

Chapter 2

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

2.1 DEFINITION OF MIGRATION AND URBANIZATION

Migration: Migration is a change of usual residence or a form of spatial mobility of people from one well defined geopolitical area to another. This movement is not just a mere shift of residence from one place to another, as it is most fundamental to the understanding of continuously changing space content and space relationship of an area (Ghosal, 1961)

C. Tacoli, 2010 opines that it is tough to define what is rural and what is urban. There are three major problems in regards to this view. The first problem is that the demographic and economic criteria used to define what is 'rural' and what is 'urban' varies widely between nations. If Asia and China change their definition of urban and rural centers to the one adopted by most of the Latin American and European nations use (where they usually define urban centers on the basis of a relatively much smaller size of population threshold of 2,000 or 2,500 inhabitants), a larger proportion of the population would change from 'rural' to 'urban' in China and India. (UNCHS, 1996) The second problem lies in defining the rural urban boundaries. In southern Asia's extended metropolitan regions, industrial estates, cottage industry, suburban developments,, agriculture and other types of land use coexist side by side in areas with a radius as large as 100 km, where the movement of the people include daily commuting and circular migration. (Firman T (1996).The third problem arises due to the dependence of the urban residents on areas significantly larger than the built up area for basic resources and ecological

functions. The larger and wealthier cities have a greater possibility of drawing resources and ecological functions from far beyond its surroundings. (Mc Granahan et al, 1996)

Migration is a consequence of the mobility of people. Depending on their mobility, people migrate either within the country or across the globe. The United nations Multilingual Demographic dictionary defines migration as “ a form of geographical mobility or spatial mobility between one geographical unit and another, generally involving a change in residence from the place of origin or place of departure to the place of destination or place of arrival” (Bhende and Kanitkar, 2001)

“A person is a migrant if or she was born in a municipality different to the one where he/she currently lives in.”(Florez, 2003)

“The striking feature of the study of migration is that while changes in population size and structure caused by mortality and fertility are never drastic, migration may increase or decrease the size and change the structure of any population drastically at any point of time”(Bhattacharyya, 2004)

“Migration means a change in, or shifts, other than casual, or residence from one location or settlement to another involving movement across an administrative border such as a village ,a district, a state or a nation” (Sinha and Zacharia, 2005).

“Migration refers to a geographic movement of people across a specified boundary for the purpose of establishing a new permanent or semi-permanent residence.”(refugees are not considered as migrants) (Johns Hopkins University, 2006)

Migration is a movement and there are three types of movement. A) Cyclic movement which is of three types; movement from home to work and back home, Seasonal movement (movement during vacations, tourism etc.) and nomadism which refers to a movement for survival, tradition and culture. B) Periodic movement: This also involves movement from work to home but for a longer period of time. There are three types of

periodic movement; movement among migrant labors which is temporary and for employment reasons, Transhumance which refers to a pastoral farming where the ranchers move along with their livestock according to seasonal availability of pastures. It involves longer residential relocation, Military service which refers to a movement of people for defense purposes. C) Migration is a permanent relocation across significant distances. It is either international or internal. (Miscox, 2009)

Migration is the permanent movement of persons from one geographical location or region to another (Gooden, 2011)

Migration is the movement of individuals or large groups of people from one place to another who are ethnically similar (Saiyangoku, 2011)

Urbanization:

According to the (Merriam Webster dictionary), Urbanization is a process through which the towns and the cities are formed and these areas get larger as more and more people start coming, working and living in the central areas.

Urbanization reflects an increase in population in towns and cities versus rural areas. Urbanization started during the industrial revolution when the workers moved towards towns and cities in order to obtain jobs in the factories, as agricultural jobs became less common. This reflects a pattern of rural-urban flow. (business dictionary.com),

The process by which more and more people leave the country side to live in the cities (Cambridge Advanced Learner's Dictionary)

According to (Wikitionary, a Wiki based content dictionary) urbanization is:

- 1) The process of the formation and growth of cities.
- 2) The change that takes place in a country or region due to migration of people from the rural to the urban areas.

- 3) The proportion of an area's population that live in the cities and the rate at which this proportion is increasing.

Till 1960s urbanization and agricultural productivity were strongly correlated. However, this correlation declined over years where increasing urbanization was a consequence of global demand patterns that co existed with stagnant agricultural productivity (Glaeser. L and k. Willaim 2007)

Urbanization is defined as the “ proportion of people living in built environments such as towns and cities” for the first time in the history of mankind it is now estimated that at the present time more and more people live in towns and cities than in the rural areas. (coolgeography.co.uk, 2010)

2.2 RURAL URBAN DYNAMICS (CAUSES AND CONSEQUENCES OF MIGRATION)

The dynamics of rural urban migration are manifold. Various studies have been made in this field to study r-u migration from various perspectives. It is very essential to know the various causes that lead to migration. Migration also leaves a marked impression on the economy as a whole therefore; it is also significant to study the consequences of migration on the economy. Various studies have been reviewed to understand what causes migration and what impression it leaves on the economy in the literature given below.

CAUSES OF MIGRATION

The advanced urban centers and the less advantaged rural centers are interrelated and dependent on one other. One feature of such dependence is the rural urban migration. As a country develops it entices the resources from the country side to migrate to the urban areas and hence human migration takes place in search of job opportunities in the urban areas. The rural sector can act as a buffer from the impact of macroeconomic shocks on the urban economy (World bank, 1999).

Yunusa (1999) found that many urban informal workers moved to rural areas with their businesses finding it difficult to face the stiff competition in the cities. Meagher (1999) reported a trend towards reverse or counter migration.

De Brauw, Rozelle and Taylor (2001) made a study using econometric techniques on household survey data to investigate the impact of migration and migrant remittances on china's rural economy and found that the remittances sent home partially or fully compensated for the loss of rural labor due to migration. These remittances were mainly beneficial for the households engaged in the farm sector, whose per capita income increased by 71 percent. Studies talk about the 'push and pull' factors responsible for migration from one place to another.

Chand Smriti (2001) gives four major reasons of migration. A) Marriage: it is a social factor of migration. Girls after their marriage have to migrate to their in-law's place. In 1991 (more than 56%) of females in India had to move or migrate due to marriage. B) Employment: Weak agricultural base and poor cottage and small scale industries fail to provide employment to the growing rural folk and hence push them to migrate to the urban bases. C) Education: People migrate for higher education and refuse to return back

once they are engaged in jobs in the urban areas. D) Lack of security: Political insecurity and ethnic disturbances play a major role in migration of the people from one place to another. A good example is the movement of the kashmiri pundits from Kashmir to Jammu and other places.

Hossain (2001) says that Various 'Push' and Pull' factors are responsible for migration. Poverty is the main push factor for the illiterate and search for livelihood is the main push factor for the migrants having higher educational attainment. However, the Push factors like unemployment and population growth and the pull factors like employment opportunities in the urban areas are debated in the studies of urbanization in India. The National Commission on urbanization (1988) has termed them as factors of demographic and economic momentum respectively. These factors are highly responsible for creating linkages between the rural and the urban areas. Development literatures show interdependence and correlations between the rural and urban areas.

Bhanumurthy and Mitra (2003) decomposed changes in poverty into a growth effect, an inequality effect, and a migration effect for two periods: 1983-1993/94 and 1993/94-1999/2000. The decomposition analysis showed that rural to urban migration reduced poverty in the rural areas by 2.6 percent and poverty increased in the urban sector during the first term. However this increase in poverty in the urban areas rose by a smaller rate than the decline in poverty in the rural areas. Therefore, the net poverty incidence for the country as a whole decreased over the period under study. Similar findings were reported for the second phase. Where rural poverty declined by 1.64 percent as a result of rural to urban migration, while poverty increased by 1.43 percent in the urban sector.

