

Internal Migration and Migrants Livelihood Aspects: A Study of the Rural-Out Migrants into the Slums of Chittagong City

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Abstract

In Bangladesh rural-urban migration plays a significant role in rapid urbanisation where urban slums a favourite destination for poor migrants. The study mainly focuses on the analysis of the internal migration and the consequences of rural-urban migration on migrants' livelihood the case of poor migrants of Chittagong city, Bangladesh. The study exposes that predominantly migrants come from different districts of the country. This study analyses the attributes of migrants, motives behind migration, migrants' objective fulfilment and consequences of migration on migrants livelihood based on an assessment of 200 arbitrarily selected migrants' households. The study shows that better-earning opportunities, economic advancement were primitive motives for migration but in most cases, they only ensured their survival. Better living conditions with some civic amenities sometimes enriched their livelihoods which promote internal migration of Bangladesh. Plummeting imbalance and inequality between urban and rural areas be supposed to receive in burning concern to steady the rural-out migration.

Keywords: Urbanisation, migrants, livelihood, economic advancement.

1. Introduction

Technology has progressed with the development of civilisation. The productivity of industry and service sector has increased due to the widespread use of technology and this has brought out a significant structural change in the economy(Afsar, 2000). Most of these types of economic activities are concentrated in urban areas, and a large number of economically active people live in rural areas. So uneducated, half-educated, illiterate, landless poor and unemployed rural people migrate from rural areas to urban areas to getting better employment opportunities in the non-agricultural sector. As a result, the urban growth rate increases rapidly. Migration is one of the critical factors that contribute to faster urbanisation usually connected with higher levels of development and productivity.

Bangladesh is the seventh largest country in the world, and its current population is close to 160 million(UNFPA, 2016). Like other countries, urban people in Bangladesh are increasing rapidly. If we notice the statistics of Bangladesh's population, we can see that, 1901 to 1991, in this 90 years urban population increased from 0.7 to 21.56 million (almost 30 times) when the rural population increased by 30.7 million to 88.3 million (only about three times)(Afsar, 2000). In the British period (1757 to 1947) the annual growth rate of urban population was 1-2%, and it was almost 4% in Pakistan period (1947 to 1971) (Hossain, 2008). The slow pace of industrialisation was the main reason for comparatively slow urbanisation in British period. Following the Lewis model, import-substituting industrialisation was developed during the Pakistan regime to employ the rural surplus labour in the urban labour market. In fact, from that time people started coming into cities in search of employment in the industrial sector. During 1950 and 1960s, when jute and textile industries developed in Dhaka and its neighbouring areas, urbanisation gathered. However, the rate of urbanisation augmented very fast some after the liberation of Bangladesh which was associated with the rapid growth of economic actions in the urban centre.

However, the noticeable aspect is that the employment percentage in the industrial sector was 11% in 1984, 13% in 1991, 10.3% in 2000 and 14.5% in 2005(Mundial, 2014). So, many people are engaged in informal sector like rickshaw pulling, peddling, running small shops, working on a daily basis, beggary, prostitution, theft, pickpocketing, working as labourers in different vehicles, working as housemaid and servant. As a result, surplus labourers of the rural economy, being transferred to cities are creating a type of half-unemployment and labour wastage problem. Though working source in formal sectors is low in number and unemployment problem is increasing gradually, but the flow of population is growing in urban areas. Todaro model has given an excellent explanation of this. According to this model, if hope or assurance of earning well in the future in one way or other seems considerable, despite the doubt that the migrants will remain unemployed for some days after migration, the decision of migration will be undertaken(Todaro, 1969).

Among 491 cities, only four cities (Dhaka, Chittagong, Rajshahi and Khulna) are formally considered as metropolitan cities. All the amenities of urbanisation are arranged in these big cities. So, the flow of migration is higher in these four cities, especially in Dhaka. Migration is not significantly visible in others thana, Upazila and Zila towns.

In recent years, one of the main reasons of rapid and unplanned urbanisation in big cities of Bangladesh is

rural-urban migration. Rural-urban migration is liable to almost 60% of the urban growth (Toufique and Turton, 2003). Migration has extended be a significant livelihood approach for the poor people of Bangladesh. When a person thinks that his/her dwelling place has become insecure for his/her living or when he/she loses his/her habitat for any reason he/she migrates to other areas to leading a better life. At present, both rich and poor people of the society are migrating to cities for the betterment of living standard. Preference of destination and level of benefits, costs and risks, moreover, vary considerably, according to the social and economic power of the migrants (Siddiqui, 2003). Due to the rapid expansion of population and scarcity of the working sector in rural areas, labour productivity is very low, and it is nearly zero. Moreover, most of the labourers work under subsistence wage. On the other hand, it is easier to find a job in the informal sectors in cities. So the poverty-stricken people of the countries like Bangladesh migrate to the cities in search of a better existence. Again, people affected by different types of natural disasters become helpless and migrate to cities for survival. Each year, thousands of indigent sufferers of natural calamities push to the cities from rural areas (Haider and Kabir, 2010). The push factors play a significant role in the cause of rural-urban migration in Bangladesh. Extreme poverty, the search for work, homelessness, landlessness, too many family members, maladjustment of the community, loss of income source, river erosion and various natural calamities are among them. The municipal facilities have not fetched the rural poor, economic backwardness of their natives has pushed them to the cities.

The consequences of rural-urban migration are both advantageous and disadvantageous, and also some mixed in the sending and receiving communities. If we consider employment, job opportunities and cash earning, current evidence weigh genuinely in favour of migration. It also assists people socio-economically and culturally by updating them through enhanced contact information technology and promotes the democratisation of the society.

Most of the migrant people are poor. So, the poor people are numerically dominating the urban areas. These poor sections of people are taking shelter in squatters, slums, rail station, footpaths and many other strewn places. The number of slums is increasing at an alarming rate in urban areas which is creating a new form of urban poverty. The population of the urban slums is estimated to be doubled within the next 25 years (Haider and Kabir, 2010). People live in slums are leading a disgraceful life in unhealthy and low standard environment. On the other hand, the incidence of household violence inhabits the prime issue in slums. Divorce, polygamy, pressure for dowry, beating, abandonment, physical and mental torture, use of abusive language, threats of re-marriage and quarrelling for trifle issues have become regular incidents.

Now overcrowding, traffic congestion, inadequate housing and other necessary facilities, insufficient power and water supply, environmental degradation are a pervasive feature of urban society in Bangladesh. As a result, cities grow faster than the capacity with a vast number of rural-out migrants.

So, it is time to think about the development procedures and programs of the country which are accelerating rural-urban migration through different development in rural and urban areas.

Poor migrants of Chittagong, the commercial capital and the port city of Bangladesh is the main focus of this study, which explores the motives behind migration and the consequences of migration on migrants' livelihood aspects.

2. Internal Migration of Bangladesh

Let us notice Table 1 and Table 2 to realise whether urban migration in Bangladesh has increased or not.

