

## **Chapter 5**

### **EMPIRICAL ANALYSIS OF STATUS OF THE MIGRANTS IN THE INFORMAL SECTOR IN GUWAHATI CITY**

#### **5.1 INTRODUCTION**

The overall status of migration has already been discussed in chapter 3. The magnitude, pattern and flow of migration have been analyzed on the basis of secondary data covering a decade from 1991 to 2001. However, this chapter (Chapter-5) is significant as it is analyzed on the basis of field survey conducted from the rural migrants from different parts of the state (Intra State) as well as different parts the country (Inter-State) in Guwahati city. The primary study is conducted to achieve the stated objectives with the help of recognized statistical tools. The migrants are enumerated from their stay since 1990 to 2015. This analysis is based on the enumeration of 384 migrants considered for the study.

#### **5.2 PROFILE OF THE MIGRANTS BASED ON FIELD SURVEY**

This chapter is an attempt to analyze the socio-economic profile of the migrants in Guwahati city. This analysis is purely based on field survey where a total sample of 450 is collected out of which a valid sample of 384 is considered. In the survey the intra-state migrants enumerated belong to nineteen districts of Assam and Inter-state migrants belong to Bihar, Bengal, Rajasthan and Meghalaya.

Table No. 5.1 (a): Total migrants enumerated

	Frequency	Percent
Other Districts of Assam	305	79.4
Bihar	39	10.2
Bengal	13	3.4
Rajasthan	15	3.9
Meghalaya	12	3.1
<b>Total</b>	<b>384</b>	<b>100.0</b>

Table No. 5.1 (b): Distribution of migrants by different districts in Assam

		Frequency	Percent
<b>Assam</b>	Nagaon	35	11.5
	Nalbari	50	16.4
	Sonitpur	10	3.3
	Karimganj	12	3.9
	Kamrup	29	9.5
	Barpeta	35	11.5
	Darrang	24	7.9
	Goalpara	15	4.9
	Marigaon	14	4.6
	Golaghat	7	2.3
	Dhubri	22	7.2

	Cacher	9	3.0
	K. Anglong	7	2.3
	Bangaigaon	7	2.3
	Sibsagar	4	1.3
	Jorhat	5	1.6
	Lakhimpur	5	1.6
	Baska	8	2.6
	Udalguri	7	2.3
	<b>Total</b>	<b>305</b>	<b>100.0</b>

Table No. 5.1 (c): Distribution of migrants by different states in Assam

		<b>Frequency</b>	<b>Percent</b>
Bihar	Muzaffarpur	7	17.9
	Begusari	7	17.9
	Samastipur	5	12.8
	Katihar	10	25.6
	Darvanga	5	12.8
	Patna	5	12.8
	<b>Total</b>	<b>39</b>	<b>100.0</b>
Bengal	Kochbihar	8	61.5
	Jalpaiguri	3	23.1

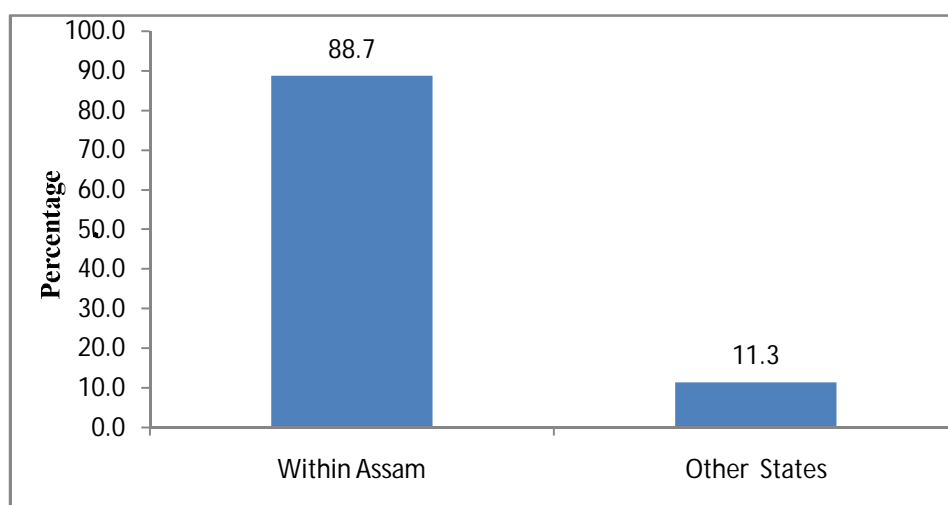
	Maldah	2	15.4
	<b>Total</b>	<b>13</b>	<b>100.0</b>
Rjasthan	Bilwara	7	46.7
	Ajmeer	4	26.7
	Jaipur	2	13.3
	Jodhpur	2	13.3
	<b>Total</b>	<b>15</b>	<b>100.0</b>
Meghalaya	Shillong	6	50.0
	Ri Bhoi	3	25.0
	East Khasi Hills	3	25.0
	<b>Total</b>	<b>12</b>	<b>100.0</b>

Table 5.1(a) shows that intra-state migrants in Guwahati constitute 88.7percent. The rest belong to different states of India like Bihar (10.2%), Bengal (3.4 %), Rajasthan (3.9%), and Meghalaya (3.1%). Table 5.1 (b) shows the distribution of migrants by different districts in Assam. The highest number of migrants is from Nalbari district followed by Barpeta, Nagaon, Kamrup, Darrang, Dhubri and fourteen more districts of Assam.

Table 5.1(c) shows distribution of migrants by different states in India. Bihar has the highest volume of out-migrants followed by Bengal, Rajasthan and Meghalaya. People from Bihar belong to seven districts; Muzaffarpur, Begusarai, Samastipur, katihar, Darbhanga and Patna. The highest number of migrants belongs to Katihar district in

Bihar. Migrants from North Bengal belong to Koch Bihar, Jalpaiguri and Maldah districts with the highest number from Koch Bihar. Migrants from Rajasthan are from Bilwara, Ajmer, Jaipur and Jodhpur districts and migrants from Meghalaya belong to Ribhoi, Shillong and East Khasi hill districts.

Fig 5.1: Migration in Guwahati City



The sample collected from the different states individually (Bihar, Bengal, Rajasthan and Meghalaya) does not make a significant size. Therefore, these data sets are combined under interstate migration. This helped in reducing the analysis into two groups of migration; interstate and intrastate migration wherever required. However, migration as a whole is been considered for the analysis.

## SEX SELECTIVITY OF THE MIGRANTS

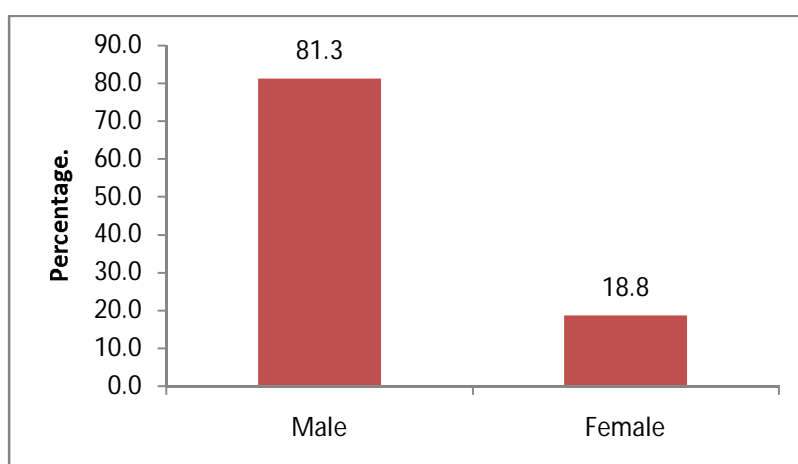
The migrated males constitute 81.3% and females constitute 18.8 %. This shows that migration among males in the society is higher than females. The migrated males are

engaged in petty works in the informal sector like labours, rickshaw pullers, street vendors etc. whereas, the females work as domestic help, beauticians, storekeepers etc.

Table No. 5.2: Distribution of migrants by Gender

							Total
		Assam	Bihar	Bengal	Rajasthan	Meghalaya	
M/F Migration	Male	247	35	8	14	8	312
		81.0%	89.7%	61.5%	93.3%	66.7%	81.3%
	Female	58	4	5	1	4	72
		19.0%	10.3%	38.5%	6.7%	33.3%	18.8%
Total		305	39	13	15	12	384

Fig 5.2: Percentage of Male and Female Migrants



**MARITAL STATUS:** The percentage of married migrants is 48.7 percent which is higher than the unmarried single migrants with 45.6 percent. The larger volume of married migrants indicates an increasing size of dependents at the place of destination due to associational migration. Migration among singles indicates greater capacity of

taking risks at a younger age and hence higher mobility at an early age. The percentage of other two categories (divorced and widows) is not so significant.

Table No. 5.3: Distribution of Migrants by Status of Marriage

		Marital Status					Total
		Assam	Bihar	Bengal	Rajasthan	Meghalaya	
Marital Status	Single	146	17	3	8	1	175
		47.9%	43.6%	23.1%	53.3%	8.3%	45.6%
	Married	142	20	8	7	10	187
		46.6%	51.3%	61.5%	46.7%	83.3%	48.7%
	Divorced	7	0	0	0	0	7
		2.3%	.0%	.0%	.0%	.0%	1.8%
	Widowed	10	2	2	0	1	15
		3.3%	5.1%	15.4%	.0%	8.3%	3.9%
<b>Total</b>		<b>305</b>	<b>39</b>	<b>13</b>	<b>15</b>	<b>12</b>	<b>384</b>

#### EDUCATION AND MIGRATION:

A large volume of the migrants enumerated for the study have an access to education till lower primary and upper primary and a huge percentage of the migrant population are illiterates as well. This shows they belong to groups of unskilled workers who are forced out of their respective places in search of livelihood. This also reveals growing pace of

urbanization in the core area (GHY), which demands labours (both skilled as well as unskilled). However, the percentage of highly qualified migrants is insignificant.

Table No. 5.4: Distribution of Migrants by Education

		Education					Total
		Assam	Bihar	Bengal	Rajasthan	Meghalaya	
Education Qualification	None	60	9	2	2	0	73
		19.7%	23.1%	15.4%	13.3%	.0%	19.0%
	Lower Primary	69	12	5	6	5	97
		22.6%	30.8%	38.5%	40.0%	41.7%	25.3%
	Upper Primary	74	9	3	3	0	89
		24.3%	23.1%	23.1%	20.0%	.0%	23.2%
	Secondary	36	2	1	1	1	41
		11.8%	5.1%	7.7%	6.7%	8.3%	10.7%
	Higher Secondary	46	4	2	1	4	57
		15.1%	10.3%	15.4%	6.7%	33.3%	14.8%
	Graduate	17	1	0	0	1	19
		5.6%	2.6%	.0%	.0%	8.3%	4.9%
	Post Graduate & Above	3	2	0	2	1	8
		1.0%	5.1%	.0%	13.3%	8.3%	2.1%
<b>Total</b>		<b>305</b>	<b>39</b>	<b>13</b>	<b>15</b>	<b>12</b>	<b>384</b>

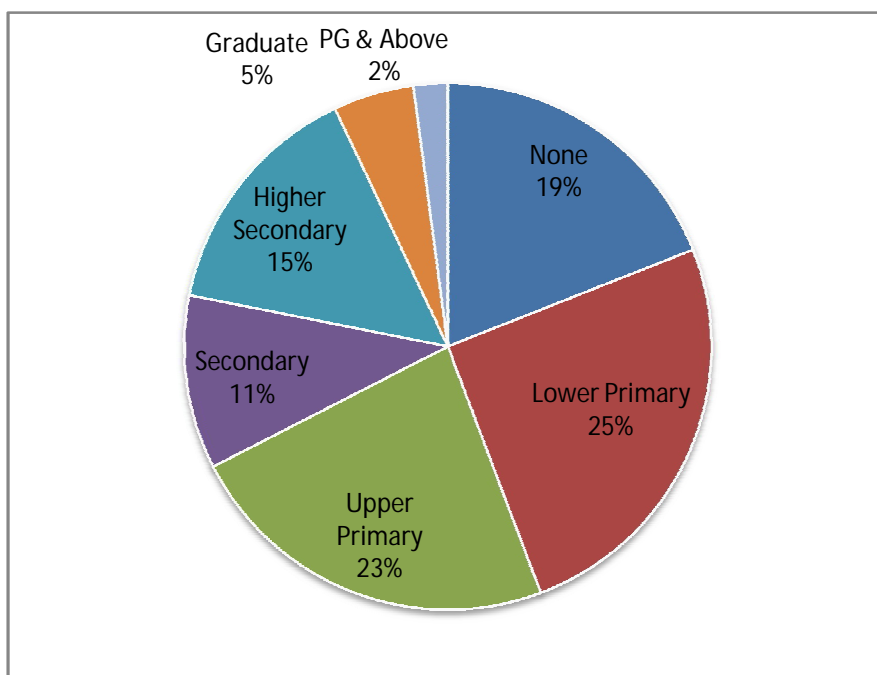
Source: Field survey

25 percent of the migrants are lower primary passed, 23 percent (upper primary), and 19 percent are illiterates. However, 11 percent of the migrants are matriculates and 15



percent migrants are higher secondary pass. A very insignificant proportion (5 percent) of the migrants is graduates and 2 percent are post graduates. Basic schooling is a free provision in rural India and that is an obvious reason for the migrants to have an access to primary education which somehow discontinues due to various reasons leading to distress migration.