Fan 2003, Fan, Fang and Zhang (2003) say that the linkages between the urban advanced centers and the rural areas play a very crucial role because the rural-urban livelihoods are inter-correlated financially, economically, and socially. Rural farmers depend on the urban areas for a market for their produce. Rural households also depend on the urban centers for amenities like medical facilities, education for children, banks and other public goods. The rural sector also benefits from remittances sent by the families based in the urban centers. Likewise many urban businesses and enterprises depend on the rural demand for their products. They also rely on the rural counterparts for supply of raw materials. Many urban households partly depend on rural activities such as farming. Urban consumers depend on their rural suppliers for cheap and sustained food supply.

Lall et al (2006) opines that the decision to migrate involves contextual factors such as 'Push factors' which force migrants out of the rural areas and 'pull factors' which attracts migrants to urban areas. These factors typically reflect the relative strength of the local economies such as availability and remuneration of jobs, the existence of local amenities, the cost and availability of public goods or even institutional factors. For instance the introduction or enforcement of a system of land property rights might act as a push factor and encourage migration from rural areas for workers that are displaced as well as for the new land owners, since owners can leave their properties without the fear of losing their assets and can even sell them or use them as collaterals to finance migration.

According to Kundu (2008) the single most important phenomenon that changed the demography of the urban areas in the past 1947 period happened to be migration. Lack of work opportunities in the rural areas worked as the push factor while employment in urban areas worked as the pull factor in increasing rural to urban migration in the

country. The annual urban growth rate was 2.34% in 1951 to 61 and it reached a peak of 3.83% in 1981. The ever increasing agricultural crises over the years had its most severe impact on the rural poor and resulted in large scale migration to cities like Mumbai, Kolkata, Chennai and Andhra Pradesh. These cities including Delhi became the centre to attract cheap labor from all over the country. The rural folk migrate not only to escape poverty, but also to search for better income opportunities in the urban areas.

Fischer Regine (2009) says that factors that affect migration can be categorized into economic and non economic factors. Economic push factors of the rural areas can be given as unemployment, underemployment, lack of wages and lack of land. However, the non-economic push factors are factors that add to the already existing problems such as poor infrastructure including lack of health and education facilities, further more farm mechanization which replaces labor with machines. Thus the surplus labors are forced to move out of the rural sectors in search of jobs. He also explains the economic and non economic pull factors. He gives a list of economic pull factors as employment opportunities, higher wages etc. more specifically the factors that attract the people from the rural areas. Non economic pull factors on the other hand are good infrastructure, health and education facilities etc.

Tim Ruffer, (2010) in an attempt to study the number of aspects relating to rural urban development in Nigeria opines that rural to urban migration plays a significant role in linking the different areas of a country. Some activities such as lumbering, trading in farm produce, and working as hired labors require regular commuting between rural areas. The improvement of road connectivity stimulates the seasonal labor migration. He also says that though rural urban migration may be on a rise but the simultaneous growth

of urban type income generating activities in the rural areas has succeeded in reducing the volume of rural urban migration. In fact there has also been a trend of urban-rural migration – including not only the return people but also younger people. A number of factors responsible for it are been exacerbated by the Southern Adjustment Programme (SAP, 1986 account for return migration). Some of the factors mentioned are: disillusionment with urban conditions, declining business fortunes, ill health, congestion, liberalization of agricultural prices.

Narayan Laxmi K (2011) says that “Large number of young people are migrating because rural India is saturated and cannot provide employment opportunities for a growing population”. The migrants end up being rag pickers or casual construction labors. Initially they come on their own and later they bring their families and relatives along. This leads to chain migration. Marriage is another factor that is responsible for the females to migrate. In northern India girls usually do not marry into the same village and thus marriage invariably leads to migration. Another reason is that the land size gets smaller due to division of property and hence the size of the land holdings is not economic enough to cultivate. The rural men thus move out and later shift their families too.

Saiyangoku (2011) says that migration is a highly complex process. It brings about a lot of changes in the individuals and the societies. There is a change in the population distribution as different cultures and races mix up. This leads to a negative social behavior like tension between majorities and minorities followed by racism, struggle and criminality. However, these effects are different in different countries. There could be positive effects such as exchange of cultural experiences, new technology etc. the rural areas are left with elderly people and children who cannot do heavier work and thus the

farms deteriorate. The resources remain underutilized and exhibit an abandoned farmstead. The overall result is an ageing population backed by declined and a decayed economy.

Sengupta and Ghosal (2011) investigates the correlates of migration of the workers in the rural area of Bardhaman district of West Bengal from the rural areas of other districts of the state using a dynamic panel data model during the post “economic reform era” when rapid changes in government policies pertaining to trade, foreign investment, exchange rate, industry, fiscal affairs etc. have taken place. A neo-classical gross migration function is estimated using migration as dependent variable and distances from the source districts, differentials of wage rates, percentage share of agricultural workers in rural workers and Gini coefficients of inequality in operational land-holding as independent variables. The dynamic panel model used in the study explains a significant proportion of the rural-rural migration and it is found that distances from the source districts, differentials of percentage share of agricultural workers in rural workers and differentials of wage rates are the most significant explanatory factors.

Montathomas (2012) talks about the ‘Bright light syndrome’ which refers to a situation where the young people feel that there is no opportunity for varied employment opportunities in the rural areas and thus take a decision to migrate to the cities.

Heath (2014) says that a large number of migrants are a consequence of natural disasters.

Urban areas also provide the people with an opportunity to escape the rigid caste system and high rates of infant mortality rates that are still persistent in the rural areas. Urbanization has led to a huge movement of people from rural to urban areas in search of better prospects. However, these people often end up not finding these opportunities they

are looking for rather they become a part of the urban poor. Urbanization leads to numerous issues that need attention.

According to Wikipedia on 'Human Migration,' globalization has raised the demand for workers from different countries to sustain national economies. These individuals are known as "economic migrants," generally from less developed developing countries migrating to receive sufficient income for survival. People also migrate or are forced to migrate due to human rights violations conflicts, violence, or to escape persecution. In 2013, it was estimated that around 51.2 million people fell into this category of forced migrants. Another significant cause of migration is to gain access to opportunities and services or to escape extreme weather. This type of movement is usually from rural to urban areas and is known as "internal migration.

Patnaik, B.C.M, Satpathy, I, Mohanty J and Mandal A (2015) in their study observed that migration does not add any positive value to the down trodden as sometimes the initial cost of settlement is so high they are able to earn a substantial income. Thus they remain in the same level. Rural push factors like lack of infrastructure, limited income facilities push people out of the less advantaged place. Sometimes, even if the facilities are there, younger folks migrate to the urban bases as urban attraction is much higher than the rural.

Fanack (2015) reveals that migration is influenced by the "Socio-cultural and geo-historical factors" as well. In North Africa, for example, to be an immigrant in Europe is considered as a sign of social prestige. Moreover, there are many countries which were former European colonies. This means that many have relatives that live legally in Europe, who help the immigrants who have just arrived in a European country. Relatives

might help with job search and accommodation. The geographical proximity of Africa to Europe and the long historical ties between Northern and Southern Mediterranean countries also prompt many to migrate.

Table No. 2.1: Factors determining migration

Type of Migrants	Factors encouraging individuals to migrate		
	Demand- pull	Supply -Push	Network/other
Economic factors	Labour recruitment/ Better wages	Un-or underemployment; low wages	Job and wage information flows
Non economic factors	Family unification	War and persecution	Communications; Transportaion; assistance organizations; desire for new experience

Source: Martin and Widgren (2002), Table 3, P-8

CONSEQUENCES:

The ICPD Programme of action 1994 recognized that cities not only concentrate poverty but also provides the best means of escaping it. Provision of services such as education and health care to the concentrated population can lead to economies of scale. Urbanization on the other hand paves way for smaller families and hence offers more opportunities for women and young people. Cities on the other hand are the hub of economic growth and almost all future population growth will be absorbed by the cities in the next 40 years in the developing world. Migration to the cities has an impact on the

rural life too. Rural areas tend to lose the economically and socially active people in their communities due to migration. (ICDP programme of Action (1994), beyond 2014)

Rosenzweig R. Mark (2005) says that substantial wage differences and most specifically skill prices across countries reflect massive global misallocation of resources. Increasing rural urban migration will definitely raise the world output. The question is how this gain is distributed and what contribution will such a migration make to the low income countries. The outmigration from the less advanced countries is either due to geographical reasons or unfavorable infrastructure. International remittances can not influence these factors directly but the return migrants can be beneficial to the home country through new skills, money and outlook. However, such volunteer return migration is likely to be attenuated to the extent that the problems inducing out-migration are not at least in part resolved. Thus increased flow of people does not completely substitute for the hard task of development within countries.

