

Husband Migration and Its Impact on the Family Left behind a Socio-economic Perspective

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Abstract

Financial wealth can result from migration, but it also takes away traditional and cultural family members, which changes the lives of the women and children who remain behind. This study aims to investigate an affected family's economic, social, and psychological viewpoints. This explanation based on quantitative approach and data for the analysis taken from Indian Human Development Survey 2005. According to a study, children of migrants had better access to healthcare and education. Migration and money set aside for health and education needs are positively correlated. However, because the abandoned children do not have their father's protection, psychiatric disorders become ingrained in their personalities. In a similar vein, women experience emotional tension, loneliness, and melancholy despite feeling financially secure. in rear.

Keywords

Migration, family structure, household, remittances, children, etc.

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Introduction

According to N.S.S.O., migration is a very localized occurrence in India. An intriguing account of migration in India can be found in a study from the National Sample Survey Organization: nearly all movement occurs within the country, accounting for 99 percent of all migration, but India also significantly contributes to migration abroad. The majority of Indians, at 77%, are women who moved as part of an arranged marriage, however, 27% of the population is classified as “migrants,” meaning that they no longer reside in the town or hamlet where they were born. Migrants comprise more than 40% of the female population in rural and urban areas. Male migration is not insignificant, though. Migrants comprise around 7% of the rural population and 27% of the male population in metropolitan areas. Of these, 53% of male migrants from urban regions and 30% of male migrants from rural areas moved for work-related reasons; a rising percentage also migrated to cities for academic purposes. This migration is mostly somewhat short-distance in nature. Of male migrants in rural areas, 57% originate from the same district and 82% from the same state; of male migrants in urban areas, 34% come from the same district and 74% from the same state. So here is an effort to see the effect of migration on women’s autonomy and how they cope with such new responsibilities in the new field.

The Objectives:

1. To examine the family’s socio-economic status of the emigrant worker.
2. To determine the kind and causes of migration.
3. Does the migration of husbands give women more autonomy and decision-making power?
4. Are women’s labor needs increased due to their spouses’ migration?
5. To learn more about the impact of emigration on women and the psychological strain that the family left behind faces.

Theoretical perspective: The study’s foundation is the relative deprivation theory developed by Robert K. Merton. People who are deprived of items that society values—such as money, justice, privilege, position, or other things—are said to be deprived of deprivation. Relative deprivation occurs when people or groups believe they are unjustly deprived in comparison to those who are thought to possess comparable traits and merit comparable benefits. Using this hypothesis, it becomes clear that people move to enhance their standing about other pertinent reference groups as well as to maximize their absolute income. Compared to people from comparatively less poor households, those from relatively more deprived households

were more likely to relocate in search of employment. In addition, Desai insisted that (1994) As a result, parent migration may have a negative impact on the behavior, academic performance, and general well-being of the children left behind. Children of immigrants also have lower educational aspirations than children of non-migrant households.

According to Goldscheider (1987) When people leave rural China, it hurts children's academic achievement. Gulati (1993) insisted that conversely, remittances encourage the development of human capital within the migrant's home. In addition to Hondagneu-Sotelo P. (1992) in Yang's analysis, migration produces favorable income shocks that encourage the development of human capital in the nation of origin. Remittances allow children of migrant households to have access to better educational and healthcare facilities, which boosts enrolment and attendance. Children's health who are left behind the health of the children left behind is impacted by migration in some ways as well.

As per the International Institute for Population Sciences (IIPS) (2007), migration benefits the children left behind by allocating greater resources to their education and health on the other hand, it highlights that migration deforms the psyche and emotions of the children left behind and destroys the family unit. Children of migrants are more likely to experience violence, abuse, and corruption. A Woman's Psychology and Empowerment Researchers contend that remittances have a positive income effect, increasing the income of those left behind and potentially lowering labor force participation. However, remittances do not reach a household right away after a migrant departs; if they do, the spouse may find it more difficult to enter the labor market. According to Lan PC. Maid & Lloyd C. (1991) The majority of research conducted in India found that women's autonomy and capacity for decision-making- were impacted by male migration. Lucas REB & Lutz H (2002) insisted that Higher responsibilities for women in the day making -to-day business are brought about by migration, which modifies gender roles in India. The female is expected to work on the family farm and tend to the animals in the absence of the male.

According to Mascarenhas-Keyes S. (1990) a woman who migrates at first experiences an increase in her obligations and loneliness in the absence of her spouse. When their father is not around, kids experience loneliness and a lack of direction as well. According to Mason & Massey D (1990) In the absence of a man, an Indian woman's obligations expand, and she is expected to handle several different tasks that would normally fall under the purview of men. Migration alters the family structure because, according to Morokvasic M (2004), women in the household feel that their conventional roles have changed and then duties have grown due to the

absence of men. Thus, remittances—income that a migrant sends home to his family from a distant nation—may improve the family’s economic situation, but if there is a disruption in the remittance supply, it may alter the social status by bringing about a shift in gender roles.

According to Lutz H. (2002), a woman may experience financial hardship and be forced to work on a farm if a migrant has a low-paying job overseas and is unable to send enough remittances to support her family in addition to other obligations. Lucas (1997) insisted that as a result, women become the only providers for their families and take on more household and personal duties. All of the arguments regarding how migration affects the families left behind are reasonable, but the reality is frequently far more nuanced. Reality may differ from one’s imagination in terms of severity. Migration until a male relative becomes available to look after his family.

