table 1.2: Distribution of Lifetime Migrants of each Sex by Migration Streams (%)

Types of Migration M		1981		1991		2001	
		F	M	F	M	F	M
Intra-district	R-R	32.2	56.6	30.9	54.7	19.1	50.6
	R-U	10.7	6.0	11.3	6.3	8.3	5.3
	U-R	3.6	3.0	3.6	2.9	2.6	2.2
	U-U	4.6	2.5	4.3	2.3	5.3	2.7
	Sub Total	51.1	68.1	50.4	66.5	52.2	66.9
Inter-district	R-R	9.3	13.4	8.9	14.0	6.2	12.4
	R-U	9.5	3.9	10.5	4.5	8.9	4.2
	U-R	2.6	1.8	2.5	1.9	1.5	1.2
	U-U	8.4	4.1	8.0	4.0	7.2	3.9
	Sub Total	29.9	23.3	30.1	24.5	26.7	23.0

Inter-state	R-R	3.8	3.3	3.5	3.3	3.4	3.6
	R-U	7.5	2.1	8.0	2.3	9.8	2.9
	U-R	1.4	0.6	1.3	0.7	0.9	0.5
	U-U	6.2	2.5	6.5	2.7	5.7	2.5
	Sub Total	19.0	8.6	19.4	9.0	21.1	10.1
Total Migrants (in millions)		59.2	142	61.1	164.8	90.7	218.7

Source: Census of India, 1981, 1991, 2001

Table 1.2 depicts the percentage distribution of migration streams separately for males and females lifetime migrants from 1981 to 2001. While there has been a substantial increase in the proportion of rural-to-urban migrants over time in long distance category. In short distance it has been increased in 1991 and then declined. There has also been an increase in the proportion of urban-to-urban migrants in short distance category but it decreased in long distance category. Intra-district, inter-district and interstate migration streams contributed almost equally in the net rural-to-urban male migration over the period under consideration. The proportion of net rural-to-urban lifetime migration of females however decreased with increasing distance.

Table 1.3: Percentage distribution of Migrants in India (2011)

	Duration	All Durations			10 Years And More		
	Origin	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female
Share of urban population in 2011	Rural	21.9%	19.3%	24.7%	8.5%	7.7%	9.4%
	Urban	21.0%	18.4%	23.9%	8.7%	7.7%	9.9%
Share of urban population in 2001 of which	Rural	18%	16%	20%	9.9%	8.6%	11.5%
	Urban	13%	11%	15%	6.3%	5.2%	7.6%
<i>Within district</i>	Rural	37%	31%	43%	37%	29%	44%
	Urban	30%	29%	30%	26%	25%	27%
<i>Other districts within State</i>	Rural	33%	33%	34%	34%	34%	33%
	Urban	41%	39%	42%	42%	41%	43%
<i>Inter-State</i>	Rural	30%	36%	24%	30%	37%	23%
	Urban	29%	33%	27%	31%	34%	29%

Source: Census of India 2011

The above table 1.3 shows that in a decade between 2001 to 2011 percentage of migration has increased. Table 1.3 shows all duration migrants in urban areas in 2011 and 2001. This shows that 21.9 percent of urban residents are migrants from rural areas while another 21 percent come from other urban areas; i.e., a total of 42.9 percent of all urban residents are migrants. It is found that the motives for migration are varied:

including movement from place of birth, marriage, in pursuit of education, seeking work opportunities etc. While women primarily move on account of marriage, men are more likely to report migrating for reasons related to work. In the last decade of 2001-11, on an average 1.5 million men and 0.3million women moved every year. At the same time, there are many who migrate for short periods without changing their place of residence. They are overwhelmingly from rural India. They stay away from their homes on account of work for short periods of time during the course of the year. It is estimated that about 10 million rural households stay away from home for more than 15 days but less than 6 months in a year. Assuming that at least one person stays away from each of these households. Among those who work in the primary sector and undertake seasonal migration, nearly 36 percent work in construction sector and 15 percent work in the secondary sector.

REASONS OF MIGRATION

There are various socio, economic, cultural and environmental determinants of migration. Although marriage continues to be the important reason for the overwhelming presence of females amongst the migrants, the increase of female migrants is also due to economic factors. Various micro level studies (Shanti, 1991; Sundari and Rukmani, 1998) highlight that females also move individually for economic reasons. As per report of Indian census report the reason of female migration is broadly categorized into employment, education, family moved, marriage and other reasons.