Figure 5.3: Educational Background of the Migrants



**CASTE:** Migrants mostly belong to the General caste. This indicates strict competition faced by the people belonging to the General caste. They also lack Govt. benefits as compared to the other reserved categories in almost every sphere of life. They are therefore, the victims of distress migration

Table No. 5.5: Distribution of Migrants by Caste

							Total
		Assam	Bihar	Bengal	Rajasthan	Meghalaya	
<b>Caste</b>	<b>General</b>	177	22	6	10	0	215
		58.0%	56.4%	46.2%	66.7%	.0%	56.0%
	SC	55	6	0	3	4	68
		18.0%	15.4%	.0%	20.0%	33.3%	17.7%
	ST	11	0	0	0	8	19
		3.6%	.0%	.0%	.0%	66.7%	4.9%
	OBC/M OBC	40	10	4	2	0	56
		13.1%	25.6%	30.8%	13.3%	.0%	14.6%
	Others	22	1	3	0	0	26
		7.2%	2.6%	23.1%	.0%	.0%	6.8%
<b>Total</b>		<b>305</b>	<b>39</b>	<b>13</b>	<b>15</b>	<b>12</b>	<b>384</b>

**YEAR OF MIGRATION:** It is significant to analyse the trend of migration over different periods of time.

Table No. 5.6: Distribution of Migrants by years of migration

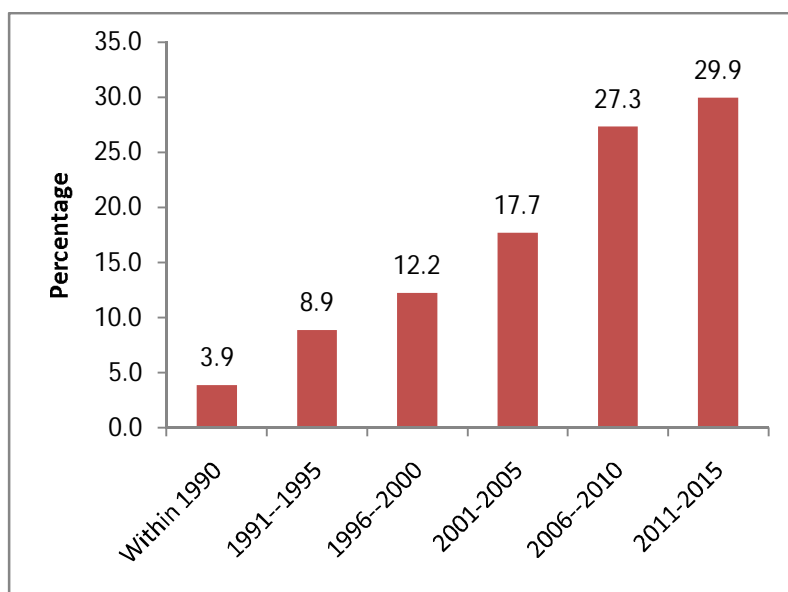
							Total
		Assam	Bihar	Bengal	Rajasthan	Meghalaya	
Migrate d year	Within 1990	12	2	0	0	1	15
		3.9%	5.1%	.0%	.0%	8.3%	3.9%

	1991— 1995	20	7	1	4	2	34
		6.6%	17.9%	7.7%	26.7%	16.7%	8.9%
	1996— 2000	35	4	2	5	1	47
		11.5%	10.3%	15.4%	33.3%	8.3%	12.2%
	2001-2005	51	8	4	4	1	68
		16.7%	20.5%	30.8%	26.7%	8.3%	17.7%
	2006— 2010	89	7	4	1	4	105
		29.2%	17.9%	30.8%	6.7%	33.3%	27.3%
	2011-2015	98	11	2	1	3	115
		32.1%	28.2%	15.4%	6.7%	25.0%	29.9%
<b>Total</b>		<b>305</b>	<b>39</b>	<b>13</b>	<b>15</b>	<b>12</b>	<b>384</b>
		100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0 %

Migration shows an increasing trend with time. Though, the rate of migration varies in different periods. Within 1990 the percentage of migrants is 3.9 percent which increased to 8.9 percent in 1991-1995 (by 5 percent). Migration further increased to 12.2 percent in 1996 -2000. However, the rate of migration was only 3.3 percent. 1991 was a period of liberalisation, privatisation and globalisation and its impact was realised all over the nation including Guwahati city in Assam. During this period many people migrated to the urban centres in search of employment opportunities. Guwahati is no exception with a large chunk of migrants in the informal sector. Migration further increased by 5.5

percent during 2001-2015 (17.7%). It continued to increase further to 27.3 percent (almost by 9%) in 2006-2010 and 29.9 percent in 2011-2015. This implies that although, the rate of migration fluctuated in different time periods yet it increased at an unstoppable speed increasing the size of the urban informal sector in the city.

Fig 5.4: Year of Migration



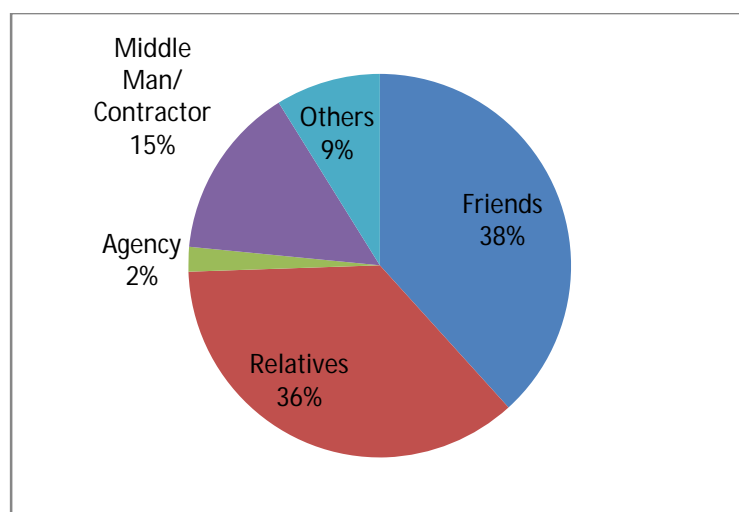
## MIGRANT'S INFORMATION ABOUT THE CURRENT WORK:

Table no. 5.7 (a): Information about the current work

							Total
		Assam	Bihar	Bengal	Rajasthan	Meghalaya	
Information on Current work	Friends	126	8	3	5	5	147
		41.3%	20.5%	23.1%	33.3%	41.7%	38.3%
	Relatives	99	21	4	9	6	139
		32.5%	53.8%	30.8%	60.0%	50.0%	36.2%

	Agency	7	1	0	0	0	8
		2.3%	2.6%	.0%	.0%	.0%	2.1%
	Middle Man/ Contractor	50	4	1	1	0	56
		16.4%	10.3%	7.7%	6.7%	.0%	14.6%
	Others	23	5	5	0	1	34
		7.5%	12.8%	38.5%	.0%	8.3%	8.9%
<b>Total</b>		<b>305</b>	<b>39</b>	<b>13</b>	<b>15</b>	<b>12</b>	<b>384</b>

Fig 5.5: Information on Current work



38 percent of the migrants got to know about their present work through friends. This is indicative of chain migration of people engaged in almost similar kind of activities with same living standards. 36 percent migrants were informed by their relatives showing associational migration. 15 percent came through middleman/contractor. This type of migrants is mostly construction labours. 2 percent migrants (very insignificant percentage) migrated through agencies and most of them are female migrants from North

Bengal and Shillong to work as domestic helps and baby sitters. And 9 percent migrated through other sources.

Table No. 5.7 (b): Associated Migrants with the main Migrant

							Total
		Assam	Bihar	Bengal	Rajasthan	Meghalaya	
Have you	Individually						
Migrated							
Individually		173	18	9	8	3	211
		56.7%	46.2%	69.2%	53.3%	25.0%	54.9%
	Family	76	18	3	7	8	112
		24.9%	46.2%	23.1%	46.7%	66.7%	29.2%
	Friends	46	3	0	0	1	50
		15.1%	7.7%	.0%	.0%	8.3%	13.0%
	Relatives	10	0	1	0	0	11
		3.3%	.0%	7.7%	.0%	.0%	2.9%
<b>Total</b>		<b>305</b>	<b>39</b>	<b>13</b>	<b>15</b>	<b>12</b>	<b>384</b>

54.9 percent of the migrants migrated individually as it is always easier to migrate individually at the initial stage of migration. 29.2 percent migrated with family showing associational migration and the increased number of dependents in the urban core. The percentage of migrants along with friends and relatives give us an idea of Chain migration and unskilled activities they are engaged in.

**TYPE OF MIGRANT:** The migrants are of the following types; permanent, temporary, seasonal or those who move on a daily basis.

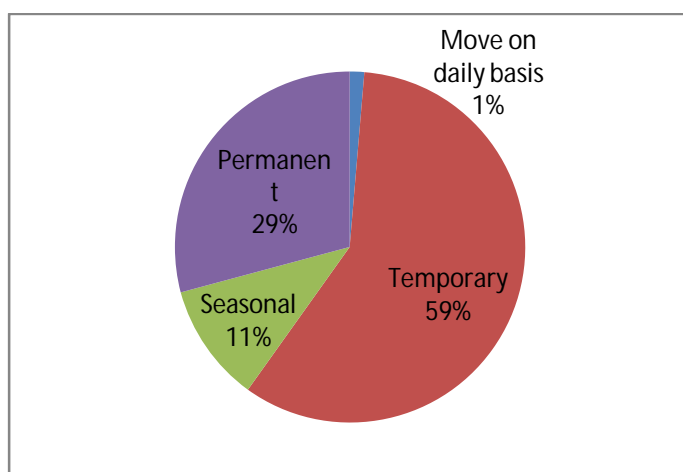
Table No. 5.8: Distribution of migrants by its types

							Total
		Assam	Bihar	Bengal	Rajasthan	Meghalaya	
What type of migrant are you?	Move on daily basis	3	2	0	0	0	5
		1.0%	5.1%	.0%	.0%	.0%	1.3%
	Temporary	194	10	8	6	7	225
		63.6%	25.6%	61.5%	40.0%	58.3%	58.6%
	Seasonal	28	6	1	4	3	42
		9.2%	15.4%	7.7%	26.7%	25.0%	10.9%
	Permanent	80	21	4	5	2	112
		26.2%	53.8%	30.8%	33.3%	16.7%	29.2%
<b>Total</b>		<b>305</b>	<b>39</b>	<b>13</b>	<b>15</b>	<b>12</b>	<b>384</b>

59 percent of the migrants are temporary. These migrants are short-distance migrants commuting frequently 11 percent of the migrants are seasonal in nature. They work six months in the farm lands during monsoons and migrate to the urban core in search of employment during slack seasons. Only 29 percent migrants have moved to Guwahati on a permanent basis with a period of stay exceeding more than a decade. Moreover, they have also built their own assets in the city (the property they claim to own are mostly illegal in nature). A very insignificant proportion of 1 percent migrants commute on a

daily basis. Therefore, circular migration is not a significant type of migration in the study.

Fig 5.6: Migrants by type of migration



## REASONS FOR SELECTING GUWAHATI

Table 5.9: Reasons for choosing Guwahati for migration

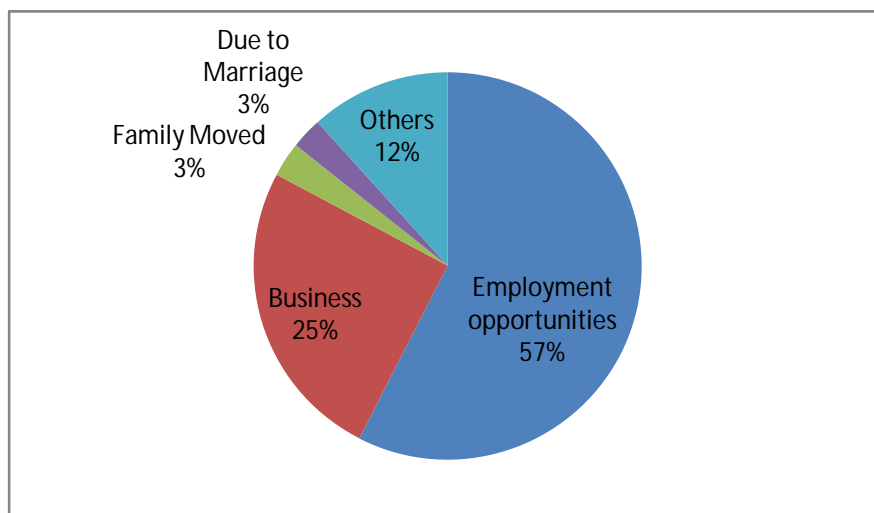
							Total
		Assam	Bihar	Bengal	Rajasthan	Meghalaya	
Why did you select Guwahati	In Search of employment	176	20	10	11	4	221
		57.7%	51.3%	76.9%	73.3%	33.3%	57.6%
	Business	74	12	2	2	7	97
		24.3%	30.8%	15.4%	13.3%	58.3%	25.3%
	Family Moved	5	4	0	2	0	11



		1.6%	10.3%	.0%	13.3%	.0%	2.9%
	Due to Marriage	9	0	1	0	0	10
		3.0%	.0%	7.7%	.0%	.0%	2.6%
	Others	41	3	0	0	1	45
		13.4%	7.7%	.0%	.0%	8.3%	11.7%
<b>Total</b>		<b>305</b>	<b>39</b>	<b>13</b>	<b>15</b>	<b>12</b>	<b>384</b>

57% percent of the migrants have come to Guwahati in search of employment opportunities. 25 percent have come for business. 3 percent have moved as their families moved to Guwahati (associational migrants), 3 percent moved due to marriage and 12 percent cited other reasons for their move to Guwahati city.

Fig 5.7: Migrants by reasons for selecting Guwahati



## REASONS FOR STAYING BACK IN GUWAHATI:

Table no. 5.10: Reasons for staying back in Guwahati

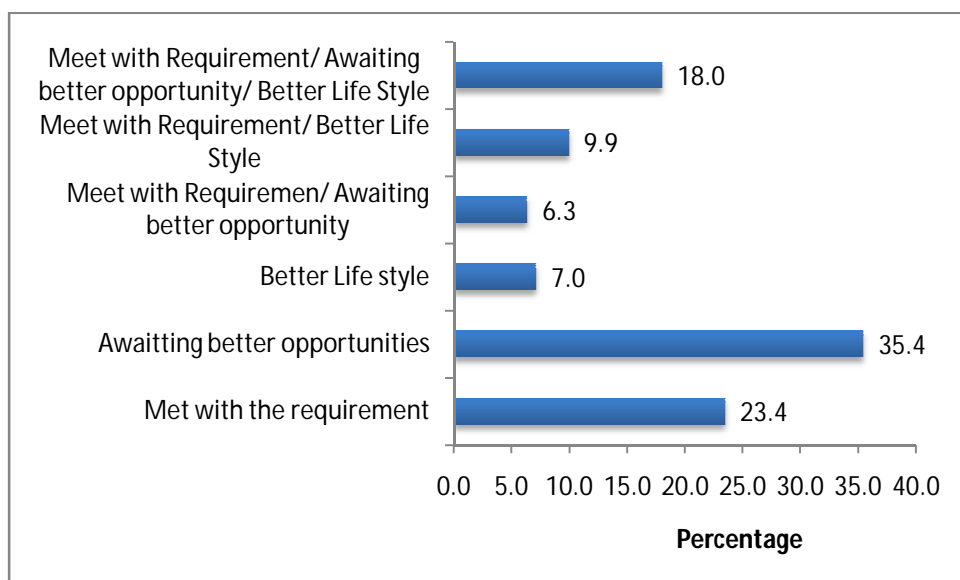
							Total
		Assam	Bihar	Bengal	Rajasthan	Meghalaya	
What made you stay back in Guwahati	Met with the requirement	63	10	6	9	2	90
		20.7%	25.6%	46.2%	60.0%	16.7%	23.4%
	Awaiting better opportunities	111	16	4	3	2	136
		36.4%	41.0%	30.8%	20.0%	16.7%	35.4%
	Better Life style	15	3	1	1	7	27
		4.9%	7.7%	7.7%	6.7%	58.3%	7.0%
	Meet with Requirement/ Awaiting better opportunity	21	2	0	1	0	24
		6.9%	5.1%	.0%	6.7%	.0%	6.3%
	Meet with Requirement/ Better Life Style	32	5	1	0	0	38

		10.5%	12.8%	7.7%	.0%	.0%	9.9%
	Meet with Requiremen/ Awaiting better opportunity/ Better Life Style	63	3	1	1	1	69
		20.7%	7.7%	7.7%	6.7%	8.3%	18.0%
<b>Total</b>		<b>305</b>	<b>39</b>	<b>13</b>	<b>15</b>	<b>12</b>	<b>384</b>

N.B: Meeting requirements refer to daily income providing food and shelter to the migrants

23.4 percent of the migrants stated that they met with their requirements and hence stayed back in Guwahati, 35.4 percent migrants were awaiting better opportunities, 18 percent met with their requirements/were experiencing better lifestyle but still awaiting better opportunities, 7 percent migrants stated to have better lifestyle that made them stay back in Guwahati. 6.3 percent claimed to have met with their requirements but were awaiting things to go better for them. It is thus evident that most of the migrants hope a change to better living standards in the coming future.