As per the N.S.S.O (2001) When a migrant travels overseas, his brother and other male relatives willingly look after the woman and her family. Paris T, Singh A, Luis J, and Hossain M. (2005) insisted that the Negotiation of gender relations is made possible by male mobility. De facto, the woman leads the family. The position of women and their empowerment can lead to a shift in the traditional gender roles for women. Presser H. (1998) depicted that However, empowerment or having a female-headed home does not necessarily mean that women have been freed from male authority; they may still rely on males for mobility.

Methodology and Methods

To funds from the National Institutes of Health enabled researchers from the University of Maryland and the National Council of Applied Economic Research, New Delhi, to arrange the India Human Development Survey 2005 (IHDS). 41,554 urban and rural homes participated in the nationally representative household survey known as the IHDS. All Indian states and union territories are included, except Andaman and Nicobar, which comprise less than 1% of the country’s population. These households are dispersed over 384 districts, 1503 villages, 33 states and union territories, and 971 urban blocks. urban and rural homes around 41,554 participated in the nationally representative household survey known as the IHDS. A clustered sampling technique was used to choose the sample to provide an Indian sample that is nationally representative. A detailed description of the sampling process can be found elsewhere (Desai et al. forthcoming). The survey items were conducted in thirteen languages by interviewers who were knowledgeable about the local way of life and spoke the language fluently. A group of female and male interviewers visited

these homes and conducted in-person interviews with one respondent—typically the male head of the household—who was knowledgeable about household income and employment and one woman who had ever been married between the ages of 15 and 49, if any. The interviewers were women, interviewing women. The IHDS is a multi-topic survey that collects data on employment, income, health, and education. The data are freely downloaded from ICPSR and are available as a public resource for Indian and foreign scholars interested in researching human development in India.

Data and its interpretation:

Nonetheless, it seems that families accompany short-distance travelers frequently. On the other hand, those who migrate overseas or to a different state may be more inclined to leave their family behind. According to data from the India Human Development Survey 2005, a recent household survey, 4.5% of married women in rural India and 1.5% of married women in urban India had spouses who lived out of the country. Twenty-six percent of migrant spouses reside in their home state, sixty-two percent do so in another, and twelve percent do so abroad.

Nonetheless, there is a strong regional clustering of this occurrence. Approximately 9% of married women in the hilly state of Uttarakhand, 8% of rural women in the central plains of Uttar Pradesh, and 11% of women in Bihar have spouses who live somewhere else. In contrast, very few women live apart from their spouses in the more affluent southern states of Tamil Nadu and Karnataka.

The effect of spouses' migration on the lives of the women left behind is examined in this research. We concentrate on two aspects of women's lives using data from the India Human Development Survey 2005: women's engagement in the labor force and their degree of autonomy and control over their lives. The findings imply that home structure is the primary mediating element via which their husbands' absence impacts women. While women who live in extended households may not confront these duties or benefits, women who do not live in extended families must deal with higher degrees of responsibility as well as greater liberty. The table displays the socioeconomic traits and geographic distribution of the families as well as geographic distribution are presented.

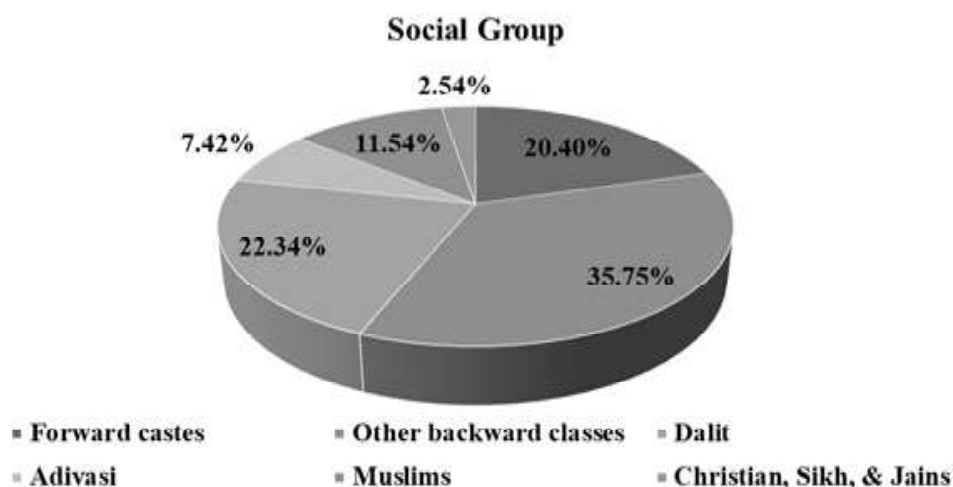
1. Distribution of marital status by socio-economic characteristic

Table 1.1: Social group of Respondents

| Social Group | Percentages |
|------------------------|--------------------|
| Forward Castes | 20.40% |
| Other Backward Classes | 35.75% |
| Dalit | 22.34% |

| | |
|--------------------------|--------|
| Adivasi | 7.42% |
| Muslims | 11.54% |
| Christian, Sikh, & Jains | 2.54% |