Kundu (2006) reveals that the internal mobility of particularly man in India, for seeking livelihood, has gone down systemically over the past few decades. Urban development measures make the cities unaffordable to the poor. Moreover, there are regular slum clearance programs which work as a barrier to the migration of the rural poor.

Brand Cruz et al (2007) reveals that there has been record rainfall in Mumbai, India on 26 to 27 July 2005, which led to a loss of large numbers of lives. Consecutive droughts between 2000 and 2002 caused crop failures, mass starvation and affected millions of people in Orissa. Also, increased water stress poses to be a major problem for India. Accelerated glacier melt is likely to cause increase in the number and severity of glacial melt-related floods, slope destabilization and a decrease in river flows as glaciers recede. The researchers have predicted that with the current trend in the melt of glaciers, the

Ganga, Indus, Brahmaputra and other rivers could likely become seasonal rivers in the near future and affect the lives of people residing around them.

Perspectives (2007), the perspectives team reveals that the housing facilities are far less than the exploded population due to natural increase or rural- urban migration. As a result, the poor are forced to crowd into already squalid slums or squatter settlements. India has a slum population approaching 1700 lakhs. Though the period (1980s and 1990s) is considered to be the period of growth and prosperity yet, this is also the period when India accounted for nearly one-seventh of the world's growth in slum dwellers. More than half of the Mumbai's population (62.5 lakhs out of 119.1 lakhs) lives in 1,959 slums which occupy 8% of the total land. In Delhi 33% of the total estimated population lived in slum designated areas. Most slums in Delhi are located on land owned by DDA (Delhi Development Authority) MCD (Municipal Corporation of Delhi), NDMC (New Delhi Municipal Corporation) and the Indian Railways. Slums are termed differently in different cities – (Jhuggi Jhopri in Delhi, Jhopar Patty or Chawl in Mumbai, Basti in Kolkata, Cheri in Chennai and Keri in Bangalore) However, they have common characteristics across the cities like dilapidated housing structures, poor ventilation, insufficient lighting, faulty alignment of streets, scarcity of drinking water, water logging during rains, absence of toilet facilities and non availability of basic physical and social services.

Timalsina Prasad Krishna (2007) shows in her study that due to rural urban migration street vending activities in Kathmandu increased. This situation is linked with rural conflict and displacement. The study reveals that street vending activity helped the migrants to improve their living conditions than before. However, due to limited access to physical, financial and political capital assets, these migrants have to depend on the natural and social capital for their livelihoods. Street vending in Kathmandu as per her

study is regarded as a resource rather than a problem. However, the rights of these vendors are vague that causes a conflict between authorities and vendors.

According to Kundu (2008) migration was the single most important phenomenon that changed the demography of the urban areas in the post 1947 period. The limited opportunities in the rural areas worked as the push factor while employment in urban areas worked as the pull factor in increasing rural to urban migration in the country. The annual urban growth rate was 2.34% in 1951 to 61 and it reached a peak of 3.83% in 1981. The deepening agricultural crises over the years had its most severe impact on the rural poor and resulted in large scale migration to cities like Mumbai, Kolkata, Chennai and Andhra Pradesh. These cities including Delhi became the centre to attract cheap labor from all over the country. The rural folk migrate not only to escape poverty, but also to search for better income opportunities in the urban areas. Unfortunately gainful employment is just as elusive in the urban areas as in the rural areas. Migrants therefore end up in worse living conditions. Another problem that concerns us is the problem of child labor which has spread to the manufacturing and construction works in the urban areas of developing countries. In the rural areas child labor is found in the agro based activities. RU migration makes children work for square meals a day. They are no more confined to the domestic sphere. However, post 1981 period showed a small but steady decline in the growth rate of migration. The annual growth rate of urban population was 3.09% in 1991 and 2.7% in 2001.

Martina Arandhara (2009) reveals that more than 200 million children under the age of 14 work in developing countries. Child labour is not confined only in domestic services – most working children in rural areas are found in agriculture whereas, in urban areas children work in trade and service sector; while some other work in manufacturing and construction. These children fall between the age group of 4 to 17. These children have

to compromise everyday with hazardous chemicals and gases in the manufacturing sectors which makes them unemployable at a very tender age.

Regine Fischer (2009) discusses the effects of migration as such: A) Urban growth: The towns and cities grow in size as the increasing urban population has to move to the shanty towns for staying. B) Urbanization: Migration leads to increasing urbanization as the growth of cities is a cause of rural depopulation. C) Declining rural population: a huge chunk of rural population moves out to the cities in search of jobs.

Fischer also gives a positive effect of such migration. The people who migrate to the cities remit to their families in the rural areas and hence the rural areas get a scope to develop.

Satapathy Sagarika (2009) says that according to the figures given by the Indian Social institute, 16.4 million people got displaced due to dams, 2.55 million people due to mines, 1.25 million for industrial development, 0.6 million due to wild life sanctuaries and National parks.

Stewart (2009) argues that effects of urbanization are on the overall positive for the environment. Firstly, the birth rate of new urban dwellers falls immediately to replacement rate, and keeps falling. This can prevent overpopulation in the future. Secondly, it puts a stop to destructive subsistence farming techniques, like slash and burn agricultural activities. Finally, it minimizes land use by humans, leaving more for nature.

Gimba Zainab and Kumshe G. Mustapha (2011) conducted a survey among 150n respondents from within the metropolis and the results show that the major causes of rural urban migration are search for better education, employment and business opportunities. Others are identified as poverty, famine, unemployment and insufficient

social amenities. R-U migration slows down the pace of development of the rural areas and high urban population leads to deterioration of urban health and also increases the crime rates. The study reveals that in the recent years the rate at which rural urban migration is increasing is very alarming. The effects of this migration are felt by both the destination region as well as the place of origin. The facilities are deserted in the place of origin and the facilities are overstretched in the place of destination. Unless the productive rural youth are provided with employment and basic necessities are provided to the rural poor this migration would continue to take place.

Narayan Laxmi K (2011) says that the urban population in India was 62 million people in 1951, (17%) Of the total population. By 2011, it increased to 377 million 31%. By 2025 it is anticipated to increase by 42.5%. This urban population is much smaller if compared to the developed countries. Yet, this exploded urban population is creating a lot of serious problems such as; unemployment, underemployment, shortage of basic amenities like water supply, sanitation, sewerage etc. The main problem is the problem of housing. Cities are now growing a large sum population. It is as large as 50% of the population in Mumbai and 32% in Kolkata. The Shortage of affordable dwellings has resulted in the proliferation of slums in the cities (Census”, 2001).