Table 1: Area and population of nine major crowded metropolitan areas of Bangladesh

City ^a	Area ^b	Population ^c				
		1974	1981	1991	2001	2011
Dhaka	1371	2068353	3440147	6487459	9672763	14543124
Chittagong	1044.91	814104	1390684	2079968	2991729	4009423
Rajshahi	377.1	132909	253726	507435	651062	763952
Khulna	267.42	467948	652000	921365	1172831	1046341
Barisal	43.22	98127	142098	202746	234783	339308
Jessore	19.87	76168	113495	161349	214846	253019
Sylhet	53.64	59346	100514	234355	316311	526412
Rangpur	67.84	72829	121888	208294	265972	328777
Comilla	58.64	86446	128212	225259	278238	407901

Sources: Bangladesh Population Census 1991, 2001, 2011.

Notes: a. Dhaka, Chittagong, Rajshahi and Khulna are statistical metropolitan areas.

b. The area may differ from 2001 due to the accuracy or natural changes in land boundaries.

c. Census results are not adjusted for under-enumeration.

Table 2: the Urban and national growth rate of population

Year	National growth rate (annual)	Natural growth rate (CBR-CDR)			The growth rate of 4 statistical metropolitan areas			
		National	Urban	Rural	Dhaka	Chittagong	Khulna	Rajshahi
1974	2.53	2.46	1.66	2.5	8.47	6.15	10.49	5.94
1981	2.4	2.36	1.6	2.41	7.53	7.64	4.85	9.68
1991	2.17	2.04	1.61	2.14	6.55	4.11	3.52	7.18
2001	1.48	1.41	0.93	1.55	4.08	3.70	2.44	2.52
2011	1.34	1.3	1.2	1.43	4.03	3.65	2.34	2.23

Sources: Bangladesh Population Census 2001, 2011.

If the information has given in the previous two tables are correctly analysed, it will be seen that the bigger the city, the higher the rate of increase in population seems to be. The growth rate of population = (crude birth rate-crude death rate) or natural growth rate of population + in migration – out-migration.

The population in the city increases for three reasons:

- i) The natural growth rate is resulting from the difference between birth rate and death rate of population.
- ii) Migration towards cities which is the difference between the inflow of population towards cities and the outflow of population from the cities to other places.
- iii) Persistent expansion of areas and territories of cities.

According to Table 2, the natural growth rate of the population is decreasing, and the decreasing rate is higher in urban areas than in rural areas. Overall population growth is also decreasing. Though population growth rates of the four metropolitan areas have declined, it is higher than the natural growth rate, and the rate of decrease is also lower. The natural growth rate of the urban population is comparable to that of the country and somewhat lower. So among the three reasons, the first one is not the main reason for urban population growth. The areas and territories of the city have increased much, sometimes due to government order or for being newly defined. Expansion of urban areas is causing in natural ways. However, the main reason is inherent in a second way, migration of population. So, with the help of macro-level data, we can say that urban migration in Bangladesh is increasing.

3. Research Methods and Data Sources

3.1 Research Methodology

Methods of research are the ways by which knowledge is gained and build up within a branch of knowledge (Harvey and Myers, 1995). The methodology is not only a set of methods, rather it denotes of the underlying principle and the philosophical assumptions that inspire a particular study, and it sets the policy or rules of research that must be in harmony with the selected theoretical framework. Primary survey and secondary data sources are used to collect data for this study and lesson are drawn from earlier studies on migration in Bangladesh and elsewhere.

In Chittagong city, at least 1.46 million people live in 1,814 slums, and most of them are migrants (Angeles et al., 2009). This study is conducted in a few slums of Chittagong city. Shulokbahar and Mohara words of Chittagong City Corporation have been selected as study areas, and primary data has been collected through a depth interview of 200 sample households who had come to these two localities more than six months ago from different rural areas of Bangladesh. Migrants who had come from rural areas of Chittagong district has been excluded from the sample. This is socio-economical research, so survey and observation method is used to conduct this study. During the depth interview, a questionnaire with both close and open-ended question is also used to collect data. Data is collected from July 2017 to January 2018. The secondary data are used from the local administration, census data, statistical yearbook and a range of related sources. Qualitative, semi-quantitative and descriptive statistics are used for data analysis. The collected data is analysed by the most widely used software MS Word, MS Excel and which originate to be required in different features to accomplish this study.

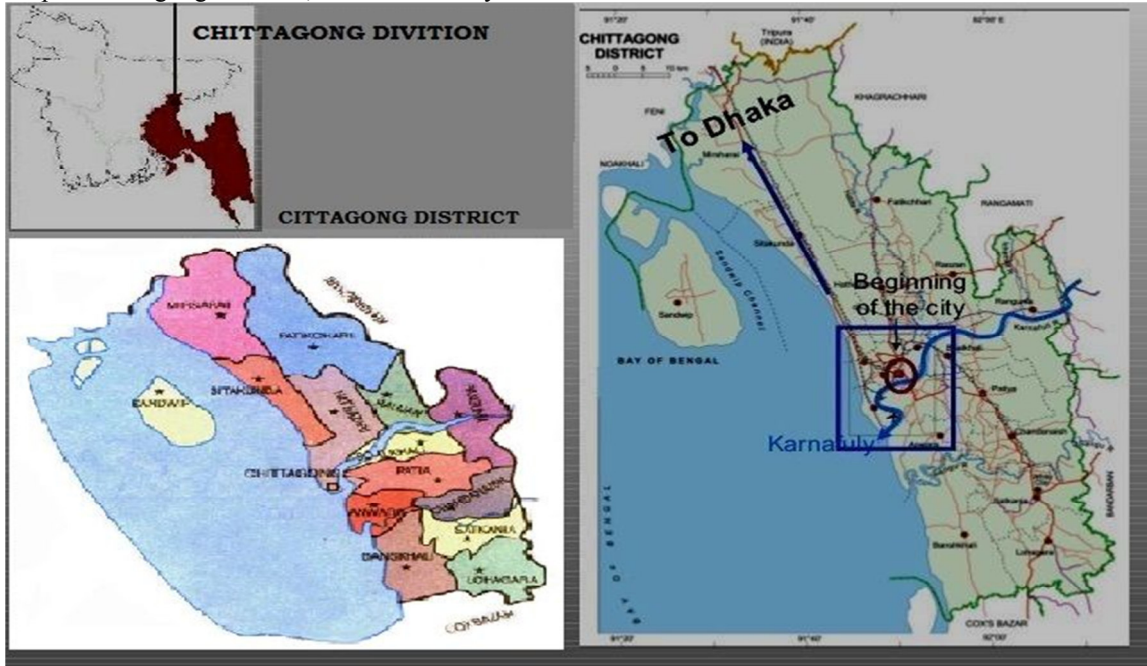
3.2 A Short Description of the Study Area

Chittagong is a city of southern Bangladesh situated on the banks of the River Karnaphuli; the town is native to Bangladesh's busiest and largest seaport. It is the commercial and manufacturing centre of Bangladesh. According to Chittagong City Corporation data in 1863 this city was constituted as Chittagong Municipality with an area of 6 sq. MI. It was upgraded as Chittagong Municipal Committee in 1960, and after the liberation, it was further renamed as Chittagong Paurashava in 1977. Finally, in 1990 it was turned as Chittagong City Corporation. Now CSMA (Chittagong Statistical Metropolitan Area) covers almost an area of 1152 sq. Km. with 11 metropolitan thanas, 41 wards and 238 mahallas or localities where 155.s sq. Km. cover by Chittagong City Corporation (BBS, 2015a). In 1863, Chittagong city was inhabited by 25,000 people only but at present with a

population of over 5 million with 5 % growth per annum, constructing it the second biggest city in Bangladesh (BBS, 2015a). The average density of population per square kilometre was 16,677 in population census 2011 (BBS, 2012). According to the poverty reduction strategy papers of IMF, within the area of the city corporation, there were more than 18,114 slums which were inhabitant by more than 1.8 million slum dwellers, this amount is the second uppermost in the country after the capital Dhaka (IMF, 2013).