Source: India Human Development Survey 2005

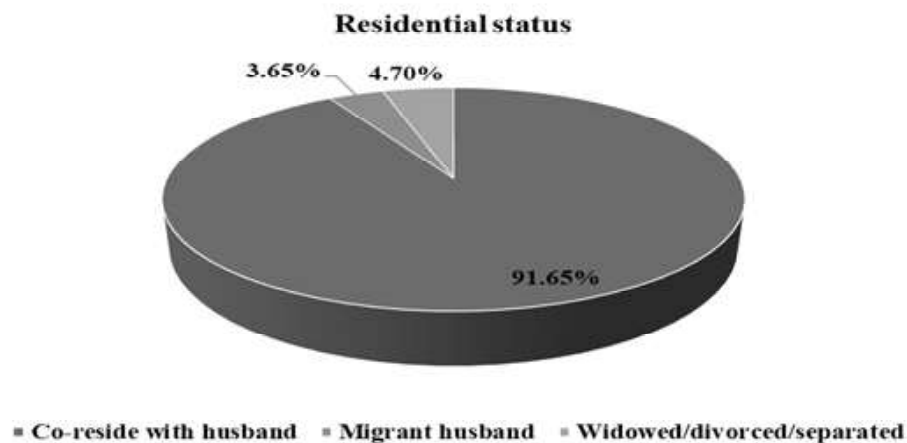


The data provides insights into the distribution of individuals across various social groups within a given population. Among these groups, the Other Backward Classes (OBCs) emerge as the largest cohort, representing 35.75% of the population. OBCs historically faced social and economic disadvantages but are distinct from the traditionally privileged Forward Castes, who constitute 20.40% of the population. Additionally, the data highlights the significant presence of Dalits, comprising 22.34% of the population. Dalits, also known as Scheduled Castes, have historically endured severe social discrimination and marginalization. Adivasis, representing 7.42% of the population, are indigenous communities with unique cultural identities but often face challenges related to marginalization and displacement. Muslims, constituting 11.54% of the population, represent a diverse community with socio-economic challenges and religious discrimination issues. The category encompassing Christians, Sikhs, and Jains comprises 2.54% of the population, reflecting the diversity of religious minorities within the societal fabric. This distribution underscores the diverse socio-cultural landscape of the population, highlighting the importance of addressing social inequalities and fostering inclusivity through targeted policies and programs aimed at promoting equitable development and social cohesion.

Table 1.2- Residential Status

| Residential status | Percentages |
|----------------------------|-------------|
| Co-reside with husband | 91.65% |
| Migrant husband | 3.65% |
| Widowed/divorced/separated | 4.70% |

Source: India Human Development Survey 2005



Interpretation

The data illustrates the residential status distribution among women within a specified population. Here's an interpretation:

Most of the women, accounting for 91.65%, reside with their husbands. This indicates that the prevalent living arrangement for women in this population is within a marital household, suggesting a significant reliance on traditional family structures.

A smaller percentage of women, approximately 3.65%, have husbands who are migrants. This suggests that a portion of women's spouses are living away from the household, likely due to employment or other reasons, resulting in a separation of the marital unit and potential challenges related to maintaining family cohesion across distances.

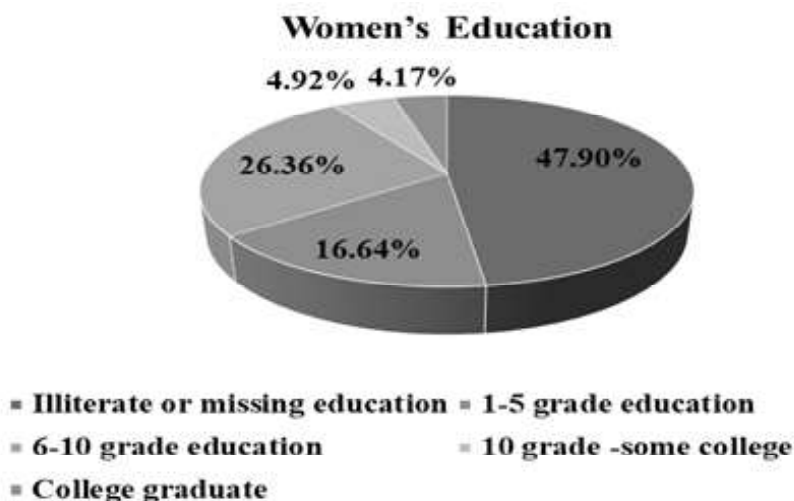
Furthermore, around 4.70% of women are widowed, divorced, or separated. This indicates that a notable proportion of women in the population have experienced the loss of a spouse or the dissolution of their marriage, resulting in a change in residential status and potentially impacting their socio-economic well-being and support networks.

Overall, the data highlights the varied residential statuses of women within the population, reflecting different family dynamics, socio-economic circumstances, and life experiences. Understanding these patterns is essential for developing targeted interventions and support systems to address the diverse needs of women in different residential situations.

