

**Internal Migration for Education and Employment among Youth in  
India**

**S Chandrasekhar, Ajay Sharma**



**Indira Gandhi Institute of Development Research, Mumbai  
January 2014**

<http://www.igidr.ac.in/pdf/publication/WP-2014-004.pdf>

# **Internal Migration for Education and Employment among Youth in India**

**S Chandrasekhar, Ajay Sharma**

**Indira Gandhi Institute of Development Research (IGIDR)**

**General Arun Kumar Vaidya Marg**

**Goregaon (E), Mumbai- 400065, INDIA**

**Email (corresponding author):** [chandra@igidr.ac.in](mailto:chandra@igidr.ac.in)

## **Abstract**

*This paper sheds light on the issue of internal migration for education and employment among the youth. i.e those aged 15-32 years. The paper is a first step towards addressing the issue of whether states should be concerned about internal brain drain since some states act as feeders and other states gain at their expense. States with better job opportunities such as Delhi, Maharashtra, Gujarat, Karnataka are gainers whereas traditionally backward states of Bihar, Uttar Pradesh, Orissa, Rajasthan are losing human capital. In the south, Kerala and Andhra Pradesh are possibly losing out workers to Karnataka and Maharashtra.*

**Keywords: Internal Migration, Education, Internal Brain Drain**

**JEL Code: O15, R23**

## **Acknowledgements:**

This paper is written as part of the initiative to Strengthen and Harmonize Research and Action on Migration in the Indian Context (SHRAMIC), supported by Sir Dorabji Tata Trust and Allied Trusts. SHRAMIC is anchored by IGIDR and is in collaboration with CPR, NIUA, IRIS-KF and the Migration Program Partners of Tata Trust.

# Internal Migration for Education and Employment among Youth in India

## 1. Introduction

The perceived failure of India's education policy to arrest dropout rates and deliver quality learning along the various stages of education ladder is an empirical fact. While India has steadily moved towards universal primary education, the age specific attendance ratios need to be improved. The age specific attendance ratio is calculated by dividing the number of persons in a particular age-group currently attending educational institutions by the estimated population in the age-group 6-10 years and then multiplying the resultant number by 100. In fact in 2007-08, the age specific attendance ratios were as follows: 6-10 years - 88 percent, 11-13 years - 86 percent, 14-17 years - 64 percent, 18-24 years – 18 percent and 25-29 years - 1 percent (Government of India 2010a). There are also considerable variations in the age specific attendance ratios across the states of India. Figure 1 provides a comparison in the age-specific attendance ratio in 1995-96 and 2007-08. The least gains have been recorded among those in the age group 18-24 years – from 10 to 15 percent in rural India and from 23 to 27 percent in urban India. In contrast to the age specific attendance ratios where we do not take into account which class or grade the individual is attending, the net attendance ratio is defined as the ratio of number of persons in the official age-group attending a particular class-group to the total number persons in the age-group. The net attendance ratio drops off sharply after class V and is only 8 percent among those pursuing post higher secondary education (Table 1).

A scenario where the net attendance ratio at higher levels of education can be doubled would augur well for India's youth and hence for the prospects of the economy. The fact that the East Asian countries managed to achieve a sustained high growth rate beginning the decade of sixties is often attributed to their singular focus on three outcomes, viz. improving educational attainment, increasing workforce participation rate and stepping up the higher investment rate.

While India has a healthy savings rate of 34 percent and investment rate of 36 percent (Government of India 2011a) it still lags in improving the quality of human capital and increasing the workforce participation rate, and in particular that of women. There is evidence to suggest that educating and skilling India's youth by improving access to tertiary education and increasing the completion rates have significant implications for the economy. Castelló-Climent and Mukhopadhyay (2010) conclude

that “if one percent of the adult population were to complete tertiary education instead of completing only primary school, the annual growth rate could increase by about 4 percentage points” (p 4). They also find that a one percent change in tertiary education has the same effect on growth as a 13 percent decrease in illiteracy.

There is substantial scope for improving the net attendance ratio in India by focusing on the issue of dropout. From the survey data among the reasons given for discontinuation of studies include financial constraints, lack of interest in studies, unable to cope or failure in studies, and completed desired level or class (Government of India 2010). Now consider a scenario where the reasons given for discontinuation can be addressed and individuals do not drop out and they go on to get a college degree. The question that arises is whether under this scenario India has sufficient number of seats in colleges and universities. The answer is no. Not surprisingly, many students are going abroad in pursuit of higher education following which they do not necessarily return to India.

The impact of brain drain on the growth prospects of the country losing human capital is well documented. Unlike international brain drain, the phenomenon of internal movement of human capital in search of education is not that well analyzed although there is a large literature on internal migration in search of employment. The youth are likely to be attracted to Indian states or cities with high wages and a strong labour market. Institutes for higher education are likely to be present in locations with high human capital and well functioning labour markets. Such effects are reinforced when individuals with higher level of education move into these locations.

Akin to the effects of international brain drain, when the youth migrate internally in search of education and employment there are winners and losers among the states and cities of India. This chapter describes the phenomenon of migration by youth, i.e. those in the age group 15-32 years, in search of education and employment.

## **2. Data**

In India, there are two major sources of data on migration: Census of India and surveys of National Sample Survey Organisation (NSSO). Migration statistics based on Census of India 2011 have not been released as yet. The most recent information on migration comes from NSSO’s survey on employment & unemployment and migration conducted over July 2007-June 2008. This nationally

representative survey covered 79,091 rural and 46,487 urban households (Government of India 2010b). A total of 374,294 individuals in rural and 197,960 individuals in urban areas were surveyed. Information is available on households that moved their place of residence in the 365 days preceding the survey and individuals who migrated. Individual migrants are those whose last usual place of residence was different from the present place of enumeration. The usual place of residence is the village or town where the individual stayed continuously for a period of six months or more. Specifically certain rates of migrations can be computed: out-migration, short term or seasonal migration, and return migration. Broadly the reasons for migration can be grouped into the following heads: employment related, studies, forced migration, marriage, and others.

