

DOES HOUSEHOLD STRUCTURE MATTERS IN THE LIVES OF LEFT BEHIND WOMEN DUE TO MALE OUT-MIGRATION IN RURAL INDIA: EVIDENCE FROM NFHS-3

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ABSTRACT: Male out-migration leads to modification in the structure of family life and also transform women's social and economic position. A significant effect of migration on the family is the conjugal separation. The need for assistance with child care also may motivate a restructuring of household composition. **Data Source:** National Family Health Survey (NFHS)-3 (2005-2006). **Objective:** The broad objective of the study is to understand the household structure of left behind women in the place of origin (rural areas) due to male out-migration. **Findings:** Left behind women due to male out-migration in non-nuclear households have better health condition compared to those in nuclear households. This may be explained on the basis of the fact that the economic status of women in non-nuclear households is better than their counterparts. May be due to low standard of living, the affordability for health care among women in nuclear households is overshadowed.

INTRODUCTION

Kinship linkages and family residence patterns influence the households' adaptation to migration (UN, 1994). Families have to make adjustments in their lifestyles and shoulder greater responsibilities as a consequence of the migration of a male member (Gulati, 1993). A significant effect of migration on the family is the conjugal separation. Normally, the wife and the children are not left alone. In most cases, the wife is left with in-laws or with parents and other relatives (Parasuraman, 1986). It is rare that woman is left behind by herself and with children to look after the home (cited in Parasuraman, 1986). Gulati (1983) also observed the tendency among the emigrant household to get together not only to meet the obligations arising in consequence of the worker's migration abroad but also for the purpose of living. Where the wife and children were living separately with the migrant worker before his departure, the tendency is for the wife to move in with the husband's parents or her own parents along with her children.

The need for assistance with child care also may motivate a restructuring of household composition. Particularly if children are very young, a mother may prefer to sacrifice the independence of her household in the interest of assistance with responsibilities of childbearing (Findley and Williams, 1991). However, the noticeable tendency is the preference among younger women to stay either with their parents-in-law or with their own parents. The women who are comparatively older and more matured decide to stay independently, thereby retaining their freedom (Sekher, 1997).

An important factor in the family's adaptation to migration is whether an extended family and kinship structure exists to allow other male family members to fill roles normally assigned to the absent male (Hugo, 2002; Gordon, 1981). This depends on the living arrangements of wives left behind. One aspect that surely helps mitigate many problems including loneliness is the integrated system of support from other members of the community. Due to the kinship classification system, males one generation older than a child are often viewed as "fathers" making father substitutes but the life for women is not easy in the absence of their husbands (cited in Findley and Williams, 1991).

A wife is dependent on close relatives in the absence of her husband for a sort of male physical umbrella but her dependence on, or the need for help from, close relatives goes much

beyond that, even when one is talking only of the care of the migrant's family and not other financial responsibilities. The need for help and guidance is greatest in the period immediately after the migrant's first departure (Gulati, 1993).

In examining the impact of labour migration on the family, it is important to establish that most of such movement is non-permanent and that most involves the separation of husband and wife (Hugo, 2002). The reasons why women are left behind can be numerous namely, unavailability of proper accommodation and high cost of living at the place of destination, support for parents, children's education etc. A number of sociological studies have noted the prevalence of conjugal separation but studies which identify the important empirical determinants of conjugal separation are rare. There is clearly a need for such studies, as separation from spouse is perhaps the most important element in the psychic costs of migration (Banerjee, 1984). In the opinion of 'Gulf Wives', the principle problems arising from their husbands' emigration were loneliness, added responsibilities, adverse effect on children's education, indebtedness due to loan financing of emigration, increased anxiety levels, problems with in-laws and financial gains not upto expectations (Zachariah *et al.*, 2000). Long physical separation coupled with accumulated workload and responsibilities may increase the mental stress among left behind women. Male out-migration has negative impact on family in terms of family dissolution, psychological stress on women, rise in suicide rates and breakdown of traditional family system (Kearney and Miller, 1984).