Fig 5.8: reasons for staying back in Guwahati



N.B: Meeting requirements refer to daily income providing food and shelter

## MIGRANTS AND THEIR EARNINGS

Table No. 5.11: Distribution of migrants by their daily earning at the place of origin  
(Villages)

		Actual Earning at Village					Total
		Assam	Bihar	Bengal	Rajasthan	Meghalaya	
Actual Earning at Village	No Earning	233	32	10	12	10	297
		76.4%	82.1%	76.9%	80.0%	83.3%	77.3%
	Up to Rs. 50	8	0	1	0	0	9
		2.6%	.0%	7.7%	.0%	.0%	2.3%
	Rs. 51—100	7	0	0	0	0	7

		2.3%	.0%	.0%	.0%	.0%	1.8%
	Rs. 101--150	4	0	0	0	0	4
		1.3%	.0%	.0%	.0%	.0%	1.0%
	Rs. 150--200	22	7	0	2	2	33
		7.2%	17.9%	.0%	13.3%	16.7%	8.6%
	Rs. 201--250	1	0	0	0	0	1
		.3%	.0%	.0%	.0%	.0%	.3%
	Rs. Above 250	30	0	2	1	0	33
		9.8%	.0%	15.4%	6.7%	.0%	8.6%
<b>Total</b>		<b>305</b>	<b>39</b>	<b>13</b>	<b>15</b>	<b>12</b>	<b>384</b>

Fig 5.9: Daily Earning at Village

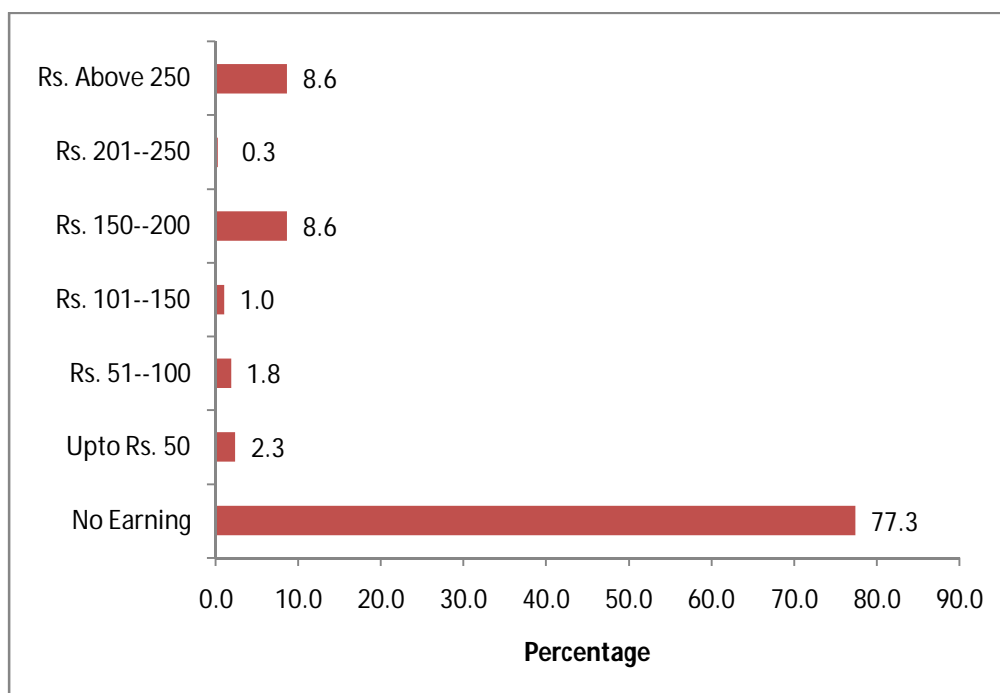
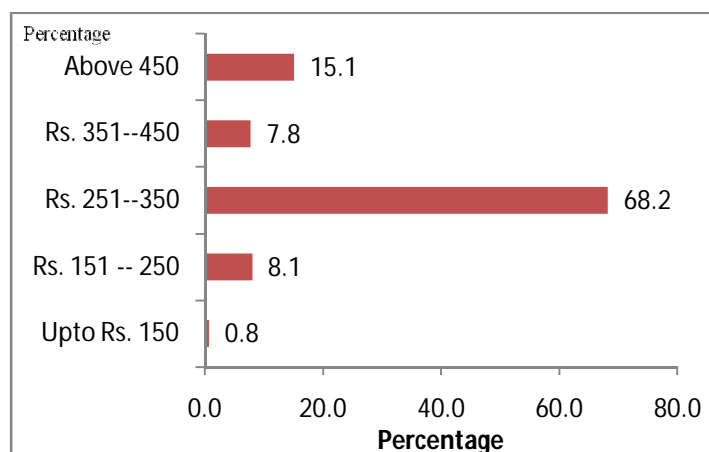


Table No. 5.12: Distribution of migrants by their earning at the place of destination  
(Guwahati)

		Actual Earning at Guwahati					Total
		Up to Rs. 150	Rs. 151 - 250	Rs. 251- 350	Rs. 351- 450	Above 450	
Actual earning at Guwahati	No Earnings	2	27	191	25	52	297
		.7%	9.1%	64.3%	8.4%	17.5%	100.0%
	Up to Rs. 50	1	2	4	1	1	9
		11.1%	22.2%	44.4%	11.1%	11.1%	100.0%
	Rs. 51--100	0	1	2	3	1	7
		.0%	14.3%	28.6%	42.9%	14.3%	100.0%
	Rs. 101-- 150	0	0	2	1	1	4
		.0%	.0%	50.0%	25.0%	25.0%	100.0%
	Rs. 150-- 200	0	1	31	0	1	33
		.0%	3.0%	93.9%	.0%	3.0%	100.0%
	Rs. 201-- 250	0	0	1	0	0	1
		.0%	.0%	100.0%	.0%	.0%	100.0%
	Rs. Above 250	0	0	31	0	2	33
		.0%	.0%	93.9%	.0%	6.1%	100.0%
Total		3	31	262	30	58	384
		.8%	8.1%	68.2%	7.8%	15.1%	100.0%

Fig 5.10: Daily Earnings in Guwahati



77.3 percent of the migrants had no earning source in their respective villages. Most of them were engaged in agricultural farms with zero marginal productivity and hence worked as unpaid labours that were paid in kind (like a day's meal etc). Only 8.6 percent of the migrants had Rs 250 and above as daily earning. The percentage of migrants making an earning in their villages is very insignificant compared to their earning after they moved into Guwahati city. In Guwahati 15.1 percent migrants are capable of making above Rs 450 on a daily basis, 7.8 percent migrants have an income of 351-450, and 68.2 percent migrants have an earning of Rs 251-350 on a daily basis. No migrant enumerated in Guwahati is without an earning source. This shows the variety of possible activities in Guwahati that is missing in the rural areas. The informal sector in the urban core is an obvious pull factor attracting migrants from different places. On the other hand, lack of work opportunities in the villages work as push factors for the migrants

#### **AWARENESS OF THE MIGRANTS**

Enumeration of the migrants on the basis of families reporting cases of maternal mortality, infant mortality and children receiving vaccination (within one year from the

date of enumeration), and idea about family planning gives a clear picture of the social and health status of the migrants.

Table No. 5.13 (a): Migrant's Children receiving vaccination

							Total
		Assam	Bihar	Bengal	Rajasthan	Meghalaya	
Children Getting Vaccination	Yes	33	4	4	2	6	49
		25.8%	26.7%	50.0%	40.0%	75.0%	29.9%
	No	95	11	4	3	2	115
		74.2%	73.3%	50.0%	60.0%	25.0%	70.1%
<b>Total</b>		<b>128</b>	<b>15</b>	<b>8</b>	<b>5</b>	<b>8</b>	<b>164</b>

(This Table is analyzed from the migrants who had at least one child)

Table No. 5.13 (b): Migrants reporting Infant Mortality

							Total
		Assam	Bihar	Bengal	Rajasthan	Meghalaya	
Infant Death	Yes	27	4	2	0	1	34
		8.9%	10.3%	15.4%	.0%	8.3%	8.9%
	No	278	35	11	15	11	350
		91.1%	89.7%	84.6%	100.0%	91.7%	91.1%
<b>Total</b>		<b>305</b>	<b>39</b>	<b>13</b>	<b>15</b>	<b>12</b>	<b>384</b>



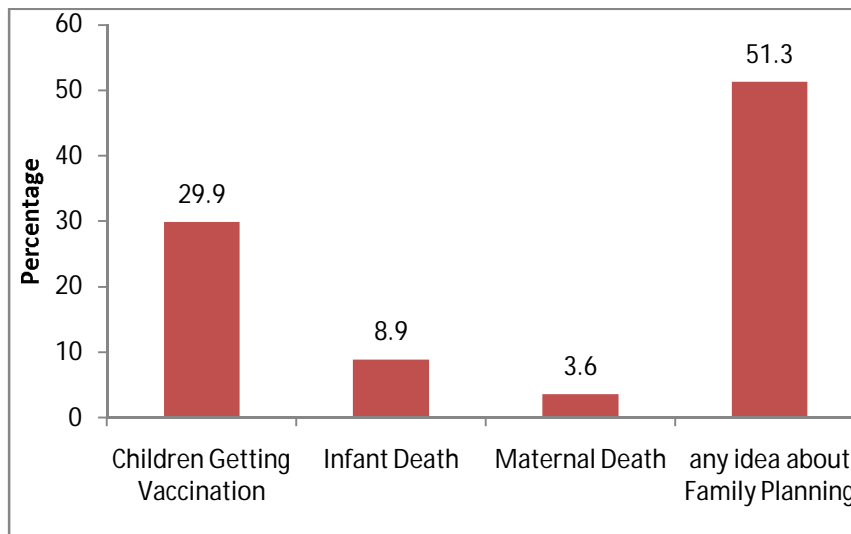
Table No. 5.13 (c): Migrants reporting maternal death

							Total
		Assam	Bihar	Bengal	Rajasthan	Meghalaya	
Maternal Death	Yes	9	0	3	0	2	14
		3.0%	.0%	23.1%	.0%	16.7%	3.6%
	No	296	39	10	15	10	370
		97.0%	100.0%	76.9%	100.0%	83.3%	96.4%
<b>Total</b>		<b>305</b>	<b>39</b>	<b>13</b>	<b>15</b>	<b>12</b>	<b>384</b>

Table No. 5.13 (d): Migrants aware of family planning

							Total
		Assam	Bihar	Bengal	Rajasthan	Meghalaya	
Do you have any idea about Family Planning	Yes	156	21	11	5	4	197
		51.1%	53.8%	84.6%	33.3%	33.3%	51.3%
	No	149	18	2	10	8	187
		48.9%	46.2%	15.4%	66.7%	66.7%	48.7%
<b>Total</b>		<b>305</b>	<b>39</b>	<b>13</b>	<b>15</b>	<b>12</b>	<b>384</b>

Fig 5.11: Children's vaccination /Infant death/ maternal death/ Idea about FP



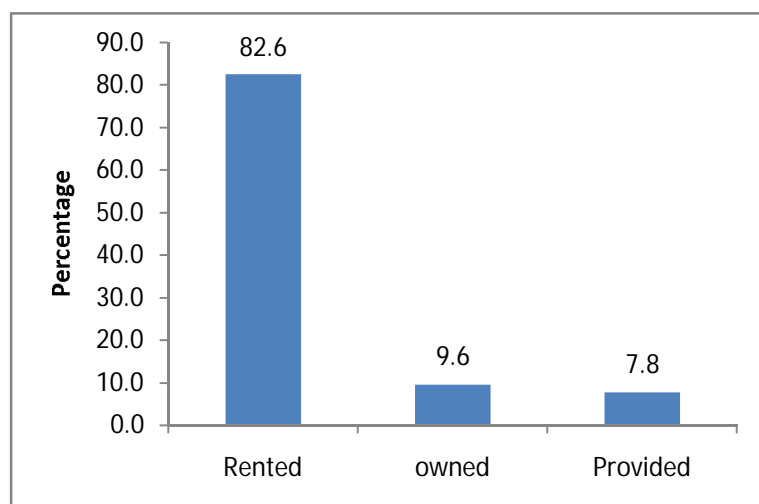
29.9 percent of the migrants reported their children to have received proper vaccination, 8.9 percent migrants experienced infant mortality in their families, 3.6 percent had cases of maternal mortality (during delivery) and only 51.3 percent migrants claimed to be aware of family planning. This reveals negligence of the migrants regarding Govt. policies structured for mass awareness. Lack of education and more complicated policies of the Govt. could be responsible for such a gap.