### **3. Migration Patterns in India**

There are four migration streams: rural-rural, rural-urban, urban-rural and urban-urban. Further, the stream can be intra-district, intra-state and inter-state. As is evident from Table 2 majority of the migrants move within the state, i.e. move within same districts or move to other districts of the same state. This is particularly true in the case of the rural-rural migration stream. Figure 2 gives the distribution of migrants by age group. There is no apparent difference in the proportion of male and female migrants in the age group 15-32 years. Of the 110 million individuals aged 15-32 years, over 70 percent of them, i.e. 77.5 million report moving on account of marriage (Table 3). While nearly 10 percent report moving in search of employment, and 3.5 percent report moving on account of education.

#### **3.1 Migration for Education**

India is far from being a 100 percent literate country (Table 4). States like Uttar Pradesh, Bihar, Rajasthan, Madhya Pradesh and Orissa which have a large concentration of poor have historically have had higher levels of fertility and low levels of literacy. These states also account of a large proportion of India's population. Given that access to quality primary and secondary schools in these states is a problem it is not surprising that these states also have a shortage of institutes of higher learning<sup>1</sup>. This leads to an out flow of human capital to other states/regions. However it

---

<sup>1</sup> This issue has been highlighted in official statistics and also reports published to analyze states performance in secondary and higher education in India (Government of India 2011c, NUEPA 2012). These reports show that number

should also be noted that there is considerable intra-state movement in all the states. Only 17 percent of migration on account of education is inter-state in nature while 45 percent of migration is across districts of the same state (Table 5). This is understandable since within each state there are cities with institutes of higher learning.

We can pictorially depict inter-state migration flows for education among those aged 15-32 years based on data from NSSO's 2007-08 survey on migration and employment. We consider the major states and have aggregated the North East states and union territories. The nodes are states and edges between them depict migration flows. Directions of edges between nodes show the migration of individuals for education across states. From Figure 3 although all the relations between the different states are not clear, we can clearly see that some of the directed flows are denser as compared to the others. These are the main streams of migration for education. The most important states from the perspective of migration for education are Delhi, Maharashtra, Karnataka, Uttar Pradesh, Bihar, Andhra Pradesh, Kerala, West Bengal and Rajasthan. Of these states, Delhi, Maharashtra, Karnataka are the main destinations (i.e. attracting migrants from other states), whereas Bihar, Uttar Pradesh, Kerala, Andhra Pradesh, West Bengal and Rajasthan are the main source states of migrants.

In the context of balanced regional development in India, the issue of human capital flows across the country becomes important. Which are the states that gain by attracting more educated migrants? We can glean insights by examining the distribution of educational attainment of inter-state migrants across Indian states (Table 6). We present the distribution of migrants across states for every level of education. Delhi, Gujarat and Maharashtra attract migrants with varied educational attainment. In contrast, Karnataka attracts a sizable proportion of migrants who have completed higher secondary and diploma or graduate and above while the states of Punjab and Haryana attracts those who have not completed primary school.

Due to data limitations we are not able to address whether individuals who migrated to another state for purpose of education return to the original place of residence. In addition to ramping up access to educational institutions along the breadth and width of the country it is also important that state governments take appropriate measures to retain skilled labour force. Here the experience of United States of America might be pertinent where state governments have formulated "several types of

---

of schools availability decrease at high rate as education level increases (pyramid structure. This makes the access to higher education in some states very limited, and only option left with the individuals is to migrate for education.

policies related to the finance and production of undergraduate education within a state, including expansions in degree production and scholarships to encourage attendance at in-state colleges. The evidence suggests that these policies can affect the stock of college-educated labor within a state, but that effect is limited by the mobility of college graduates across state boundaries” (Groen 2011). Among the options discussed by Groen include “location-contingent financial aid, adjustments to the composition of enrollment by residency or by field of study, and internships with state-based employers”.

### **3.2 Migration for Employment**

In 2009-10, the distribution of workers by sector was as follows: agricultural sector: 53.2 percent, secondary sector: 21.5 percent and tertiary sector: 25.3 percent. Given that India does not have a strong manufacturing base (manufacturing accounts for 27 percent of India’s GDP one has not observed a shift of workers from agriculture to manufacturing i.e. the secondary sector. Nor has India’s economic growth translated to higher employment since the employment elasticity is negative in agriculture and manufacturing (Figure 4). The employment elasticity for each state and by sector is available in Government of India 2011b Table A.15 p. 133).

The story that emanates from examination of the estimates of employment elasticity is borne out when we look at the change in the absolute employment over the period 2004-10. While India’s GDP has increased there has been a loss of 23.33 million jobs in agriculture and 4.02 million jobs in manufacturing. This has been offset by an increase in 25.89 million jobs in non-manufacturing and 2.7 million jobs in services. In effect, during 2004-10 absolute employment increased by 1.74 million. The seven states: Bihar, Chhattisgarh, Gujarat, Jharkhand, Karnataka, Rajasthan, and Uttar Pradesh accounted for nearly 95 percent of the job lost in agriculture.

Unlike the case of migration for education which was primarily an intra-state phenomenon, 46 percent of individuals migrate to work in other states where as 54 percent work in the same state (Table 7). Moreover, 72 percent of these migrant workers are employed in rural areas. The states of Delhi, Gujarat, Maharashtra and Karnataka receive 64.1 percent of the intra state migrant workers in the age group 15-32 years. The states of Bihar and Uttar Pradesh account for 59 percent of migrant workers who leave their place of usual residence. We can pictorially depict inter-state level migration flows for work among those aged 15-32 years based on data from NSSO’s 2007-08 (Figure 5) .