Majority of research studies have viewed migrants in isolation of the family and community context from which they come and majority of empirical research on impact of migration has focussed on utilization of remittances. Remittances have made families able to live a better and relatively financially secure life, free of heavy and cumulative indebtedness (Deshingkar *et al.*, 2006; Zachariah *et al.*, 2000; Gulati, 1987). How exactly the left behind experience and cope with absence, loss and missing household or community members - the very nature of being left behind - has not been sufficiently addressed. Indeed, given the focus on migrants and the narrow ways in which migration processes have been defined, the migration literature can be said to have thus far 'left behind' the 'left behind' (Toyota *et al.*, 2007; Roy, 2003). Hence the main objective of the paper is to study the lives of left behind wives after their husbands out-migration in terms of decision making power and health. In addition to it, an attempt has also been made to study the trickledown effect of male out-migration on left behind women about fertility preference and imparting sex education among children. However, the analyses have been done from the perspective of household structure in which these left behind women live.

DATA SOURCE AND METHODOLOGY

National Family Health Survey-3 (NFHS-3) conducted in the year 2005-2006 has been used for the analysis. The NFHS-3 interviewed men of the age group 15-54 and women (never married as well as ever married women) of the age group 15-49. It included questions on several emerging issues such as perinatal mortality, male involvement in maternal health care, adolescent reproductive health, high risk sexual behaviour, family life education, safe injections and knowledge about tuberculosis. In addition, NFHS-3 carried out blood testing for HIV to provide for the first time in India, population-based data on HIV prevalence. NFHS-3 collected information from a nationally representative sample of 109041 households, 124385 women of the age group 15-49 and 74369 men of the age group 15-54. The NFHS-3 sample covers 99 percent of India's population living in 29 states (IIPS and MI, 2007a).

The data do not give details about left behind women due to male out-migration directly. In order to identify these women certain control variables have been used namely, currently married women in rural areas who have married once and husbands have no other wives.

Further, question has been asked: “Are you living with your husband now or he is staying elsewhere?” (IIPS and MI, 2007b). Here, there are two categories of women, one staying with husband (stay-put) and other not staying with husband. The latter category has been taken as the left behind women (with the help of above mentioned control variables). In order to see the impact of male out-migration, women not staying with their husband for less than one year have been excluded. This has been done to remove the effect of seasonal or any other short term migration from the analysis. The question asked in this regard is “For how long have you and your husband not been living together?” (IIPS and MI, 2007b). The interviewer’s manual of NFHS-3 clearly states for this question that it is not related to know when her husband last visited her but for how long they have not been living together. For example, if the respondent says that her husband visited her 6 months ago but has been living in the Gulf for three and a half years, this means that they have not been living together since three and half years (IIPS, 2006). The unit of analysis is women and for that purpose individual file (women file) has been used. All the cases in the analysis are weighted.

The household structure is defined as whether women live in nuclear or non-nuclear household. Nuclear households are households comprised of a married couple or a man or a woman living alone or with unmarried children (biological, adopted, or fostered) with or without unrelated individuals (IIPS and MI, 2007a). Accordingly, the total sample size is 3718 with 1453 living in the nuclear household and 2265 in the non-nuclear household.

RATIONALE BEHIND SELECTING RURAL INDIA

In India, most of the male out-migration for work/employment or business is from rural areas. Appendix I clearly reveals that around 38 per thousand males from rural areas out-migrate out of which around 30 per 1000 males out-migrate to urban areas. Urban out-migration rate is 34 per thousand urban males and most of them out-migrate to other urban areas. Keeping this as the background, rural India has been the focus for the study. In addition to this, women in rural India are at disadvantageous position. For example, women with no education are around 22 percent in urban areas and 50 percent in rural areas; around 45 percent women are not regularly exposed to mass media (newspaper, television, radio and cinema) as against 13 percent in urban area. Around 72 percent women are engaged in agricultural work in rural areas and most of them are not paid. Moreover, around 44, 41 and 34 percent women in rural areas can decide alone to go to the market, health facility and outside village/community whereas 40, 53 and 56 percent decisions are taken with someone else. In urban areas women have higher mobility than women in rural areas (IIPS and MI, 2007a).