Chittagong is the commercial capital of Bangladesh with eight industrial zones and about 720 factories and industrial unit (Alam et al., 2007). As a major commercial and industrial centre, Chittagong city is the second target of migrant people. After of Dhaka, the highest numbers of migrated people live in Chittagong.

Map 1: Chittagong Division, District and City.



Source: Chittagong City Corporation, 2017.

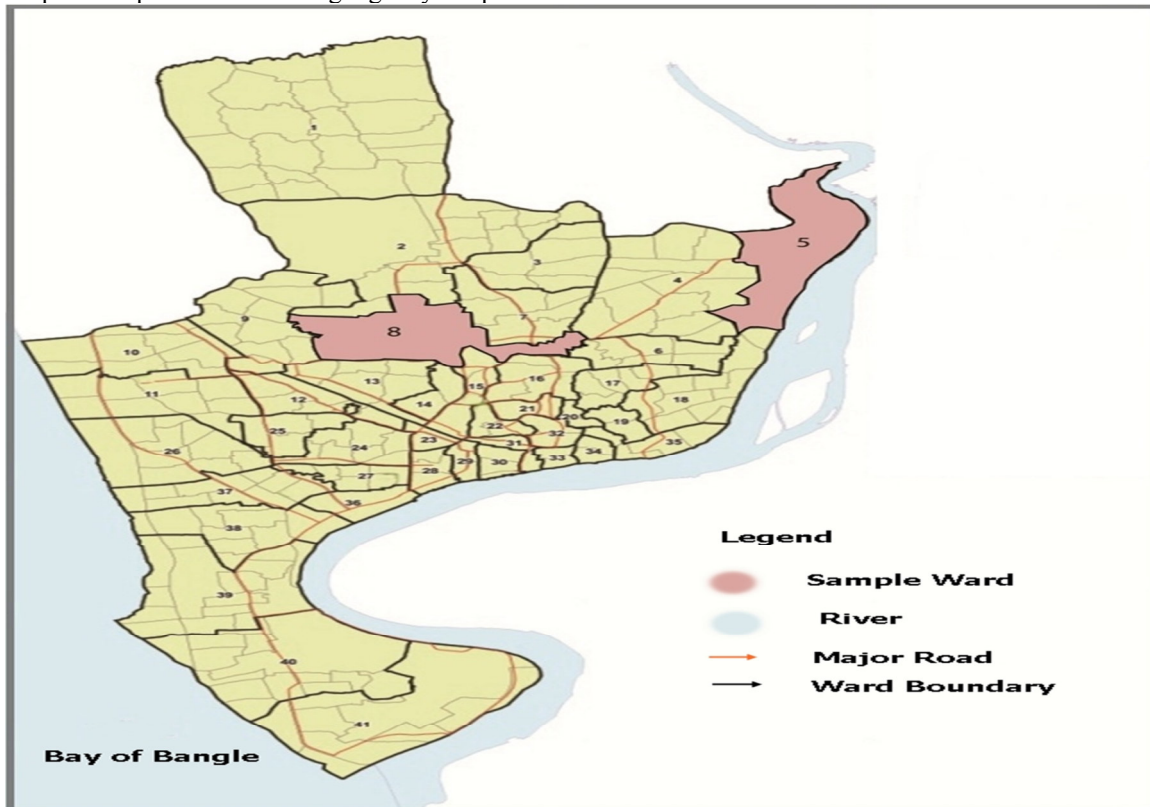
3.3 Description of the Sample Area

To find out the outlined the overall political and economic structure of a social system, it is necessary to represent the profiles of these communities in which migrants stay and live (Afsar, 2000). There are 41 wards in Chittagong City Corporation. Ward No. 5 named Mohara and Ward No. 8 named Shulokbahar are selected as sample areas.

Mohara

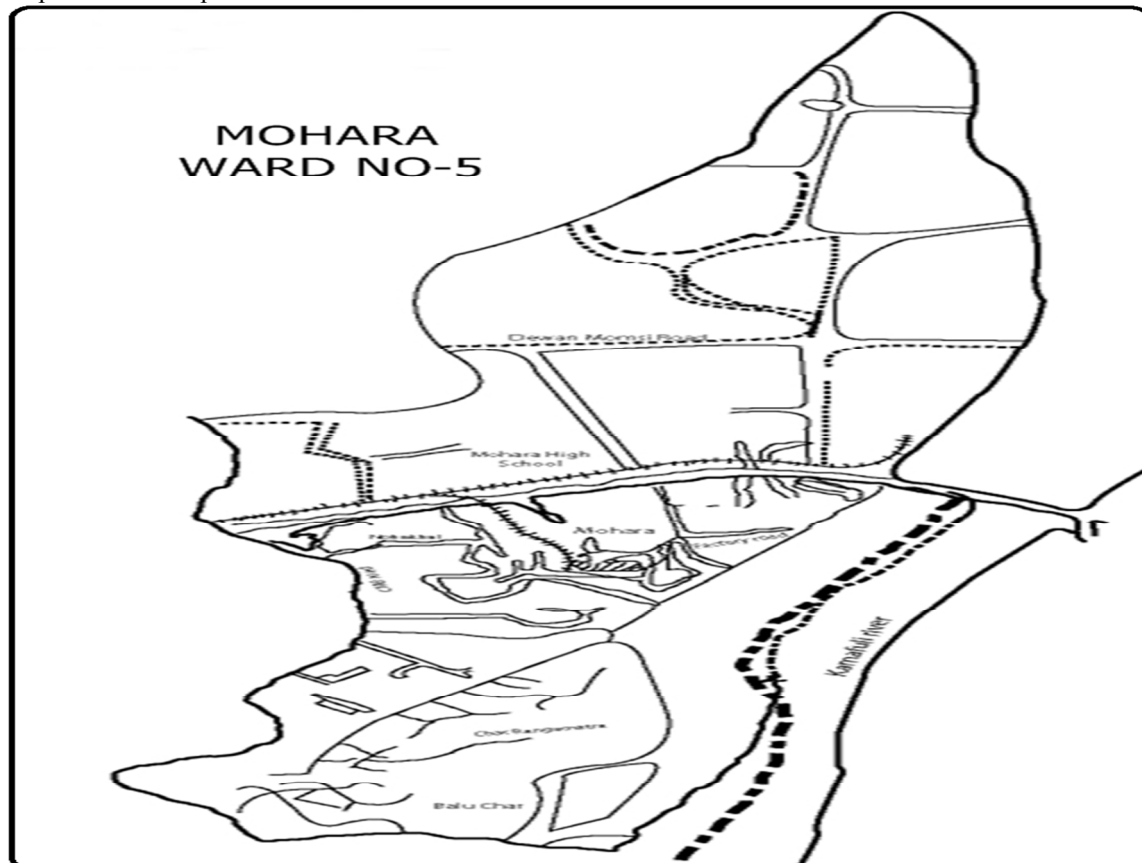
Mohara is situated on the north-east side of Chittagong city by the river Karnaphuli and Halda. It has another historical name which is well-known all over the country as 'kalurghat', but Mohara No. 5 Ward is a part of Kalurghat. Mohara is also divided by A-block, B-block, C-block and also known as Char-Mohara, Hamid Char, Middle Mohara, North Mohara and West Mohara. Historic Arakan road has gone to Cox's Bazar through this ward. Mohara occupies an area of 8.1 square kilometres out of the 25.32 square kilometre area of Chandgaon thana. With a population of 86,491, it has a population density of 9599 people per square kilometre (Table 3) which is lower than that of Shulokbahar. The sex ratio of this ward stands at 107 showing male dominance (Table 3) in the overall population structure which is a typical characteristic of Dhaka, Chittagong and other major cities in Bangladesh, having an average sex ratio figure of 122(BBS, 2015b). After increases in the number the garments industries, the migration of young women increased gradually, and at this, the sex ratio became more balanced. However, compared to Shulokbahar, the sex ratio in Mohara is evener.