The following table shows the reasons of migration among male and female. The table shows that employment among males and marriage among females are the main reason for migration. However, marriage shows a declining trend and an increasing trend is observed in employment in 2001 as compared to 1991, though the variation is not strongly significant. According to 1991 census, 60 percent of females migrated due to marriage and the same declined by 1 percent in 2001 census. Likewise employment as a reason which constitutes 3.67 percent in 1991 increased to 4.19 percent in 2001. Associational reasons - movement on account of accompanying parents or any other member of the family were cited as second most important reason among both male and female migrants.

Table 1.4: Percentage distribution of migration by reasons for migration 1991-2001

Reasons for migration	Male		Female	
	1991	2001	1991	2001
Employment	30.00	36.78	3.67	4.19
Business	6.33	2.55	0.98	0.33
Education	11.31	8.49	2.54	2.16
Marriage	2.20	1.66	59.76	58.80
Moved after Birth	n.a.	9.00	n.a.	4.80

Natural calamities	0.80	n.a.	0.33	n.a.
Moved with household	29.98	24.54	21.64	21.50
Others	19.38	16.97	11.08	8.22

Source: Census of India,1991-2001

Regarding the reasons of migration table 1.5 shows that marriage and other family related migration, which was 72.2 per cent of all migration during 1991 to 2001, now is 74.7 per cent of all migration during 2001 to 2011, but the share of marriage is diminishing while the share of other family related migration is growing. Only 4.8 per cent were inter-state marriage migrants i.e., 1.9 per cent of all migrants.

Table 1.5: Reasons and Streams of Intercensal Migration in India (as % Share of Each Stream)

	Work and Business		Education		Marriage		Family related		Others		Total	
	2001	2011	2001	2011	2001	2011	2001	2011	2001	2011	2001	2011
Rural to Rural	9.3	6.4	1.9	2.7	61.2	59.0	19.4	24.1	8.3	7.7	56.3	47.4
Rural to Urban	29.9	24.3	4.9	4.8	21.8	22.4	34.5	40.6	8.8	7.9	21.8	22.1
Urban to Rural	14.5	8.9	3.0	2.7	28.1	25.5	42.9	55.6	11.4	7.3	6.6	7.9
Urban to Urban	21.8	17.5	4.3	3.4	21.9	18.4	42.6	47.9	9.5	12.9	15.2	22.6
Total	16.0	13.1	3.0	3.3	44.4	39.1	27.8	35.6	8.8	8.9	100.0	100.0

Source: Census of India

The following table shows that the proportion of women who move for family related reasons is the same (86 percent), within the district and inter-state.

Table 1.6: Reasons for Rural-Urban Migrations in India (year 2001 & 2011)

	Male					Female				
	Work	Study	Family	Others	Total	Work	Study	Family	Others	Total
Total in 2011	49.7%	4.1%	36.4%	9.9%	100%	5.1%	2.0%	86.5%	6.4%	100%
Total in 2001	55.2%	3.7%	27.8%	13.3%	100%	4.1%	1.2%	85.3%	9.3%	100%
<i>Within district</i>	42.2%	5.5%	35.2%	17.0%	100%	3.1%	1.6%	85.7%	9.6%	100%
<i>Other districts within State</i>	54.7%	4.4%	28.3%	12.7%	100%	4.7%	1.2%	84.6%	9.5%	100%
<i>Inter-State</i>	66.6%	1.6%	21.1%	10.7%	100%	5.0%	0.6%	85.8%	8.6%	100%

Source: Census of India

It is noticed from the pattern of migration that majority of females migrate with the shifting of family. In rural areas factors like agricultural transformation, changing land use pattern, limited development in non-farm sector, environmental degradation, rural urban gap in basic amenities etc. raises the incidence of poverty and unemployment for females. On the other hand, in urban areas the emergence of gender segregated labor market, particularly after economic reforms, provides employment opportunities to women in the informal sector. Besides, high infrastructural development and social networking that is presence of friends and relatives facilitate female migration.