For all migrants who are currently part of the workforce, we examine their usual principal activity status (UPAS) before they migrated (Table 8). We are not including migrants who are currently out of the workforce. Table 8 which is based on an estimated number of 39,020,143 migrant workers gives the cell frequencies or percentages with the cells adding up to 100. This is more informative than providing row or column percentages since it helps in understanding transitions. One can infer from this the proportion of migrants in the workforce whose UPAS did not change. For instance UPAS 81 is for individuals who are unemployed and we see that only 0.97 percent of those in the workforce are unemployed following migration. For ease of reading, we have highlighted the cells with a value greater than 2 percent. Transition occurs when the UPAS changes post migration. For example, 5.88 percent of migrants who are currently salaried or wage employees were attending educational institutions before they decided to migrate. Similarly, we can focus on whether individuals transition to work in a different industry group following migration. From Table 9 it is evident that there is not much transition since the diagonal cells account for 76.7 percent of the migrant workers.

#### **4. Discussion**

From a policy perspective India needs to address the issue of provision of higher education. What will be the extent to which the central and state governments invest in higher education facilities or will fresh investments be driven primarily by the private sector? This issue is by no stretch of imagination a new one since way back in April 1893, Pherozeshah Merwanji Mehta commented on the policy of the Government to withdraw from ‘direct provision, control and management of higher education’. He was speaking at the Seventh Annual Meeting of the Bombay Graduates’ Association. He said, “Educational problems are increasing in number and complexity, and it is of the highest importance that we should recognize it as our duty to organize ourselves and watch the development of the educational policy of Government, and to lend all such help as our knowledge and experience may enable us to render, in the proper solution of educational questions. .... it was high time that public opinion should express itself, in no uncertain voice, with regard to the grave perils threatened our educational interests” (Batabyal 2007 p.722-23). Post independence, there was a debate on who should be responsible for financing higher education: the centre or the state? It was widely believed that having higher education in the concurrent list under the Indian



Constitution would alleviate some of the financing problems. Yet, over a century later, India is grappling with similar set of issues highlighted over a century ago, viz. the failure of the state to provide higher education facilities, the privatization of education, steep increase in costs of higher education, and large variations in access to educational infrastructure and quality of education across the states of India. It might be pertinent here to note the comments made by eminent scientist Meghnad Saha in his address to the Indian Parliament on 13 June 1952: “All your thoughts of reconstruction in this country without highly trained personnel would be idle daydreams. We found that for this purpose, the Universities were grossly underfinanced, and the State Governments had absolutely no money with which they could come to the help of the Universities ...” (Batabyal 2007 p. 754).

Recognizing the shortage of institutions for higher learning the Government of India drafted the Foreign Educational Institutions Bill, 2010. This bill is yet to be passed by the Indian Parliament. It is debatable which income segments of the population would benefit from this move. It is likely that youth from upper middle class would benefit since foreign universities are likely to charge higher fees. Hence it is not surprising that the issue of opening up of the sector is contentious and hence heavily debated (Altbach 2010, Gurukkal 2011, Tilak, 2010). It should be noted that the entry of these universities should not be at the expense of existing Indian institutes of higher learning some of which are already facing funding shortages.

Looking ahead, on the not so unrealistic assumption that India manages to maintain a healthy savings and investment rate and invests in higher education it is likely to translate into higher growth rate. This was the recipe that East Asian countries followed. For example, policy makers in Singapore which managed to grow at 8.5 percent over the period 1966-1990 made the right choices. In 1966, over 50 percent of workers did not have formal education while in 1990 over 66 percent of the workers had completed secondary education. The share of working population increased from 27 to 51 percent. Concomitantly the ratio of investment to gross domestic product increased 11 to over 40 percent (Krugman 1994). The moot point is whether India can achieve similar progress in a short span of time.

It is only in the last decade that India passed the Right to Education Bill and made it a law. Simultaneously the government is investing in revitalizing the vocational education system and investing in skill development. During India's X<sup>th</sup> Five Year Plan (2002-07) allocations were made

for ‘Vocationalisation of Secondary Education’, a centrally-sponsored scheme. The objective is to link education with work place skills. Individuals in grades VIII to XII could get trained in different trades. The training is provided by Industrial Training Institutes (ITIs) and Industrial Training Centres (ITCs) and polytechnics. In the XI<sup>th</sup> Five Year Plan (2007-12) a ‘Skill Development Mission’ was launched. The formation of the National Skill Development Corporation was announced as part of the announcements made in the Union Budget for 2008-09. The objective of NSDC is “to contribute significantly (about 30 per cent) to the overall target of skilling / upskilling 500 million people in India by 2022, mainly by fostering private sector initiatives in skill development programmes and providing funding”. It will be a matter of time before these initiatives translate the power of the youth into higher economic growth and improved development outcomes. But for this to happen, it is important that there is synergy between the policies of the central and state governments.

At the outset we mentioned that the issue of internal brain drain on account of migration by the youth has not received adequate attention. In terms of movement driven by education, we find that Uttar Pradesh, Bihar, Andhra Pradesh and Kerala are some of the major origin states whereas Maharashtra, Delhi, Karnataka and to some extent Uttar Pradesh (intra-state) are the prime destinations. Uttar Pradesh, Bihar along with Andhra Pradesh and Kerala are facing brain drain based on both aspects of human capital i.e. education and skill level. The states of Delhi, Maharashtra, Karnataka, Gujarat and Uttar Pradesh are gaining at their expense. When examined from all India perspective these movements would not to be a problem but from the perspective of some of the states these movements can affect their growth trajectories and potential development. This aspect needs to be highlighted in the discussions on inclusive growth and development.