RESULTS AND DISCUSSIONS

National scenario

Women living and not living with their husbands i.e. women whose husbands have not out-migrated and those whose husband have out-migrated have been depicted in Table 1. The classification of states into regions has been done as per the classification done in NFHS (2005-2006). It is clear from the table that eastern region comprising of Bihar, Jharkhand, Orissa and West Bengal has the highest percentage of left behind women (19 percent) followed by central region (14 percent) comprising of Madhya Pradesh, Chhattisgarh and Uttar Pradesh. Other regions have percentage of left behind women below the national average i.e. 12 percent. Statewise pattern shows that Bihar has the highest percentage of left behind women i.e. 33 percent followed by Uttar Pradesh (20 percent) and Kerala (20 percent).

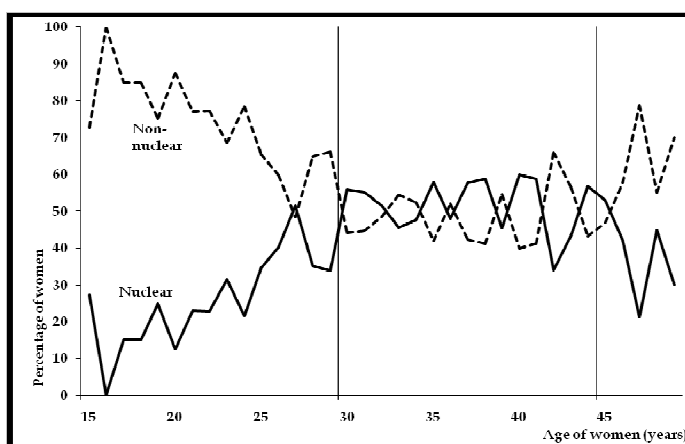
Relationship to the head of the household and age of women based on household structure

Left behind women living in the nuclear household are mostly the head of the household (99 percent) whereas those living in non nuclear household mostly reside with their in-laws (59 percent). A small number of left behind women live with their parents (8 percent) or sister (7 percent) (Table 2). Another important finding show that women in younger as well as older age tend to live in non nuclear household (Figure 1). The reasons for both these extremities may be different in India. The reason behind younger women living in non nuclear household may be that they require support of their family to cope up for the absence of their husbands and mostly depend on support mechanism from the family whereas the older women living in non nuclear household may be due to the fact that their children get married resulting into joint household. With the increase in age of women, the tendency to reside in nuclear household increases drastically to the extent that in middle age group (30-40 years), women living in nuclear household are higher than those in non-nuclear household. Subsequently, there is a decline in nuclear household.

Table 2: Percentage distribution of left behind women according to relation to household head, India, NFHS (2005-2006)

Relation to head of the household	Household structure	
	Nuclear	Non-Nuclear
Head	98.55	21.69
Daughter	0.21	7.99
Daughter-in-law	0.00	58.61
Grandchild	0.00	0.35
Parent	0.00	0.13
Sister	0.00	0.27
Other relative	0.00	2.56
Sister-in-law	0.00	7.38
Niece	0.00	0.22

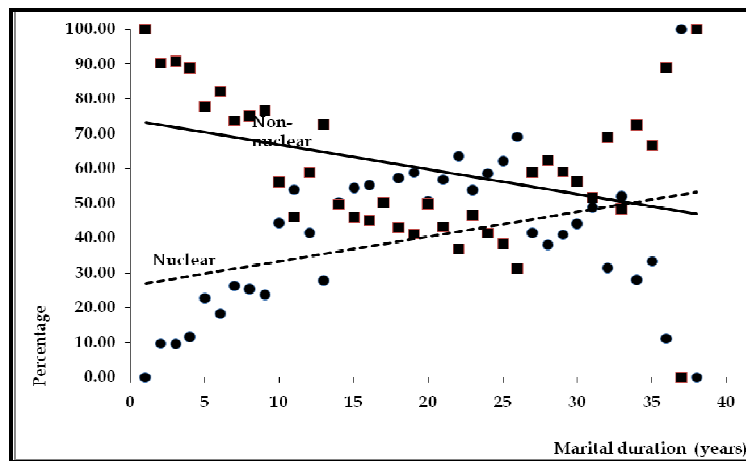
Figure 1: Percentage distribution of left behind women according to their age, India, NFHS (2005-2006)



Household structure and marital duration

Marital duration shows a positive relation with nuclear household whereas with non-nuclear household it shows a negative relation. This is the general trend depicting the association between marital duration and household structure. In the initial years, the percentage of women in non-nuclear household is much higher than nuclear household. This finding supports the previous finding of Gulati (1993) that in the initial years, the need for family support after husbands' departure is much higher (Figure 2).