MIGRANTS AND LABOR MARKET

As a significant component, migrants play an important role in the labor market. As per report of Ministry of Statistics, government of India, the country's GDP has been growing at an accelerated rate since 2004 and was 7.9% over 2015-16. Economic growth is further expected to accelerate with the expansion of the Make in India program, launched by the Government of India in September 2014 as part of a wider set of economic reforms, aimed at raising the contribution of the manufacturing sector to 25% of the GDP by 2020. As part of the program, various sectors have been opened up for investments, along with a relaxation of regulatory policies to facilitate investments and ease of doing business. Six industrial corridors are being developed across various regions of the country, with industrial cities envisaged to come up along these corridors. The generation of a large number of jobs in the manufacturing sector will be in specific locations (including along the identified industrial corridors) to which people are expected to migrate from a variety of sources, rural and urban. In addition to the formal units, jobs are also expected to be created as a result of the ancillary informal developments supplying the main units and this will also contribute to the flow of migrants. Given historically low levels of manufacturing in India, the impact on migration is expected to be high. The experience of China – the only other comparable economy growing at a high rate – also suggests that a boom in manufacturing results in large-scale movements of labour, indicating further growth in internal migration.

The following table shows 1.7 shows the share of migrants in the work-force in rural and urban areas. It shows that in both areas the share of women in labor force is comparatively higher than male work force. Women move to their husband's house after marriage (becoming migrants).

Table 1.7: Share of Migrant Workers in Total Workers by Major Sectors (in %)

Sector	Rural		Urban	
	Male	Female	Male	Female
Primary	4	75	20	65
Manufacturing	13	59	38	51
Public Services	16	69	40	56
Construction	8	73	32	67
Traditional Services	16	65	29	55
Modern Services	16	66	40	52

Total	6	73	33	56
-------	---	----	----	----

Source: NSS 2007-2008

Although female migration for economic reasons seems to be limited, the transformation of labor force structure, particularly with opening up of gender segregated labor market, a significant proportion of female migrants engage themselves in various economic activities.

Table 1.8: Occupation Structure of Migrant and Non-Migrant Workers in India

Industry Type	Male				Female			
	Rural		Urban		Rural		Urban	
	Non-Migrant	Migrant	Non-Migrant	Migrant	Non-Migrant	Migrant	Non-Migrant	Migrant
Primary	65%	37%	7%	3%	76%	84%	10%	15%
Manufacturing	8%	17%	22%	27%	12%	6%	28%	23%
Public Services	4%	11%	8%	11%	6%	5%	34%	34%
Construction	8%	10%	10%	9%	2%	2%	4%	6%
Traditional Services	12%	20%	41%	33%	4%	2%	15%	15%
Modern Services	2%	5%	12%	16%	1%	1%	10%	8%
Total	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%	100%

Source: NSSO, 2007-08

The above table shows the work participation rate of migrants and non-migrants because most migrants leave their native place in search of jobs (Kamble, 1983). It is found that the migrants are more economically active than non-migrants. Table 1.8 indicates that the occupational structure of migrant and non-migrant female workers is not very different, except that migrants are a little more represented in primary sectors and a little less in manufacturing. On the basis of data it can be said that a large number of women migrated from rural to urban areas with family and they also engage in urban informal economic activities. Despite women engage in economic activities to increase their family or household income, they remain a vulnerable section of the society. They have to face exploitation and at higher risk as compared to male migrants. Female migrants tend to face greater disadvantages and discrimination and are more susceptible to mistreatment. These conditions are particularly evident in cases of distress migration. Migration can also entrench traditional roles and inequalities and expose women to new vulnerabilities arising out of patriarchy (Fleury 2016). With the growing number of women, the number of women trafficking for sexual exploitation has also increased. Women migrants generally have limited access to information about rules and regulations and very often fail to get the required help in cases of exploitation. In other words, they experience double discrimination as both migrants and as women at the destinations (Carling 2005; Pande, 2018).

In India, a significant number of migrant women engage in unorganized sector, which is low waged, operates in unhealthy working conditions, and are not covered by labour legislation or social protection. Such women workers are vulnerable to various forms of exploitation, including sexual harassment at the places of work (Mary Kawar 2003). Hence, the basic norms for healthy working conditions and protection against exploitation / sexual harassment of women workers must be needed. Although women already faced the problem of lack of social and economic securities in urban areas and pandemic of Covid -19 has played major role in increasing their problems.