The 54th round of national sample survey, 1998, (2013) gives the picture of scarcity of the Provision of drinking water. The worse situation is an access to tap water in various cities in India. 70% of urban households are being served by tap and 21% by tube well or hand pump. 66% of urban households reported having their principal source of water within their premises 41% had a sole access to their principal source of drinking water and 59% were sharing a public source. The survey also says that urban waste management poses and causes a serious problem. Two major problems in this regard are the existing open dumpsites and sanitary and the closure of these existing open

dumpsites and introduction of sanitary landfill. They survey found that 26% of household etc. had no latrines, 35% were using septic tank, and 22% were using sewerage system. It is estimated that about 1, 15,000 MT of municipal solid waste is generated daily in the country. Per capita waste generation in cities varies between 0.2-0.6 kg per day and it is increasing by 1.3% per annum. Given the inadequate solid waste management in Indian Cities, the ministry of urban development has published a Handbook of Service Level Benchmarks, in 2008 which provides for standardized framework for performance and monitoring in the 4 sectors (Water Supply, Sewerage, Solid waste management and storm water drainage). It is accepted that this handbook would shift focus of the state level agencies and local service providers to shift focus from asset creation to outcomes.

Mervyn Piese (2014) says that it is difficult to predict many factors that influence migration. Social, political and economic factors are not easy to predict. Ecological factors are also stealing attention. These factors have played a major role in determining migration in the 21st century. He believes that migrants can be categorized as the humanitarian migrants comprising of the refugees or the asylum seekers and economic migrants who are migrants in search of jobs. In earlier times, it was believed that migration takes place between the rich and the poor countries where the people from the poor countries move to the rich countries in search of work. The trend however, is changing now where we get to see circular migration too. While explaining the influence of the factors he opines that the social factors usually include wars, ethnic clashes, cultural or racial clashes etc. The migrants who make a move due to the social factors are usually humanitarian migrants. Similarly, political factors also influence the movement of a migrant. The economic factors are the factors that affect the overall economic health.

People often make a move out of a place that is economically less developed and hence it; leads to rural-urban migration.

2.3 MIGRATION AND THE INFORMAL SECTOR

There is a significant link between the urban informal sector and the flow of rural to urban migration. Various studies have been made in field to show the relationship between the informal sector and migration. A few such studies are reviewed in the following studies given below.

ILO (1972) characterized the informal sector as:

- Ease of entry.
- Reliance on indigenous resources.
- Family ownership of enterprises.
- Small scale of operations often defined in terms of hired workers less than (say) ten.
- Labor intensive methods of production and adapted technology
- Skills acquired outside the formal school system
- Unregulated and competitive markets

Whereas, the formal sector is characterized by:

- Difficult entry.
- Frequent reliance on overseas resources.
- Corporate ownership.
- Large scale operators.
- Capital-intensive and often imported technology.
- Formally acquired skills often expatriate.

- Protected markets (through, tariffs, quotas and licenses).

Hart (1973), according to him the informal activities included:

- Farming, market gardening, shoe-makers, tailors, self-employed artisans etc.
- Working in road building, housing and construction.
- Petty traders, street hawkers, caterers in food and drink etc.
- Other activities like barbers, shoe-shine etc.
- Beggars
- Illegal activities like drug pushing

Formal sector income earning activities included:

- Public sector wage earners
- Private sector wage earners (On permanent contract not casual workers)

He discussed the formal sector with regards to the working conditions of the individuals whether they worked with good conditions for wages or worked as informal self employers.

Banerjee (1983) is of the opinion that employment creation in the urban formal sector can be a solution to the urban unemployment problem. Urban cost and the social cost is far less than it is actually visualized. The urban formal sector is less likely to exceed the number of openings by large margins. Only those who are educated and informative enough get a chance to be absorbed in the formal sector. The study also reflects that the labor market segmentation is not a hurdle to the migrants who are attracted to the urban informal sector at the time of migration because labor market segmentation does not reduce the welfare. They are in fact better off in the cities than in the rural areas. But the

study also says that their condition could be better if there was no labor market segmentation.

Lanzona (1998) and Agesa (2001) reveal that migration takes place in case of both the low and high skilled individuals for different reasons. Low skilled (surplus) have stronger tendency to move to the cities in search of manual jobs which they may not find in the rural areas, while “scarce” educated workers anticipate better rewards in cities than in rural areas.

Migrants may gather information about perspective job from their rural base (Banerjee, 1991) or existing migrant network (Roberts, 2001) or search for a job which reduces both the risk of temporary unemployment and the uncertainty on the returns of migration.

Meng (2001) says that well endowed migrants are usually self employed in the informal sectors and receive higher wages. There has been an evolution of the Chinese cities from productive units to consuming entities. This created demand for small services thus generated profitable employment opportunities in the informal sector.

Haan and Rogally (2002) say that young adults are more likely to migrate as they are less vulnerable than the female migrants. They usually have a longer remaining life expectancy and hence a positive net expected return because the social norms expect the younger adults to migrate in search of better living conditions. The job markets also offer them larger share of occupations available.

Florez (2003) says that informal workers are heterogeneous in nature, activities, way of earning, wage rates etc. Therefore it is not easy to define an informal sector and it is often seen that the definitions are over lapped. Yet, this sector gives us a picture of

different group of workers playing diversified roles in the market and also that these workers are vulnerable to different dimensions.

Kochar, (2004) says that it is very essential to know how a potential migrant takes the decision to migrate. Various studies show that the potential migrants invest on education before migrating. They anticipate that human capital will be more demanded and better rewarded in the cities.

Kundu and sarangi (2007) found in their study that migration takes place among the rich as well as the poor. However, the reasons for migration and the nature of jobs they seek are different. The people migrating from the rural to the urban areas have a greater risk of being below the poverty line than the migrants who move from one urban area to the other. It is because the probability of person being poor in a larger city is low as compared to any other centre, irrespective of the migration status, age, number of subsidiary activities undertaken etc.

Jacob (2008) say that historically, rural urban migration played a significant role in the urbanization process of many countries and continued to play a significant role, even though migration rates slowed down in several counties. However, many issues cropped up due to such migration like; over pressurized infra-structure, increasing rates of urban-poverty and crime. This resulted in a decline in social welfare. There was a possibility that the migrants and their households benefitted great individually but this individual benefit occurred at the cost of net lost to both rural and urban areas.

Sengupta (2009) defines the informal economy as:

The Informal economy: The informal economy consists of the informal sector and its workers plus informal workers in the formal sector.

Informal sector: The unorganized sector is composed of all unincorporated private enterprises owned by individual's production and households who are engaged in the sale of goods and services operated on a propriety or partnership basis with less than ten workers.

Informal worker/employment: Unorganized workers are composed of those working in the unorganized sector or households excluding workers with social security benefits and the workers in the formal sector.

He finds in his study that in the years 2004-2005, 86% of the total employment was in the informal sector. Further a major part of the agriculture sector consisted of informal workers. The non agricultural workers in the informal sector were 36.5% of the total. Most of who were self employs. He says that from 1999-2000 to 2004-2005, most of the increase in employment in the formal sector was of informal workers.

Fan. S. Chan. K and Mukherjee A (2010) say that Lack of education and access to information and infrastructure are the constraints to the migration process. Many jobs in China's urban areas still require people from urban set ups. Farmers are not eligible for many jobs available. Even if these farmers are absorbed their rights are not usually protected. These migrant farmers on the other hand are also not entitled to many social services such as health and education facilities for the children, employment and retirement benefits.

Saiyangoku (2011) says that rural depopulation is the movement of people from the rural to the urban areas. The growth of urban population much more rapid than the total population growth with about half the urban growth accounted for by migrants from the rural areas. It is especially the younger males who are the first ones to make a move as they fall in the age group of entering the job market. They are also capable of taking

responsibilities of those in the rural areas or those in the farm sector, young females move out for a better life style, older men move out to work in the mines and thus absent from the rural areas. Youngsters also move out for attaining better educational facilities

Montathomas (2012) says that the spatial search for a migrant gets over if his aspirations are satisfied. Migrants try to avoid uncertainty thus two types of migration patterns exist.

A) Step migration which involves a movement of people in smaller steps say from farms to small cities, to suburbs to big cities. B) Chain migration which involves a movement of people following the migrants from the similar locations. Young adults are more mobile. However, more females seem to migrate today than when the laws were introduced. The females make up almost half of the migrants. They also move out for financial reasons.

