CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION
1.1 Introduction:

Migration is the movement of people from one geographical location to another, involving permanent or temporary settlement. The region where people are leaving is referred to as the source region whereas the region to which people are entering is known as destination region. While rural-urban migration is the movement of people from rural areas (villages) to urban centres (cities). One noticeable aspect in the society today is the rate at which people migrate from the rural to the urban centres. While the urban centres are increasing in population, the rural areas are decreasing in population. The migration literature has come to regard rural-urban migration as “the major contributing factor to the ubiquitous phenomenon of urban surplus labour and as a force which continues to exacerbate already serious urban unemployment problems” (Todaro, 1976). Population growth in urban areas has soared over the last few decades. For instance, the United Nations documents that 40% of the total least developed country’s population lived in urban areas in 2000, compared to 26.1% in 1975. More specifically, 34% of the 2000 Sub-Saharan African population was urban – a jump of more than 62% over the 15 years (Cornwell and Inder, 2004).

Migration theory put is that migration is stimulated primarily by economic implications. The theory explains that the decision to migrate would depend upon expected higher wages (real wage differentials) and the probability of successfully obtaining an urban job. Lee (1966), theory argues that migration is due to pull and push factors. Pull factors refer to better employment, higher wages, better life conditions, and good health and education opportunities at destinations. On the other hand, migration is impelled by push (distress) factors at home such as lack of employment,
low wage rates, agricultural failure, debt, drought and other natural calamities. As the economic, political and social activities have intensified in Bahir Dar town (the capital of Amhara Region), it has become the destination of many labour migrants. A large number of internal migrants work in urban informal sectors as casual labourers, and porters, and are employed temporarily in the construction and service sectors. Similarly, thousands of people migrate from their rural homeland villages to urban centers, for employment. This type of migration is undertaken in both normal and poor agricultural seasons in order to diversify household incomes and as coping strategies against various risks. Recent years, unemployment, frequent crop failure, indebtedness, inadequate credit facilities, lack of alternative opportunities, droughts and poverty level in rural areas has been increasing, thereby leading to despair or distress conditions in the rural sector. As a result, the rural poor, labour and marginal and small farming communities are on the move, temporarily leaving their homes in search of employment and livelihood in other prosperous rural and/or urban areas in the country (Smita, 2007).

Historically, rural to urban migration has played a significant role in the urbanization process of several countries and continues to be significant in scale, even though migration rates have slowed down in some countries (Lall, Selod and Shalizi, 2006). Today almost half the world population lives in cities and the number of people living in urban areas has risen steadily by around 1 million every year (Bahns, 2005). According to a report from the United Nations Population Division (2003), the urban population is estimated to grow at 1.8 percent per annum, while total population rate is projected to be 1 per cent annually. This would result in an urban population of 5 billion, or 61 per cent, by 2030. The rural population on the other hand is expected to decrease from 3.3 to 3.2 billion between 2003 and 2030. Large scale urbanization is nothing unusual when seen from a historical viewpoint. Previously, it has taken place in Europe
during the industrialization period. Today, however, most cities in the developed countries grow very slowly and city size may even be reduced. As the population of an economy becomes wealthier, many prefer to live in the cleaner and quieter environments of the countryside. Thus, employees need to commute into cities for work, for which the necessary requirements, such as public transport or individual car ownership, are only given in more developed countries. Cities in developing countries, on the other hand, still continue to grow. Only the pace is two to five times faster than it was in the European countries during the period of industrialisation (Kojima, 1996).

1.2 ORIGIN AND HISTORY OF INTERNAL MIGRATION

Pre-modern migrations: Early humans migrated due to many factors such as changing climate and landscape and inadequate food supply. The evidence indicates that the ancestors of the Austronesian peoples spread from the South Chinese mainland to Taiwan at some time around 8,000 years ago. Evidence from historical linguistics suggests that it is from this island that seafaring peoples migrated, perhaps in distinct waves separated by millennia, to the entire region encompassed by the Austronesian languages. It is believed that this migration began around 6,000 years ago. Indo-Aryan migration from the Indus Valley to the plain of the River Ganges in Northern India is presumed to have taken place in the Middle to Late Bronze Age, contemporary to the Late Harappan phase in India (ca. 1700 to 1300 BC). From 180 BC, a series of invasions from Central Asia followed, including those led by the Indo-Greeks, Indo-Scythians, Indo-Parthians and Kushans in the northwestern Indian subcontinent.