IMPACT OF COVID-19 AND REVERSE MIGRATION OF POOR WOMEN MIGRANTS

The pandemic of COVID -19 has brought about unprecedented change in societies and amplified many socio-economic crises. It has impacted people across all regions and classes ,but with amore adverse effect on the poor and disadvantaged. In India, agnation-wide lock down was declared since March, 24th 2020. It was further extended in two to three phases. The enforcement of strict lockdown and other measures, including restrictions on inter and intra state movement to contain the spread of Covid-19, resulted in a severe blow to the livelihood of millions of people in the informal sector, especially migrant workers.

In the country a vast work force with more than 450 million people engage in informal sector (Sharma2020). According to one estimate, about90% of women work in informal sectors, of which 20% work in urban areas (Singh and Gupta 2011).The informal sector in India is highly insecure and unregulated, with few or no social security provisions. The Covid-19 crisis is expected to have a long-term impact on informal sector workers (ILO 2020) as they are the most vulnerable communities and are more exposed to the current global pandemic (Sengupta and Jha2020).Pachauri (2020) argues that Covid-19willresultinalong-termshock for poor people in the informal sector. Extreme poverty and food scarcity are already an issue for most informal sector workers (Khan and Mansoor, 2020).

The pandemic and subsequent measures to control its spread have posed profound social, economic and structural challenges to migrant workers across many countries(FoleyandPiper2020).The loss of livelihood options created fear among them of falling back into poverty (World Bank 2020). Recent research shows that the pandemic has exacerbated existing disparities, further deteriorating the conditions of poor and migrant workers (Che, et. al. 2020;Baas2020).The lives and livelihood of poor communities in south-Asian countries are disproportionately impacted by Covid-19 (Hamid uzzaman and Islam 2020), but in particular migrant workers in countries like India are negatively impacted (Bhagat et. al.2020).

Migrant workers, and particularly women, are more vulnerable and face multiple deprivations from being poor and from their position as informal workers. Women face losing their livelihood, suffering human rights violations and contracting Covid-19 (UNWomen2020).Women are potentially affected more because in many contexts they

are considered to be less productive and subsequently have a lower position and rank in society (Chakraborty 2020). Female-headed families are significantly affected by Covid-19 and unable to meet household needs due to the lack of economic options (Kamanga-Njikho and Tajik 2020). The pandemic also aggravates prevalent gender inequalities and vulnerabilities. Covid-19 has unevenly impacted women and girls in the domains of health, economy, social protection, and gender-based violence (UN 2020). Covid-19 has added considerable burdens to the lives of women migrant workers and the families in India. A telephonic survey of migrant laborers in north India found that around 92% have lost their work, and 42% are negatively impacted with no food or supplies (Jan Sahas 2020). Though they are crucial to the urban economy, policy and social security measures have largely neglected them, which further disadvantage their inclusion in urban communities in India. The nation-wide lockdown, lakhs of migrant workers had to flee to their place of origin. It was disheartening that many suffered from hunger and they walked back to their native place where majority are rural migrants and they had to go back to their villages where there is already lack of job opportunity. The migrants who have reached their native places are facing another kind of discrimination.

Women do form a substantial percentage of internal migrant laborers. Even if they mostly migrate as dependents, they eventually start working at the destination areas. During the Covid-19 induced mass reverse migration women appear to be equally participating in the process. Still, the problems that they are facing are specific to them in addition to what others are facing. There are several reports about women delivering babies during their journeys back. There must be other medical issues that these women are encountering apart from the scarcity of food and water lack communication. Despite becoming the part of the process of migration and settlement, their voices have remained on the margins for a long time. Estimates by gender confirm that in 1990, female migrants accounted for almost 48 per cent of the total number of migrants which rose to nearly 49 per cent in the year 2000 but got reduced again to 47.9 % in 2019 (UNDP 2019). Overall, the increase in the number of women migrants is almost 8 per cent higher than the men. The proportion of women migrants varies considerably across regions and in Asia, it stands at 41.5 %.