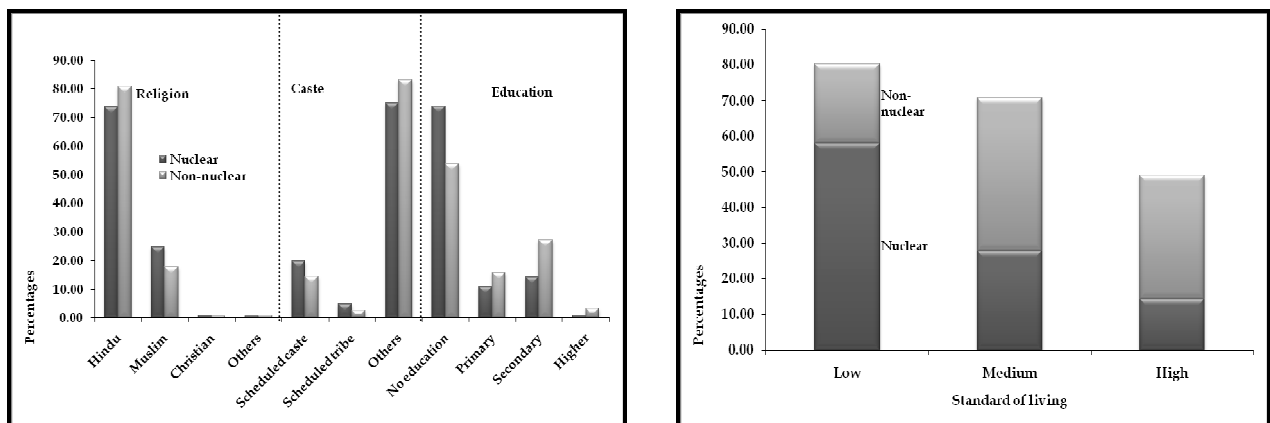
Figure 2: Percentage distribution of left behind women according to marital duration, India, NFHS (2005-2006)



Social and economic characteristics

Most of the women belong to Hindu religion and to other castes (excluding scheduled caste and scheduled tribe) irrespective to household structure. It can also be seen that women in the non nuclear households have higher level of educational attainment. Further it can be observed that 58, 28 and 14 percent women in nuclear household belong to low, medium and high standard of living respectively whereas those in non-nuclear household it is 22, 43 and 53 percent respectively (Figure 3).

Figure 3: Percentage distribution of left behind women according to background characteristics, India, NFHS (2005-2006)



Decision making power

The flow of remittances along with the diffusion of secular ideas are expected to enhance the standard of living of left behind women and provide greater access to resources that subsequently enable them to change their position (Toyota *et al.*, 2007). The adjustment process depends upon several factors such as their relationship with migrants, the length of stay of migrants abroad and the socio-cultural context in which they live (Hugo, 1997). However, women are generally capable of adapting to the new situation and managing household chores in their husband's absence (Gordon, 1981). The change of women's position may result in greater mobility, reduced dependence on traditional patrons and increased self-confidence (Hugo, 1997). On the other hand, it is quite possible that the presumed change of women's role is only temporary and a reflection of the changed conditions in which they are forced to live (Toyota *et al.*, 2007).

Affordability of medical help for self reveals that higher percentage of women in nuclear household (81 percent) has no problem in getting permission compared to women in non-nuclear household (74 percent). Women in non-nuclear households are in a better situation in having no problem in getting money needed for treatment or to go alone than their counterparts. Decision on spending money is taken mainly by self in both categories. Final say on health care is mostly taken by self (69 percent) or are taken collectively by self and husband (19 percent) in the former and self or someone else (39 percent) in the latter category. Decisions on large household purchases are done mainly by self (35 percent), husband (19 percent) or collectively (44 percent) among women in nuclear household whereas by someone else (53 percent) among women in non-nuclear households. Similarly, decisions on making household purchases for daily needs or visit to family or relatives are mainly taken by self or collectively in former whereas by someone else in latter category. Decision on spending money earned by husband is done mostly collectively by husband and wife in both categories. Having bank account or savings do not make difference between the two categories (Table 3).