Shonchoy Abu (2012) studied the characteristics of the workers in the informal economy and whether these migrants consider this sector as a permanent base or as a temporary location before shifting to an organized or formal sector to bring an improvement in their lifestyle. Their study revealed that the income of the informal sector workers were much less than the formal sector workers after controlling for human capital and other variables.

Chakraborty Debasis and Kur K pravat (2013) have found in their study that rural to urban migration has increased significantly in the post liberalization period. Rural folk migrate getting attracted to the opportunities in the urban centers. This mobility is higher both in terms of rural to rural and rural to urban migration flows. The study says that some socio economic factors of internal migration act as the push factors whereas the others act as the pull factors. The higher the subdivision and fragmentation of land holdings the lower is the man- land ratio lower the productivity and higher the extent of

rural urban migration in India. In order to limit this rural depopulation it is very significant to develop employment opportunities and industries in the rural areas. The study also says that rural indebtedness also acts as a push factor. The diversified activities in the urban informal sector pull people from the less advantaged rural areas. However the urban infrastructure is usually incapable to accommodate the growing urban population leading to grim consequences affecting the urban health. In order to reduce this mismatch it is necessary to integrate economic development with urban planning to attain a sustainable urban frame.

Mishra Pushpendra and Alam Saif Mohd (2014) in their study say that most of developing countries are blessed with a large unorganized sector usually known as the informal sector. Unorganized sector comprises of the labors from the informal sector and casual workers from the formal sector. Both the rural agricultural sector and the urban centers have a huge informal labor market. There is a lot of difference in the working conditions of the labors working in the formal and the informal sectors. On the basis of the estimates of (NCAER) the study reveals that the informal sector-‘unorganized sector’- generates about 62% of GDP, 50% of national savings and 40% of national exports. They say that the larger cities attract a huge volume of migrants for better living conditions. The Indian labor market is thus segmented in the sense that there is a formal sector with workers having a salaried work and an informal sector with petty workers.

Singapur D and Sreenivassa K.N (2014) say that migration helps in reducing regional disparities at different stages. Hence migration can be termed as an equilibrium process. All kinds of migrants (asylum seekers, refugees, internally displaced etc.) have increased in volume considerably and are closely linked to the current process of social transformation. The magnitude and distresses associated with migration are enormous.

Although the migrants have a huge contribution to the India's economy yet, there are no clear social protection and whatever protection they have are very limited.

2.4 MIGRATION AND ITS CONCERNS

Migration has been a contentious issue globally. It has become a matter of concern for the policy makers and the administrators to take this issue seriously. Various studies given below throw light on the areas of concern as a result of migration and the probable measures that can be adopted to bring about a balance.

Lipton (1977) and Bates (1981) say that the developing countries host both the urban sector and a traditional rural sector. It is observed that the urban population in these countries is better off than the rural population. This gap evolves when the governments prefer the urban centers more than the rural areas. Such preferential practices may include Price policies and welfare measures, etc. The Urban bias also occurs as these urban centers are more politically organized and hence more favored. They have a greater tendency to influence the policy makers.

Meng (2001) says that The Chinese 'Hokou' system imposed many obstacles on the work opportunities of the rural migrants. Only those who were holding 'Hokou' were eligible to take up certain types of jobs and it remained very difficult for the rural migrants to enter formal labor markets.

Younus (2002) reveals that the Peoples Republic of Bangladesh in the year 2003, in its 'National Strategy for Economic Growth', proposed various policies and institutional actions to the Government for Poverty Reduction and Social Development. The programs were framed to reach out to poor and remote rural areas which are exposed to adverse ecological processes. It included the coastal regions, chars and areas affected by

river erosion. Those areas with high concentrations of socially disadvantaged and marginal ethnic groups were also included. The development problems of the hill and tribal population were addressed as well. In order to check urban growth employment opportunities were increased both within and outside of agriculture in rural areas. Self-employment promoted through micro-credit programs by Grameen Bank, has been a factor in decelerating RU migration. Further, the government introduced two housing schemes to encourage the urban poor to return to villages in 1999. Bangladesh Krishi Bank offers loans for income generation and resettlement in 'Ghore Phera' Program. 'Asrayan Project' provides basic housing in barrack like tin structures with cooking arrangement, a community room and a common pond for fishing and other needs.

Florez. C (2003) Migration is a major determinant of the inferior quality of employment (informal sector or unemployment) therefore, various programs to integrate a migrants life to the urban world could be beneficial for successful institutions in the labor market.

Tacoli. C (2004) says that an easy access to urban markets is a key to increasing incomes for poor rural farmers. Rural-urban linkages include; flow of agricultural and other commodities from rural based producers to urban markets; financial flow in the form of remittances from migrants to relatives and communities staying in village, and investments and credit from urban- based institutions; livelihood engagement through multiple occupations ranging from farming to services to processing and manufacturing; and in the opposite direction flow of manufactured and imported goods from urban centers to rural areas. The article points out that the synergy between agricultural production and the urban based enterprises as key to development of more vibrant local economies and pro-poor regional growth.

Dev. M (2004) examines some important indicators relating to rural India in the pre and post liberalization periods and finds that rural India is not shining. The author makes suggestions in ten areas: employment, public investment, agriculture, water management, rural institutional reforms, rural non-farm sector, education and health, reduction in regional disparities, PURA model and basic services and decentralization and governance, where he says policy attention is needed to make rural India shine. He points out that to make rural development more broad-based and balanced, investment, technology and appropriate institutions are needed.

Fa and chan- kang (2005) made a study on the rural urban road development and the resultant urban growth as well as reduction of rural poverty. The study finds that benefit/cost ratios for rural roads are about four times larger than for urban roads when the benefits are measured in terms of contribution to National GDP. In terms of urban GDP too these ratios are much greater for rural roads than for the urban roads. In terms of poverty reduction the study finds that for every yuan invested the rural roads raise the rural people above the poverty line far more than the urban roads do.

Garret. J (2005) emphasizes that a more integrated economy offers more choices and allows individuals and households to pursue their own best path out of poverty, depending on particular conditions, resources and opportunities, policies that support rural-urban integration and provide appropriate public investment to encourage the flow of goods and resources across sectors and locations are important steps in this direction.

Sheggen Fan, Connie Chankong and Anit Mukherjee (2005) explained that developing countries are characterized by uneconomic- dualism. That is, the co-existence of modern urban sector with a traditional rural sector. This dualism arose in countries like India and China, because the industrialization strategy followed by both largely favored the growth

and development of the urban sectors at the cost of rural sectors. It provides a historical perspective of rural-urban dynamics in China and India, and examines the causes and consequences of the urban bias. The article points out that the urban bias and investment and development strategies needs correction in both countries through more investment in rural areas, particularly on infrastructure through strengthening of rural-urban linkage.

Perspectives team (2007) provides a detailed description of the order given by Supreme Court (Feb 6, 07) On February 6, 2007, Supreme Court ruled that no cooking would be allowed on the roads of Delhi. It has also banned the sale of electronic goods by the hawkers. It has ruled that squatting and hawking would be allowed at specified areas and only with government licenses. Each squatting licensee would be allowed to occupy 6x4 sq ft space at least 5 ft away from the footpath. The allotments would be temporary and in case of exigencies and security reasons, the squatters can be evicted. Each applicant for a squatting/Hawking license will have to regular himself with the civic body concerned along with Rs. 1,000 which would be the application fee. It implemented the effect of such an order on the life and livelihood of hawkers, street vendors and their consumer base (the blue-collar workers of the city) can only be imagined. But what it will more probably do is to tighten the noose of bribes around the incomes of these hawkers and vendors. They will have to now pay more to MCD and police officials in the name of hygiene checks. The banning of freshly cooked food and the strict regulation of street vendors is the apex court's idea of increasing health and hygiene in the city.