Table 1.3 Women’s Education

| Women’s Education | Percentages |
|---------------------------------|--------------------|
| Illiterate or missing education | 47.90% |
| 1-5 grade education | 16.64% |
| 6-10 grade education | 26.36% |
| 10 grade -some college | 4.92% |
| College Graduate | 4.17% |

Source: India Human Development Survey 2005



Interpretation

The provided data offers insights into the educational attainment of women within a specified population. Here’s an interpretation:

Nearly half of the women, accounting for 47.90%, are either illiterate or have missing educational information. This suggests a substantial portion of the population may have limited access to formal education or face barriers to educational attainment, potentially impacting their socio-economic opportunities and empowerment. Approximately 16.64% of women have received education ranging from grades 1 to 5. This indicates a basic level of literacy and numeracy skills

among this segment of the population, although their educational attainment remains relatively low. A significant proportion of women, comprising 26.36%, have completed education ranging from grades 6 to 10.

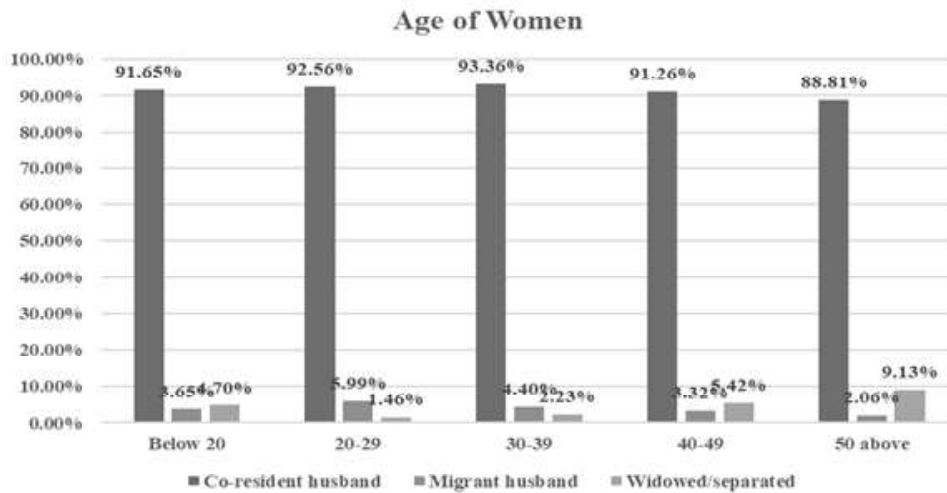
This suggests that a substantial portion of women in the population have achieved at least a middle school level of education, potentially providing them with a broader skill set and increased opportunities for socio-economic advancement. A smaller percentage of women, around 4.92%, have completed education from grade 10 to some college. This indicates that a segment of the population has achieved a higher level of education beyond middle school, possibly including vocational training or higher secondary education. Additionally, approximately 4.17% of women are college graduates. This represents a smaller but notable proportion of women who have completed undergraduate-level education, potentially equipping them with advanced knowledge and skills for professional and personal development.

2. Distribution of marital status by socio-economic characteristic

Table 2.1.: Age Distribution of the women

| Age of Women | Co-resident Husband | Migrant Husband | Widowed/separated |
|-----------------|---------------------|-----------------|-------------------|
| Below 20 | 91.65% | 3.65% | 4.7% |
| 20-29 | 92.56% | 5.99% | 1.46% |
| 30-39 | 93.36% | 4.4% | 2.23% |
| 40-49 | 91.26% | 3.32% | 5.42% |
| 50 above | 88.81% | 2.06% | 9.13% |

Source: India Human Development Survey 2005



Interpretation

The data illustrates distinct age distributions among women based on their marital status and the type of husband they have. Among women below 20 years old, the majority, approximately 91.65%, are married to co-resident husbands, while a smaller proportion, around 3.65%, have migrant husbands. Additionally, about 4.7% of women in this age group are either widowed or separated. Moving into the 20-29 age bracket, around 92.56% of women are married to co-resident husbands, with a slightly higher percentage, approximately 5.99%, having migrant husbands. Conversely, only 1.46% of women in this age range are widowed or separated. As women progress into the 30-39 age range, the percentage married to co-resident husbands rises to about 93.36%, with approximately 4.4% having migrant husbands and around 2.23% being widowed or separated. In the 40-49 age group, roughly 91.26% of women have co-resident husbands, while about 3.32% have migrant husbands, and approximately 5.42% are widowed or separated. Finally, among women aged 50 and above, the proportion married to co-resident husbands decreases to about 88.81%, with approximately 2.06% having migrant husbands. Notably, a significant percentage, around 9.13%, of women in this age group are widowed or separated. These findings highlight shifting marital dynamics and the prevalence of widowhood or separation among older women.

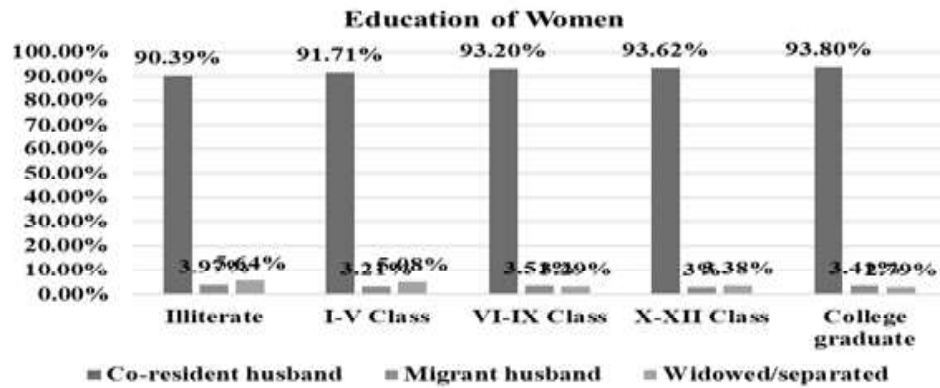
Trends

- Generally, as women age, the percentage of co-resident husbands decreases, while the percentage of widowed or separated women increases.
- The proportion of women with migrant husbands tends to be relatively low across all age groups, but slightly higher in the younger age groups compared to the older ones.