Impact of duration of male out-migration on women's health

The Table 4 reveals that women living in non-nuclear households have better health condition as compared to women living in nuclear households. Body mass index and anaemia show considerable difference. Asthma, diabetes, goiter or thyroid disorder and tuberculosis are more among women living in nuclear households. Another point to be noted is that women living in nuclear households are vulnerable to get sexually transmitted diseases. Those who have any STD, genital sore/ulcer and genital discharge are 3, 3 and 17 percent among women living in nuclear households whereas for the women living in non-nuclear households it is 2, 2 and 13 percent respectively. The percentage of women availing health scheme does not show notable difference.

Trickledown effect of secular ideas due to male out-migration on:

Fertility preference

It can be seen that most of the women in nuclear households prefer upto four children while women in non-nuclear households prefer upto three children. Women desiring one child are 2 and 5 percent respectively in both categories whereas women desiring 2, 3, 4 children are around 40, 34 and 24 percent among women in nuclear households and 47, 32 and 16 percent among women in non-nuclear households. When sex of the child is considered, preference to

have male child is strong among women in former category. However in general it can be concluded that women desire atleast two male children and atleast one female child irrespective of household structure (Table 5).

Table 4: Percentage distribution of health condition of left behind women, India, NFHS (2005-2006)

	Household structure	
	Nuclear	Non-nuclear
BMI		
CED	43.97	33.50
Normal	49.00	60.11
Obese	7.03	6.39
Anaemia		
Severe	2.07	0.37
Moderate	16.45	13.51
Mild	44.87	41.91
Not anaemic	36.61	44.21
Asthma	2.02	1.78
Diabetes	1.40	0.40
Goiter or thyroid disorder	1.46	0.89
Tb	1.72	0.79
Had any STD in last 12 months	2.89	2.30
Had genital sore/ulcer in last 12 months	2.90	1.99
Had genital discharge in last 12 months	17.01	13.45
Health scheme	0.78	1.68

Table 5: Percentage distribution of fertility preference of left behind women, India, NFHS (2005-2006)

	Household structure			Household structure			Household structure	
	Nuclear	Non-nuclear		Nuclear	Non-nuclear		Nuclear	Non-nuclear
Ideal number of children			Ideal number of boys			Ideal number of girls		
0	0.56	0.27	0	11.01	12.47	0	13.48	16.04
1	1.62	4.71	1	34.30	42.75	1	66.13	71.50
2	39.94	47.03	2	48.34	40.12	2	19.48	11.92
3	33.87	32.13	3	5.29	3.76	3	0.78	0.54
4	23.99	15.86	4	1.06	0.91	4	0.14	0.00

Opinion about imparting sex education among children

The demographic, social and economic characteristics have revealed that women living in non-nuclear households are better educated and show better results. Following this background, it follows that these women are in favour of imparting sex education to children irrespective of gender of the child. It has been seen that more percentage of women in the latter group are affirmative about children to be taught about sex, condoms, contraceptive etc. (Table 6).

Table 6: Percentage distribution of awareness of left behind women, India, NFHS (2005-2006)

	Household structure	
	Nuclear	Non-nuclear
Boys to be taught		
Moral values	98.97	97.88
Changes in boys' bodies	55.88	62.94
Changes in girls' bodies	30.06	35.19
Sex	31.73	39.50
Contraception	28.62	36.63
HIV/AIDS	39.37	52.72
Condoms	25.46	34.13
Girls to be taught		
Moral values	99.11	97.26
Changes in boys' bodies	43.20	45.95
Changes in girls' bodies	63.94	69.53
Sex	34.07	43.08
Contraception	33.84	41.26
HIV/AIDS	38.13	52.26
Condoms	25.10	34.57

CONCLUSION

The lives of left behind women differ widely depending on the type of household structure in which they live. The young and older women are mostly in non-nuclear household whereas the women in 30-40 years age group prefer living in nuclear household thereby retaining their own independence. However, women in non-nuclear household do not have much decision making power as it has been seen that the decisions about health care, large household purchases, household purchases for daily needs, visit to family or relatives are mostly taken by someone else in the household. On the other hand, women in nuclear household mostly take their own decisions or are taken collectively with their husband's.