## MIGRANTS BY OWNERSHIP OF RESDENCE

Table No. 5.14 (a): Type of ownership of present residence

							Total
		Assam	Bihar	Bengal	Rajasthan	Meghalaya	
Type of ownership of Present Residence	Rented	249	31	13	13	11	317
		81.6%	79.5%	100.0%	86.7%	91.7%	82.6%
	Owned	28	7	0	1	1	37
		9.2%	17.9%	.0%	6.7%	8.3%	9.6%
	Provided	28	1	0	1	0	30
		9.2%	2.6%	.0%	6.7%	.0%	7.8%
<b>Total</b>		<b>305</b>	<b>39</b>	<b>13</b>	<b>15</b>	<b>12</b>	<b>384</b>

Fig 5.12: Type of Present Residence



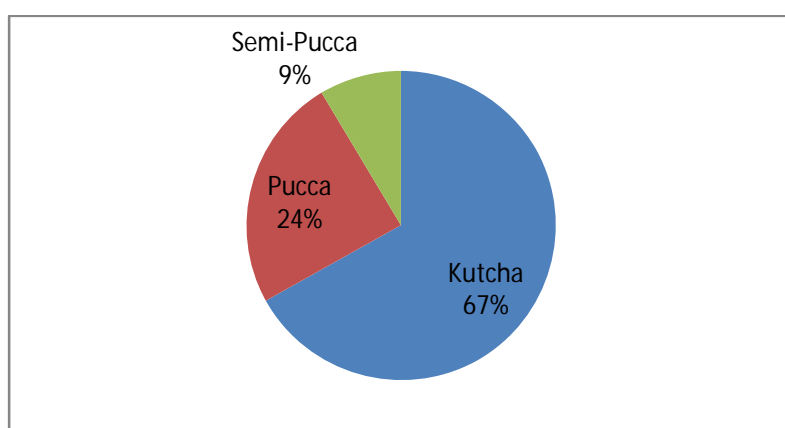
82.6 percent migrants live in rented accommodation, 9.6 percent report to own houses (mostly living illegally on Govt. lands encroached by them) leading to the growth of

slums and squatters in the city. 7.8 percent migrants avail accommodation provided by the owners where they work.

Table No. 5.14 (b): Type of dwelling of the migrants

							Total
		Assam	Bihar	Bengal	Rajasthan	Meghalaya	
What type of your dwelling	Kutcha	193	29	10	13	12	257
		63.3%	74.4%	76.9%	86.7%	100.0%	66.9%
	Pucca	81	9	2	2	0	94
		26.6%	23.1%	15.4%	13.3%	.0%	24.5%
	Semi-Pucca	31	1	1	0	0	33
		10.2%	2.6%	7.7%	.0%	.0%	8.6%
<b>Total</b>		<b>305</b>	<b>39</b>	<b>13</b>	<b>15</b>	<b>12</b>	<b>384</b>

Fig 5.13: Type of dwelling



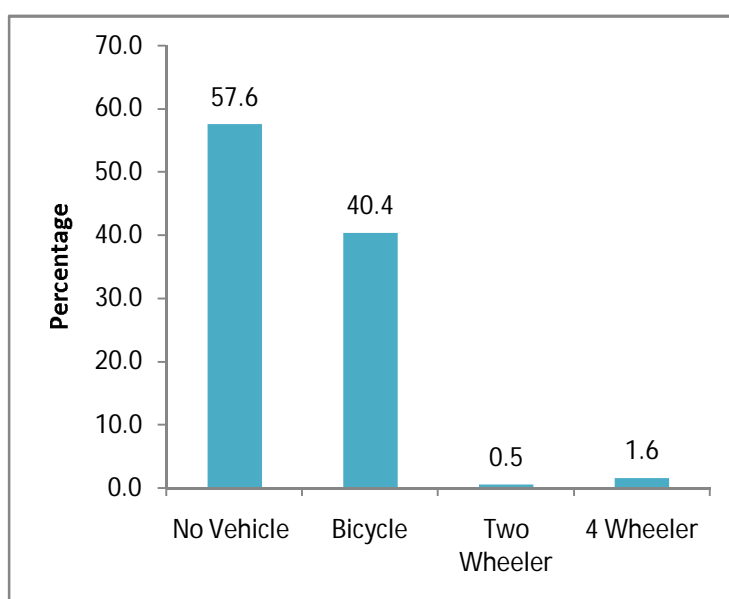
67 percent of the migrants reside in kutcha houses, 24 percent live in pucca houses and 9 percent live in semi-Pucca houses. This shows that the overall standard of living of the migrants in Guwahati is deplorable and needs attention.

## MIGRANTS BY OWNERSHIP OF VEHICLES:

Table No. 5.14 (c): Migrants by ownership of vehicles

							<b>Total</b>
		<b>Assam</b>	<b>Bihar</b>	<b>Bengal</b>	<b>Rajasthan</b>	<b>Meghalaya</b>	
Do you own any Vehicle	No	184	13	8	8	8	221
		60.3%	33.3%	61.5%	53.3%	66.7%	57.6%
	Bicycle	114	25	5	7	4	155
		37.4%	64.1%	38.5%	46.7%	33.3%	40.4%
	Two wheeler	1	1	0	0	0	2
		.3%	2.6%	.0%	.0%	.0%	.5%
	4 Wheeler	6	0	0	0	0	6
		2.0%	.0%	.0%	.0%	.0%	1.6%
<b>Total</b>		<b>305</b>	<b>39</b>	<b>13</b>	<b>15</b>	<b>12</b>	<b>384</b>

Fig 5.14: migrants by ownership of Vehicles



57.6 percent migrants have no vehicles, 40.4 percent own bicycles, 0.5 percent own two wheelers (motor bikes etc), and 1.6 percent own four wheelers (including, rickshaws, auto rickshaws and battery rickshaws). Guwahati city is endowed with good transportation facilities making it easier to commute from one place to another.

## MIGRANTS WITH BANK ACCOUNTS

Table No. 5.15 (a): Migrants holding Bank accounts

							Total
		Assam	Bihar	Bengal	Rajasthan	Meghalaya	
Do You have Bank Account	Yes	222	31	10	13	9	285
		72.8%	79.5%	76.9%	86.7%	75.0%	74.2%
	No	83	8	3	2	3	99
		27.2%	20.5%	23.1%	13.3%	25.0%	25.8%
<b>Total</b>		<b>305</b>	<b>39</b>	<b>13</b>	<b>15</b>	<b>12</b>	<b>384</b>

Table No. 5.15(b): Distribution of Migrants who send money home

							Total
		Assam	Bihar	Bengal	Rajasthan	Meghalaya	
Do you send	Yes						
Money to your		184	21	9	9	6	229
family in Village							
		60.3%	53.8%	69.2%	60.0%	50.0%	59.6%
	No	121	18	4	6	6	155
		39.7%	46.2%	30.8%	40.0%	50.0%	40.4%
<b>Total</b>		<b>305</b>	<b>39</b>	<b>13</b>	<b>15</b>	<b>12</b>	<b>384</b>

Table No. 5.15 (c): Distribution of the migrants by the Methods they use for sending money to their families

							Total
		Assam	Bihar	Bengal	Rajasthan	Meghalaya	
Means of	Bank						
sending		54	10	4	7	3	78
money							
		29.3%	47.6%	44.4%	77.8%	50.0%	34.1%
	Personally	111	8	4	2	0	125
		60.3%	38.1%	44.4%	22.2%	.0%	54.6%
	Others	19	3	1	0	3	26
		10.3%	14.3%	11.1%	.0%	50.0%	11.4%
<b>Total</b>		<b>184</b>	<b>21</b>	<b>9</b>	<b>9</b>	<b>6</b>	<b>229</b>

74.2 percent of the migrants have bank accounts and only 25.8 percent do not have an access to any bank account. This indicates that 74.2 percent migrants have savings.

Fig 5.15(a): Migrants holding Bank Accounts

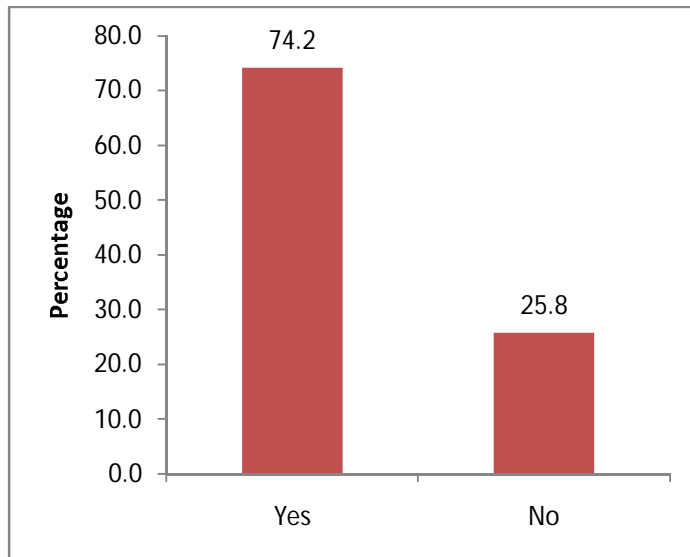
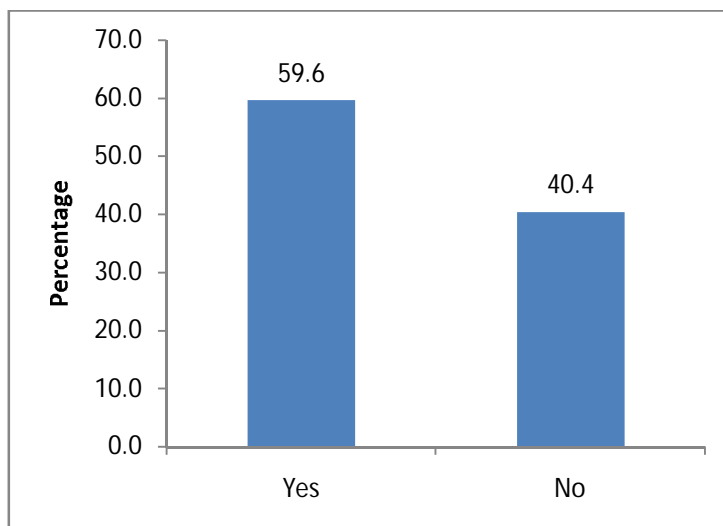


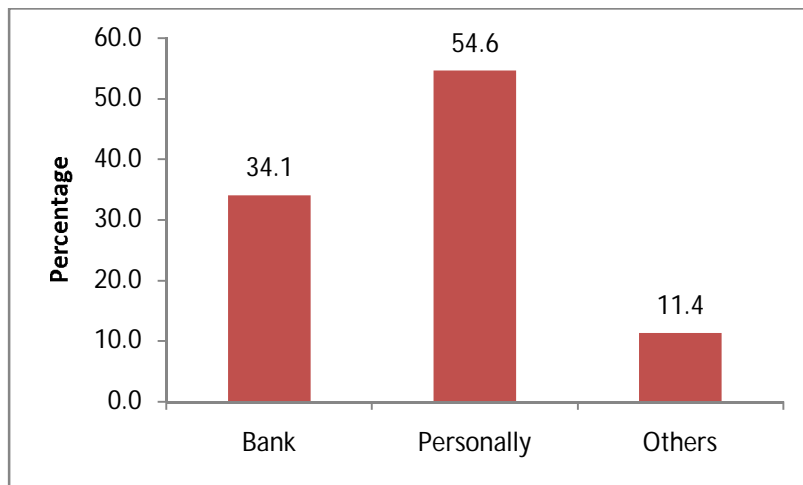
Fig 5.15 (b): Migrants who send money home



This analysis helps us to know if the villages are benefitted through remittances in the form of money being sent to the families of the migrants in the villages. 59.6 percent migrants said they send money home which indicates 'spread effects' in terms of remittances to the villages.



Fig 5.15 (c): Mode of sending money Home (\*Percentages calculated from those who sent money home)



34.1 percent send money through Banks (Mostly in case of Interstate migrants), 54.6 percent take money home personally which is indicative of temporary and short-distance migration and 11.4 percent send money through other means (like friends and relatives) indicating chain migration.

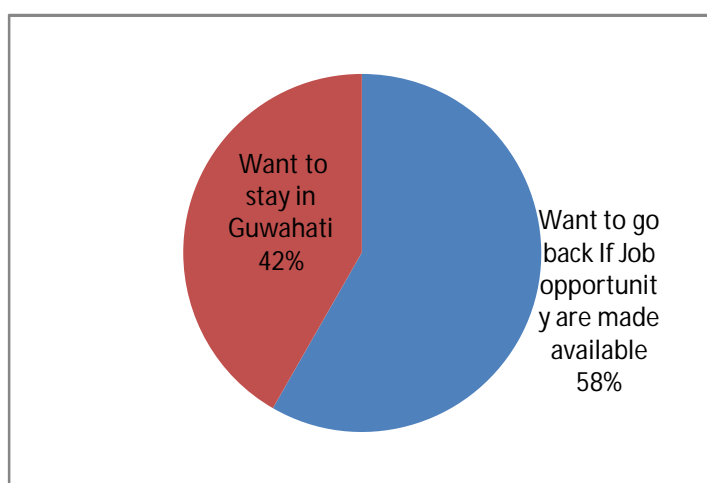
#### **POSSIBILITIES OF RETURNING BACK TO THEIR PLACES OF ORIGIN**

58 percent of the migrants said they would love to return back if employment opportunities are made available in their respective villages. However, 42.1 percent did not show any desire to go back to their places of origin. This shows the flexibility of movement of the migrants from less privileged places to more privileged ones. Opportunities act as a driving force behind a migrant's decision to migrate.

Table No. 5.16: Possibilities of returning back to their (migrant's) respective villages

							Total
		Assam	Bihar	Bengal	Rajasthan	Meghalaya	
If work opportunities are made available in your village, would you like to Return	Yes	178	17	9	10	10	224
		58.4%	43.6%	69.2%	66.7%	83.3%	58.3%
	No	127	22	4	5	2	160
		41.6%	56.4%	30.8%	33.3%	16.7%	41.7%
<b>Total</b>		<b>305</b>	<b>39</b>	<b>13</b>	<b>15</b>	<b>12</b>	<b>384</b>

Fig 5.16: Migrants wanting to return back home

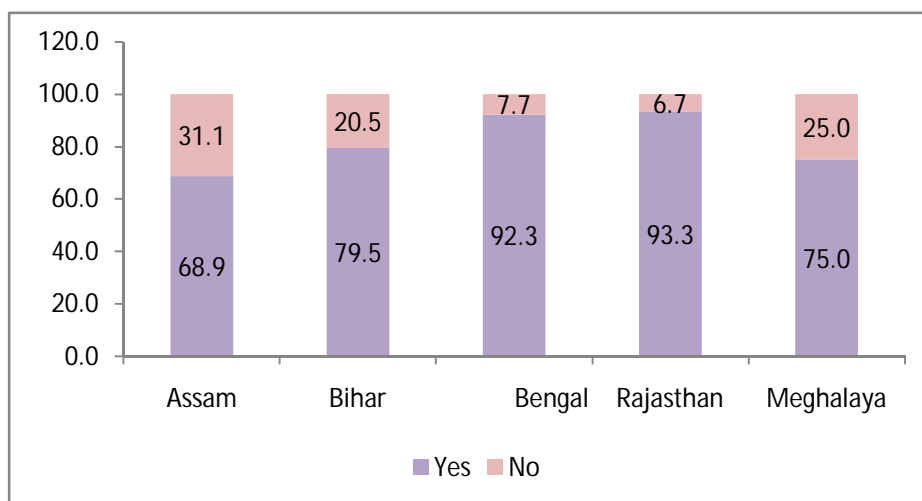


## BUDGET ALLOCATION OF THE MIGRANTS:

Table No. 5.17: Idea about Budget Allocation

	Assam	Bihar	Bengal	Rajasthan	Meghalaya
Yes	68.9	79.5	92.3	93.3	75.0
No	31.1	20.5	7.7	6.7	25.0

Fig No. 5.17: Idea of Budget Allocation



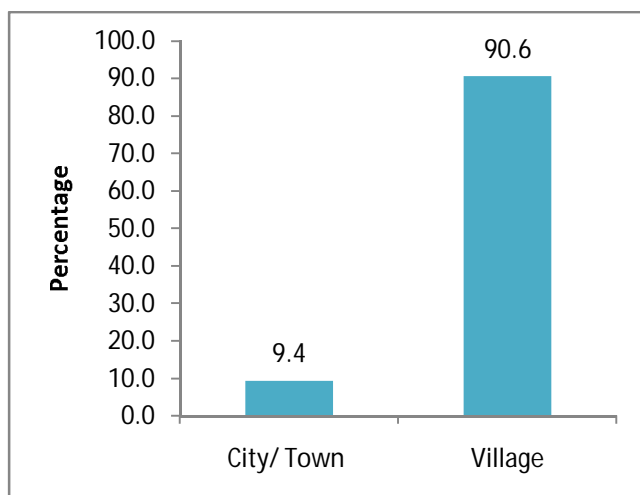
The migrants are yet to understand budget allocation for running a household. Migrants from Bengal and Rajasthan are more aware of budget allocation than the migrants from Bihar, Meghalaya and Assam. In Assam only 68.9 percent migrants reported to have some idea of budget allocation. This could be a consequence of poor educational background of the migrants.