Table 2.2: Living Pattern of Women

| Education of Women | Co-resident husband | Migrant husband | Widowed/separated |
|---------------------------|----------------------------|------------------------|--------------------------|
| Illiterate | 90.39% | 3.97% | 5.64% |
| I-V Class | 91.71% | 3.21% | 5.08% |
| VI-IX Class | 93.2% | 3.51% | 3.29% |
| X-XII Class | 93.62% | 3% | 3.38% |
| College Graduate | 93.8% | 3.41% | 2.79% |

Source: India Human Development Survey 2005



Interpretation

The data provided offers insights into the education levels of women categorized by their marital status and the type of husband they have. Among illiterate women, approximately 90.39% have co-resident husbands, while around 3.97% have migrant husbands, and about 5.64% are widowed or separated. Moving to the I-V class education bracket, roughly 91.71% of women have co-resident husbands, with approximately 3.21% having migrant husbands, and about 5.08% being widowed or separated. As education levels increase to the VI-IX class range, the percentage of women with co-resident husbands rises to about 93.2%, while approximately 3.51% have migrant husbands, and around 3.29% are widowed or separated. In the X-XII class category, approximately 93.62% of women have co-resident husbands, with around 3% having migrant husbands, and about 3.38% being widowed or separated. Finally, among college graduates, about 93.8% of women have co-resident husbands, with approximately 3.41% having migrant husbands, and around 2.79% being widowed or separated.

Trends

- Across all education levels, the majority of women have co-resident husbands, with relatively small percentages having migrant husbands or being widowed/separated.
- The proportion of women with co-resident husbands tends to increase with higher levels of education, while the percentages of women with migrant husbands or who are widowed/separated decrease.

Implications

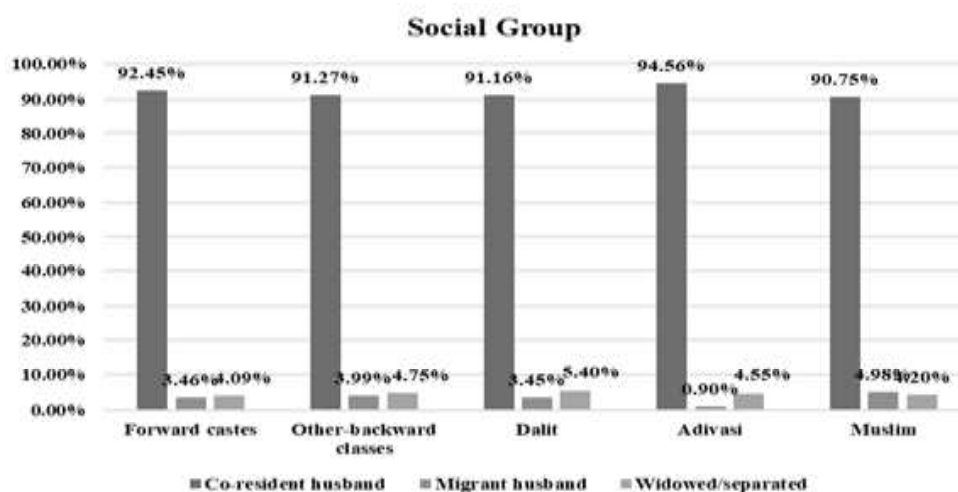
- The data suggest a correlation between education level and marital status, with higher levels of education possibly contributing to more stable marital relationships.

- Education may also play a role in migration patterns, with more educated women potentially having more opportunities for employment or mobility, leading to fewer migrant husbands.
- Understanding these education patterns can inform policies related to education access, women’s empowerment, and support for widowed or separated individuals.

Table 2.3: Education Pattern of Women

| Social group | Co-resident husband | Migrant husband | Widowed/separated |
|----------------|---------------------|-----------------|-------------------|
| Forward castes | 92.45% | 3.46% | 4.09% |
| O.B.C Classes | 91.27% | 3.99% | 4.75% |
| Dalit | 91.16% | 3.45% | 5.40% |
| Adivasi | 94.56% | 0.90% | 4.55% |
| Muslim | 90.75% | 4.98% | 4.20% |

Source: India Human Development Survey 2005



Interpretation

The data provides insights into the marital dynamics among different social groups, specifically among women categorized by their marital status and the type of husband they have. Among women from Forward Castes, approximately 92.45% have co-resident husbands, while around 3.46% have migrant husbands, and about 4.09% are widowed or separated. Moving to Other Backward Classes (OBC), roughly 91.27% of women have co-resident husbands, with approximately 3.99% having migrant husbands, and about 4.75% being

widowed or separated. Among Dalit women, about 91.16% have co-resident husbands, with around 3.45% having migrant husbands, and approximately 5.4% being widowed or separated. Adivasi women show the highest proportion of co-resident husbands, with approximately 94.56%, while only about 0.9% have migrant husbands, and around 4.55% are widowed or separated. Among Muslim women, around 90.75% have co-resident husbands, with approximately 4.98% having migrant husbands, and about 4.2% being widowed or separated. These findings highlight variations in marital patterns across different social groups, reflecting potentially diverse cultural norms, socio-economic factors, and community dynamics influencing marriage and family structures. Understanding these variations can aid in developing targeted interventions and support mechanisms tailored to the specific needs of each social group.