From 728 BC, the Greeks began 250 years of expansion, settling colonies in several places, including Sicily and Marseille. In Europe, two waves of migrations dominate demographic distributions, that of the Celtic people and that of the later Migration Period from the North and East, both being possible examples of general cultural change sparked by primarily
elite and warrior migration.\cite{citation_needed} Other examples are small movements like that of the Magyars into Pannonia (modern-day Hungary). Turkic peoples spread from their homeland in modern Turkestan across most of Central Asia into Europe and the Middle East between the 6th and 11th centuries. Recent research suggests that Madagascar was uninhabited until Austronesian seafarers from Indonesia arrived during the 5th and 6th centuries AD. Subsequent migrations from both the Pacific and Africa further consolidated this original mixture, and Malagasy people emerged.

**Industrialisation and the Rise of Nationalism/ Imperialism:**

Industrialisation encouraged migration wherever it appeared. The increasingly global economy globalised the labour market. The Atlantic slave trade diminished sharply after 1820, which gave rise to self-bound contract labour migration from Europe and Asia to plantations. Overpopulation \cite{citation_needed}, open agricultural frontiers, and rising industrial centres attracted voluntary migrants. Moreover, migration was significantly made easier by improved transportation techniques. Romantic nationalism also rose in the 19th century, and, with it, ethnocentrism. The great European industrial empires also rose. Both factors contributed to migration, as some countries favoured their own ethnicities over outsiders and other countries appeared to be considerably more welcoming. For example, the Russian Empire identified with Eastern Orthodoxy, and confined Jews, who were not Eastern Orthodox, to the Pale of Settlement and imposed restrictions. Violence was also a problem. The United States was promoted as a better location, a "golden land" where Jews could live more openly. Another effect of imperialism, colonialism, led to the migration of some colonising parties from "home countries" to "the colonies", and eventually the migration of people from "colonies" to "home countries".

Transnational labour migration reached a peak of three million
migrants per year in the early twentieth century. Italy, Norway, Ireland and the Guangdong region of China were regions with especially high emigration rates during these years. These large migration flows influenced the process of nation state formation in many ways. Immigration restrictions have been developed, as well as diaspora cultures and myths that reflect the importance of migration to the foundation of certain nations, like the American melting pot. The transnational labour migration fell to a lower level from the 1930s to the 1960s and then rebounded.

The United States experienced considerable internal migration related to industrialisation, including its African American population. From 1910 to 1970, approximately 7 million African Americans migrated from the rural Southern United States, where blacks faced both poor economic opportunities and considerable political and social prejudice, to the industrial cities of the Northeast, Midwest and West, where relatively well-paid jobs were available. This phenomenon came to be known in the United States as its own Great Migration, although historians today consider the migration to have two distinct phases. The term "Great Migration", without a qualifier, is now most often used to refer the first phase, which ended roughly at the time of the Great Depression. The second phase, lasting roughly from the start of U.S. involvement in World War II to 1970, is now called the Second Great Migration. With the demise of legalised segregation in the 1960s and greatly improved economic opportunities in the South in the subsequent decades, millions of blacks have returned to the South from other parts of the country since 1980 in what has been called the New Great Migration.

The World Wars and Their Aftermath: The First and Second World Wars, and wars, genocides, and crises sparked by them, had an enormous impact on migration. Muslims moved from the Balkan to Turkey, while Christians moved the other way, during the collapse of the Ottoman Empire. In April 1915 the Ottoman government embarked upon the systematic
decimation of its civilian Armenian population. The persecutions continued with varying intensity until 1923 when the Ottoman Empire ceased to exist and was replaced by the Republic of Turkey. The Armenian population of the Ottoman state was reported at about two million in 1915. An estimated one million had perished by 1918, while hundreds of thousands had become homeless and stateless refugees. By 1923 virtually the entire Armenian population of Anatolian Turkey had disappeared. The entries in this section are authored by Rouben Paul Adalian. They appear in the Encyclopedia of Genocide, Israel W. Charny, editor-in-chief, Santa Barbara, California: ABC-CLIO, 1999. Four hundred thousand Jews had already moved to Palestine in the early twentieth century, and numerous Jews to America, as already mentioned. The Russian Civil War caused some three million Russians, Poles, and Germans to migrate out of the new Soviet Union. Decolonisation following the Second World War also caused migrations.

**India-Pakistan migration:** In 1947, upon the Partition of India, large populations moved from India to Pakistan and vice versa, depending on their religious beliefs. The partition was promulgated in the Indian Independence Act 1947 as a result of the dissolution of the British Indian Empire. The partition displaced up to 17 million people in the former British Indian Empire, with estimates of loss of life varying from several hundred thousand to a million. Muslim residents of the former British India migrated to Pakistan (including East Pakistan, now Bangladesh), whilst Hindu and Sikh residents of Pakistan and Hindu residents of East Pakistan (now Bangladesh) moved in the opposite direction.