Map 2: Sample ward in Chittagong City Corporation



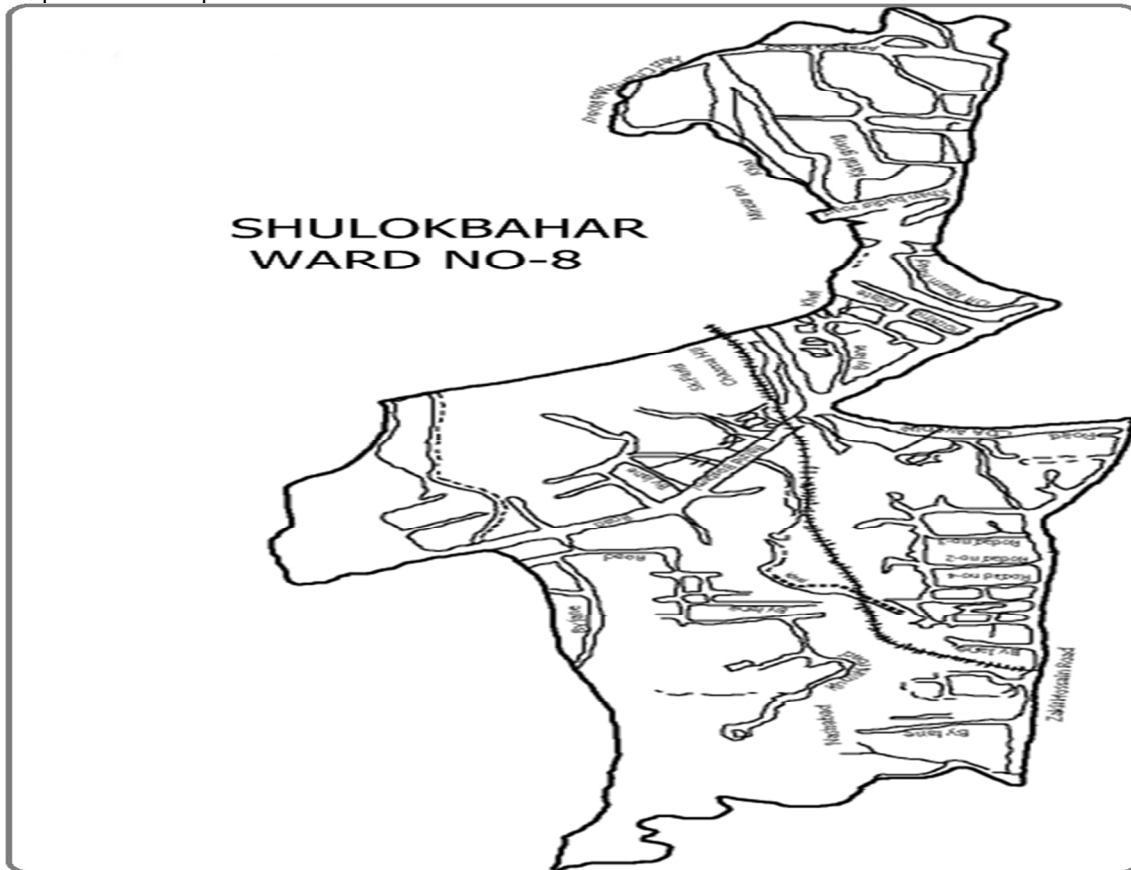
Source: Chittagong City Corporation, 2017.

Map 3: Sketch Map of Mohara ward



Source: Chittagong City Corporation, 2017.

Map 4: Sketch map of Shulokbahar ward



Source: Chittagong City Corporation, 2017.

Table 3: Basic demographic characteristics of the sample areas

Variables	Mohara	Shulokbahar
Total population	86,491	1,34,056
Sample population	472	583
Sample households	100	100
Family size	4.7	4.3
Area of the ward (sq. km.)	9.01	5
Population density (per sq. km.)	9599	17,894
Sex ratio	107	116

Source: Bangladesh Bureau of Statistics, 2015.

The ratio of non-migrants to migrants is almost 1:3 (Source: Local Administration). Mohara is predominantly a manufacturing area dominated by slums and squatter dwellers. Kalurghat massive industrial area is situated in this ward. Two famous multinational companies named Berger Paint and Unilever are in this area. Moreover, Aramit, National, Desh, Pacific, Pepsi, Global, Gazi, A. K. Khan and other 170 small industries are also in this ward.

Shulokbahar

No.8 Ward Shulokbahar is located in the centre of Chittagong city and bounded by Pahartali ward in the west, Chandgaon ward, East Solashahar and Chaktai Khal in the east, the textile gate in the north and Chawkbazar Ward in the south. One part of this ward is situated in Panchlaish thana, and another part is in Khulshi thana. The total area of this ward is 5.8 square kilometre. The southwest region of the ward is hilly, and the northeast is plain. This is the large densely populated ward. It has a population density of 32,619 people per square kilometre which is higher than Chittagong city's average population density of 15,315 per square kilometre (BBS, 2015b). Shulokbahar consists of some aristocrat and modern residential areas, and some slum areas of low-middle class families. Like Mohara, Shulokbahar is also an industrial area. Nasirabad industrial area is located here. Shulokbahar is predominantly a migrant colony having three migrants per four inhabitants.

4. Result and Discussion

4.1 Attributes of Sample Migrants

Table 4 shows the attributes of 200 sample migrants according to specific socio-demographic variables. About 62% of respondents in Mohara and 46% of those in Shulokbahar are female. In the two communities combined, the percentage of female respondents is a little bit higher than the male.