## THE STATUS OF THE FAMILIES OF THE MIGRANTS

Table No. 5.18: Residence of the families of the Migrants

							Total
		Assam	Bihar	Bengal	Rajasthan	Meghalaya	
Where Does your Family Live	District	28	5	1	1	1	36
		9.2%	12.8%	7.7%	6.7%	8.3%	9.4%
	Village	277	34	12	14	11	348
		90.8%	87.2%	92.3%	93.3%	91.7%	90.6%
<b>Total</b>		<b>305</b>	<b>39</b>	<b>13</b>	<b>15</b>	<b>12</b>	<b>384</b>
		100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

Fig 5.18: Migrants by residence of their families.



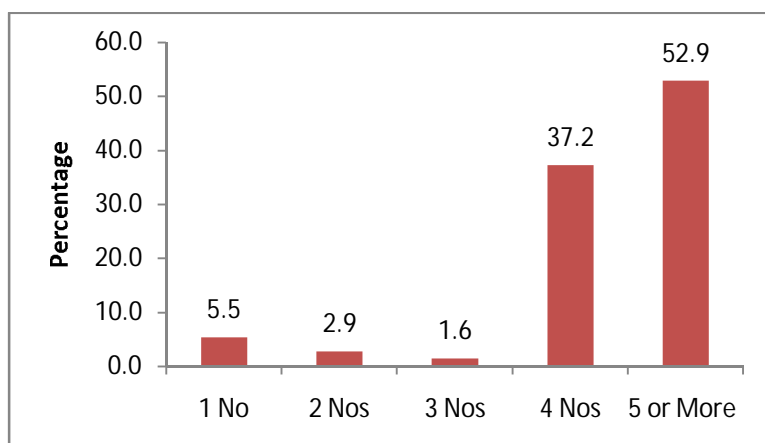
90.6 percent of the migrants have their families in the villages and only 9.4 percent have families living in urban areas (towns). This indicates dominance of rural to urban flow of migration.

**MIGRANTS AND THE SIZE OF FAMILY:** The size of family of the migrants is considered on the basis of the number of dependents on the migrants.

Table No. 5.19: Size of the families of the Migrants

							Total
		Assam	Bihar	Bengal	Rajasthan	Meghalaya	
Total family Member	1 Nos	12	4	0	4	1	21
		3.9%	10.3%	.0%	26.7%	8.3%	5.5%
	2 Nos	9	1	0	0	1	11
		3.0%	2.6%	.0%	.0%	8.3%	2.9%
	3 Nos	3	2	1	0	0	6
		1.0%	5.1%	7.7%	.0%	.0%	1.6%
	4 Nos	120	15	4	3	1	143
		39.3%	38.5%	30.8%	20.0%	8.3%	37.2%
	5 or More	161	17	8	8	9	203
		52.8%	43.6%	61.5%	53.3%	75.0%	52.9%
<b>Total</b>		<b>305</b>	<b>39</b>	<b>13</b>	<b>15</b>	<b>12</b>	<b>384</b>

Fig 5.19: Total Members in the family



52.9 percent migrants have more than 5 dependents to support, 37.2 percent have 4 numbers of dependents, 16 percent have 3 numbers of dependents, 2.9 percent have 2 numbers to support and only a very insignificant percentage of 5.5 percent migrants have only 1 dependent in their families. This shows excessive pressure on the migrants to make a move to the urban areas in search of livelihood. The growing number of dependents (in case of more than two children) also indicates lack of awareness regarding family planning.

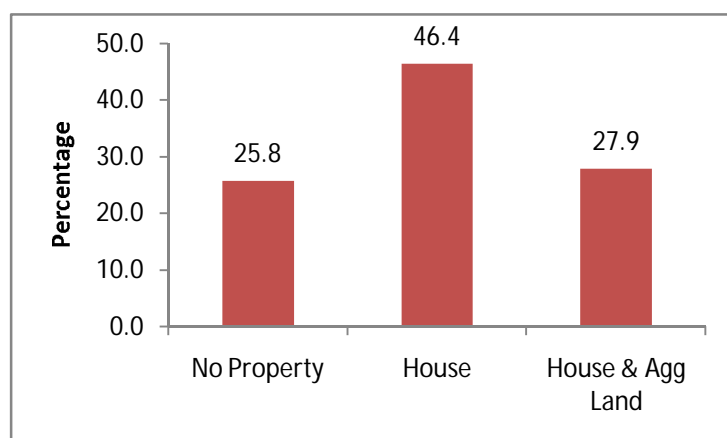
## MIGRANTS AND OWNERSHIP OF ASSETS

Table No. 5.20: Distribution of migrants by ownership of assets at the place of origin

							Total
		Assam	Bihar	Bengal	Rajasthan	Meghalaya	
Won Any Property	No Property	73	14	2	4	6	99
		23.9%	35.9%	15.4%	26.7%	50.0%	25.8%
	House	151	16	6	4	1	178
		49.5%	41.0%	46.2%	26.7%	8.3%	46.4%

	House & Agg Land	81	9	5	7	5	107
		26.6%	23.1%	38.5%	46.7%	41.7%	27.9%
<b>Total</b>		<b>305</b>	<b>39</b>	<b>13</b>	<b>15</b>	<b>12</b>	<b>384</b>

Fig 5.20: Ownership of assets at the place of origin



46.4 percent of the migrants have their own houses in their respective villages, 27.9 percent own agricultural land along with houses and 25. 8 percent of the migrants have no property. Most of the migrants who do not own agricultural lands have migrated more.

### **FARMING PRACTICES:**

The migrants enumerated (Percentages calculated from those who own agricultural lands) were asked questions like; (who worked in the agricultural lands in their absence relatives, paid labours or adhi, whether they practiced farming throughout the year or seasonally and whether the practices they adopted were for commercial purposes or subsistence purposes?). 52 percent of the migrants said that their family members and relatives, who stayed back in the villages, worked on the agricultural lands in their absence (mostly for self-consumption). This is an obvious example of zero marginal

productivity in case of many farmers. A very insignificant percentage of 4 percent farmers hired paid labours for commercial purposes. 44 percent said they gave their land on ‘adhi’ (a practice of leasing out land to other parties for farming on a signed contract between the owner of the land and the farmer)

Table No. 5.21: Distribution of workers in agricultural land in the villages in the absence of the migrants

							Total
		Assam	Bihar	Bengal	Rajasthan	Meghalaya	
Who works in the Agg. lands while you are Here?	Family/Relatives	43	4	3	4	2	56
		53.1%	44.4%	60.0%	57.1%	40.0%	52.3%
	Paid Labour	2	0	1	0	1	4
		2.5%	.0%	20.0%	.0%	20.0%	3.7%
	Adhi	36	5	1	3	2	47
		44.4%	55.6%	20.0%	42.9%	40.0%	43.9%
<b>Total</b>		<b>81</b>	<b>9</b>	<b>5</b>	<b>7</b>	<b>5</b>	<b>107</b>

Fig 5.21: Who practiced farming in the absence of the migrants?

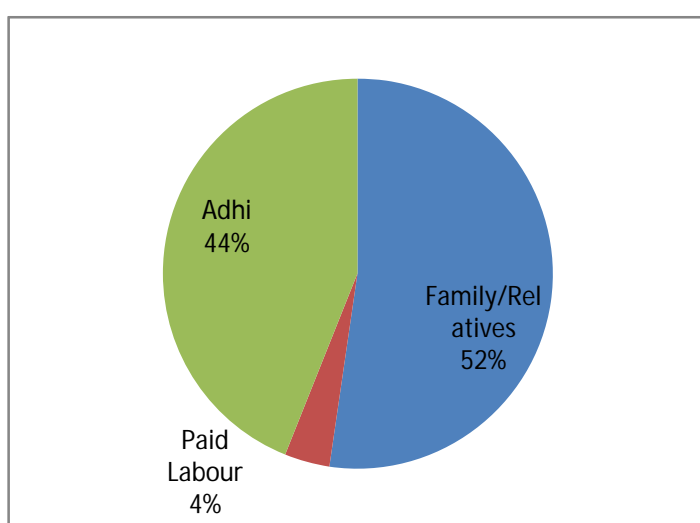
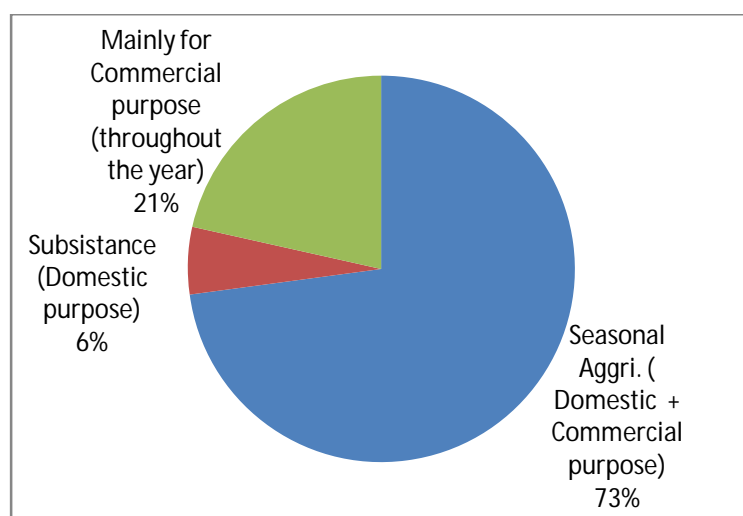




Table No. 5.22: Distribution of migrants by the methods of farming

							Total
		Assam	Bihar	Bengal	Rajasthan	Meghalaya	
What type of Agriculture you do?	Seasonal	64	7	2	2	3	78
		79.0%	77.8%	40.0%	28.6%	60.0%	72.9%
	Subsistence	3	1	2	0	0	6
		3.7%	11.1%	40.0%	.0%	.0%	5.6%
	Commercial purpose	14	1	1	5	2	23
		17.3%	11.1%	20.0%	71.4%	40.0%	21.5%
<b>Total</b>		<b>81</b>	<b>9</b>	<b>5</b>	<b>7</b>	<b>5</b>	<b>107</b>

Fig 5.22: Type of farming practices in the villages (Percentages calculated from those who have Agg land)



73 percent of the people in the villages did seasonal farming for both commercial as well as subsistence purposes. 6 percent of the migrants did farming only to support their families. 21 percent did farming for commercial purposes. This indicates economically poor backgrounds of the farmers. The farmers remain economically unproductive for the six months of a season which acts as a distress factor to push them out to newer places in search of work.

## CONCLUSION

The study has made an attempt to analyse the social status of the migrants amidst constraints that a qualitative study like this one comes across. Migrants and their educational background (in the study) reveals '*Secular problems*' (time dependent selectivity problem) like; education and training received by individuals during one period differs from education and training received later. Thus, estimates of monetary return to different cohorts of migrants may be tainted. Another problem that seeks attention is the issue of '*cyclical problems*' which refers to changes in migrant quality over the business cycle. The analysis reveals that the migrants tend to be self selected in the sense that they are typically of greater innate ability and possess greater motivation for personal achievement than otherwise comparable non migrants. Therefore, they tend to relocate easily to places that interest them. Another bias observed while analyzing the status of the migrants is the differential behavioral responses of the migrants. Two migrants with similar socio-economic conditions may have very different reasons to migrate to a place. Although, the analysis of the socio-economic status of the migrants in the study provides a good picture of the conditions of migrants in Guwahati city yet, further research touching the more intricate aspects as the ones mentioned above could prove fruitful.

### 5.3 Testing of Hypotheses

In order to realize the third and the fifth objectives, the following null hypotheses are formulated respectively

- (a) H<sub>0</sub>: Willingness to migrate to Guwahati city is not affected by the socio-economic conditions of the migrants.

(b) H0: Opportunities in the villages have no association with a migrant's decision to return back.

**5.3.1 Line of Analysis:** Since the dependant variables are binary in nature the appropriate analysis is either Logit or Probit. However, for the following study, the Logit Model has been used to explain the dependence of the qualitative dependent variable on the independent variables (either categorical or continuous).