In modern India, estimates based on industry sectors mainly employing migrants suggest that there are around 100 million circular migrants in India. Caste, social networks and historical precedents play a powerful role in shaping patterns of migration. Migration for the poor is mainly circular, as despite moving temporarily to urban areas, they lack the social security which might keep them there more permanently. They are
also keen to maintain a foothold in home areas during the agricultural season.

Research by the Overseas Development Institute identifies a rapid movement of labour from slower- to faster-growing parts of the economy. Migrants can often find themselves excluded by urban housing policies, and migrant support initiatives are needed to give workers improved access to market information, certification of identity, housing and education.

In the riots which preceded the partition in the Punjab region, between 200,000 to 500,000 people were killed in the retributive genocide. UNHCR estimates 14 million Hindus, Sikhs and Muslims were displaced during the partition. Scholars call it the largest mass migration in human history Nigel Smith, in his book *Pakistan: History, Culture, and Government*, calls it "history's greatest migration.

### 1.3 Types of Migration

Migration takes place in many forms, including so called forced and voluntary movement. In the 20th century economically motivated migration (voluntary) predominated and in response to the gradual hardening of policies to migration, unofficial but voluntary and economically inspired movement also became more evident. While precise figures for the people moving for economic remain elusive, it is estimated that over 200 million people move every year to find work and a better life of these 30 million are so called unofficial. Economically motivated migration assumes other additional permutations too, some people move with the intention of setting and beginning new lives. Others move to countries with the intention of staying long enough to earn sufficient money before returning home, some move with contractual agreement and hence coverage for the period of employment. Others move in a more unregistered way, but find work and stay for periods of indeterminate duration. Each of these forms of
economically motivated migration has the capacity to present its own new challenges. Some of those challenges are related to where people come from, where they go and how they move. Many of their challenges are also a function of national policies and social attitudes to migrants and their living conditions.

It would be irresponsible not to acknowledge that the number of people forced to move for reasons of conflict and political repression also grew over the course of the last century and has continued to take diverse forms. People continued to flee across borders and become refugees with UN protection, while at much the same time millions of others were forced to flee from their own borders, often without any international or national protection. The social and health care implications of forced migration are always severe and far-reaching. Over the course of the last fifty years international tourism also became an increasingly dominant form of movement across borders. The World Tourist Organization estimates that by the year 2010 more than 10 billion people will be travelling for purposes of leisure, and a large part of this movement will involve long-haul flights across different ecological and health zones. Health policies with regard to tourism have been more relaxed than with other type of migration, but the health implications of tourist travel should not be discounted, for they are often involve considerable morbidity.

The letter part of the 20th century also saw international education become a source of organized migration and a major industry that in the United States of America alone amounts to more than $12 billion a year. In Europe and Australia it is also becoming an important source revenue and involving inter-cultural travel that inevitably brings with it implications for health for students who move into new and often difficult psychological conditions. The migrating people, whether emigrants or immigrants or foreign seasonal workers, have been of marginal interest to American
1.4 CONCEPT, MEANING AND DEFINITION OF INTERNAL MIGRATION

The concept of internal migration is most usually associated with agricultural labour it often involves change in residence for short or reasonably long period though migrant labourers are found everywhere in the world India has probably more migrant workers than any other Asian country; these are involved mainly in the harvesting of plantation crops such as tea, cotton, rice and sugarcane (Lahari 1984) the seasonal migration of rural labour is thus as important ingredient of rural to rural migration in India internal migration of agricultural labour seems to be promoted more by the ‘push’ factor rather than the ‘pull’ factor. It is a well known fact that agricultural labourers move out in the off season in search of livelihood because of lack of opportunities in the place of their origin. Levels than those not sending migrants. On the other hand, Kothari's (2002) review of migration studies finds that migration can both reduce and perpetuate poverty. Nevertheless, the dominant perception of migration among policy-makers, academics and officials in India continues to be that migration is
only for survival and that migrants remain poor. The image of the migrant continues to be that of a powerless, impoverished and emaciated person who is trapped in poverty.

**Meaning:** Internal migration refers to people within a country moving to another location within its borders, whereas external migration, also known as international migration, refers to the act of migration across borders from one country to another. Usually, the motivations for internal and external migration differ.