## References

P.G. Altbach (2010): "Open Door in Higher Education Unsustainable and Probably Ill-Advised", *Economic and Political Weekly*, Vol XLV, no. 13.

Rakesh Batabyal (2007) *The Penguin Book Of Modern Indian Speeches*, Penguin Books India

Amparo Castelló-Climent and Abhiroop Mukhopadhyay (2010): "Mass Education or a Minority Well Educated Elite in the Process of Growth: the Case of India" Discussion paper 10-08, Indian Statistical Institute, New Delhi

Government of India (2010a): *Education in India: 2007-08 Participation and Expenditure*, Report No. 532, National Sample Survey Office, National Statistical Organisation, Ministry of Statistics and Programme Implementation, Government of India

Government of India (2010b): *Migration in India 2007-2008*, Report No. 533, National Sample Survey Office, National Statistical Organisation, Ministry of Statistics and Programme Implementation, Government of India

Government of India (2011a): *An Approach to the Twelfth Five Year Plan (2012-17), Faster, Sustainable and More Inclusive Growth*, Government of India

Government of India (2011b): *Report of the Working Group on Employment, Planning & Policy for the Twelfth Five Year Plan (2012-2017)*

Government of India (2011): "Statistics of Higher and technical Education", Ministry Of Human Resource Development, Bureau Of Planning, Monitoring And Statistics, New Delhi, 2011

Jeffrey A. Groen (2011): *Building Knowledge Stocks: The Role of State Higher-Education Policies*, *Economic Development Quarterly* 25(4) 316-19

R. Gurukkal (2011): "Foreign Educational Institutions Bill: The Rhetoric and the Real", Vol XLVI, no. 28

Paul Krugman (1994): "The Myth of Asia's Miracle", *Foreign Affairs*; Nov/Dec 1994, 73(6); p. 62-89

J. B. G. Tilak (2010): "The Foreign Educational Institutions Bill: A Critique", *Economic and Political Weekly*, Vol XLV, no. 19.

NUEPA (2012): "Secondary Education in India- Where do we stand?", National University of Educational Planning and Administration, State Report Card 2010-11.

**Table 1: Net Attendance Ratio by Broad Class Group (All India)**

Class Group	Rural			Urban			Rural +Urban		
	Female	Male	Total	Female	Male	Total	Female	Male	Total
I-V	83	86	84	84	86	85	83	86	84
VI-VIII	54	59	57	64	67	65	56	61	59
IX-X	35	40	38	51	52	51	39	43	41
XI-XII (general education)	19	25	22	39	39	39	25	29	27
XI-XII *( all education)	20	25	23	39	40	40	25	29	27
Post higher secondary (general education)	5	8	6	14	13	14	7	9	8
Post higher secondary (all education.)	6	10	8	21	20	21	10	13	12

\* includes diploma with minimum requirements below higher secondary

Education is categorized in three classes in the survey: (i) general education, (ii) technical and professional education and (iii) vocational education. All education includes (i) (ii) and (iii)

Source: Government of India (2010a)

**Table 2: Distribution of internal migrants by last usual place of residence for each component of rural-urban migration streams**

Migration streams	Intra district	Inter district	Intrastate		Interstate	All (intrastate+ Interstate)
			(Intra district+ Inter district)			
55th round (1999-2000)						
Rural-to-rural	75.3	20.1		95.4	4.6	100
Rural-to-urban	43.8	36.5		80.3	19.6	100
Urban-to-rural	46.5	33.5		80.0	20.0	100
Urban-to-urban	36.6	43.5		80.1	19.9	100
64th round (2007-08)						
Rural-to-rural	72.4	23.2		95.6	4.4	100
Rural-to-urban	41.2	33.6		74.8	25.2	100
Urban-to-rural	48.8	33.8		82.6	17.5	100
Urban-to-urban	27.9	49.2		77.1	22.9	100

Source: NSSO (2010) Report on Migration in India

**Table 3 : Number of Migrants by Reason for Migration ( 15-32 years)**

Reason for migration	Migration Streams				
	Rural-Rural	Rural-Urban	Urban-Rural	Urban-Urban	Total
In search of employment	1,810,512	5,707,409	590,054	2,353,658	10,461,633
Education	708,610	1,617,152	604,671	915,401	3,845,834
Marriage	60,048,081	8,070,261	3,812,910	5,619,806	77,551,058
With parent/earning member of family	3,267,400	5,482,397	883,167	4,354,838	13,987,802
Others	2,120,095	686,414	648,865	758,396	4,213,770
Total	67,954,698	21,563,633	6,539,667	14,002,099	110,060,097