### **Application of the Model to achieve the first objective**

The model seeks to predict whether “willingness to migrate” can be predicted based on the socio-economic conditions of the migrants. To this end a total number of 384 migrants are enumerated, considering their responses related to ‘willingness to migrate’ (the binary response dependent variable) based on their gender, age, education, caste, earning, property and agricultural land at the place of origin (the independent variables).

$$W_m = f(G, A_o, E_o, C, Y_o, P_o, Al_o) \dots\dots\dots (1)$$

$$\ln(P/1-P) = \beta_0 + \beta_1 G + \beta_2 A_o + \beta_3 E_o + \beta_4 C + \beta_5 Y_o + \beta_6 P_o + \beta_7 Al_o \dots\dots\dots (1.1)$$

P is defined as the probability that Y=1

$\beta_0$  = Intercept

$\beta$  = Coefficients

$W_m$  = willingness to migrate, G = Gender,  $A_o$  = Age at the place of origin,  $E_o$  = Education at the place of origin, C = Caste,  $Y_o$  = Income at the place of origin,  $P_o$  = Property at the place of origin,  $Al_o$  = Agricultural land at the place of origin

### Model Summary: Variance Explained

Step	-2 Log likelihood	Cox & Snell R Square	Nagelkerke R Square
1	504.918	.672	.764

**Classification Table <sup>a</sup>: Category Prediction**

Observed			Predicted		
			Desire to migrate		Percentage Correct
			No	Yes	
Step 1	Desire to migrate	No	118	55	68.2
		Yes	44	165	78.9
Overall Percentage					74.1

**(a): The cut value is .500**

For Model-1: A logistic regression is performed to ascertain the effects of gender, age, education, caste, earning, property and agricultural land at the place of origin on the likelihood that people would migrate to Guwahati city. The model explains 76.4 percent variance in a migrant's willingness to migrate (Nagelkerke  $R^2$ /Pseudo  $R^2$ ) and correctly classifies 74.1 percent of cases. The Wald test column determines the model significance for each of the independent variables at 5 percent i.e.,  $p < .05$ . All the variables have estimated probabilities equal to or more than 0.5 classifying the event as occurring

except (age between 6-10 and females who have no influence on a migrant's decision to migrate)

Hence we reject the null hypothesis that Willingness to migrate to Guwahati is not affected by the socio-economic conditions of the migrants and go with the alternative hypothesis that socio economic factors have an influence on the willingness to migrate.

**Results of the analysis:** The information in the 'variables in the equation table' can be used to predict the probability of an event occurring (willingness to migrate in this case) based on a one unit change in an independent variable when all other independent variables are kept constant. The results are interpreted in the following manner.

**‘Variables in the Equation’ Table**

	B	S.E.	Wald	df	Exp(B)
<b>Gender</b>					
Male(R)				1	
Female	-1.086	.357	9.270	1	.338**
<b>Education at the time of migration</b>					
Illiterate (R)			6.058	6	
Lower Primary	-.249	.380	.430	1	.780
Upper Primary	-.188	.414	.207	1	.828**
Secondary	.143	.488	.086	1	1.154**
Higher Secondary	.517	.513	1.015	1	1.676**
Graduate	-.086	.614	.020	1	.918
Post Graduate & Above	-2.128	1.184	3.231	1	.119

<b>Caste</b>					
General (R)			4.738	3	
SC	-.055	.370	.022	1	.946
ST	-.397	.692	.3 29	1	.672
OBC/MOB/Others	.723	.447	2.616	1	2.061
<b>Age at the time of Migration</b>					
Within 5 yrs (R)			2.432	6	
6--10 yrs	-19.978	11847.334	.000	1	.023
11--15 yrs	.605	.757	.638	1	1.831
16--20 yrs	.648	.738	.769	1	1.911**
21--25 yrs	.766	.745	1.058	1	2.152**
26--30 yrs	.823	.899	.837	1	2.277**
Above 30 yrs	1.586	1.061	2.235	1	4.885**
<b>Did You have earning at the time of migrate</b>					
No Earning (R)			4.250	1	
Have Earning	-.001	.515	.000	1	.999
<b>Do You own any Property in village</b>					
Yes (R)			28.305	1	
No	1.127	.358	9.932	1	3.886**
<b>Did you own Agg. land at the time of Migration</b>					

Yes (R)			1.825	1	
No	.540	.443	1.488	1	1.716
Constant	-.916	.811	1.278	1	.400

\*\* = sig at .05, (R) = reference category

- Considering Illiterates as the reference category, migrants who attained lower primary education are (.78 times), upper primary (.82 times) and Graduates (.91 times) less likely to migrate than the illiterates. However, Secondary pass migrants are (1.2 times) and higher secondary pass migrants are 1.7 times more likely to migrate than the reference category. This indicates that primary education is not sufficient to survive in the urban informal sector. However, the informal sector is less likely to cater to the needs of the highly qualified migrants (graduates/post graduates/or above) hence the results show less likeliness to migrate among graduates and post graduates.
- Considering General caste as the reference category, Schedule Caste and Schedule Tribes are .97 and .64 times less willing to migrate than the General caste. However, OBC/MOBC is 2.06 times more likely to migrate than the reference category.
- Considering age within 5 years as the reference category, the results show that higher the age more is the willingness to migrate. Migrants above 30 yrs are 4.88 times more likely to migrate. This leads to dearth of working capital in the rural areas. Thus migration causes severe 'backwash effect' on the rural areas.



- Considering No Earnings in village as the reference category, migrants having an earning source are .99 times less likely to migrate. Hence earnings in the village could act as a pull factor controlling out migration from the villages.
- Considering ownership of property in the villages as the reference category, migrants without property are 3.8 times more willing to migrate out.
- Considering ownership of agricultural land as the reference category, migrants who did not possess any farm land are 1.7 times more likely to migrate. Therefore, Lack of earning, ownership of property and farm land in the place of origin act as the push factors leading to out-migration from the rural areas to the urban core.

### **Application of the Model to achieve the second objective**

The model seeks to find to what extent the socio-economic conditions influence a migrant's willingness to return back if opportunities are provided at their respective villages. Here opportunity based willingness to return is the binary response dependent variable with yes/no responses based on a migrant's gender, age, education, caste, earnings and property at the urban core.

$$O_m = f(G, M, E, C, A_c, Y_p, P_G) \text{-----} (2)$$

$$\ln(P/1-P) = \beta_0 + \beta_1 G + \beta_2 M + \beta_3 C + \beta_4 A_c + \beta_5 Y_p + \beta_6 P_G \text{-----} (2.1)$$

P is defined as the probability that Y=1

$\beta_0$  = Intercept

$\beta$  = Coefficients

$O_m$  = Opportunity induced migration

G = Gender, M = Marital status, E = Education, C = Caste,  $A_c$  = Current Age,  $Y_p$  = Present Income,  $P_G$  = Property in Guwahati.

### Model Summary Variance Explained

Step	-2 Log likelihood	Cox & Snell R Square	Nagelkerke R Square
1	448.769	.673	.733

Classification Table <sup>a</sup>

Observed			Predicted		
			If Job opportunity are made available in your village, would you like to Return		Percentage Correct
			No	Yes	
Step 1	If Job opportunity are made available in your village, would you like to Return	No	101	59	63.1
		Yes	62	162	72.3
	Overall Percentage				68.5

**(a): The cut value is .500**

For Model-2: A logistic regression is performed to ascertain the effect of gender, age, education, caste, earnings and property at the place of origin on the likelihood that people would return back to their respective villages if opportunities are provided to them. The model explains 73.3percent variance in a migrant's decision to return back (Nagelkerke  $R^2$ /Pseudo  $R^2$ ) and correctly classifies 68.5 percent of cases. The Wald test column determines the model significance for each of the independent variables at 5 percent i.e.,  $p < .05$ . Variables having estimated probabilities equal to or more than 0.5 classify the event as occurring.

Hence we reject the null hypothesis that Opportunities in the villages have no association with a migrant's decision to return back.

**Results of the analysis:** The information in the 'variables in the equation table' can be used to predict the probability of an event occurring (willingness to return back) based on a one unit change in an independent variable when all other independent variables are kept constant. The results are interpreted in the following manner:

**‘Variables in the Equation’ Table**

	<b>B</b>	<b>S.E.</b>	<b>Wald</b>	<b>Df</b>	<b>Exp(B)</b>
<b>Gender</b>					
Female(R)			.823	1	
Male	-.216	.696	.096	1	3.241**
<b>Marital</b>					
<i>Single</i> ®			1.227	3	
<i>Married</i>	.571	.515	1.227	1	1.770**
<i>Divorced</i>	-19.254	20.207	.045	1	.021
<i>Widowed</i>	-19.650	8.695	.745	1	.010
<b>Education</b>					
<i>None</i> ®			11.080	6	
<i>Lower Primary</i>	-1.214	.653	3.461	1	.297
<i>Upper Primary</i>	-1.686	.701	5.780	1	.185**
<i>Secondary</i>	.651	.701	.863	1	1.917**
<i>Higher Secondary</i>	-20.574	2.719	.342	1	.061
<i>Graduate</i>	-20.414	810	.013	1	.014**
<i>Post Graduate &amp; Above</i>	-20.429	15.517	.150	1	.032**
<b>Caste</b>					
<i>General</i> ®			2.55	3	
<i>SC</i>	-.276	.670	.170	1	.759
<i>ST</i>	-1.555	1.901	.669	1	.211
<i>OBC/MOBC/others</i>	.030	.853	.001	1	1.031
<b>Current Age</b>					
<i>Within 15-20 Yrs</i>			11.116	6	
21--25 yrs	22.335	8.823	.674	1	.269**
26--30 yrs	19.198	8.843	.523	1	.261**
31--35 yrs	19.493	8.843	.235	1	.249**
36-- 40 yrs	19.783	8.831	.098	1	.129**

41--45 yrs	18.358	8.833	.612	1	1.268**
Above 45 yrs	22.520	8.832	.123	1	1.467
<b>Present Income</b>					
Upto Rs. 150 @			29.431	4	
Rs. 151 – 250	22.256	23.422	.000	1	4.129**
Rs. 251—350	1.247	.469	7.066	1	3.481**
Rs. 351—450	1.735	.327	28.120	1	5.668**
Above 450	1.053	.472	4.968	1	2.867**
<b>Do you have any property</b>					
No@				1	
Yes			6.014	1	2.134**
Constant	-23.012	84.833	.001	1	.001

\*\* = sig at .05, (R) =reference category

- Considering females as the reference category the males are 3.24 times less likely to return back.
- Considering singles as the reference category, married migrants are 1.77 times more likely to return back to their respective villages. This indicates temporary migration on part of the married migrants who are more likely to be pulled back by their families in the villages. This could also mean possibility of associational migration in the near future in the urban core if the migrant makes up his mind to stay back in the city for good.
- Secondary pass migrants are 2 times more likely to return back to their respective villages than the illiterates. Migrants belonging to the other categories of

educational backgrounds have estimated probabilities less than 0.5 classifying the event as not occurring.

- Considering General caste as the reference category, the Schedule castes are 0.75 times more likely to return and OBC are 1.03 times more likely to go back to their villages.
- Migrants belonging to the age group of 41-45 yrs are 1.26 times more likely to return and migrants above 45 years of age are 1.467 times more likely to return back to their respective places. If we compare the results of Model-2 with Model-1 we will see that the migrants above 30 years are more likely to migrate from the rural areas to the urban core. However, in case of reverse migration migrants above 45 years are more likely to return back to the villages. In both the cases the rural areas are deprived of working class people falling in an efficient age group. Therefore, while framing policies age should be considered as a very significant parameter.
- Considering a daily income of Rs 150 as the reference category the migrants earning Rs 151-250 are (4.1 times), Rs 251-350 are (3.4 times), Rs 351-450 are (5.7) times and Rs 450 and above are (2.8 times) more likely to return back to their villages if opportunities are provided at the places of origin. On an average, the migrants are less likely to go back with increased daily income. However, the categories of daily earnings mentioned in the study do not reveal healthy economic conditions for the urban poor. There are thus all possibilities for the migrants to return back if opportunities are provided at the places of origin.

- Considering no property as the reference category, interestingly, Property owners are 2.13 times more likely to return. This reveals deplorable living conditions of the urban poor and illegal encroachments in the name of property ownership.

The models explained above provide a clear idea of the factors influencing a migrant's decision to make a move. These models can be useful in structuring policies in case of qualitative research studies like this one. The information in the 'variables in the equation table' provides a clear comparison of the variables and their influences on the dependent variable. Thus while framing the policies, the independent variables can be categorized on the basis of their influences as less significant or more significant and policies can be framed accordingly.

#### **5.4 ISSUE RELATED POLICIES OF MIGRATION**

A Report of UNFPA 2007 postulates that 'no country in the industrial age has achieved significant economic growth without urbanization. Planners, administrators and Policy makers in the Asian countries have mostly considered migration as a welcoming and positive phenomenon. Migration is responsible for many grim issues, yet it cannot be denied and many nations welcome it. However, it is a matter of concern for the policy makers to frame and structure policies that control the formidable gush of migrants into the urban areas and at the same time adopt certain measures that are meant for the welfare of the migrants. While structuring the policies, the Policy makers are challenged with (a) Issues in the urban areas (prolonged consequences of migration), (b) Welfare measures for the migrants, and (c) Measures for rural development. This unit is an effort to discuss a few number of policies for the nation at large and Guwahati city in particular depending on the availability of data in the three fields mentioned above.

## **(A)ISSUES IN THE URBAN AREAS**

The task of over viewing the policies and programmes for the study have been lessened to the main issue of unauthorized settlements that leads to the growth of slum pockets and squatter settlements. The other related issues are shortage of basic amenities, poor living standard, over congestion, etc. However, the study confines to the growth of unauthorized settlements, water and sewerage related problems and road transportation.

### ***Unauthorized settlements (including slums and squatter settlements:***

Unauthorized settlements are housing areas developed without the sanction of the master plan. Delhi, the capital of India hosts massive unauthorized colonies. According to the DDA survey, in 1974 there were 370 unauthorized colonies in Delhi. 71% of the structures in them came up in areas earmarked for district parks, play grounds and open spaces. In Guwahati City, The hills and the wetlands are severely victimized by the unauthorized settlements through illegal encroachments. These hills are mostly inhabited by the tribal poor who were forced to settle in the hills due to forced displacement on account of infrastructural growth in the plains. These have led to serious ecological concerns plaguing the city. There is serious degradation of the hills causing massive erosion, landslides etc. The GMDA's City Master Plan for 2025 states that this degradation is a result of the cutting in to the natural slopes to make land habitable. GMDA therefore, identified these hills as 'eco sensitive zones' and hill settlements on the reserve forest lands as encroachments (GMDA 2009). Degradation of the hills has taken place due to stone quarrying at a large scale (Bera 2011a). Loopholes are found in the system of giving land rights by the Government. On one hand the poor people residing in the Lalmati hill are deprived of Land 'patta' whereas, a ten hectare luxury residential complex called 'Shangri- La' has been sanctioned (Bera 2011a) Some lands on Narakasura hill are also used to make residential complexes.



Along with the hills, the wetlands in the city are also in bad shape. Under the jurisdiction of GMC, The Assam Hill Land and Ecological sites (Preservation and Management) Act, 2006 had been structured to preserve, maintain protect, regulate the hill lands and other ecological sites. The Guwahati Slum Policy of 2009 identified about 24 hill settlements with a population of 5,380 households as slums. The State Govt. was directed by The Ministry of Environment and Forests (MoEF) to evict the encroachments by September 2002 not eligible for land rights (Kumar 2002). The Krishak Mukti Sangram Samiti (KMSS) protested against the evictions in June 2011. However, these protests were of insignificant help to the hill dwellers. The Brihattar Guwahati Mati Pattan Dabi committee (BGMPDC) in Guwahati, 2013 organized for securing land rights of the local people. According to it only the people residing in the plains were given land *pattas* and the hill and the wet land dwellers were deprived of it. Moreover, the 1989 Land Policy has no clear definition of ‘indigenous’ which a big loophole for favoring the rich at the cost of the poor. Although, there is provision of rights for the hill and wetland dwellers in the Forest Reserve Act 2006, it was declared by the Guwahati High Court in 2009 that there are no hill and wetland dwellers in the Reserve Forest lands and once again these people were deprived of their rights.