Migration processes have been existent throughout all times and in all regions of the world. While the original triggering in former times had been the search for more favorable conditions and not yet or only sparsely populated living spaces, patterns of migration underwent many changes since industrialization. In Europe the period in the 18th century was marked by a migration waves from the countryside to urban areas in unprecedented form and extent. But in comparison to European migration and urbanization processes as we know them the developments in developing countries are of a whole different dimension. Population and rates of population growth are by far higher than they had been in Europe which leads to increasing dynamic urbanization but also severe side effects.

In most of the so-called developing countries employment possibilities and housing facilities are not sufficient at all to absorb the huge influx of people moving into the cities. While European cities had been able to at least offer enough jobs to incoming migrants many cities in Africa, Latin America or Asia face severe problems like unemployment, poverty, pollution or crime.

The reasons for internal migration are often educational or economic. For example, in the 19th century, many people migrated from the east coast
to the west coast of the United States to take advantage of economic opportunities. External migration happens for educational or economic reasons as well, but often, it is politically motivated. International migrants are sometimes refugees or asylum seekers fleeing war, natural disasters, religious or political discrimination. Temporary external migrants move for only a fixed period of time, such as a work contract, program of study or cessation of an armed conflict. Permanent external migrants plan to obtain citizenship or at least gain permanent residency in the country to which they move.

1.5 CAUSES AND NEGATIVE EFFECTS OF INTERNAL MIGRATION

Rural-urban migration is the movement of people from rural area to urban area for search of high paying non-agricultural employment and other incentives.

The following are causes of Internal migration: Searching of jobs in urban areas where opportunities of employment are high due to location of industries in these areas. Low prices for agricultural product. this makes the income for people living in rural areas low since agriculture is the major source of income in rural areas. Nature of education system. In many countries higher learning institution are located in towns making many youth to migrate to towns when they reach college going age. Insecurity in some rural areas. In many countries security organs are concentrated in towns making remote rural areas less secure. Social services gap between rural and urban areas. In many countries social services facilities such as referral hospital are located in urban areas making them more attractive to rural urban dwellers. Wage gap between rural and urban areas, many jobs in urban areas are paying higher wages than the same jobs in rural areas, making people to move to urban areas for search of higher wages.
The following are negative consequence of Internal migration: It deprive rural areas of labour in agricultural areas It increase the prices of commodities, housing and transport in urban areas. It increase the rate of unemployment in urban areas since all not all people who come to town to seek employment will be employed Economic decline in rural areas because the resources are not utilized due to labour shortage. Breaking of family and cultural bond in rural areas. It leads to shortage of social services in urban areas due to increase in population caused by this migration

Major Causes of Migration in India: Migrations are caused by a variety of factors including economic, social and political factors. They are briefly described as under.

Marriage: Marriage is a very important social factor of migration. Every girl has to migrate to her in-law’s place of residence after marriage. Thus, the entire female population of India has to migrate over short or long distance. Among the people who shifted their resistance more than half (56.1%) moved due to marriage in 1991.

Employment: People migrate in large number from rural to urban areas in search of employment. The agricultural base of rural areas does not provide employment to all the people living there. Even the small-scale and cottage industries of the villages fail to provide employment to the entire rural folk. Contrary to this, urban areas provide vast scope for employment in industries, trade, transport and services. About 8.8 per cent of migrants migrated for employment in 1991.

Education: Rural areas, by and large, lack educational facilities, especially those of higher education and rural people have to migrate to the urban centres for this purpose. Many of them settle down in the cities for earning a livelihood after completing their education.

Lack of Security: Political disturbances and interethnic conflicts drive
people away from their homes. Large number of people has migrated out of Jammu and Kashmir and Assam during the last few years due to disturbed conditions there. People also migrate on a short-term basis in search of better opportunities for recreation, health care facilities, and legal advices or for availing service which the nearby towns provide. Table 12.1 gives an idea of impact of different reasons on migration.

‘Pull’ and ‘Push’ Factors: Urban centres provide vast scope for employment in industries, transport, trade and other services. They also offer modern facilities of life. Thus, they act as ‘magnets’ for the migrant population and attract people from outside. In other words, cities pull people from other areas. This is known as “pull factor”. People also migrate due to ‘push factors’ such as unemployment, hunger and starvation. When they do not find means of livelihood in their home villages, they are ‘pushed’ out to the nearby or distant towns. Millions of people who migrated from their far-off villages to the big cities of Kolkata, Mumbai or Delhi did so because these cities offered them some promise for a better living. Their home villages had virtually rejected them as surplus population which the rural resources of land were not able to sustain any longer.

Rural-urban migration is a form of so-called internal migration which means a movement within a country and which stays in contrast to international or intercontinental migration. It refers to the movement of people from the countryside respectively the rural areas into the cities, often the metropolitan cities of a country. This change of residence is often connected with the migration of labor and a career change from primary to second or third sector - not necessarily, though, as it can refer to the migration of people who are not working in agriculture or farming as well.