From the age distribution of sample migrants at the time of migration it is found that the migration rate is notably privileged for the people who include to the age groups 21-30 years (38.5%), 11-20 years (23%) and 31-40 years (23%). It is only 2.5% for the age group 0-10 and 0.5% for the peoples for more than 60 years. These indicate that the mass of them was very young at the time of their migration and the proportions of migrants significantly decreased with the increased age group. During depth-interviews, some sample migrants mention that ancient migrants who can no longer cope with hard and tedious work are more likely to go back to their native where the cost of living is relatively low. About 41 % of respondents in Mohara and 66% of those in Shulokbahar have been living in Chittagong for 11 years or more. Only 4% of those in Mohara and 12% per cent of those in Shulokbahar have the higher-secondary education. All about 50% sample migrants are illiterate whereas about only 8% attain higher-secondary education. Majority proportion of the sample migrants is illiterate. Because this study conduct of those migrants who living slum and it is natural that, poor migrants in slums are illiterate and light educated. Conjugal status predisposes the decision of migration of an individual. The percentages of the unmarried person after and before migration are 15% and 66.5% respectively. These percentages are 72.5% and 27.5% concerning married migrants. The percentage of migrants who have been married at their flying time find a very little parallel to unmarried migrants because the maximum migrants belonged the age groups 20 to 30 years or less than 20 years when they shifted to Chittagong. After migration, the married group has the maximum percentage (72.5%), and there are also some respondents with others marital status like widowed (5.5%) and divorced (7%).

Table 4: Socio-demographic characteristics of sample respondents

Characteristics of respondents		Percentage of respondents					
		Mohara		Shulokbahar		Total	
Gender	Male	38		54		46	
	Female	62		46		54	
	Total	100		100		100	
Age of respondents at the time of migration	0-10 years	3		2		2.5	
	11-20 years	21		25		23	
	21-30 years	37		40		38.5	
	31-40 years	26		20		23	
	41-50 years	11		7		9	
	51-60 years	2		5		3.5	
	60 & above	0		1		0.5	
Length of stay of sample migrants in the study communities	<5 years	32		16		24	
	5-10 years	27		18		22.5	
	11-15 years	23		12		17.5	
	16-20 years	9		28		18.5	
	1-25 years	6		8		7	
	25+ years	3		18		10.5	
Education	Illiterate	56		43		49.5	
	Primary	23		21		22	
	Secondary	17		24		20.5	
	Higher secondary	4		12		8	
Marital status		Before migration	After migration	Before migration	After migration	Before migration	After migration
	Unmarried	64	18	69	12	66.5	15
	Married	31	73	24	72	27.5	72.5
	Divorced	3	5	6	9	4.5	7
	Widowed	2	4	1	7	1.5	5.5

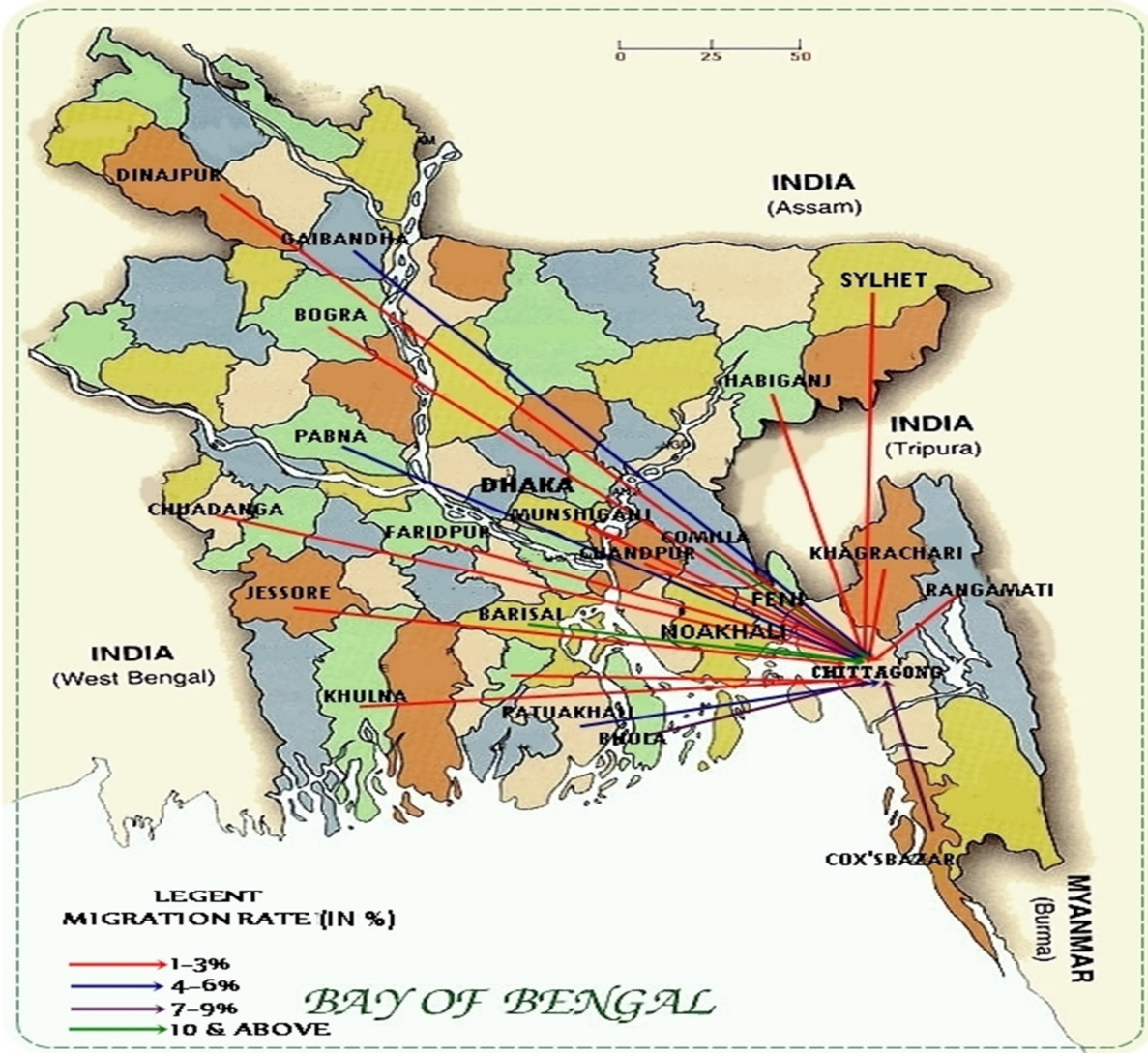
Source: Sample Survey, 2017.

4.2 Place of Origin of Migrants

Though rural-urban migration tendency is visible in all the district of Bangladesh but this tendency is higher for some districts which have miserable economic conditions, frequent natural hazards and easy access of

transportation with the mega city like Dhaka, Chittagong. Prevailing distance is a palpable factor in that case. Chittagong is the second largest city of Bangladesh and is known as the 'port city'. So after Dhaka, Chittagong is the second first choice for rural-out migrants. Bangladesh inheres of 64 districts wherein the sample slums enclose migrants from 21 (Figure 1). Comilla, Noakhali, Barisal and Bhola are the peak four districts from where migrants principally come. They come mainly from the neighbouring districts of Chittagong. However, this study finds no migrants from Dhaka and little migrants from northern Bangladesh. Because Dhaka is the first spotlight of Bangladesh and it is measured as the nucleus of the country. Therefore migrants of these districts choose Dhaka as their migration place. Moreover, people of northern Bangladesh usually feel little pull from Chittagong. In the case of the west-southern part, there are three big cities- Khulna, Barisal, Jessore but, these cities be deficient in employment opportunities and economic dynamism. That is why people from these districts and their adjacent districts prefer to go to Chittagong than to them.