As far as Internal Migration is concerned, according to the UN, Human Development Report 2009, the number of migrants is almost four times more than the International migrants. In India's case, as per 2011 census, the number of internal migrants stands around 139 million of which women constitute almost 70 per cent (World Bank). The cause for such an incredibly high proportion is the inclusion of marriage migrations in the total number of women migrants. A significant number of studies from around the world point out that migration offer new opportunities to women making their role more diversified and substantial. They generally witness more financial independence and improved status and authority in their family and communities. Migration also leads to a positive impact on human capital, self-esteem, and access to resources in addition to providing new spaces and agency to women to move beyond the fixed notions of femininity and challenge the patriarchal norms of the society. Even when women are not migrating themselves and remain behind when their husbands migrate, they get a better

hold over the family resources, and their position is positively impacted (Pande, 2018).

The present crisis arising out of the pandemic induced reverse migration has alarmingly increased the vulnerabilities of women migrants and has also deprived them of future economic opportunities. International Labour Organization (ILO) estimates that more than 400 million workers in the informal economy are at the risk of falling deeper into poverty during the crisis, and women form a substantial portion of this. The already economically constrained source areas are going to face the further challenge during and after the Covid-19 crisis. The pressure of reverse migration is going to be felt in the fields of agriculture and allied activities and will put immense pressure on an already broken system. Apart from the economic challenges, as it appears the social cohesion and kinship ties might also be severely compromised, and embedded hierarchies might get compounded in the aftermath of the crisis.

CONCLUSION

To sum up it can be said that short distance migration has been the predominant migration pattern in India among females. Apart from the traditional village exogamy, poor economy and search of livelihood is also one of the important reasons of female migration from rural to urban areas. The study also found that female migration rates are closely inter-connected with male migration rates indicating that females accompany males as associational migrants. However, the significance of economic factors, as evident from the study, reveals that there is an economic motivation behind migration. Besides, the growth of urbanization and development of urban economy, rural to rural migration has declined steadily, while the proportion of rural to urban migration has increased. It is also found that majority of women who migrate from rural to urban areas are unskilled and have low education level and for livelihood or to increase their family income they work in urban informal sector where there is lack of social and economic security. Thus, they have to face several problems of vulnerability.

Though the Covid-19 pandemic has ubiquitous impacts on people across the globe, the vulnerable segments of the population however have been disproportionately impacted by the pandemic and the case of migrant workers especially female migrant workers in the countries like India is an issue of grave concern. The present study is one of the attempts of documenting the issues faced by poor female migrant worker. Due to sudden lockdown and subsequent socio-economic and health crisis migrant women have to face several issues. The major issues arising from the review about migrant women include the loss of livelihood and debt. The burden of responsibility and captivity made the life of women stressful. Women experienced significant disruption faces to services as are result of lock down and restrictions. Besides, several benefits provided by national government a large vulnerable section of the society have not reached the help. However, the contributions of migrant workers are crucial for the sustained urban economy and therefore policy measures and programs should consider them as central to interventions. Efforts should also be made to restore economic activities that are inclusive, where migrant workers feel confident, socially and economically secure and safe. Adding female into the

migration data is not enough; there is need to involve women into policy making and develop a gendered perspective of migration. Migrant women have started playing a crucial economic role, but their vulnerabilities have also increased. They need suitable government policies with proper checks and balances for a favorable work environment and protection. Besides, national government should adopt fragmentation policies and programmers which is rural centric to create employment opportunities in the rural area to reduce unemployment.