It is obvious that these developments always show their two sides: one side or the area of destination gains population whereas the other side
respectively the area of origin looses people. One always has to keep that in mind because interaction, networking and communication between both sides are absolutely necessary in trying to achieve a balanced development of both rural and urban areas (c.f. ST DUNSTAN'S COMMUNITY SCHOOL) There are different reasons that cause rural-urban migration in developing countries - they are the so-called push and pull factors. They can be seen as a simultaneous analysis of factors that force migrants out of rural areas (push-factors) and factors that attract migrants to urban areas. Factors and determinants of migration are rather diverse and they can be split up in economic and non-economic reasons:

- economic push factors include unemployment or underemployment in rural areas, low wages and no assets as well as lack of land, which is sometimes due to inheritance systems that split the land among a large number of people, making it less productive- non-economic push factors play an additional role and mainly include a poor rural infrastructure in general, i.e. poor living conditions referring to housing, education possibilities and healthcare; furthermore aspects of agricultural change like modernization of farming, new techniques and machines as well as economic reforms in general cause less demand of labor in the agricultural sector and therefore it causes people to search for new job opportunities; additional factors that act as push factors are natural disasters, drought or famine, war and conflicts (esp. in Africa) that in most of the times affect rural areas by destroying most of their belongings and farm land and therewith their livelihood

- economic pull factors include factors that attract people to move into the cities which are mainly the counterparts of the push factors: rural migrants hope for employment and higher wages in the cities caused by a higher demand of labor there in general, due to economic growth

- non-economic pull factors include social factors such as the hope for
better healthcare and education provision or the urban facilities and way of life in general as well as factors like protection from conflicts, family reunion and family networks (i.e. that it is easier and more likely for people to migrate if they have relatives in town) (c.f. GEBHARDT et al. 2007: 291).

1.6 Effects of Internal migration

Rural to urban migration reduces population in rural areas, which decreases farming activities, leading to food insecurity. BBC notes that rural to urban migration can lead to child labor when many young males leave for cities in search of employment. This causes a drop in school enrollment. Rural to urban migration also causes overcrowding in urban centers, which leads to a strain on social amenities.

In this regard, rural-urban migration results from the search for perceived or real opportunities as a consequence of rural-urban inequality in wealth [11, 12]. This inequality and/or urban bias in development according to research findings over the years results from the overwhelming concentration of wealth, assets, purchasing capacity, economic activities, and variety of services in the urban centres as well as the continued neglect and degradation of rural environments or areas [13–26].

Migration has also been identified as a survival strategy utilized by the poor, especially the rural dwellers. The assessment of the effects of migration on rural areas has remained relevant since migration acts as a catalyst in the transformation process of not only the destiny of individual migrants but also the conditions of family members left behind, local communities, and the wider sending regions. One significant source of development for the rural populace as a result of this increasing drift towards the cities is remittances. Recently, migrants’ remittances and the income multipliers they create are becoming critical resources for the sustenance strategies of receiving households as well as agents of regional
and national development [27]. Households that receive these remittances tend to use the proceeds primarily for current consumption (food, clothing) as well as investments in children’s education, health care, improvement in household food and security, and water and sanitation. Nevertheless, the ability of remittances to compensate the labour shortage in rural areas is still a function of the amounts and value of remittances received by migrants’ households at home, especially in the developing countries.

With these push and pull factors in mind one can imagine that there are crucial changes and results in both areas of origin and destination caused by these movements from the countryside to the city. The increasing numbers of people moving towards the large urban areas cause three things to happen.

First - urban growth which means that towns and cities are spatially expanding. They cover an increasing area of land, mainly because there aren’t enough housing facilities in the city itself so that new incomers often have to move to shanty towns that are increasing in size and number.

Second - urbanization which refers to the fact of a significant increase in the proportion of people living in cities in the total population.

Third - rural depopulation which usually means that large numbers of working age people migrate from the countryside to earn more money in the city. But then they leave behind the very old and the very young, causing further problems in rural development as the young, skilled adults are missing. At the same time it has to be mentioned that rural-urban migration also can have a positive effect on the rural areas namely by the fact that many migrants once settled in a city remit to their family in the rural area of origin - money that could contribute to further development in the village of origin (c.f. ST DUNSTAN'S COMMUNITY SCHOOL).
What can be stated at this point is that the attraction to urban areas is high because people think that they will have better opportunities to work there. Indeed, for some of them life becomes better and living conditions improve. However, a lot of migrants end up in poverty because many cities are not able to absorb the large influx of new residents in a proper way. This leads to the association of rural-urban-migration with problems like poverty, insufficient sanitary conditions, sub-standard housing, growth of slums and shanty towns increasing air pollution, congestion, crime or insecurity. Which of these factors are more challenging and urgent is regionally different (for instance, China quotes air pollution, crime and congestion as negative consequences whereas Ghana presents slums, poverty and lower quantity and quality as the main issues).