Trends

- Adivasi women show the highest proportion of co-resident husbands across all social groups, indicating potentially stronger familial ties or cultural practices within this community.
- Muslim women have the highest percentage of migrant husbands, suggesting a potential trend of migration within this community for various reasons, such as economic opportunities or familial reasons.
- Widowed or separated rates vary slightly among different social groups, but overall, they represent a significant portion across all groups.

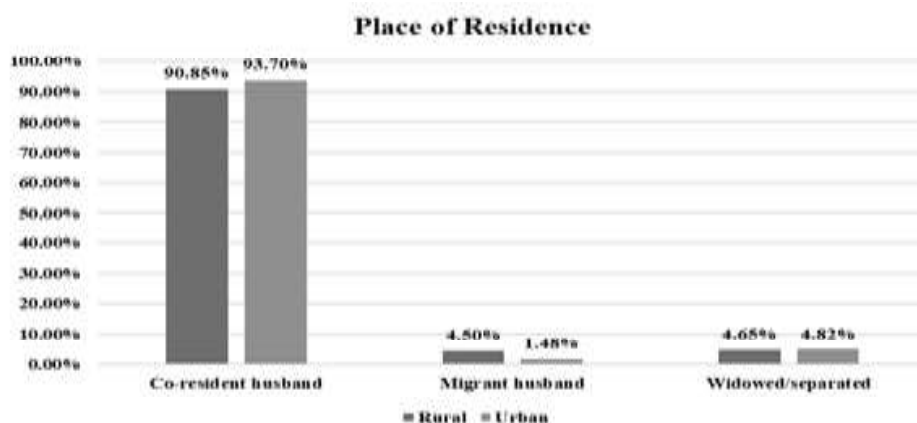
Implications

- Understanding the marital dynamics and social group distributions can inform policies related to social welfare, community development, and support services tailored to the needs of different groups.
- These findings can also shed light on socio-economic disparities and cultural factors influencing marriage and family structures within various communities.

Table 2.4: Place of resident

| Place of residence | Co-resident husband | Migrant husband | Widowed/separated |
|--------------------|---------------------|-----------------|-------------------|
| Rural | 90.85% | 4.5% | 4.65% |
| Urban | 93.7% | 1.48% | 4.82% |

Source: India Human Development Survey 2005



The data indicates distinct marital patterns among women based on their place of residence, whether rural or urban and the type of husband they have. Approximately 90.85% of women in rural areas have co-resident husbands, suggesting a prevalent trend of familial cohabitation within rural communities. Around 4.5% of rural women have migrant husbands, potentially reflecting patterns of seasonal or permanent migration for employment opportunities. Additionally, about 4.65% of rural women are widowed or separated, indicating the presence of marital disruptions within rural households.

Conversely, in urban areas, a higher proportion, roughly 93.7% of women, have co-resident husbands, highlighting the prevalence of stable marital relationships within urban settings. A smaller percentage, approximately 1.48%, have migrant husbands, potentially indicating lower rates of migration among urban men compared to their rural counterparts. Despite the higher stability in marital relationships, approximately 4.82% of urban women are widowed or separated, suggesting that urban areas are not immune to marital disruptions.

These findings underscore the differences in marital dynamics between rural and urban areas, influenced by various socio-economic, cultural, and demographic factors. Understanding these variations can inform targeted interventions and support mechanisms to address the unique needs and challenges women face in different residential settings.

Trends

- Women in urban areas are more likely to have co-resident husbands than those in rural areas.
- Conversely, a higher percentage of rural women have migrant husbands compared to urban women.

- The proportions of widowed or separated women are relatively similar between rural and urban areas, with slightly higher percentages in urban areas.

Implications

- Differences in marital dynamics between rural and urban areas may stem from various factors such as economic opportunities, cultural norms, and social structures.
- Higher rates of migration among rural women could be attributed to employment opportunities in urban centers or seasonal migration patterns.
- Understanding these variations can inform policies related to rural development, urbanization, and social welfare programs tailored to the needs of women in different residential settings.

Table -3 states wise representation of migration

| State of Residence | Co-resident husband | Migrant husband | Widowed/separated |
|--------------------|---------------------|-----------------|-------------------|
| Jammu & Kashmir | 96.25 | 1.09 | 2.66 |
| Himachal Pradesh | 87.73 | 7.30 | 4.97 |
| Uttarakhand | 78.45 | 14.53 | 7.02 |
| Punjab | 93.33 | 2.04 | 4.62 |
| Haryana | 95.46 | 1.12 | 3.42 |
| Delhi | 95.95 | 0.00 | 4.05 |
| Uttar Pradesh | 86.59 | 9.56 | 3.85 |
| Bihar | 85.13 | 12.23 | 2.65 |
| Jharkhand | 95.34 | 0.88 | 3.78 |
| Rajasthan | 89.81 | 6.92 | 3.27 |
| Chhattisgarh | 94.29 | 0.63 | 5.09 |
| Madhya Pradesh | 96.24 | 0.40 | 3.36 |
| Northeast States | 94.48 | 0.09 | 5.44 |
| Assam | 95.88 | 0.18 | 3.94 |
| West Bengal | 92.88 | 2.51 | 4.61 |
| Orissa | 94.03 | 1.55 | 4.42 |
| Gujarat | 96.29 | 0.51 | 3.28 |
| Maharashtra, Goa | 93.49 | 0.90 | 5.61 |
| Andhra Pradesh | 92.65 | 1.03 | 6.31 |
| Karnataka | 92.09 | 1.28 | 6.64 |
| Kerala | 86.63 | 8.31 | 5.07 |
| Tamil Nadu | 2.0 | 1.17 | 6.83 |