Sriniva. A (2008), the final results of the fifth economic Census point towards changing trends in employment and enterprise activity in India. Enterprises in rural India are far less labor- intensive than those in urban India. Each enterprise employs 1.9 workers in the rural sector as against three workers in the urban. As of 2005, about 26 million rural

enterprises employed 51 million people, whereas 16 million urban enterprises employed 49 million.

However, this trend seems to be changing with rural employment in enterprises (engaged in activity other than agriculture) growing at an annual rate of 3.3 percent between 1998 and 2005, as against 1.7 percent in the case of urban enterprises. A change in composition in favor of the former could arrest the shift of populations to cities. A growth rate of 3 to 4 percent in rural enterprise employment is achieved even if agriculture sector performs poorly. Therefore, enterprises do not depend on surplus farm income. They might have come up to cope with falling agriculture incomes. Nevertheless, healthy farm sector growth helps; a 2 to 3 percent growth in agriculture output is likely to lead to a growth rate of rural employment of 5 percent or more.

Rajagopalan (2009) examines the various dimensions and extent of rural-urban disparities in India by comparing the two sectors key indicators of economic and social development. These indicators are demographics, poverty, education, health care, housing, access to safe drinking water, sanitation, electricity, road connectivity, banking services and caste barriers. The article observes that on almost all indicators of economic and social development, rural-India lags behind Urban-India, although, on some of them the gap is narrowing.

Stewart. B (2009), discusses the various features of the e-choupal model and how it is empowering rural India. Technology has a key role to play in bridging the rural-urban gap, ITC Ltd's' e- choupal' concept presents a powerful demonstration of how technology can be harnessed to uplift the rural sector. ITCs e-choupal enables farmers to access information first hand on crop prices in Indian and world markets, farm practices and local weather forecasts. Based on the prevailing market prices farmers can decide

whether they want to sell their produce to ITC, or at the local mandi, or wait. Farmers are thus able to get higher prices and enhance their incomes, and at same time are becoming more aware through access to the net. Until the introduction of the e-choupal, the farmers were wholly dependent on commission agents-the middlemen-from whom they got low prices and often, manipulation in weighing of their produce. The e-choupal has become a hub for commercial activity at the village level, including a mall set up by ITC.

World Bank (2009) reports that economic growth will be unbalanced but development can still be inclusive. The chapter on urbanization suggests a policy framework to help nations gain from urbanization. It outlines that it is very important to prioritize and sequence policies to help governments facilitate inclusive development. For areas of incipient urbanization, the policy priorities would be provision of basic urban services and improvement of land markets. For areas with intermediate urbanization, the priorities include providing basic services, improvement in land markets and investing in infrastructure in around the growing cities. Advanced urbanized areas should focus on well-functioning land markets, representative management, state-of-the-art transport infrastructure, and social policies to integrate low-income residents. The report provides important inputs for understanding and developing India's urban development strategy.

Dixit S. (Jan, 2010) gives her opinions on a topic that is often discussed in India across political corridors, corporate boardrooms and households. That is, the rural-urban divide and how the country's two economies- the rural and the urban- are increasingly growing apart. The popular notion is that growth not only has been skewed towards urban India but also has been gained at the expense of the countryside.

Rural India has diversified significantly into non-farm activities--- and this has brought India's cities much closer to their hinterlands than people might imagine.

Most of the discussions on the rural-urban divide are based on anecdotes about rural India but if we look at the data, the story in rural India is lot more dynamic than it gets credit for. According to her three urban myths about contemporary rural India are:

- Faster economic growth in urban India – as compared to rural areas – is driving rapid urbanization
- Rural India is still an agricultural economy
- Rural-urban inequality is on the rise.

Stewart B (2009) argues that effects of urbanization are on the overall, positive for the environment. Firstly, the birth rate of new urban dwellers falls immediately to replacement rate, and keeps falling. This can prevent overpopulation in the future. Secondly, it puts a stop to destructive subsistence farming techniques, like slash and burn agricultural activities. Finally, it minimizes land use by humans, leaving more for nature.

Tacoli. C (2010) pointed out that the synergy between agricultural production and urban-based enterprises is often the key to development of more vibrant local economies and pro-poor regional growth.

Massey Douglas, S (2015) says that the migration system radically transformed after 1986 where it is observed that the rate of migration increased significantly due to movement shifted from circular flow of male workers going a limited set destinations to nationwide population of settled families. This transformation took place due to a dynamic process that occurred in a public arena to bring about an unprecedented militarization of the Mexico-U.S border, and not because of shifts in social, economic, political factors specified in existing theories.

2.5 THEORIES OF MIGRATION AND RURAL DEVELOPMENT

Studies of worldwide migration patterns limit their scope to international migration. The World Bank is been publishing its Migration and Remittances Fact book annually since 2008, The International Organization for Migration (IMO) publishes a yearly World Migration report since 1999, The United Nations Division also keeps a data base on worldwide migration, the Internet also gives a better understanding of the various patterns and migration motives. Various theories discuss migration from different angles There are a number of theories to explain the international flow of capital and people from one country to another (Jennison,R.2007) In the modern times internal migration is also gaining importance due to movement of people within the countries. Many authors have advanced various theories on migration which been discussed below

Ravenstein (1885) assumed migration as a result of individual utility maximization subject to the budget constraint. This is basically the neo-classical theory of migration where an individual seeks to maximize his income moving to places where wages are higher due to several reasons. According to Raveinstein

- Most migrants travel short distances. The volume of migration declines when the distance increases. The theory assumes that higher travel costs and lack of knowledge about distant places act as hindrances in the mobility of people.
- Based on the observations of the 19th and the 20th century, migration is assumed to be a wave like motion and that it takes place in stages say people move in the following manner; rural to villages, to towns, to cities and finally to the capital city.

- The volume of migration is positively related to the development of commerce and transport. The major flow of migration is thus, usually from the agricultural farms to the urban advanced centers.
- The migrants are usually adults and they rarely move out of the place of birth.
- Women are more mobile within the country and men migrate beyond.
- Urban dwellers are less likely to migrate than their rural counterparts.

Stouffer's *Law of intervening opportunities* (1940) describes the likelihood of migration. The hypothesis is that such likelihood is mostly influenced by opportunities to settle down at some destination, nearer in distance or less by population pressure at the beginning. The law states that "The number of persons going a given distance is directly proportional to the number of opportunities at that distance and inversely proportional to the number of intervening opportunities." His theory reflects a direct proportional relationship between the volume of migration over a given distance to the number of opportunities at the place of destination, and inversely proportional to the number of opportunities between the place of departure and the place of destination. These intervening opportunities may persuade a migrant to settle in a place mid way between rather than the originally planned destination. Stouffer argued that the volume of migration had less to do with distance and population totals than with the opportunities in each location.

Zipf (1949) made an attempt to explain migration drawing the physical settings. This model is also known as the Zipf's Gravity Model. According to this model people migrate as if they are being pulled by some gravitational force that diminishes with distance. The number of persons who migrate beyond any two places is positively proportional to the product of the two populations and indirectly proportional to the

distance between them. However this theory didn't gain much popularity as it is based on an unrealistic assumption that there is equal flow in both directions without specifying the causes of the interactions. Moreover the theory did not consider the characteristics of the place of origin or the place of destination or the migrant's behavior responsible for the volume and direction of migration. The model believed that people want to settle down in the big cities irrespective of the economic conditions. '*The Gravity model of Migration*' is a model in Urban Geography derived from Newton's Law of Gravity, and is used to predict the degree of interaction between two places. Newton's law states that: "Any two bodies attract one another with a force that is proportional to the product of their masses and inversely proportional to the square of the distance between them." Geographical use of the model calls for a replacement of the words 'bodies' and 'masses' by 'locations' and 'importance' respectively, where importance can be measured in terms of population volume, GDP, or other appropriate variables. This theory of migration is therefore, based upon the idea that as the importance of one or both of the location increases, there will also be an increase in movement between them. More the distance between the two locations less will be the movement. This phenomenon is known as distance decay.