Obviously, there is no universally valid evidence possible about the question who migrates most. Still the migration decision has shown to be somehow selective in society. It mainly concerns young adults who already have relatives in town, because “they are more likely to have a positive net expected return on migration due to their longer remaining life expectancy” (LALL et al. 2006: 4). Additionally the internal migration has a gender aspect in many countries as most migrants are young male adults. Usually urban job markets offer a large share of occupations available to rural male migrants; another reason might be the fact that “men bear lower risks of vulnerability than women when migrating” (LALL et al. 2006: 4), as women usually migrate less or to a shorter distance - typically they specialize in different economic activities (services and processing).

1.7 Advantages of Internal migration

Migration is the movement of people from one country or locality to another. Some migration is voluntary and sometimes people are forced to move. The primary reason for voluntary migration is increased economic
opportunities. The International Organization for Migration estimates there are currently 214 million migrants worldwide. Migrations can occur on any level, from intercontinental to intracontinental to interregional, meaning migration within the same country.

**Economic Opportunities** If a person cannot find a job in his local area, the best option may be to look for a job in another place. A migrant may have a job, but he may want to move to an area with better living conditions and more economic activity. Some places offer more educational opportunities for career advancement and have a more malleable class structure than other societies.

**Cultural Freedoms:** One of the major pulls for migrations of people is the prospect of freedom in various areas of life. For example, religious freedom may be important to a migrant who cannot openly practice his religion in his home country. A scholar may flee to another country in pursuit of academic freedom. Cultural deviants may find that their behavior is better tolerated in a different place, and they may trade some of the benefits of their home society to explore these behaviors.

**Culture Shock:** Migration brings people into contact with entirely new ways of life. Culture shock is the difficulty people have with adjusting to a new culture that is very different from their own. The most difficult part of culture shock for migrants is that they have no plan to go back home, so they are forced into accepting a new culture and learning how to behave in new ways. Language is an obvious difference for migrants, making it difficult to conduct basic daily communications if the language is different from their home country. Other differences include diet, clothing and music.

**Geopolitical advantages:** Migration policy is a sensitive topic and accepting refugees improves our foreign relations and standing in the
international community. Australia’s abandonment of the White Australia Policy and more open migration policy has enabled it to build bilateral and multilateral links such as APEC.

**Environmental Differences:** Migration brings people to new geographies and new climates. A change of scenery can be very interesting for new migrants, but many have trouble acclimating their bodies to major changes in climate. For example, some countries, such as Korea, have higher elevations than many other countries, and this can be a shock on the bodies of migrants who have difficulty breathing.

**Leaving People Behind:** Migrants must leave behind family members and friends when they make their journey to a new place. Moving away from home removes the migrant's social support system and also any kind of social standing enjoyed in the home locality. While migrants usually bring their immediate families with them, they must leave their extended families behind. Sometimes migrants must leave their immediate families at home and send money back for financial support. The International Organization for Migration estimates that migrants sent home $414 billion in remittances in 2009.

**Disadvantages of Internal migration**

**Racial conflict:** There are those whose this as a threat to Australia’s Anglo-Celtic background. Some groups are discriminated against eg. Sudanese people in

**Economic costs:**
A drain on the economy because they need support services. Take jobs from Australians.
Harm our Balance of Payments (Trade dealings dealings with the rest of the world).
**Geopolitical disadvantages:** Australia’s hard line on people smuggling out of SE Asia has created some friction with our close neighbours. The Pacific Solution (processing detaining asylum seekers on islands outside the migration zone) has drawn criticism from the United Nations.

1.9 IMPACT OF MIGRATION ON FAMILY LEFT BEHIND

**Effects on children Left behind**

1) Education:

   It is now well accepted that international migration of a parent or family member can have both positive and negative effects on non-migrant children in the home country. First, there is the possibility that remittances sent from abroad will relax the household budget constraint and result in an increase in child schooling, child health, and a corresponding decrease in child labor. Several studies find evidence supporting this hypothesis (Cox-Edwards and Ureta, 2003; Alcaraz et al., 2012; Yang, 2008). Yet researchers have also recognized that parental migration inherently involves parental absence from the home that can have a negative impact on child outcomes which may outweigh the positive effect of remittances.