Guwahati’s wetlands (beels in Assamese), have been degrading at a rapid pace and encroachment can be considered as one of the major factors adding fuel to the problem. A large part of Guwahati has been constructed on these wetlands. After the economic boom in 1990s, these wetlands were sold at very cheap rates. Along the Guwahati Dispur National Highway, there has been a series of growth of commercial complexes and apartments on the wetlands (Bera 2011b). Deepor Beel (in the South-Western part of Guwahati) is facing severe degradation due to Large scale encroachments, quarrying, heavy siltation etc. as a result the Wetland which happened to cover an area of 40 Sq.Km

shrunk to 5 Sq Km (Bera 2011a; 2011b). The Silsakoo Beel (South-Eastern part of the city) which was spread over 120 hectares has shrunk due to indiscriminate construction of multiplex, tennis court, a hotel owned by Tata Group, a hotel management institute and a research institute. Moreover, there were 1,000 huts to the other side of the wetland inhabited by the migrants who were the victims of the collapse of the farm economy in the post-1990s period. (Bera 2011b). The Sola Beel comprising of the Borsola beel lost 20 out of its 85 to 90 bighas and the Sarusala Beel lost 25 bighas out of its 45 bighas (CUE Working Paper, 2014). This is an obvious cause of the flash floods in the city. This is a grim situation that needs attention of the Policy makers. The Guwahati Water Bodies (Preservation and Conservation) Act 2008 notified the Sarusola, Borsola, Deepor, Silsako and Bondajan beels for protection and conservation. However it was not successful in bringing about any positive change.

These unauthorized settlements are the reasons behind the growth of slums and 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. In Mumbai 42% of slums have houses with an area of 10 sqm, 38% have houses between 15 and 20 square meter and only 9% have an area more than 20 sqm. Although 45% of the houses have two or more stories, they are shared by more than one family. Moreover slums are subject to availabilities of rents and an initial deposit to the landlords. Slum dwellers also have to pay informal rents and bribes to local strongman, police and others for basic amenities or just for the right to remain there. (Municipal Corporation of Mumbai, "Mumbai city development plan 2005 - 2025")

As per a survey conducted by Guwahati Municipal Corporation in 2008-09, 93 Nos of slum pockets were identified in 41 wards against 60 nos of total Municipal Wards. (Vide

circular No.GCS/JS/38/07-08/144). This shows a rapidly increasing slum population in the city constituting migrants engaged in the informal sector. (Medhi et al. 1886) in their study of slums in Guwahati City have categorized slums under two groups; temporary and permanent; settled either in Private land or Govt. Municipal land. They identified seven prominent slum areas, and ten smaller slum areas in Guwahati. As per the GMC survey 2012, 217 slum pockets were identified with a population of 1.39 lakh. In the year 2009, a pocket with 25-30 households lacking basic amenities were considered as a slum. However, in 2012, a pocket with 10-12 households without basic amenities was considered as a slum. This could be a reason behind the increasing number of slum pockets in Guwahati (CUE, Working paper2014,)

#### **(A) Welfare Measures for the Urban Poor**

##### ***The Urban Land Ceiling and Regulation Act 1976***

Urban India is plagued by shortages of housing facilities and scarcity of land for social overheads like roads, footpaths, parks, schools and so on. The roots of these problems can be found in the inadequate and inefficient Land policy of the country. In order to prevent concentration of urban land in the hands of a few persons, '*The Urban Land Ceiling and Regulation Act*' was imposed in 1976, during the emergency period. This act was enacted to impose a ceiling on the vacant land on the urban areas to prevent concentration of land with the rich landlords. Chapter III of the Act divided urban agglomerations under 4 categories (A, B, C and D) and no person was allowed to hold land excess to the ceiling limit in the different categories. The ceiling limits were 500 sq m for category A (including cities like Mumbai and Delhi), 1000, 1500 and 2000 sq m respectively for categories B, C and D. The state government formed their own urban land ceiling laws in accordance with the central act. They were given power to acquire

excess land, and the act was considered to be a redistributive measure in the interest of the weaker sections. The act had many loop holes and exemptions. Banks, Religious Trusts, Housing Cooperative Societies, Public Charitable and Religious Trusts, Educational, Cultural, Technical or Scientific Institutions or Clubs and society registered under Societies Registration Act 1860 which used land for nonprofit or noncommercial purposes were exempted from ceiling. This made it possible for the rich landlords to avoid Ceiling (Perspective 2009).

The new system of urban governance (since 80s) has paved way for the Asian metropolises to attract national and multinational companies. These companies are been provided with land at the preferred sites to open land markets. This is done by simplifying the judicial and administrative procedures for changing the land use and by pushing out 'low valued' activities including slums from the city core to the peripheries (Kundu 2009). The Global Report on Human Settlements suggests that 'beautification projects' are one of the most welcoming programme immediately after forced slum demolition. Various Govt. schemes in India have a provision of providing flats and plots to the evicted squatters in the buildings constructed at the original site. However, the poor are not capable of holding on to them due to financial crunches, growing land values and administrative whirlpools. The Assam State Housing Board (ASHB), which was established in 1974, built 1,824 rental housing units all over the city for the Economically Weaker Section (EWS), Low Income Group (LIG), and Middle income Group (MIG) units for Class III and Class IV government employees. However, research revealed that many of these units were occupied by the non-poor families (CUE working Paper 2014).

Various agencies like World Bank, USAID have recommended increase in Floor Space Index (FSI). It is a method of providing space for infrastructural development like

business houses, shopping malls, and other recreational complexes. This recommendation is highly accepted by the local Governments as it is a source of resource generation by selling the extra (FSI) or evicted land. This system of allowing the (FSI) to be traded in the land market far from the core city has been helpful in controlling further in-migration (Kundu et al. 1999).

There have been little studies on slum demolitions in cities of the country in the last one and a half decade. The mushrooming up of the squatter settlements over the last three decades has been a serious concern for the Policy makers.

Rajiv Awas Yojna (RAY), the flagship scheme of the Ministry of Housing and urban Poverty Alleviation (MHUPA), carries the slum free city planning. However, the progress of RAY is very slow and is doubtful of helping the urban poor.

These policies are helpful in demolishing the slums at large There are three broad provisions for slums in government policy –

- “in situ” up gradation - allowed on land which are not demarcated for any specific project. Housing rights are given to occupants. Colonies are regularized but not legalized.
- An environmental improvement of slums is an ad hoc strategy. Water, light and electricity are provided to the occupants on payment, however they don't pay taxes.
- Demolition and reallocation – the resettlements are mostly paperwork and a large proportion of the displaced don't get the alternative housing or land. Moreover the reallocation sites are very far from the city and the residents have to make a long and expensive journey to the city every day for work. They thus come back to be living in conditions even poorer than before.(Perspectives 2009)

These slum dwellers have no property rights which make it impossible for them to use land as collateral. There is thus a need for socialized housing facilities for these people who generally set up shelters on city outskirts usually on public owned lands and dangerous inhabitable lands such as flood plains, river banks, steep slopes or reclaimed lands.

The Government has also introduced various schemes to handle issues of the urban poor like; generation of employment opportunities, construction and up gradation of the slum units, improvement of the living standard of the urban poor and the street vendors. A few such schemes of the Govt. have been discussed below.

*The Swarna Jayanti Shahri Rozgar Yojna (SJSRY):* This scheme was launched in December 1997 with an aim to provide gainful employment to urban unemployed and under-employed poor by encouraging them to set up self-employment ventures.

*Valmiki Ambedkar Awas Yojna (VAAY):* This scheme was launched in 2001 with an objective to improve the living conditions of the urban slum dwellers living below poverty line (BPL) without adequate shelter. This scheme has an objective of constructing and upgrading the dwelling units of the slum dwellers. The scheme also offers healthy environment through community toilets under *Nirmal Bharat Abhiyan*, a component of the scheme. The Centre offers a subsidy of 50 percent and the other 50 percent is arranged by the state governments.

*Smart Cities Mission:* It was launched in June 2015. The scheme aims at people centric urban planning and development to enable better living conditions and drive economic growth. The Atal Mission for Rejuvenation and urban Transformation (AMRUT)

launched in 2015 and Pradhan Mantri Awas Yojna (PMAY) launched in 2015 aim at people centric urban development.

*The National urban livelihood Mission (NULM):* This scheme was launched in September 2013 to reduce poverty of the urban poor households specially the street vendors by providing them with skilled wage employment gainful self employment.

*Urban Planning:* In order to take care of the grievances of the urban poor the Govt. relies on urban planning which is a necessity to deal with the grim consequences that germinate due to urbanization and migration. To cite a few we have an obvious picture of tremendous pressure on the civic infrastructure system like water supply, sewerage and drainage, urban waste management, transport etc. It is thus interesting to realize the 74<sup>th</sup> Amendment Act that includes urban planning.

*The 74<sup>th</sup> Amendment Act 1992* defines the municipality as an “institution of self government constituted under article 243Q” Municipalities were given power under the 12<sup>th</sup> schedule, which included urban planning (town planning), regulation of land use and construction of buildings, planning for economic and social development, water supply for domestic commercial and industrial purposes, slum improvement and up gradation and urban poverty alleviation. All state governments have either enacted new municipal laws or amended the existing laws to conform to the 74<sup>th</sup> Amendment Act. Thus every town, city or semi-urban area in the country comes under the jurisdiction of one or the other ULBs. However, the 74<sup>th</sup> CAA has no revenue base for the ULBs which make the functioning of the ULBs difficult. Another drawback is that the mayors have no executive powers as they are vested with the Commissioners.

*State Municipal Laws* Municipal Laws are very old in India and are not much effective therefore, the Govt. of India in the year 2003, developed the Model Municipal law

(MML). The basic objective of MML is to empower the ULBs by implementing the provisions of the 74<sup>th</sup> CAA.

*Ward committees* The 74<sup>th</sup> CAA enables participation of citizens in urban governance through the formation of ward committees. This is a process for decentralization. The Area Sabhas (AS) is also framed for more participation of general public in urban governance. However, much is just paper work in many states.

*ULBs and parastatals:* To manage water and sewerage services the institutional framework has been divided into (a) the states where the entire system is with a department, (b) where the ULBs handle the entire activity, (c) where exclusive water supply and sewerage boards have been set up (in large cities). These state level organizations are often not accountable to the ULBs.

There are several departments involved in urban planning and Governance in Guwahati city as well. The main ones are Guwahati Municipal Corporation (GMC), Guwahati Metropolitan Development Authority (GMDA) and Guwahati Development Department (GDD). However, no uniform model is followed by the states with regard to area development and provision of amenities in urban areas.

Jawaharlal Nehru National Urban Renewal Mission must be looked at while talking about urban planning (*JNNURM*)

JNNURM was launched by Prime Minister Dr. Manmohan Singh on December 3, 2005. This mission is to provide assistance to state governments and urban local bodies (ULBs) in selected 63 cities of the country with rupees 55,000 cr. Spread over the year 2006-2012. There was a grant of Rs. 184.83 crores as Central govt. grant for JNNURM (CUE Working Paper, 2014).



The mission document clearly states –

- The funds assessed for the different city development plans (CDPs) can't be used to create wage employment.
- Land cause will not be financed.
- Housing to the poor can't be given free of cost.
- Privatization of Public Private Partnership (PPP) will be the preferred mode of implementing projects.
- A reasonable" user fee will be charged from the urban poor for services so as to recover at least 25% of the project cost.
- The onus of minimizing risk for the private investors would be on the state government or urban local bodies.

We can thus say that the JNNURM is the proverbial last nail in the coffin of the urban poor. It is a plan for modernizing the cities of India, a plan to make them world class cities and a plan to throw out the last of the poor from these cities.

*Urban Transport:* The National Urban Transport focuses on the mobility of people rather than mobility of vehicles. This demands the public transport system to be more attractive which means quality services at affordable prices. Bus Rapid Transport (BRT) also has started in 11 cities ( Agarwal, 2009).The NUTP also integrated the urban transport with the land-use planning. The Govt. has approved additional funding for public transport under JNNURM.

Integrated City Making was a research study on integration of transport and land-use planning by Urban Age, (2008), in Mumbai, Kolkata, Delhi and Bangalore. The research says that most of the cities face systematic and behavioral challenges: Rapid urban growth overtakes the planning process resulting in reactive and often outdated plans;

Enforcement is weak and the planning profession is seen as lacking capacity, leading to loss of credibility; Land-use and transport planning are conducted as separate exercises, leading to new development without transport. Therefore, some implications for future policy development include: Creating a single transport authority and integrating this with land-use planning; Ensure implementation through balancing enforcement and negotiation; Create incentives for better integration through funding and political systems; and Use urban design for better cities. With organizational reform, and the creation of new governance structures that recognize cities role, city leaders can put their cities at the forefront of sustainable growth.

### **(C) MEASURES FOR RURAL DEVELOPMENT.**

The third important challenge that the policy makers face is to frame measures for rural development. Some flagship programmes of the Central Govt. for rural India are discussed below;

*Employment Assurance Scheme (EAS):* This scheme was launched in October 1993. The prime objective of the scheme is to create additional wage employment through manual work. The secondary objective is to sustain this employment through creation of durable socio-economic assets. The scheme provides 100 days employment to two adult members in a family in a year. The fund is shared by the central and the state governments on 80:20 basis. The zila Parishad is the implementing authority of the scheme. This scheme was restructured in 1999 as a single wage employment programme.

*Swarnajayanthi Gram Swarojgar Yojna (SGSY):* It is restructuring of The Integrated Rural Development Programme (IRDP) and combining it with schemes like Training Rural-Youth for Self-Employment (TRYSEM), Development of Women and Children in Rural Areas (DWCRA), Supply of Toolkits in Rural areas (SITRA), Ganga Kalyan

Yojna (GKY) and Million Wells Scheme (MWS) under a common banner of SGSY which was launched in April 1999 with an objective to create self-employment through Self-help groups basically for people living below poverty line. It is a holistic approach to cover all aspects of self employment such as organization of poor into self-help groups, training, credit, technology, marketing and infrastructure. The programme focuses on the vulnerable groups such as Scheduled castes, Scheduled tribes, women and disabled with an aim to mobilize them to establish rural enterprises based on their own potential and skill.