**Table 4: Literacy rates in Indian state/union territories by gender: Census of India, 2011**

India/State/UT	Literacy rate (%)		
	Persons	Males	Females
INDIA	74.04	82.14	65.46
Jammu & Kashmir	68.74	78.26	58.01
Himachal Pradesh	83.78	90.83	76.6
Punjab	76.68	81.48	71.34
Chandigarh #	86.43	90.54	81.38
Uttarakhand	79.63	88.33	70.7
Haryana	76.64	85.38	66.77
NCT of Delhi #	86.34	91.03	80.93
Rajasthan	67.06	80.51	52.66
Uttar Pradesh	69.72	79.24	59.26
Bihar	63.82	73.39	53.33
Sikkim	82.2	87.29	76.43
Arunachal Pradesh	66.95	73.69	59.57
Nagaland	80.11	83.29	76.69
Manipur	79.85	86.49	73.17
Mizoram	91.58	93.72	89.4
Tripura	87.75	92.18	83.15
Meghalaya	75.48	77.17	73.78
Assam	73.18	78.81	67.27
West Bengal	77.08	82.67	71.16
Jharkhand	67.63	78.45	56.21
Orissa	73.45	82.4	64.36
Chhattisgarh	71.04	81.45	60.59
Madhya Pradesh	70.63	80.53	60.02
Gujarat	79.31	87.23	70.73
Daman & Diu #	87.07	91.48	79.59
Dadra & Nagar Haveli #	77.65	86.46	65.93
Maharashtra	82.91	89.82	75.48
Andhra Pradesh	67.66	75.56	59.74
Karnataka	75.6	82.85	68.13
Goa	87.4	92.81	81.84
Lakshadweep #	92.28	96.11	88.25
Kerala	93.91	96.02	91.98
Tamil Nadu	80.33	86.81	73.86
Pondicherry #	86.55	92.12	81.22
Andaman & Nicobar Islands #	86.27	90.11	81.84

# denotes UT, Source: Census of India, 2011

**Table 5: Migration for Education by Current and Last Usual Place of Residence (15-32)**

Current Place of Residence (State)	Last Usual Place of Residence								Total
	Same District		Other District		Same State		Other State		
	Rural	Urban	Rural	Urban	Rural	Urban	Rural	urban	
	1	2	3	4	5(1+3)	6(2+4)	7	8	5+6+7+8
Jammu & Kashmir	32	0	53.9	0.7	85.9	0.7	13.4	0	100
Himachal Pradesh	38.6	14.5	19.9	8.5	58.5	23	0	18.5	100
Punjab	14.3	3.1	12.4	70.3	26.7	73.4	0	0	100
Uttaranchal	44	3.2	3.9	7.3	47.9	10.5	27.5	14.1	100
Haryana	21.8	0	13.8	2.7	35.6	2.7	54.8	6.9	100
Delhi	0	0	2.3	0	2.3	0	66	31.7	100
Rajasthan	61.1	2.6	21.8	7.8	82.9	10.4	1.5	5.2	100
Uttar Pradesh	27.7	0.8	17.4	47.3	45.1	48.1	2.8	4.1	100
Bihar	56.6	0	25.3	14.8	81.9	14.8	0	3.2	100
NE States	14.6	11.5	34.4	24.9	49	36.4	0.8	13.9	100
Assam	26.2	1	55.7	16.3	81.9	17.3	0	0.8	100
West Bengal	26.9	0.5	34.2	26.4	61.1	26.9	2.1	10	100
Jharkhand	59.3	1.6	20.3	3.1	79.6	4.7	12.2	3.4	100
Orissa	26.6	18.5	16.6	32.6	43.2	51.1	1.2	4.4	100
Chattisgarh	81.9	0	17.7	0.4	99.6	0.4	0	0	100
Madhya Pradesh	45.5	4.7	21.3	25.5	66.8	30.2	2.1	1	100
Gujarat	65.7	9.1	9.3	12.4	75	21.5	0.5	3	100
UTs except Delhi	2.7	0.5	2.5	1.2	5.2	1.7	34.4	58.7	100
Maharashtra	38.6	4.5	26.9	13.8	65.5	18.3	5.6	10.5	100
Andhra Pradesh	48	6.7	23.6	14.7	71.6	21.4	3	3.9	100
Karnataka	14.5	0.9	7.9	45.2	22.4	46.1	5.2	26.4	100
Goa	24.5	75.2	0	0.3	24.5	75.5	0	0	100
Kerala	20.3	7.5	50.9	21.3	71.2	28.8	0	0.1	100
Tamil Nadu	21.7	1.1	30.6	28.6	52.3	29.7	1.7	16.3	100
Total	34.1	3.9	20.5	24.6	54.6	28.5	5.9	11	100

**Table 6: Share of migrant population by states and educational attainment in last 10 years  
(Age group 15-32 years)**

Destination States	Education level						Total
	Illiterate	Below Primary	Primary/ Middle	Secondary	Higher Secondary Diploma	Graduate and above	
Jammu & Kashmir	0.3	0	0.3	0.1	0.2	0.1	0.2
Himachal Pradesh	0.9	0.5	0.8	0.3	0.4	0.6	0.6
Punjab	7.8	10	5.6	4.2	3.9	3.9	5.7
Uttaranchal	3.6	2.3	2.7	2.8	2.3	2.4	2.8
Haryana	7	5.9	6	7.4	5.5	5.4	6.3
Delhi	14.1	10.8	17.1	19.4	14.8	15.8	16
Rajasthan	9.3	7.4	4.3	3	5.2	3	5.3
Uttar Pradesh	13	11.5	4.9	7.9	6.3	11.1	8.4
Bihar	2.7	3.1	1.1	1.6	1.1	1.1	1.6
NE States	0.4	0.8	0.7	0.3	0.3	0.4	0.5
Assam	0.2	0.2	0.3	0.3	0	0.1	0.2
West Bengal	6.1	3.6	3.8	3	0.8	3.9	3.8
Jharkhand	0.6	1.9	0.8	0.9	0.3	0.7	0.8
Orissa	1.1	2.4	1.2	1	1.5	1	1.2
Chattisgarh	1.5	1.3	1.8	0.7	1.5	0.6	1.4
Madhya Pradesh	4.4	5.4	3.1	2.1	2.4	2.4	3.2
Gujarat	5.2	9.9	11.5	7.9	4.9	4	7.8
UTs except Delhi	1.8	1.8	1.7	2.9	4.7	3.5	2.5
Maharashtra	12.6	11.8	19.5	19.5	16.9	14.7	16.6
Andhra Pradesh	2.8	3	2.7	3.4	3.3	3	3
Karnataka	3.1	2.7	5	5.7	14.9	14.1	6.9
Goa	0.2	1.4	0.5	0.9	1	1.5	0.8
Kerala	0.4	0.6	1.8	1.3	2.3	2	1.4
Tamil Nadu	1.1	1.6	3	3.3	5.3	4.6	3.1
Total	100	100	100	100	100	100	100