Figure 1: Origin of sample migrants

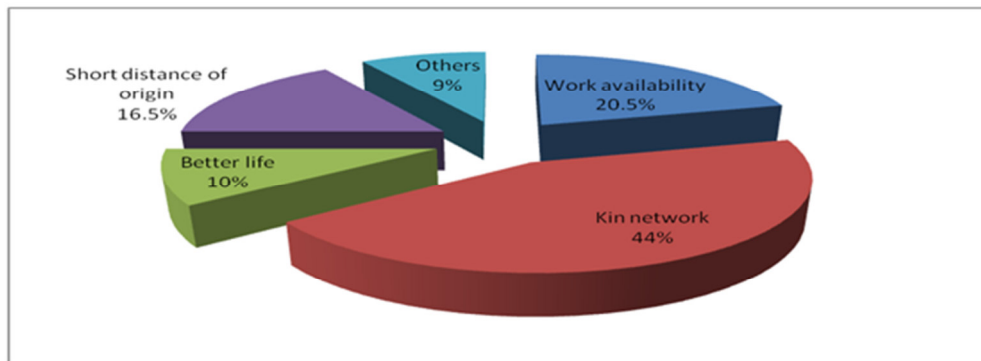


Source: Sample Survey, 2017.

4.3 Reasons for Choosing Chittagong City

Other than agriculture, there is no significant working sector in the rural areas of Bangladesh to earn more money. So a lot of poor people leave their villages and gather in urban areas to look for employment. In general, the primary targets of the migrated people are the divisional cities since sources of income are more there. From this point of view, the position of Chittagong city is just after Dhaka city. Migrated people choose Chittagong city as the migration place for several reasons.

Figure 2: Reasons for choosing Chittagong city as the destination



Source: Sample survey, 2017.

According to field level survey, 20.5% of respondents have chosen Chittagong city due to work availability. Chittagong is the commercial capital of our country, and many heavy industries are situated in and around this city. So the migrated people had an idea of having more working sectors here.

16.5% of respondents have chosen Chittagong city as the migration place because the city is situated nearer to their villages. In this case, they can come to the city quickly, cheaply and early. Most of them are single and temporary migrants. 44% of respondents have chosen Chittagong city due to the kin network. 10% of respondents have chosen Chittagong city for better livelihood opportunities, and 9% of respondents have chosen it for other reasons. For example, it is an area with the low intensity of violence.

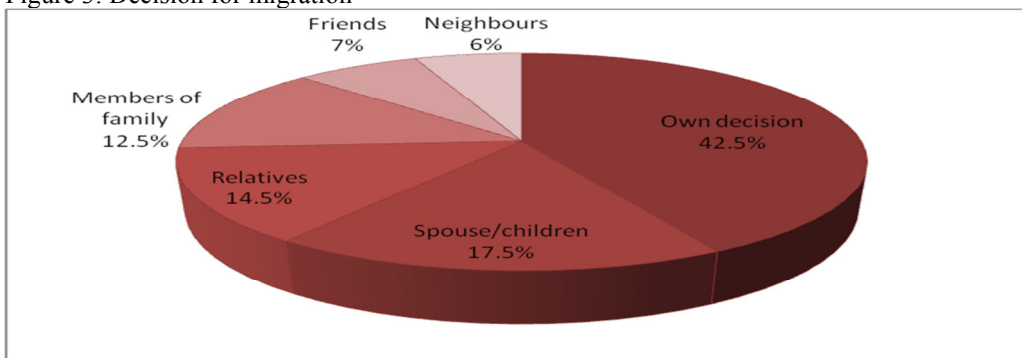
It is apparent that kinship network is an essential issue in determining migration place or city. People move recurrently to a new location when they presume that they will find some help from the kin or social networks that they clasp in the new community which will also assist them to select in the place of destination.

4.4 Decision for Migration

According to custom, the families of Bangladesh are patriarchal. In most of the households of Bangladesh, any economic decision and the destiny of family are determined mostly by the males. The male head of a family determines who will do farming and who will search for jobs in non-farming sectors. Migration is planned in some cases, and migration decision is undertaken in the perspective of family need. Sometimes the household-head himself and the migrants themselves conduct the migration decision jointly. Figure 3 has been drawn by using the data from fieldwork survey. According to this figure, 42.5% of the sample respondents undertook the migration decision themselves, 17.5% migrants were influenced by spouse/children, and 12.5% were affected by the family members (like father-mother, sister-brother).

Their relatives and friends also influenced Migrants' migration decision. The centre for urban studies (CUS) illustrated 63% of migrants accomplished information about Dhaka through their relatives and friends who live in the city (Islam, 1996) and this accomplished information influenced people to take the migration decision. In this study, 14.5% sample migrants were controlled by their relatives, and 7% were influenced by friends to take their migration decision.

Figure 3: Decision for migration



Source: Sample survey, 2017.

It is found that individuals themselves took maximum decision for migration to Chittagong city. Alongside friends and relatives, neighbours also take part in the decision making the procedure of the migrants. However, it relies on the extent of personal as well as social relations between the migrants and their neighbours. Their neighbours influenced 6% of sample migrants.

4.5 Motives for Migration

On the way to identify the motives of migration and with the help of the open-ended questions of the fieldwork survey, it is found that rural, urban migration may happen for different purposes. For example better income-earning opportunities, to maintain present standard of living, economic advancement, social advancement, establishing new settlements, ensure the survival, escape from persecution, escape from environmental threats, and to ensure civic amenities. However, the migrants' destination, level of benefits and risk are determined according to their social and economic power.

For what purposes had you left your village and came to the city? In response to this question, sample migrants have mentioned more than one motive. For instance- Maleha Begum of Bhola district says that she had come to Chittagong city to escaping herself from the torture of her husband and mother in law. She had migrated so that she can live from hand to mouth and find a new place to live in. That is, the three motives for migration were to escape from persecution, to ensure the survival and to establish new settlements.

The percentage of the respondents, who have identified the motives, find from the survey of fieldwork, as the 1st, 2nd and 3rd motive of migration respectively, has been shown in Table 5.

Table 5 shows that ensure the survival, economic advancement, better income-earning opportunities and establishing new settlements have got top most priority as the 1st motive. 33%, 17.5%, 15% and 13% of respondents have identified these as the 1st motive of migration. Economic advancement, establishing new settlements, ensures the survival and social progress are essential as the 2nd motive. 24%, 16%, 13.5% and 11.5% of respondents have identified these as the 2nd motive of migration. Social advancement, economic advancement, establishing new settlements and better income earning opportunities are as significant as the 3rd motive. 26%, 23.5%, 21% and 13% of respondents have identified these as the 3rd motive of migration. At first, a migrant thinks of his minimum survival of living and then he/she thinks about other motives.