Source: India Human Development Survey 2005

The table provides a comprehensive overview of migration patterns across various states in India, detailing the percentage of women with co-resident husbands, migrant husbands, and those who are widowed or separated. Several trends emerge from the data:

- States with a high percentage of co-resident husbands, indicative of strong familial bonds and stable marital relationships, encompass diverse regions across India. In Jammu & Kashmir, Punjab, Haryana, and Delhi, approximately 93% of women reside with their husbands, showcasing robust family structures within these areas. Similarly, states like Jharkhand, Chhattisgarh, and Madhya Pradesh maintain high co-resident husband percentages, suggesting prevalent family cohesion and social stability. The Northeastern states, Assam, Orissa, Gujarat, and Maharashtra including Goa, Andhra Pradesh, Karnataka, and Tamil Nadu also exhibit significant rates of co-resident husbands, reflecting a common trend of familial cohabitation across diverse cultural and socio-economic landscapes. These findings underscore the importance of familial ties and stable marital relationships within these regions, which may be influenced by cultural norms, social traditions, and economic factors shaping household dynamics and community structures.
- States characterized by a high percentage of migrant husbands represent regions where significant male outmigration is observed, likely driven by economic opportunities, employment prospects, or other factors. Uttarakhand, with approximately 14.53% of women having migrant husbands, experiences substantial male outmigration, possibly influenced by limited local employment opportunities and the allure of better prospects elsewhere. Similarly, Uttar Pradesh, Bihar, and Rajasthan display notable percentages of migrant husbands, indicating patterns of labor migration prevalent in these states. Kerala, despite its relatively high Human Development Index, also records a significant proportion of migrant husbands at 8.31%, potentially attributed to migration for employment opportunities within India or abroad. These findings highlight the complex socio-economic dynamics influencing migration patterns across different regions and underscore the significance of understanding migration as a multifaceted phenomenon influenced by various socio-economic and demographic factors.
- States with a notable percentage of widowed or separated women reflect regions where marital stability may face challenges, leading to higher rates of marital disruptions. Uttarakhand, despite its picturesque landscapes, records a significant 7.02% of women who are widowed or separated, indicating potential vulnerabilities within households. Similarly, Punjab, Delhi, and Uttar Pradesh exhibit percentages ranging from 3.85% to 4.62%,

suggesting varying degrees of marital instability across these states. Bihar, Jharkhand, and Chhattisgarh also display percentages between 2.65% and 5.09%, indicating prevalent marital disruptions that may impact social dynamics and support systems within communities.

- In addition, states in the Northeast region, such as Assam and states like West Bengal, Orissa, and Maharashtra including Goa, Andhra Pradesh, Karnataka, Kerala, and Tamil Nadu, also show significant percentages ranging from 5.07% to 6.83%. These figures highlight the widespread nature of marital disruptions across diverse regions in India, underscoring the need for targeted interventions and support mechanisms to address the challenges faced by widowed or separated individuals and promote social cohesion and well-being within communities.

Variations in Marital Status by State

- States with a high percentage of co-resident husbands may indicate strong familial ties and stable marital relationships within these regions. This could reflect cultural norms, social structures, and economic conditions conducive to family cohesion.
- States with a high percentage of migrant husbands suggest significant male outmigration, possibly driven by employment opportunities or economic factors. This may lead to unique socio-economic dynamics within households and communities, impacting familial relationships and social support systems.
- States with a high percentage of widowed or separated women may face challenges related to marital stability, social protection, and support for vulnerable individuals. This could be influenced by various factors such as social norms, gender dynamics, and access to resources and support services.

Regional Disparities

- There are noticeable regional disparities in migration patterns, influenced by factors such as economic opportunities, socio-cultural norms, and historical migration trends.
- States in the Northeast region generally exhibit lower rates of migration compared to states in the northern and western regions of India.

Implications

- Understanding state-wise migration patterns is crucial for policymakers to formulate targeted interventions and support mechanisms tailored to the specific needs of women in each state.

- Policymakers need to address challenges related to marital stability, social protection, and support for widowed or separated individuals, especially in states with higher percentages of such women.
- Additionally, the data highlights the importance of considering regional disparities and socio-economic factors in crafting effective policies related to migration, marital status, and social welfare across different states in India.