Left behind women due to male out-migration in non-nuclear households have better health condition compared to those in nuclear households. This may be explained on the basis of the fact that the economic status of women in non-nuclear households is better than their counterparts. May be due to low standard of living, the affordability for health care among women in nuclear households is overshadowed.

The trickledown effect is subjected to certain anomalies when fertility preference is questioned. It can be seen that most of the women in nuclear households prefer upto four children while women in non-nuclear households prefer upto three children. When sex of the child is considered, preference to have male child is strong among women in former category. However in general it can be concluded that women desire atleast two male children and atleast one female child irrespective of household structure. Further, women in the non-nuclear households have shown more inclination in imparting sex education among children.

The present analysis portrays the general scenario of lives of left behind women. There are certain queries that remains unanswered like why women of non nuclear households prefer imparting sex education to their children more than women in nuclear households inspite of the fact that the latter category has more decision making power than the former. Since, this is only quantitative study, in order to get these queries answered; one has to undertake qualitative survey. This may be one of the limitations of the paper that one can get the answer of “what” but not of “why”.

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Table 1: Percentage distribution of women living and not living with their husband, India, NFHS (2005-2006)

States	Women with husband	living their	Women living their husband not with	Total number of women
India	88.28		11.72	61751
North	90.93		9.07	7890
Delhi	98.73		1.27	79
Haryana	91.81		8.19	1221
Himachal Pradesh	86.64		13.36	479
Jammu And Kashmir	93.55		6.45	512
Punjab	93.69		6.31	1378
Rajasthan	90.30		9.70	3732
Uttaranchal	85.71		14.29	490
Central	86.23		13.77	15909
Chhattisgarh	98.20		1.80	1442
Madhya Pradesh	97.69		2.31	4024
Uttar Pradesh	80.17		19.83	10443
East	81.48		18.52	16408
Bihar	66.60		33.40	6380
Jharkhand	87.44		12.56	1792
Orissa	90.69		9.31	2761
West Bengal	92.24		7.76	5474
North East	93.70		6.30	2493
Arunachal Pradesh	96.43		3.57	56
Assam	92.96		7.04	1817
Manipur	92.23		7.77	103
Meghalaya	97.56		2.44	123
Mizoram	96.30		3.70	27
Nagaland	95.31		4.69	64
Sikkim	94.44		5.56	36
Tripura	96.98		3.02	265
West	96.10		3.90	6968
Goa	90.00		10.00	50
Gujarat	95.51		4.49	2560
Maharashtra	96.49		3.51	4359
South	92.87		7.13	12083

Andhra Pradesh	94.91	5.09	4771
Karnataka	97.49	2.51	3106
Kerala	80.17	19.83	1659
Tamil Nadu	91.67	8.33	2546

Table 3: Percentage of decision making power of left behind women, India, NFHS (2005-2006)

	Household structure	
	Nuclear	Non-nuclear
Getting medical help for self		
No problem in getting permission to go	81.16	73.88
No problem in getting money needed for treatment	52.65	60.48
No problem to go alone	54.23	56.08
Who decides how to spend money		
Respondent alone	65.87	57.76
Respondent and husband	30.07	18.63
Husband alone	4.06	5.90
Someone else	0.00	17.70
Final say on own health care		
Respondent alone	69.05	39.13
Respondent and husband	19.19	13.38
Husband alone	8.39	8.57
Someone else	3.37	38.91
Final say on making large household purchases		
Respondent alone	34.53	12.98
Respondent and husband	43.88	20.04
Husband alone	18.71	14.61
Someone else	2.89	52.36
Final say on making household purchases for daily needs		
Respondent alone	75.17	31.01
Respondent and husband	14.86	8.70
Husband alone	6.95	5.12
Someone else	3.03	55.17
Final say on visits to family or relatives		
Respondent alone	40.19	16.07
Respondent and husband	38.47	21.72
Husband alone	18.44	9.49
Someone else	2.89	52.72
Final say on deciding what to do with money husband		

earns		
Respondent alone	26.64	13.43
Respondent and husband	56.47	37.09
Husband alone	16.06	20.64
Someone else	0.83	28.84
Have bank or savings acct	17.34	16.34

Appendix I: Male out-migration rate due to work/employment/business in India, Census 2001