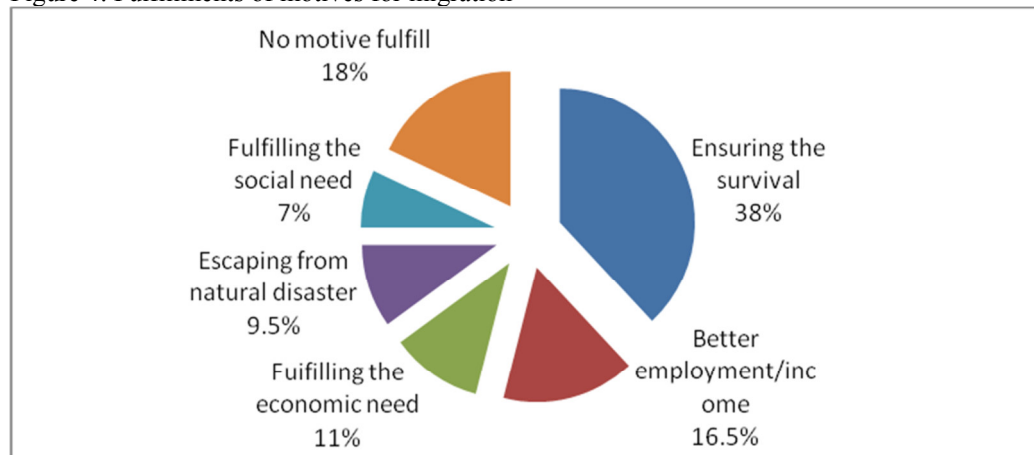
Table 5: Motives of migration

No.	Motives	Percentage as the 1 st motive	Percentage as the 2 nd motive	Percentage as the 3 rd motive
1	Better income earning opportunities	15	10	13
2	To maintain the present standard of living	8	9.5	7
3	Economic advancement	17.5	24	23.5
4	Social advancement	0	11.5	26
5	Establishing new settlements	13	16	21
6	Escape from persecution	6	5.5	0
7	Escape from environmental threats	5.5	7	4
8	To ensure civic amenities	2	3	5
9	Ensure the survival	33	13.5	0.5

Source: Sample survey, 2017.

Now the next concern is what the sample migrants have said about the primary motive fulfilment of migration. It is found that 82% of sample migrants could fulfil their primary motive by migration. However, 18% of sample migrants say that their primary motive could not fulfil by migration.

Figure 4: Fulfillments of motives for migration



Source: Sample survey, 2017.

The fulfilled primary motives of 82% sample migrants have been shown in Figure 4 as the percentage. The fulfilled motive of 38% of migrants is ensuring the survival, 16.5% migrants got better employment after migration, and 11% of migrants could fulfil their economic needs. 7% of migrants could fulfil their social needs, and 9.5% of migrants could save themselves from natural disasters.

18% sample migrants have claimed that migration did not fulfil even their primary motive. They have said that migration has brought no change of their economic or social condition. The hope with which they migrated has turned into an illusion. However, it is true that if they did not migrate, it would be impossible to persecute their livelihood. Though the motives have not been met, they are now able to live from hand to mouth.

4.6 Migrants Livelihood Aspects

A person's livelihood refers to the ensuring his or her necessities of life. Livelihood is measured by the combination of the assets, behaviour and entitlements which facilitate people to make a decent living (Mhondiwa, 2015). This study considers the livelihood as a means to generate different assets and entitlements that permit people to ensure necessities of living. Now we see the effects of internal migration on migrant's livelihood aspects.

4.6.1 Comparative Analysis of Migrants Living Environment Before and After Their Migration

As sample migrants were living in the urban slum, so it was expected that their living environment was poor, inadequate and unhygienic. However, they were consuming some basic civic amenities as an urban dweller. Data depicts that only 24% had electricity before their migration, but now 92.5% have this facility at their destination. Also, only 3.5% had enjoyed gas facility before their migration to Chittagong city while 59.5% consume gas at their present dwelling. Considering the use of sanitary latrine, about 40% had before migration whereas 74% use now at their residence in Chittagong city. Before migration, no respondent got the facility of supply water. However, after migration, 54% of respondents get that facility (Table 6). The findings of many previous studies also support this result. Rural-urban migrants had developed their living environment and lifestyle by enjoying some modern urban amenities like electricity, supply water for drinking and cleaning, modern sanitation system, improved housing (Azad and Islam, 2007). About a quarter of slum dwellers of urban Bangladesh have found to enjoy cooking with gas, while it is still unknown to the vast majority of rural people (Afsar, 2000). Next business of the study is the comparative analysis of houses where they dwelt in before migration, and they are dwelling in after migration. The analysis shows that before migration 59% respondents dwelt in iron-roofed houses with walls made of bamboo but now only 36% of respondents dwell in that type of houses (Table 6). Before migration, 12% of respondents dwelt in semi-pucca houses whereas 10% respondents dwell in those houses after migration. Though before migration 18% respondents dwelt in houses made of whole iron, no respondents dwell in those houses after migration. The average area of the slum dwellers in each house is 2-3 m². The houses are attached to each other. In the rainy season, the houses become damp and unsuitable for living. Now an average statement of the number of people living in a single room before and after migration has been given in Table 6. It is noticed that in almost 50% households, 5-6 persons dwell in a single room after migration. However, before migration, 3-4 persons dwelt in a single room in 56.5% household. From the environmental point of view, a poor farmer's house is relatively better than that of a slum dweller. So if types and conditions of houses are taken into consideration, we cannot emphasise that living standard of poor migrants has increased. In urban areas, 38.3% people use to supply water by tap, 58.8% use tube-well and in rural areas 2.3% use supply water, 91.1% make use of tube-well as the source of drinking water in Bangladesh (BBS, 2015c). According to the survey report, the main water source before migration was tube-well (73%), pond/river/canal (21%) and neighbour/office tap (6%). After migration, almost 25% of respondents in cities get supply water from WASA (Water Supply and Sewerage Authority) line. However, it is important to say that the lack of access to direct water supply by WASA should not necessarily mean the lack of access to safe water. The tube-well (45%), standpipe (12%), common tap (14.5%) constitute common sources of water for slum dwellers of my sample migrants. Another 3% are found to obtain water from neighbouring non-slum households, office premises or other institutions. Here none of the after migration water sources is inside dwelling as the sample has included only slum dwellers in the sample. 47.3% people of rural Bangladesh have got the electricity facility, and for urban peoples, this statistics is quite high at 86.8% (BBS, 2015c). In this study, 23% of sample migrants used legal electricity and 2% used illegal electricity before migration. After migration, corresponding figures are 60.5% and 32% respectively. They manage illegal electricity connection from other houses, shops or electricity lines of streets. They pay money for electricity in monthly instalments, and it is most often accomplished with the liaison of the employees of the power department and Slum-lords or mustans. On the other hand, though 70% of respondents used kerosene oil lamp before migration, 6% of respondents use it after migration. 42.4% people use the sanitary latrine in the urban areas of Bangladesh, and this statistics is 19.8% in rural areas (BBS, 2015b). It is found that 24% respondents used the private sanitary latrine and 21% respondents used common sanitary latrine before migration. Only 7% of respondents get the facility of a separate sanitary latrine, and 67% of respondents use common sanitary latrine after migration. 40% respondents used latrine of neither sanitary nor

common type before migration while 3% respondents use that type of latrine after migration. Common but not sanitary that type of latrine was used by 13% respondents before migration and are being used by 23% of respondents after migrating to Chittagong city. Sanitary or non-sanitary latrines of the slum-dwellers are made of bamboo, unhealthy and stinking. 86.6% rural people in Bangladesh use wood, dry leaf, straw and cow dung as fuel for cooking and only 11.9% get the gas facility for this purpose, while 68.7% urban people utilise gas facility (BBS, 2015b). In this study, more than 90% of the respondents use wood/straw as fuel for cooking before their migration and 36.5% respondents use these after migration. In urban slums, gas facility prevails there, where 5-6 families use only one gas-stove for cooking. Among the sample migrants, 59.5% of respondents get the facility of using common gas, and only 3% respondents used the gas facility before migration.