**Table 7: Migration for employment by current state and location of last usual place of residence  
(Age group 15-32 years)**

State	Last Usual Place of Residence								Total
	Same District		Other District		Same State		Other State		
	Rural	Urban	Rural	Urban	Rural	Urban	Rural	urban	
	1	2	3	4	5(1+3)	6(2+4)	7	8	5+6+7+8
Jammu & Kashmir	11.7	20.8	15.8	17.2	27.5	38	28.8	5.8	100
Himachal Pradesh	30.5	8.2	18.2	6.9	48.7	15.1	21.7	14.5	100
Punjab	6.1	0.9	5.8	3.4	11.9	4.3	75.1	8.6	100
Uttaranchal	11.5	3.6	9.6	8.9	21.1	12.5	46.8	19.7	100
Haryana	4.1	3.5	12.2	3.3	16.3	6.8	56.3	20.5	100
Delhi	0.6	1	0.9	2.9	1.5	3.9	73	21.6	100
Rajasthan	43.3	3.4	19.3	9.1	62.6	12.5	16.1	8.8	100
Uttar Pradesh	12.6	6.7	34.6	18.6	47.2	25.3	15.5	12	100
Bihar	33.6	4	34.8	7.6	68.4	11.6	8.5	11.5	100
NE States	26.2	7.3	15.2	13.4	41.4	20.7	28.8	9.1	100
Assam	29.4	2.3	42.1	14.6	71.5	16.9	9	2.7	100
West Bengal	20.5	4.8	19.4	12.1	39.9	16.9	32.3	10.8	100
Jharkhand	33.9	1.4	47.1	5.1	81	6.5	2.5	10	100
Orissa	30.4	4.9	40.5	8	70.9	12.9	10.4	5.8	100
Chattisgarh	38.4	2.7	14.4	12.2	52.8	14.9	13.5	18.8	100
Madhya Pradesh	24.7	13.5	24.9	12.5	49.6	26	17.5	6.8	100
Gujarat	13.8	3.5	9.3	7.2	23.1	10.7	61.3	4.8	100
UTs except Delhi	5.3	2.1	1.3	0.9	6.6	3	68.3	22.1	100
Maharashtra	11.3	4.4	19.8	14.6	31.1	19	42.3	7.6	100
Andhra Pradesh	37	3.4	28.5	20.2	65.5	23.6	5	5.9	100
Karnataka	11.4	2.2	26.2	23	37.6	25.2	18.3	18.9	100
Goa	3.4	0.4	0	1.6	3.4	2	53	41.6	100
Kerala	22.4	2	40.2	14.5	62.6	16.5	15.1	5.9	100
Tamil Nadu	14.8	9.5	29.2	27.5	44	37	10.6	8.5	100
Total	17.1	4.1	19.9	13.3	37	17.4	34.9	10.7	100



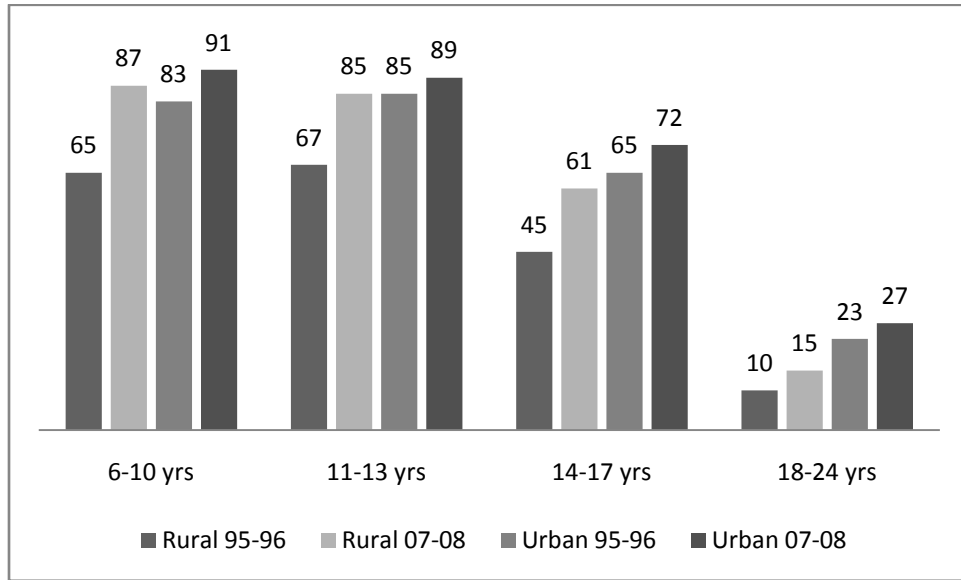
**Table 8 : Transition Matrix before and after Migration based on Usual Principal Activity Status (UPAS) (age group 15-32)**