*Prime Minister's Employment Generation Programme (PMEGP)*: It was launched in August 2008. It is a credit-linked scheme formed by merging erstwhile Rural Employment Generation Programme (REGP) and Prime-Minister's Rozgar Yojna (PMRY) schemes. Khadi and Village Industries Commission (KVIC) is the nodal agency at the all India level. The main aim is to generate continuous employment opportunities in the rural as well as the urban areas. The scheme is to be implemented by Khadi Village and industries Boards (KVIBs) in the rural areas and District Industries Centre (DICs) in the urban areas.

Table No. 5:23 Target and Achievement of PMRY/PMEGP for 2006-07 to 2010-2011.

<b>Heads</b>	<b>2006-2007 (PMRY)</b>	<b>2007-2009 (PMRY)</b>	<b>2008-2009 (PMEGP)</b>	<b>2009-2010 (PMEGP)</b>	<b>2010-2011 (PMEGP)</b>
Financial Target(in number)	10300	8600	685	1292	3091
Financial Margin (in lakh)			820.22	1550.00	4469.66
Total cases Sanctioned (in lakh)	7873	6742	861	2440	4756

Physical achievement (in number)	5930	5581	617	2440	4756
Financial Achievement (in Lakh)	4305.98	5354.97	676.95	1899.71	4801.10
% of physical achievement	57.54	64	90.07	189	148.95
% of financial achievement			82.53	122.56	

Source: Directorate of Industries and Commerce

*Mahatma Gandhi National Rural Employment Guarantee Act (MGNREGA):* It guarantees 100 days work to the adult members of the rural households in a financial year who are ready to do unskilled work. This is also a step to make them realize their right to work. This is a hope to enhance people's livelihood on a sustained basis by developing the socio-economic infrastructure in the rural areas. It was implemented in 7 districts of Assam in February 2006. During 2008-09 all the other districts were covered under this scheme. Under this scheme 37.7 lakh job cards were issued till 2010-2011 and 358.29 lakh man days were generated.

*Pradhan Mantri Gram Sadak Yojna (PMGSY):* This scheme was launched in December 2000 and it comes under the ministry of rural development. The main aim is to provide roads in the villages with a population of; (1) 1,000 persons and above by 2003 (2) 500 persons and above by 2007 (3) Population of 500 and above by 2003 in the hills, tribal and desert areas. (4) a population of 250 and above in the hills and desert areas by 2007. The objective was to provide all weather road-connectivity in all rural areas. As per an article by Damodaran Harish (Indian Express, 2016) PMGSY has provided connectivity

over 4, 66,044 km- Including up gradation of 1, 67,977 km of existing roads at an aggregate cost of Rs 1, 41,822 crores as on January 2016. However the real story lies in not how much but where these roads have been built. The states that have recorded the highest road construction are; Madhya Pradesh (63,548 Km), followed by Rajasthan (58,462 Km), Uttar Pradesh (45,905 Km), Bihar (35,510 Km) and odisha (35, 019 Km). PMGSY represents a rare public programme that qualifies as a success in terms of equity and efficiency objectives. It is yet to attract the mainstream attention of the reformists.

*Samagra Awas Yojna (SMY)*: It was launched in 1999-2000. The main objective of the scheme is to bring improvement in the quality of living of the people with a target to improve the rural habitat. It aims at providing integrated provision of shelter, sanitation and drinking water. *Pradhan Mantri Gramodaya Yojna (PMGY)*: This scheme was launched in 2000-2001 with an objective of sustainable human development at the village level. It focuses on five priority areas; primary health, primary education, rural shelter, rural drinking water, and nutrition. It envisages the allocation of the additional central funds to the states for basic minimum needs.

*Sampoorna Grameen Rozgar Yojna (SGRY)*: It was launched in September 2001 by merging the erstwhile schemes of Jawahar Gram Samridhi Yojna (JGSY) and Employment Assurance Scheme (EAS). The main objective of the scheme is to provide additional wage employment in the villages and food security, along with creation of socio-economic infrastructure in the rural areas. This scheme is open to all the rural poor who are in need of wage employment and are ready to do manual work.

*Rural Housing Schemes* like; *Indira Awas Yojna (IAY)*: It aims at providing dwelling units to the poor SC/ST families, Non SC/ST living below poverty line, free bonded labourers in the rural areas. This scheme is funded on a cost sharing basis of 75: 25

between the centre and the states. Since 2001 up to March 12334 houses were constructed in Kamrup district and 6464 houses were upgrsded under IAY. During 2009-10, 181162 houses were constructed against the target of 240446 houses. The failure to achieve the target was due to shortage of funds and delay of receipt of funds.

*Antyodaya Anna Yojna (AAY)*: It was launched in December 2000. Under this scheme one crore families living below poverty line (BPL) under the targeted PDS are identified and 25 kg of food grains are made available to each eligible family at a highly subsidized rate of Rs 2 per Kg of wheat and 3 per kg of rice. In 2002 the quantity was enhanced to 35 kg.

*National rural Livelihood Mission (NRLM)*: This scheme was launched in June 2011 under the Ministry of Rural Development. The main objective of the scheme is to organize the rural poor into SHGs and make them capable for self-employment. The main idea is to develop better livelihood options for the poor.

*Deen dayal Upadhaya Grameen Kaushalya Yojna (DDUGKY)*: It was launched in 2015 and it is a Govt. of India project to involve the rural youth below poverty line and from the SC/ST segment through sill and training programmes.

*Grameen Bhandaran Yojna (GBY)*: This scheme was launched in March, 2007. The main objective of the scheme is to create scientific storage capacity with allied facilities in the rural areas. The main aim of the scheme is to meet with the requirements of the farmers for storing farm produce, processed farm produce, and farm inputs. The scheme also aims at promotion of grading, standardization and quality control of the agricultural produce. The main area of focus is agriculture.

*Rajiv Gandhi Grameen Vidyutikaran Yojna (RGVY):* This scheme was launched in 2005 for creation of rural electricity infrastructure and household electrification for providing electricity to rural households. However, this scheme was replaced by the *Deen Dayal Upadhaya Gram Jyoti Yojna (DDUGJY)* which was launched in 2015.

*Integrated Wasteland Development Programme (IWDP)/HARIYALI:* The main objective of the programme is to make land feasible for agricultural production by developing the top soil of the degraded wasteland. Till the end of 2008-2009, 135 projects were implemented and completed across the state out of 149 sanctioned projects.

*Assam Bikash Yojna (ABY):* This scheme incorporates the Chief Minister's Self employment Scheme (CMSS) and Vocational training. This scheme was launched in 2008-2009. Under the CMSS scheme the unemployed educated youth are sent for a period of six months apprenticeship training in reputed industrial units. During the training period the trainees are provided with a stipend of Rs 4500 per month by the Govt. of Assam. They learn the skill and the organization receives labour free of cost. For the implementation of CMSS the Govt. sanctioned and released 50 lakhs in 2009-10 and 30 lakh for the year 2010-11.

In case of the vocational training scheme, the state government bears the entire cost and the uneducated youths are provided with one month, one and a half month, three months, six months, and nine months up to one year of training in their interested fields. In order to implement the vocational training scheme the Govt. sanctioned 151.05 lakh in 2009-10 and 120 lakh for the 2010-11. However, the number of trainees absorbed is highly insignificant. In 2008-2009, under CMSS only 70 numbers of trainees got absorbed against 130 trainees who completed the training, 50 trainees got placed in 2009-10 against 127 trainees who completed the training and only 5 got placed against 18 trainees

who completed the course in 2010-11(Directorate of Industries and Commerce, Assam).This number is insignificant when compared to the cost incurred in the arranging the course.

*Mukhyamantrir Karmajyoti Aachani (MKJA)*: This scheme is sponsored by the state Govt. and was launched in the year 2005-2006. The prime focus of the scheme is to uplift the traditional trade of Assam like; pottery, carpentry, textile, black smith etc through financial assistance from the Government. Under this scheme during 2010-2011, 640 artisans were benefitted with a financial assistance of 113.82 lakh in Kamrup district.

### ***Effectiveness of these Policies/Schemes***

In order to know the effectiveness of these policies, the study makes an attempt to find out the improvement in areas of; education and health, real wages, employment and Poverty, and infrastructural development; (access to; housing, sanitation, drinking water, electricity, road connectivity and banking services) in rural India. The data have been collected from the official estimates approved by the Planning Commission and studies conducted by various researchers.

*Education and Health*: In a study conducted by Mahendra S (2004) India's overall literacy rate increased from around 17 percent in 1951 to 65 percent in 2001. Literacy in the rural areas increased from 36 percent in 1981 to 59 percent in 2001. Literacy in the urban areas in the same period increased from 67 percent to 80 percent. In the last two decades the rural-urban gap declined from 31 to 21 percentage points. Female's literacy rates also increased but still around 53 percent rural females were illiterates in 2001. Moreover, 30 to 33 percent rural-girls in the age group of 6-14 did not attend school in 1999-00. And also among the SC/ST 40 to 45 percent girls were not attending school. The interstate disparities in literacy and education are worth mentioning. In Kerala the



rural female literacy rate was 87 percent as compared to 30 percent in Bihar in the year 2001. In the same study he gives a picture of the rural health in India.

*Rural Health:* The life expectancy in the rural areas in 1992 to 1996 was 59, while in the urban India it was 66. The gap is narrowing down yet it has to make up for seven years. The infant mortality rate in the rural areas was 74 while in urban areas it was 43. In the post-liberalization period, infant mortality rate shows a slow decline as compared to the urban areas. The health indicators for various social groups reveal that they are much lower among SCs/STs. The percentage of under-nutrition was also higher among them. Moreover, 70 percent of births are not attended to by professionals.

*Real wages and Employment:* Healthy growth of real agricultural wages is a sufficient condition for significant reduction in poverty in the rural areas (Deaton and Dreze, 2002). In a study conducted by Mahendra S Dev (2004), at the all India level, the growth of real agricultural wages declined from about 5 percent annually in 1980s to 2.5 percent per annum in the 1990s. The states that managed to have a real wages more than 2.5 percent are; (Gujrat, Karnataka, Kerala and Tamil Nadu). On the other hand the entire eastern region (Assam Odisha, West Bengal and Bihar), and Madhya Pradesh and Andhra Pradesh experienced low growth in agricultural wages and lower reduction in poverty.

In a separate study conducted by Chavan and Bedmatta (2003), reveal that during 1983 to 1987-88, real daily earnings of agricultural labourers recorded the highest growth in almost all states in India. The study also reveals that the daily labour earnings of the males were higher than the minimum wages in majority of the states. However, in case of females the daily earnings were less than the minimum wages which reflects significant gender disparities in wages.

*Poverty:* The official estimates show that rural poverty declined from 45.7 percent in 1983 to 37.3 percent in 1993-94. It declined by 8.4 percentage points over a period of more than a half decade. It declined by 0.8 percentage points per annum. In the post-reform period it declined from 37.3 percent to 27.1 percent. Thus, over the 6 year period it declined by 10.2 percentage points. It declined by 1.7 percentage points per annum. The rate of decline was higher in 1990s than 1980s.

According to the Ministry of Rural Development (2001), 26.1 percent of India's population lives below poverty line in absolute terms. This number is 260 million. In the rural areas the proportion of poor is 27 percent and 23.6 percent in the urban areas

According to the estimates (based on 55<sup>th</sup> round estimates) given by Deaton and Dreze (2002), the reduction in rural poverty during 1993-94 and 1999-2000 was similar to that of the changes between 1987-88 and 1993-94. In both the periods rural poverty declined by 6 to 7 percentage points.

*Housing:* According to the 58<sup>th</sup> round of NSS data, in the year 2002 only 36 percent of rural households lived in *pucca* houses (houses made of solid material), 43 percent lived in *semi-pucca* houses and 21 percent lived in *kutcha* houses (houses made of loose materials). In comparison 77 percent of the urban households lived in pucca houses, 20 percent in semi-pucca houses and 3 percent in kutcha houses. This is indicative of the deplorable conditions of the rural people in Indian states.

*Access to sanitation:* As per Census 2001, just 36 percent of all households in India had toilet facilities within the house. The rural-urban disparity in this regard is significantly grim revealing only 22.8 percent rural households having toilet facilities within the house as compared to 70.4 percent urban households having this facility. Hardly 30 percent of the total wastewater is treated before disposal.

*Access to Drinking Water:* According to the Census of India, any household having an access to drinking water supplied from a tap/hand pump/or a tube well situated within or outside the premises is considered to be having an access to safe drinking water. Based on this definition as per te Census 2001, 62 percent of all rural households had an access to safe drinking water in contrast to 83 percent of urban households. The contrast becomes sharp after inclusion of piped water as a source of safe drinking water. Only 24.3 percent rural households have an access to piped water as compared to 68.7 percent of urban households.

*Access to Electricity:* According to a study conducted by S. Rajagopalan (2010), a high proportion of India's villages (approximately 6.38 villages) literally live in darkness. The proportion of rural households having access to electricity was just 48 percent in 1998-99, and 91 percent of the urban households had an access to electricity. The overall figure for the country was just 60 percent. This perennially short supply of electricity severely paralyzes life in rural India.

*Road Connectivity:* In a study by S Rajagopalan (2010) 40 percent of the villages in India lack access to all weather-roads and over 50 percent of villages with population than 1,000 are yet to be connected by roads. This is indeed a very grim situation reflecting the rural-urban disparity in India.

According to NHDR (2001), a well developed road network can shrink physical space by enabling people to move freely from one place to another. Roads play a very significant role in bridging the rural urban disparities and linking them by facilitating trade, commerce, labour mobility, and mobility for health and education.

*Access to banking services:* According to a study conducted by Saugata Bhattacharya (2006) barely 36 percent of all households in India have an access to banking services.

Seeing it from the rural-urban perspectives, 30 percent of the rural households are reported to have an access to banking services compared to 50 percent of urban households. Although 68 percent of the 70,324 bank offices in 2005 were in rural and semi-urban areas, their share of deposits and credit were only 29.1 percent and 20.5 percent respectively. The lack of financial services is a reason behind the growth of microfinance. Various microfinance models that are in vogue are Grameen Bank and Self-help Groups.

Conclusion: From the above study it is clear that although, a long list of schemes is undertaken by the Govt. for the development of the rural and urban areas, yet, their success is doubtful and insignificant. The ground reality of the effectiveness of Most of the policies is mere paper work that fails to percolate to the downtrodden. Good Governance has a key role to play in the economic growth and human development of a place. There have been many reforms in this regard but the bitter truth is that in spite of these reforms, improvement at the ground level is hardly visible. A more participatory approach adopted by the people, whole hearted involvement of the Panchayats, reduction in corruption, easy access to funds etc. can be helpful in rural development. Once the rural areas are developed migration to the urban core would automatically get controlled. Consequently the issues in the urban areas would be controlled to a great extent. The suggestive measures are incorporated in Chapter 6 in policy implications for the study as a whole.