Different Variables and their Representation

Distribution of Dependent Variables

Table 4.1 Decision-Making Autonomy Index

| Decision Making Autonomy Index | Score | Percent |
|---------------------------------------|--------------|----------------|
| Very Low Autonomy | 0 | 19.43% |
| Low Autonomy | 1 | 43.88% |
| Moderate Autonomy | 2 | 20.02% |
| | 3 | 9.04% |
| High Autonomy | 4 | 2.74% |
| | 5 | 4.89% |

Source: India Human Development Survey 2005

The provided data offers valuable insights into the distribution of decision-making autonomy among respondents, shedding light on the varied levels of empowerment and agency across different categories. A substantial proportion of respondents, comprising approximately 19.43%, exhibit very limited or no decision-making autonomy, as indicated by a score of 0 on the index. This suggests significant constraints on their ability to make choices in the assessed domains, potentially indicating systemic barriers to empowerment. The majority of respondents, accounting for 43.88%, fall into the category of limited decision-making autonomy with a score of 1. While they may have some input in decision-making processes, their control and authority over decisions remain constrained, highlighting challenges in achieving full empowerment. Additionally, around 20.02% of respondents received a score of 2, indicating slightly higher autonomy compared to those with lower scores but still facing limitations in certain areas. This underscores the nuanced nature of decision-making autonomy, with degrees of empowerment varying across different domains.

Moderate decision-making autonomy is observed among approximately 9.04% of respondents who obtained a score of 3, indicating a moderate level of control and authority over decisions in the assessed domains. A smaller percentage, about 2.74% of respondents, exhibit relatively high decision-making autonomy with

a score of 4, suggesting a greater degree of empowerment and agency in decision-making processes.

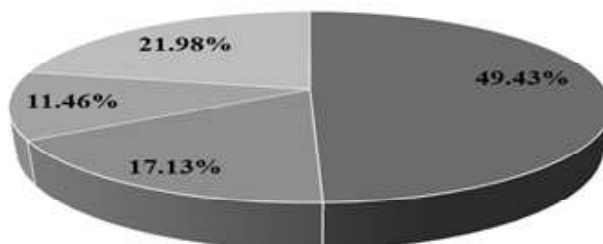
The highest score of 5 on the Decision-Making Autonomy Index is attained by around 4.89% of respondents, indicating significant decision-making autonomy across the assessed domains. These individuals have substantial control and authority over decisions, reflecting a higher level of empowerment and agency. Overall, the data underscores the importance of understanding and addressing the diverse levels of decision-making autonomy among respondents. It highlights the need for targeted interventions to enhance empowerment, particularly among marginalized groups, and promote inclusive development and agency for all individuals.

Table 4.2. Mobility Index Score

| Mobility index score | Score | Per cent |
|----------------------|-------|----------|
| Very Low Mobility | 0 | 49.43% |
| Low Mobility | 1 | 17.13% |
| Moderate Mobility | 2 | 11.46% |
| High Mobility | 3 | 21.98% |

Source: India Human Development Survey 2005

Mobility index score



■ Very Low Mobility ■ Low Mobility ■ Moderate Mobility ■ High Mobility

The provided data outlines the distribution of respondents' scores on the Mobility Index. Here's an interpretation:

Score 0: Approximately 49.43% of respondents received a score of 0 on the Mobility Index. This suggests that nearly half of the respondents have very limited mobility, potentially indicating constraints or barriers that restrict their movement.

Score 1: Around 17.13% of respondents obtained a score of 1 on the index. This indicates that a significant portion of the respondents have limited mobility, but they may still have some ability to move within their environment.

Score 2: Approximately 11.46% of respondents received a score of 2, suggesting that they have slightly more mobility compared to those with lower scores. However, their mobility remains constrained to some extent.

Score 3: Around 21.98% of respondents obtained a score of 3 on the index. This indicates that a notable portion of respondents have relatively high mobility, suggesting that they are more able to move freely within their environment.

Overall, the data reveals a diverse distribution of mobility among respondents, with a significant portion experiencing limited mobility (scores 0 and 1), while others have higher levels of mobility (scores 2 and 3). Understanding these scores can help identify areas where interventions may be needed to address mobility challenges and promote greater access to mobility for all individuals.

Conclusion

The comprehensive analysis of data from the India Human Development Survey 2005 offers valuable insights into the intricate interplay between marital status, socio-economic characteristics, education, residential status, and decision-making autonomy among women in India. Across various socio-economic groups, marital dynamics, and educational levels, the data reveals nuanced patterns that underscore the diverse experiences and challenges faced by women in different contexts. Notably, while the majority of women reside with their husbands, a significant percentage experience marital disruptions due to migration or widowhood/separation.

Moreover, educational attainment appears to correlate with marital stability, with higher levels of education associated with more stable marital relationships. This suggests the potential role of education in empowering women and fostering greater autonomy within marriages. Furthermore, the regional distribution of marital status and migration patterns sheds light on the complex socio-economic dynamics across different states in India. States with high rates of migration often face challenges related to familial cohesion and marital stability, while those with higher percentages of co-resident husbands reflect strong familial ties and stable marital relationships.

The analysis of decision-making autonomy and mobility underscores the varying degrees of empowerment and access to resources among women, emphasizing the importance of targeted interventions to promote gender equality and inclusive development. Overall, this comprehensive examination of data highlights the need for nuanced and region-specific policies and interventions to address the diverse needs and challenges faced by women in India. By understanding

the intersecting factors influencing women's lives, policymakers can formulate more effective strategies to promote empowerment, social inclusion, and gender equity across the country.

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