UPAS at Destination for only those who are Part of Work Force							
UPAS at Origin	11	12	21	31	41	51	81
11	<b>2.71</b>	0.07	0.24	0.79	0.00	0.27	0.05
12	0.03	0.06	0.00	0.04	0.00	0.00	0.00
21	1.11	0.07	<b>7.79</b>	1.57	0.00	1.93	0.01
31	0.48	0.08	0.15	<b>5.35</b>	0.00	0.19	0.22
41	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.07	0.00	0.00
51	1.40	0.03	<b>2.26</b>	<b>2.87</b>	0.05	<b>15.29</b>	0.13
81	1.12	0.05	0.19	<b>4.50</b>	0.06	1.28	0.97
91	1.94	0.20	1.99	<b>5.88</b>	0.00	1.67	1.51
92	<b>2.36</b>	0.07	<b>8.19</b>	<b>2.32</b>	0.04	<b>7.21</b>	0.28
93	0.90	0.02	<b>3.41</b>	0.53	0.01	<b>3.72</b>	0.07
94	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00
95	0.00	0.00	0.01	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00
97	0.73	0.03	0.54	1.41	0.01	1.04	0.42

Notes: worked in h.h. enterprise (self-employed): own account worker -11, employer-12, worked as helper in h.h. enterprise (unpaid family worker) -21; worked as regular salaried/ wage employee -31, worked as casual wage labour: in public works -41, in other types of work -51; did not work but was seeking and/or available for work -81, attended educational institution -91, attended domestic duties only -92, attended domestic duties and was also engaged in free collection of goods (vegetables, roots, firewood, cattle feed, etc.), sewing, tailoring, weaving, etc. for household use -93, rentiers, pensioners, remittance recipients, etc. -94, not able to work due to disability -95, others (including begging, prostitution, etc.) -97

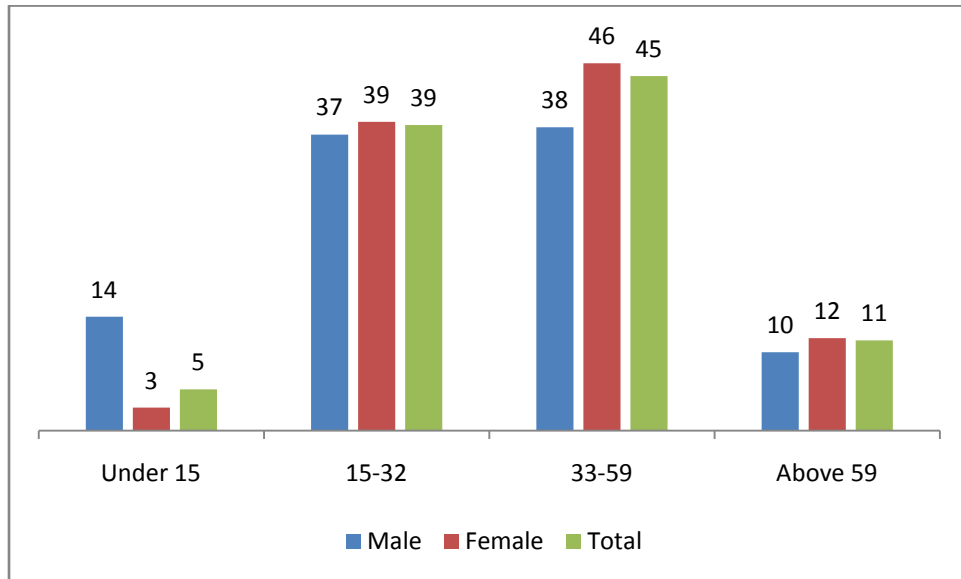
**Table 9: Transition across Broad industry groups after migration (age group 15-32)**

	Agriculture and mining	Manufacturing	Construction	Trade and Hotels	Transport	Other Services
Agriculture and Mining	<b>50.9</b>	<b>7.3</b>	<b>2.7</b>	<b>2.7</b>	1.6	2.0
Manufacturing	0.7	<b>8.0</b>	0.2	0.4	0.2	0.3
Construction	0.8	0.7	<b>3.7</b>	0.2	0.3	0.1
Trade and Hotels	0.3	0.7	0.1	<b>5.1</b>	0.1	0.5
Transport	0.1	0.2	0.0	0.1	<b>2.1</b>	0.1
Other Services	0.2	0.2	0.1	0.1	0.1	<b>6.9</b>