References

- Andrienko, et. al., (2003) Determinants of Interregional Mobility in Russia: Evidence from Panel Data. *Economics of Transition*, 12, 1-2.
- Baas, M., (2020). Labour Migrants as an Uncontrollable Virus in India and Singapore, *Asia-Pacific Journal Japan Focus* 18 (14-16): 1-8
- Bhagat, R. B., et. a., (2020). The Covid-19, Migration and Livelihood in India, Mumbai: International Institute of Population Studies.
- Carling, J., (2005). Gender dimensions of international migration. *Global Migration Perspectives*. No 35.
- Chakraborty, S., (2020). Increased Care Work, Reduced Wages: Informal Women Workers are Rarely Getting By, *The Wire*. 25th May Accessed September 12th, 2020. <https://thewire.in/women-informal-workers-lockdown>.
- Che, et. al. (2020). Unequal Pain: A Sketch of the Impact of the Covid-19 Pandemic on Migrants's Employment in China, *Eurasian Geography and Economics* 1-16.
- Connell, J. B., et. al. (1976). *Migration from Rural Areas: The Evidence from Village Studies*. New, Delhi: Oxford University Press.
- Foley, et. al., (2020). Covid-19 and Women Migrant Workers: Impacts and Implications, Geneva: International Organization of Migration.
- Hamid uzzaman, M. and M. R. Islam (2020). Save Life or Livelihood: Responses to Covid-19 among South-Asian Poor Communities. *Local Development & Society* 1-13.
- Harris J. and Todaro M. (1970). Migration, Unemployment and Development: A Two- Sector Analysis. *American Economic Review*, 60.
- Hossion, M. Z., (2001). Rural-Urban Migration in Bangladesh: A Micro Level Study. Paper Presented at International Union for the Scientific Study of Population General Meeting, Salvador Brazil, August Mimeo.
- ILO (2020). ILO Monitor 2nd Edition: Covid - 19 and the World of Work. <https://www.ilo.org/global/topics/coronavirus/impactsand-responses>
- Kamanga-Njikhoo and Tajik, Q., (2020). Female-headed Households Bear the Brunt of Covid-19 as Livelihood Gaps Increase. UNICEF.
- Kamble, N D (1983). *Labour migration in Indian states*. New Delhi: Ashish publication.
- Khan, F. et. al., (2020). Impact: Informal Economy Workers Excluded from Most Govt Measures,

- Be It Cash Transfers or Tax Benefits, First Spot. Accessed 11th September 2020.<https://www.First>
- Lee (1966 Lee, E.S. 1966 "A Theory of Migration," *Demography*, 3(1).
- Ministry of Statistics and Programme Implementation, Govt. of India Press Note on First Revised Estimates of National Income, Consumption Expenditure, Saving and Capital Formation, 2015-16 dated 31st January, 2017.
- Pachauri, S.(2020). Covid - 19 Outbreak Brings Attention Back to Informal Sector. Down to Earth. March 23rd Accessed September 11, 2020. [Http://www.downtoearth.org.in/blog](http://www.downtoearth.org.in/blog).
- Pande, A., (2018). *Women in the Indian Diaspora: Historical Narratives and contemporary Challenges*, Singapore: Springer.
- Premi M. K. (1979). *Patterns of Internal Migration of Females in India*. Center for the Study of Regional Development. Occasional Paper, No. 15, New Delhi.
- Premi, (1980). Aspects of female Migration in India. *Economic and political weekly*, 15 (15).
- Ravenstein, G.G. (1985). The laws of Migration. *Journal of the Royal Statistical society (London)*, 48 (2).
- Sahas, J. (2020). *Voice of the Invisible Citizens: A Rapid Assessment on the Impact of Covid -19 Lockdown on Internal Migrants Workers*. New Delhi: <https://ruralindiaonline.org/library/resource/voices-of-the-invisible-citizens/>
- Sengupta, S., et. al. (2020). *Social Policy, Covid-19 and Impoverished Migrants: Challenges and Prospects in Locked down in India*, *The International Journal of Community and Social Development* 2(2).
- Shanti, K. (1991). Issues relating to economic migration of females. *The Indian journal of labour Economics*, 34 (4).
- Sharma, Y. S. . (2020). *National Database of Workers in Informal Sector in the Works*, *The Economic Times* January 19 Accessed 15 September, 2020. <http://economic.times.Indiatimes.com/news/economy/indicators/national-database-of-workers>.
- Singh, A M (1984). *Rural to Urban migration of women in India: Patterns and Implications*. In J T Fawcett et al (eds), *Women in the Cities of South Asia: Migration and Urban Adaptation*. Boulder, Colorado: West view press.
- Singh, G.T., et. al., (2011). *Women Working in Informal Sector in India: A Sage of Losided Utilization of Human Capital*. *International Proceedings of Economics Development and Research* 4.
- Sundari, S. and Rukmani, K. K., (1998). *Costs and Benefits of Females Labour Migration*. *The Indian Journal of Social Work*, 62 (1).
- United Nation, (2020). *Guidance Note: Addressing the Impacts of the Covid -19 Pandemic on Women Migrant Workers*. [https://www. Unwomen.org/org/en/digital/library/publications/2020](https://www.Unwomen.org/org/en/digital/library/publications/2020).