   Some studies have also tried to distinguish effects based on the gender of the migrant parent, but since the extent of female migrants is limited in many countries, few studies have generated meaningful results. One exception is Cortes (2010) who is able to compare children of migrant fathers with children of migrant mothers in the Philippines. She finds that maternal migration has an overall negative effect on children’s education and argues that maternal absence is more detrimental than paternal absence. Similarly, Jampaklay (2006) finds that long-term maternal absence negatively affects children’s education in Thailand, while paternal absence does not.

   Another important channel to consider is the possibility that one
parent’s international migration may also result in a change in bargaining power among household decision-makers if one parent travels abroad while the other remains in the source country. If parents have different preferences over goods, this might also affect the allocation of resources and thus outcomes for children. This type of mechanism would be in accordance with the evidence presented in Antman (2011a) showing that families with migrant household heads spend a smaller fraction of resources on boys relative to girls in both clothing and education. Antman (2010a) exploits longitudinal data to investigate whether this relationship is causal and finds support for the idea that when a household head migrates, families spend more on girls relative to boys, and once the household head returns, the reverse is true. This is consistent with a shift in bargaining power toward women when men migrate and a shift back toward men once they have returned to the household. While this result may appear surprising if one expects boys to be relatively advantaged in the household, these findings make sense in light of the growing evidence that increasing women’s bargaining power results in improvements in girls’ health outcomes and not boys (Thomas, 1994; Duflo, 2003).

A final channel through which parental migration may affect children left behind is closely related to the more extensive literature on the existence of a “brain gain” resulting from migration. This phenomenon might occur when the very prospect of migration encourages those in the home country to obtain more education or skills, even though many of them ultimately never migrate. On this topic there is mixed evidence, depending in part on the country of focus (Beine et al., 2011).

Of the microeconomic studies on this topic, Boucher et al. (2005) find no significant impact of international migration on schooling investments for non-migrants in Mexico while deBrauw and Giles (2006) find a negative relationship between internal migration opportunities and
high school enrollment in China. Kandel and Kao (2000) offer suggestive evidence that children of migrants have lower educational aspirations than children with less exposure to migration as a pathway to mobility. In contrast, Batista et al. (2007) find evidence that higher migration prospects at the individual level increase the probability of completing intermediate secondary school in Cape Verde.

2) Health of Children Left Behind

Compared with the extensive research on the effects of migration on child schooling highlighted above, much less is known about the health effects for children left behind. Hildebrandt and McKenzie (2005) find a positive effect of migration of at least one household member on child health in Mexico as measured by higher birth weights and lower infant mortality rates. At the same time, they find that migration is associated with lower health inputs for children left behind, including breastfeeding and vaccinations. Gibson et al. (2011b) exploit the migration lottery to New Zealand discussed above and find evidence that migration of a household member leads to worse diets and health outcomes for children left behind in Tonga, as measured by weight-for-age and height-for-age. However, Stillman et al. (2012) and Gibson et al. (2011b) use the same lottery program to document improvements in health outcomes for children that migrate, thus adding to the more extensive literature comparing health outcomes of migrants and natives.

Positive effects of migration on the health of remaining children have been documented in other contexts as well. Macours and Vakis (2010) present evidence that maternal migration has a positive impact on early cognitive development of children in Nicaragua, a finding they attribute to changes in income and maternal empowerment stemming from migration. Anton (2010) finds a positive effect of remittances on short-term and middle-term nutritional status of children in Ecuador as measured by
weight-for-height and weight-for-age. Kanaiaupuni and Donato (1999) show a positive effect of migration and remittances on infant survival in Mexico in the longer term.

**Effects on Spouses left behind**

The literature on the impact of migration on spouses left behind is largely focused on labor supply responses of female non-migrants, and can be thought of as a subset of the larger literature examining the labor supply responses of non-migrant household members. Researchers in this area stress the importance of the remittance channel for generating a positive income effect that would raise the reservation wage of non-migrants, and thus potentially decrease labor force participation. As in the discussion in section 3, however, it is important to recognize that remittance receipt is typically preceded by a period in which the migrant leaves the home and is (at least temporarily) not contributing to the household. In this case, it may be that the migration of the head of household could induce his spouse to enter the labor market. Thus, the impact of international migration on spouses may again come down to a question of short-and long-term effects. Of course, if the migrant is not successful in obtaining a regular job to generate remittances over and above his earning in the home country, a spouse might be induced to remain in the labor market over the longer term as well. Regardless, the overall impact remains an empirical question to which researchers have turned their attention.