**Figure 1: Age Specific Attendance Ratio in Rural and Urban India in 1995-96 and 2007-08**

Source: Government of India 2010a



**Figure 2: Proportion of Migrants by Age Group and Gender**

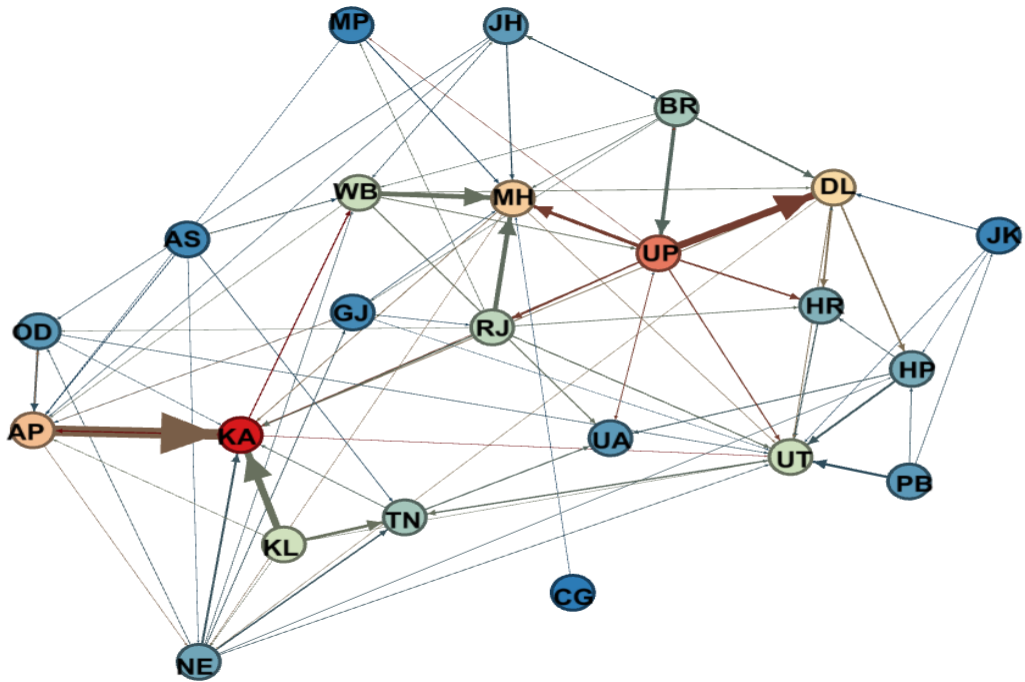


Figure 3: Inter-State Migration for Education

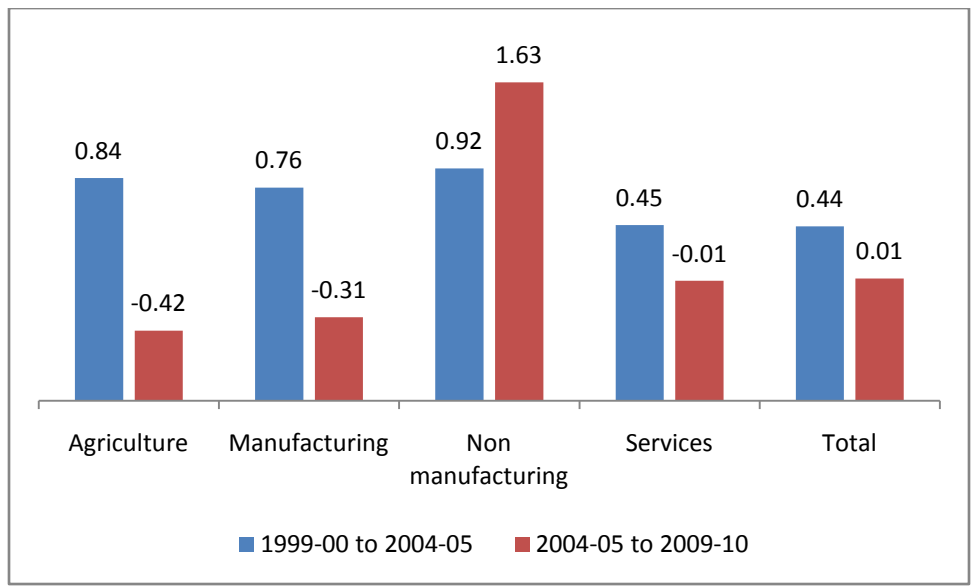


Figure 4: Estimates of Employment Elasticity

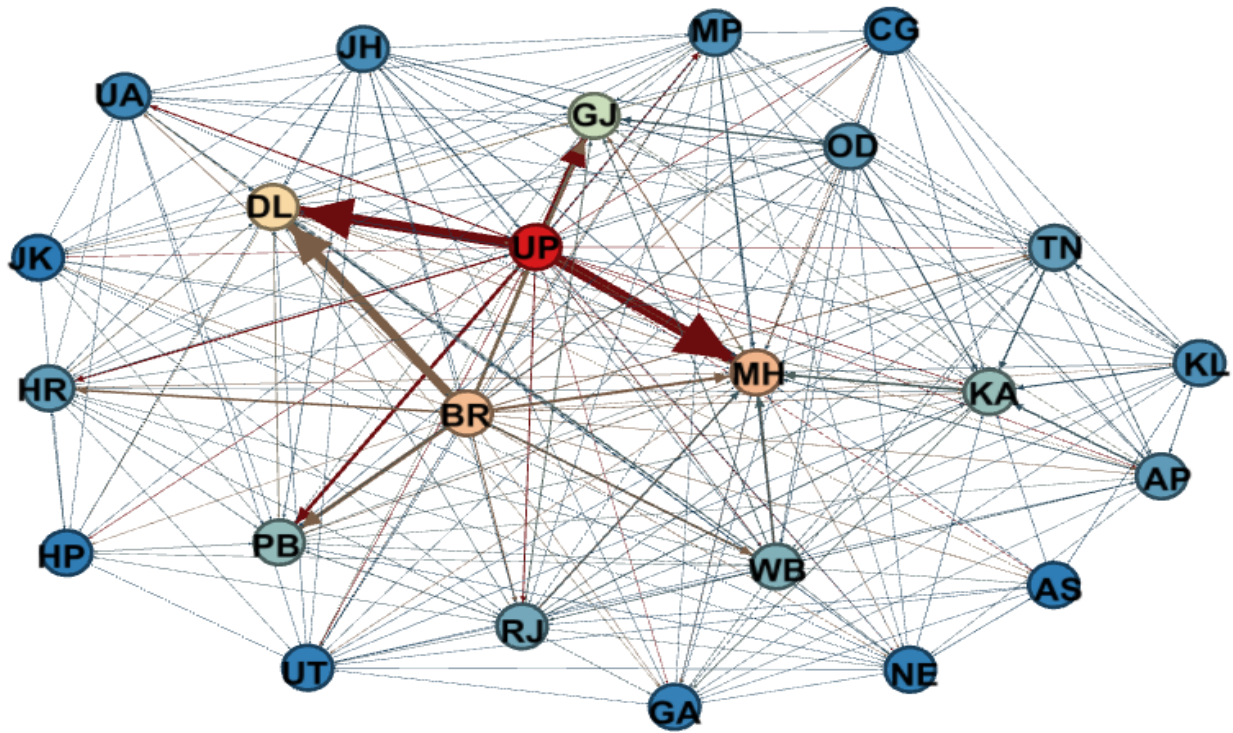


Figure 5: Inter-State Migration for Employment