The gravity model can be used to estimate:

- Traffic Flow
- Migration between two areas
- The number of people likely to use one central place

By estimating the breaking point between the two settlements (that is the place of origin and the place of destination) the gravity model, can be used to determine the sphere of influence of each central place. An example of this is the point at which customers find it

preferable, because of distance, time and expense considerations, to travel to one center rather than the other. (Rodrigue et al. 2009),

The Buffer theory of migration came into existence in the late 1950s in a number of European countries (most notably West Germany and France). These countries decided on a migration policy known as the '*buffer theory*'. In the post WWII period, job vacancies were much larger in volume than people seeking jobs. To resolve this situation these countries decided to "import" workers from the southern Mediterranean basin (including North Africa) on a temporary capacity to fill this labour-shortfall. The Govt. had invited these workers on a condition that in the future they could be repatriated if and when economic circumstances changed. They were known as the 'Gastarbeiter' in Germany and they were mostly unskilled male migrants who had left behind their families in the countries of origin and had moved alone. They were known as the 'economic migrants.' They mostly worked in poor working conditions than those of the indigenous Germans and their rates of pay were considerably lower. Ultimately they formed a class of low paid service rated employment. The situation remained unchanged until the 1970s economic recession. In 1974 the then West German government imposed a ban restricting an inflow of future economic migrants and offered the possibility of returning to their country of origin to many others, few migrants took up the offer and stayed at their jobs or began to receive unemployment assistance from the state. (Huntoon Laura 1998)

A.Lewis (1954) illustrates a changing structure of economic activity by proposing a two sector model: an over-populated subsistence sector and a highly productive modern capital industrial sector. He makes an analysis of labor transfer from a traditional over-populated subsistence sector to a highly productive modern capital industrial sector.

According to him the rate of industrial investment and capital accumulation in the modern capital industrial sector determines the growth rate of output and employment. He makes an assumption of labor surplus in the rural areas with zero marginal productivity of labor. This allows a labor transfer from agriculture to industry without decreasing the agricultural output until the labor surplus is fully used. Additional labor can only be transferred at a higher cost of lost food production due to marginal productivity of labor being larger than zero. Lewis Theory of development was later extended by Fei and Ranis (1961). Both the theories explain that labor flows from the labor surplus areas to labour deficit areas.

The Circular and Cumulative Causation Theory by Myrdal (1957-1963)

The hypothesis of cumulative causation used to explain the backwardness of developing nations is associated with Myrdal (1957, 1963). His model can be used to understand the perpetuation of the development gap and divergences between North and South or between the 'centre' (industrialized) countries and the 'periphery' (primary producing) countries. Basically, it is a hypothesis of geographical dualism, applicable to nations and regions within nations. It explains why there are spatial differences in a no. of development indices such as per capita income, rate of growth of industrialization and trade, employment growth rates and levels of unemployment. The concept of Geographical dualism is of two sub- types; international that is between (among) nations and domestic that is between different regions within the same country. Myrdal has applied the hypothesis of circular and cumulative causation to explain the persistence and even widening of international differences in levels of development among nations, and inter-regional differences in development within nations over time.

The existence of geographical dualism, through the media of labor migration, capital movements and trade, not only retards the development of backward regions but can also slow down the development of the whole economy. Some exogenous shocks in the form of crop failure produce a disequilibrium situation with development proceeding more rapidly in one region than another. Certain economic and social forces tend to strengthen the disequilibrium situation by leading to cumulative expansion in the favored region at the expense of other regions, which then become comparatively worse off, retarding their future development. Thus the theory reveals that geographical dualism has a growth retarding effect. Myrdal had in mind a type of multiplier-accelerator mechanism producing increasing returns in the favored region. But, Instead of leading to equality, the forces of supply and demand interact with each other to produce cumulative movement away from spatial equilibrium.

He challenged the neo classical theory of stable equilibrium which predicts that the working of economic forces cause spatial differences to narrow. According to the neo-classical school, a region, where, labor is scarce and capital is abundant, labor will flow in and capital will flow-out causing decline in the wage rates and raise the rate of profit, while in less prosperous areas where labor is abundant, labor will flow out and capital will flow in, thus raising the wages and reducing rate of profit. Contradicting the theory of stable equilibrium, what Myrdal observed is a type of multiplier-accelerator-mechanism producing increasing returns in the favored regions and instead of leading to equality, the market forces interact with each other to produce cumulative movements away from spatial equilibrium. He replaces the assumption of stable equilibrium with the hypothesis of circular and cumulative causation.

He says that a sudden spurt of development in an advantaged area (the centre) attracts resources from the peripheries, both in the human and capital form. There is a sudden increase in demand for such resources in these advantaged areas which leads to a rise in the factor prices. This discrepancy of factor prices say, for example, higher wages acts as a pull factor for human migration from the peripheries. Once migration of labor starts the supply of labor in the disadvantaged or backward areas go down. The hypothesis of cumulative causation explains that the change in supply of labor may be expected to react on demand in such a way as to counter-act the tendency towards equilibrium. Migration from the peripheries denudes the area of human capital and entrepreneurs, and depresses the demand for goods and services and factors of production, while movements into the centre (the advanced region), on the other hand, tend to stimulate enterprise and the demand for factors of production. This further increased- demand for labor causes the initial discrepancy at least to persist, if not widened (if the shifts in demand are greater than assumed). Thus, once development differences appear, there is a set in motion a chain of cumulative expansion in the favored region, and this is what Myrdal calls a 'backwash' effect on other regions, causing development differences in general to persist or even diverge.

Capital movements and Trade also play a part in the process of cumulative causation. In a free market, capital, like labor tends to move to where the prospective return is highest, and this is the region where the demand is buoyant. Capital, labor and entrepreneur tend to migrate together. The benefits of trade also accrue to the host regions.

The impact of immigration into the expanding region is likely to induce improvements in transport and communications, education and health facilities, and so on, improving efficiency and productivity and widening still further the competitive advantage of the

growing region over the lagging regions experiencing emigration of the factors of production.

However, Myrdal says that there are some favorable effects on the less advantaged regions and he calls such effects as the 'spread' effects. He however, is of the opinion that the 'spread' effects are weaker than the 'backwash' effects. Thus he says that if the interregional differences are to be narrowed the state has to interfere through regional policies and the alternative is to wait for a natural end to the process of cumulative causation. This is a situation where the process of migration is halted, and possibly reversed. The external diseconomies produced by congestion ultimately outweigh the benefits.

Hirschman (1958) is of the opinion that the development in a region affects other regions both favorably and adversely. He has described the favorable forces as 'trickle-down' effects and the adverse forces as 'polarization' effects. Though, Hirschman's positive and adverse forces are quite similar to Myrdal's forces, Hirschman comes to a conclusion which is quite in contrast with what Myrdal says. Hirschman says that in the long-run, diseconomies would arise due to congestion of industries, insufficient size of home market due to low income level in the hinterland and so on. Hirschman suggests that the lagging regions, (if the region is an independent 'country') may possibly be better off if they become sovereign political states. In an independent country the mobility of factors of production could be more easily controlled, competition between the leading and lagging regions could be lessened, each region could more easily concentrate on producing goods in which it possessed a comparative cost advantage, separate exchange rates could be fixed for the two regions. Despite, these potential advantages, Hirschman is against sovereignty of state in case of interregional differences as according to him the

forces making for the interregional transmission of growth are likely to be more powerful than those making for 'international' transmission.