As women may be more likely to work without pay, it is also important to distinguish between different types of work. Mendola and Carletto (2009) find that having a migrant abroad decreases the paid labor supply of women in Albania while increasing their supply of unpaid work. Binzel and Assaad (2011) explore the effects of male international migration on the female labor supply of women left behind in Egypt, a country where labor force participation for women remains fairly low. They
find a decrease in wage work for women left behind, but find that women
are more likely to be employed in unpaid family work and subsistence
work, such as agricultural activities for the purpose of own consumption.
Mu and van de Walle (2011) find similar results in China, where migration
leads to a decrease in wage work and family work, but an increase in
agricultural work by women.

**Effects on Parents Left Behind:**

Another critical relationship for policymakers to understand is the
impact of adult children’s migration on non-migrant parents remaining in
the home country. This is particularly true given the rapid aging of the
population in most developing countries and the continued reliance on
children for support in old-age. The context is important because
international migration is often thought to boost earnings for migrants who
may then remit more to parents at home. At the same time, the migrant may
be restricted from travelling home and providing personal care for the
elderly parent. This may act as an especially hard constraint for
unauthorized migrants. These stylized facts raise several important policy
questions: How does migration affect contributions and time assistance to
aging parents? How can changes in their contributions be traced to impacts
on their overall health and well-being? Do children remaining in the home
country compensate for the absence of their migrant siblings?

Alaimo (2006) considers whether migrant parents receive more
financial contributions from their children when one child migrates, but
does not examine the intensive margin of time contributions. She also limits
the sample to parents with no co-resident children over 18, which greatly
reduces her sample since co-residence of adult children is highly prevalent
in Mexico, as in other developing countries. She finds that parents of
migrants are more likely to receive financial assistance and face similar
chances of receiving time help as parents with no children in the U.S. While
Antman (forthcoming) and the exercise below use the same data source as Alaimo (2006), the former does not exclude observations based on residency status and limits the sample to parents reporting difficulties with “Activities of Daily Living” in order to recover information on time contributions from children (discussed below). One could argue that these individuals are the most critical group of policy interest since they are the least independent and most likely to suffer without support of children.

**Effects on Health of Parents Left Behind**

If children’s migration can be thought to affect the contributions to non-migrant parents in time and money, it is reasonable to ask whether children’s migration also affects the health of elderly parents left behind. This matter is particularly important for policymakers in developing countries where populations are aging rapidly and the social safety net remains weak. Nevertheless, there are still few studies on this important topic, and even fewer that look at international migration in particular. Again, identification proves to be a major stumbling block for work in this area. The fact that migrants self-select raises the possibility that child migration and parental health may be correlated for a number of reasons other than a causal impact of child migration on parental health. For instance, causality may run in the opposite direction, as when a child responds to the ill health of a parent by migrating to raise money for medical treatment. In contrast, it may be that children with parents in ill health are less likely to migrate because they need to provide care for their parents. Indeed, Giles and Mu (2007) examine the impact of parental health on the probability of internal migration for adult children in China and find that younger adults are less likely to work as migrants when a parent is ill.
1.10. STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

Internal migration is universally recognized as an alternative livelihoods strategy for many poor households. Transnational migration of skilled and unskilled labourers has been widely studied and well connected with the macroeconomic stability. At the same time, domestic migration has been either overlooked or attracted little attention from academicians. In case of the seasonal nature of migration, 'the impact has been overlooked by students of migration' As a result, 'policy makers perceive population movements as a threat to stability or a challenge to established life style' (De Haan 1999). Similarly gunner Myrdal observes that in many under developing countries a part of the labour force does not engage in any from of works at all, most of these workers who work only short periods in agricultural sector. These countries have to face problem of disguised to refer to the mass unemployment. Ranger Nurkse says that disguised unemployment prevails, especially in agricultural sector of an underdeveloped and over populated contrived.

As we have already mentioned the agriculture on which the bulk of the rural population in our country has to depend for the main source of sustenance which is itself largely dependent on the precipitation and destruction of rainfall failure of rain and consequent failure of agriculture greatly reduce the purchasing pour of this large of population recurrence of such situation called as droughts: droughts occur once in every five year in some parts of India viz., in West Bengal, MP, Kerala, coastal parts of Andra Pradesh, Maharasra and inferior of south Karanataka Bihar and Orisa.

The Internal nature of labour keeps many households away from their primary source of livelihood. That resulted in livelihood diversification into the of farm sector and migration. Secondly, economic reforms took place in India during 1991 in response to the severe crisis in the balance of payments. As a result, India became more open to market