States	Streams of out-migration								
	R-T	R-R	R-U	U-T	U-R	U-U	T-T	T-R	T-U
Jammu & Kashmir	10.43	3.88	6.55	25.04	4.03	21.01	15.00	4.01	10.99
Himachal Pradesh	47.25	9.05	38.21	141.02	11.68	129.34	59.55	9.53	50.02
Punjab	32.91	13.54	19.37	51.69	5.82	45.86	40.24	11.03	29.21
Chandigarh	265.73	67.28	198.45	70.73	8.66	62.08	93.88	15.50	78.38
Uttaranchal	105.05	14.55	90.50	84.85	7.34	77.50	101.02	12.65	88.37
Haryana	38.60	7.67	30.94	53.49	4.53	48.96	44.02	6.82	37.20
Delhi	50.34	10.93	39.40	25.57	3.98	21.59	27.54	4.47	23.07
Rajasthan	38.43	7.35	31.09	48.51	4.19	44.32	41.73	6.66	35.07
Uttar Pradesh	75.01	10.27	64.74	67.98	5.50	62.48	74.68	9.38	65.29
Bihar	88.72	17.48	71.23	118.68	13.68	105.01	93.83	17.39	76.44
Sikkim	9.31	3.63	5.69	50.31	10.45	39.86	14.76	4.58	10.18
Arunachal Pradesh	7.34	2.93	4.41	19.72	5.12	14.60	10.39	3.49	6.90
Nagaland	20.03	4.07	15.96	34.35	5.51	28.84	23.28	4.43	18.85
Manipur	13.64	4.68	8.95	16.82	4.52	12.30	14.84	4.72	10.12
Mizoram	9.87	3.58	6.29	5.03	1.22	3.82	7.58	2.43	5.14
Tripura	10.27	3.92	6.35	31.68	4.16	27.52	14.73	4.04	10.69
Meghalaya	7.39	2.26	5.13	42.18	6.00	36.18	15.29	3.14	12.15
Assam	11.53	5.35	6.18	37.81	8.26	29.55	16.01	5.94	10.06
West Bengal	14.48	3.79	10.69	27.69	3.47	24.22	19.12	3.76	15.36
Jharkhand	48.43	17.92	30.51	34.26	5.62	28.64	45.64	15.11	30.54
Orissa	28.39	6.53	21.86	33.18	4.79	28.39	29.62	6.34	23.28
Chhattisgarh	30.83	15.88	14.95	25.32	4.08	21.24	30.06	13.49	16.57
Madhya Pradesh	20.15	7.44	12.71	22.48	3.00	19.48	21.12	6.26	14.86
Gujarat	16.62	1.79	14.83	19.32	1.97	17.35	17.95	1.89	16.06
Daman & Diu	42.68	13.63	29.04	54.66	11.24	43.42	47.08	13.13	33.95
Dadra & Nagar Haveli	9.53	4.79	4.74	29.28	11.35	17.93	15.20	6.70	8.50
Maharashtra	12.81	3.40	9.41	12.77	1.93	10.83	12.97	2.76	10.21
Andhra Pradesh	13.10	3.58	9.52	20.63	2.48	18.15	15.46	3.31	12.14
Karnataka	25.37	6.54	18.83	23.87	2.95	20.92	25.21	5.32	19.89
Goa	28.85	3.00	25.85	40.57	4.30	36.27	35.29	3.70	31.59
Lakshadweep	27.87	4.95	22.92	18.57	2.27	16.30	24.35	3.72	20.63
Kerala	22.80	3.69	19.11	55.31	4.81	50.50	32.08	4.06	28.02
Tamil Nadu	23.46	7.65	15.81	21.90	3.04	18.86	23.17	5.68	17.49
Pondicherry	33.80	6.61	27.19	27.88	3.55	24.34	30.63	4.63	26.01

A & N Islands	0.01	0.00	0.01	30.96	4.65	26.31	0.02	0.00	0.02
India	37.81	7.99	29.82	34.15	3.88	30.28	37.32	6.86	30.46

Note: R=Rural; U=Urban; T=Total

Out-migration rate= $MO_{ki}/MP_{kij} * 1000$

Where,

MO_{ki} =Male out-migrants of kth state from ith area (i.e. rural, urban or total area) due to work/employment/business

MP_{kij} =Male population of kth state from ith area and jth age group (above 19 years)