Everett Lee (1966) in his model of migration categorizes the causes of migration as the push and the pull factors. He calls them the plusses and minuses where plusses (pull factors) were factors that attracted migrants to the economy and minuses (push factors) were the unfavorable factors that pushed people out of a region. He gives a list of Push factors as such; not enough opportunities, few opportunities, inadequate conditions, desertification, famine or drought, political fear or persecution, slavery or forced labor, poor medical care, loss of wealth, natural disaster, death threats, desire for more political or religious freedom, pollution, poor housing, landlord/tenant issues, bullying, discrimination, poor chances of marrying, condemned housing (ration, gas, etc.), War. He gives a list of the pull factors as such; job opportunities, better living conditions, the feeling of having more political and/or religious freedom, enjoyment, education, better medical care, attractive climates, security, family links, industry, better chances of marrying.

Todaro (1969) and Harris and Todaro (1970) in terms of their two-sector model relaxed the assumption of full employment in the labor market and introduced the probability function of getting employment in the destination area, within the utility function. In their model migration is assumed to be the function of expected rather than actual wage-differential.

Todaro (1997) had the following comments on Lewis model of surplus labor.

- The model assumes that the growth of labor transfer and employment creation in the modern sector is proportional to the rate of capital formation. This can only

be if capital is re-invested in local economy and not invested in labor saving equipment or shipping abroad.

- A second questionable assumption is the zero marginal productivity of labor. But, due to seasonal character of agriculture, labor is needed at some point of time, so that it is higher than zero productivity. Under employment arises due to seasonal or geographical factors.
- Todaro also refutes Lewis assumption that a competitive modern sector and a labor market guarantee a constant wage until the point where all surplus rural workers are transferred.

Ghatak (1995) adds some more critics to the model of Lewis by saying that Lewis disregarded the balanced growth between agriculture and industry. Also the transfer of labor is described as being smooth, but in reality industry requires a total different type of labor than agriculture. The problem can be solved by investment in education and skill formation, but the process is neither smooth nor inexpensive.

Socio – Political theories of Migration Beyond 1985 (Massey) opines that the social networks play an important role in influencing migration. Social networks at the place of destination reduce the moving costs through information and reduced psychic costs. These social networks maintain migration streams. He says that wage differential is not a pre requisite for migration. In fact, households minimize risks through labour market diversification. The context factors are perception of unemployment, risks etc. moreover, migration has a multiple level of influence; be it, individual, household or community. (John Hopkins Bloomberg school 2006)

Faucett and Arnold (1987) in the theory of Migration System approach defines migration system as “... a set of places linked by flows and counter flows of people and suggested

that the study has a advantage over the study of destinations or pair of places. The theory can include both origin and destination, compare alternative destinations for a single origin and relate other flows and interactions between origin and destination to flows of people. The theory can also draw attention to the inequalities and disparities within the system. It can also focus attention on interconnectedness and reinforce the perception that migration is a dynamic process. (Nogle, M June 1994)

The Four Stage Model of Migration by Castle and Miller give the following four stages of Migration (John Hopkins Bloomberg School 2006)

- Stage 1: Temporary Labour Migration.
- Stage 2: Prolongation of stay and development of social networks.
- Stage 3: Increasing orientation towards the receiving country.
- Permanent settlement.

Wilbur Zelinsky 1921-2013,) is the creator of '*Zelinsky Model of Migration*', also known as the *Migration 'Transition Model'*, claims that internal migration within a country depends on its economic development and type of society. The model talks about five stages of migration in the following manner:

Model Stages:

Stage 1: ("Pre-modern traditional society"): It is a stage before the advent of urbanization and there is very little to no migration and natural increase rates are about zero.

Stage two: ("Early transitional society"): In this stage a "massive movement from countryside to cities" takes place. And as a "community experiences the process of modernization". There is a "rapid rate of natural increase". And internationally there is a high rate of emigration, although the total population number is still rising.

Stage three: (“Late transitional society”): During this stage urban-to-urban migration surpasses the rural-to-urban migration. R-U migration continues but at waning absolute or relative rates and complex migration and circular movements within the urban network goes up. When more people migrate, than emigrate, the net-out migration trend shifts to a net-in migration trend. That is, more people move in rather than out.

Stage four: (“Advanced society”): During stage four the movement from countryside to city continues but is further reduced in absolute and relative terms. Vigorous movement of migrants from city to city and within individual urban agglomerations is observed. Large increase of urban to suburban migration can also occur. There is a slight to moderate rate of natural increase or none at all.

Stage five: (“Future super advanced society”): During stage five “Nearly all residential migration may be of the interurban (Wikipedia, The Zelinsky model of Migration transition).

Zhao Chen, Ming Lu and Zheng Xu (1990-2006) in their study “Agglomeration Shadow: A Non-Linear Core–Periphery Model of Urban Growth in China make an attempt to estimate the impact of spatial links in China’s Urban System on Urban Economic Growth with the help of the Core-Periphery model. The results show the proximity to the International markets and the major ports are necessary for economic growth.

Deborah Roberts (1997) makes an attempt to find out the various rural-urban links and their interdependence through the construction of an interregional SAM model and multiplier decomposition. The results say that the extent of interregional feedback effects between the rural and the urban areas is small. This is because both the areas leak

benefits from increased industrial activity to the rest of the world. The results also suggest broadening analysis of rural economies beyond production related linkages.

Rikard, Forslid and Gianmarco I.P. Ottaviano (2003) in their study “An Analytically Solvable Core-Periphery Model presents an analytically solvable version of the Core-Periphery Model (New Economic Geography Model). It introduces the skill and mobility heterogeneity among manufacturing workers. The results say that the skilled are interregionally mobile while the unskilled are intersectorally mobile. Krugman’s original Core-Periphery Model does not allow an access to the exact number of equilibria and their global stability properties.

Theory of Relative Deprivation: American sociologist Robert K Merton was among the first to use the theory of Relative Deprivation to understand social differences. The theory says that the people who are deprived of valuable things in the society like money, status, justice etc. join social movements with a hope to redress their grievances. Actual deprivation reflects the actual negative condition of the people where as relative deprivation reflects what people assume they should possess as compared to others. The theory also states that awareness of the income difference between neighbors or other households in the migrant-sending community is an important factor in migration. (Jennison R 2007)

World systems theory: World systems theory considers migration from a global perspective. The theory explains that, interaction between different societies can lead to social changes within societies. Trade with one country may create incentive to migrate to an economically more vibrant country. It can be argued that even after decolonization, the former colonies still depended economically on mother countries. This kind of international trade is controversial. Some argue that free trade can actually reduce

migration between developing and developed countries. At the same time it is also argued that the developed countries import labor-intensive goods, which causes an increase in employment of unskilled workers in the less developed countries that decreases the outflow of migrant workers. The export of capital-intensive goods from rich countries to poor countries also equalizes income and employment conditions, thus also slowing migration. In either direction, this theory can be used to explain migration between countries that are geographically far apart. (Jennison R 2007)

Springer (2010) reveals that The Theory of New Economics of Labour migration (1980) presented itself as a theoretical 'third way' between the Neo Classical and historical structural approaches to migration and purported to reconcile agency and structure in a way previously unachieved by either of them.

Climate cycles: The modern field of climate history reveals that the successive Eurasian nomadic movements, have had their origins in climate cycles which either expanded or contracted pastureland in Central Asia, especially Mangolia and the Altai. New tribes trying to find land that could be grazed by essential flocks, coming to the area, displaced people from their home ground. Each group pushes the next further to the south and west, into the highlands of Anatolia, the Pannonian Plain, into Mesopotamia or southwards, into the rich pastures of China. Bogumil Terminski uses the term "migratory domino effect" to describe this process in the context of Sea People invasion. (Bogumi, Terminski, 2012).

From the above literature it is clear that although, migration is a contentious issue in almost the whole world, it is a welcoming phenomenon as well. However, steps should be taken to control migration so that the adverse consequences that crop up due to rapid

urbanization and migration are checked before they shape up into serious issues. Past literature also reveals the growing focus of the researchers on rural-urban migration along with international migration. The following study covers the dimension of rural urban migration to Guwahati city.