Table 6: Migrants Living Environment Before and After Their Migration

Migrants living conditions		Percentage of respondents	
		Before migration	After migration
Access and availability of some basic civic amenities	Supply water	0	54
	Electricity	24	92.5
	Gas	3.5	59.5
	Sanitary latrine	40.5	74
Types of migrants housing	Bamboo wall and iron roof	59	36
	Semi-pucca (bricks wall and iron roof)	12	10
	Make-shift	6.5	26
	Bamboo/wood and polythene paper	4.5	28
	Whole iron	18	0
Persons dwell in each room	1-2	33.5	12.5
	3-4	56.5	27
	5-6	8	49.5
	7 & above	2	11
Water sources of sample migrants	Tube-well	73	45
	Pond/river/canal	21	0
	WASA line	0	24.5
	Common tap	0	14.5
	Standpipe	0	12
	Neighbor's/office tap	6	3
Lighting sources of sample migrants	Legal electricity	23	60.5
	Illegal electricity	2	32
	Lamp(kerosene)	70	6
	Candle	2	1.5
Types of migrants toilet	Private sanitary	24	7
	Common sanitary	21	67
	Common, not sanitary	13	23
	Private, not sanitary	40	3
Modes of cooking of sample migrants	Common Gas	3	59.5
	Wood/straw	91.5	36.5
	Electric heater	2	1.5
	kerosene-stove	3.5	2.5

Source: Sample survey, 2017.

4.6.2 Migrants Employment and Income Status

Availability of employment at the place of destination, whatever be the excellence, play a vital role given the route of migration. Moreover, pre-migration profession helps to recognise the technical factors active for migration. The allocation of migrants through their occupation both at the place of destination (after migration) and at the place of origin (before migration) are exposed in Table 7. The findings indicate that about 47% were unemployed and about 23% were agricultural labour before their migration. Among the agricultural labour, 9% was the landowner, and 14% were sharecropper or wage labour. In the structure of occupation at the place of destination, it is found that all of the respondents are employed after their migration, and about 36% are employed in garments or manufacturing factories. It is rational because as an industrial area Chittagong has the highest garments industry in Bangladesh and a job in those industries play a vital role in the migration process. It also is seen that more than 50% of migrants work in the informal sector after migration although they migrated to the city with the expectation to get a formal job. In the field level survey, it was noticed that most of the migrants have no permanent employment and they involve a series of occupation to manage their livelihoods. 19% of all respondents work in the unsafe and risky environment where they are at risk of injury or death, but

they stay these jobs because they have no option. In-depth interview some migrants argued that sometimes they are harassed physically and verbally at their workplace. They are slapped or rebuked if they are making a mistake in their work. Because of their vulnerability they cannot raise their voice against such harassment.

Table 7: Migrants occupational status

Employment Status	Percentage of respondents	
	Place of origin	Place of destination
Agricultural labour or farmer	23	0
Garments worker	0	36
Construction worker	2.5	13
Worker in transport/driver	2	11
Worker in shop/hotel/restaurant	3	9
Domestic Servant	6	7
Petty trader	3	5
Garbage picker	1.5	3
Rickshaw puller	4	7.5
Service holder informal sector	4.5	6
Worker in others informal sectors	3.5	2.5
Unemployed	47	0

Source: Sample survey, 2017.

Most of the respondents in this study earned higher after their migration, and they believed that the working opportunities were higher in urban areas than their villages. It was found from field level survey that 78% sample household earned less than Tk.6000 at their origin, but after migration, this percentage was only 2 (Table 8). After migration maximum family income was more than Tk.26000 which was found at 13% of total respondents. After migration number of earning member of the family was increased for the reason of better working opportunities in the urban sector. As a result, their combined family income was getting higher after their migration.

Table 8: Respondent's monthly family income before and after their migration

Migrant's monthly family income	Percentage of respondents	
	Before migration	After migration
Less than Tk.6000	82	2
Tk.6000-Tk.12000	11	42
Tk.12000-Tk.18000	7	26.5
Tk.18000-Tk.26000	0	15.5
More than Tk.26000	0	13

Source: Sample survey, 2017.

4.7 Social Impacts of Migration

4.7.1 Impact of Migration on Women's Status

Women's status is a multidimensional concept. It may be defined as prestige, the respect or esteem accorded to women; wealth, access to on central overvalued resource; and power, freedom from control by others. Basu (1992) defines the status of women by three components. These are opportunities for the outside work, communication opportunities with the outside world, and in scrupulous, the economic participation and the level of sovereignty to choice making within and outside the household. The two most prominent factors in stapling the status of women are edification and labour force participation(Boserup, 1989).

As far as rural-out migrations are alarmed, researchers have found that the compensation of urban livelihood include potentialities for emancipation from male control (Özdemir, 2003), potentialities for the accusation of financial and sexual autonomy from husband (McCall, 1961), better economic power (Ardener, 1961), superior extent for selectivity of partners (Gugler, 1972) and overall advanced standard of living (Pala, 2005). The shortcoming of livelihood in an urban area is women lose contact with their kin who stay in the village, becoming further dependents on husband for emotional as well as economic support(Hollos, 1991).

Women in the rural society of Bangladesh are economical, politically and socially less authoritative than men. Important decisions concerning assignment of rights and duties in the community, inheritance of property all are done by men, while women's function to take care of household work such as cooking, washing, cleaning and child care activities. During the pre-liberation and post-liberation period, rural poor women would come to cities to work in informal sectors and to work as household servants. However, the rate of migration of rural women has increased since the expansion of the readymade garment (RMG) industries. With the beginning of ready-made garments sector, mainly the capital city Dhaka, the movement of young women practised robust augmentation leading to some noticeable change in women's migration and occupation due to their entrance into

the formal sector (Afsar, 2005).

Women migrate to urban areas for various reasons. In most cases, it is a consequence of their male migration. They also enter the cities through widowed, divorced, and separated. Within the sample, 57.5% migrants' women come to the city after marriage with their husband and 23% of women have moved to urban areas before their wedding to survive their family by involving income-earning opportunities. In the sample, it was found that 11% of women come to the city to get rid themselves of the persecution of their husband and in-laws. Being widowed and divorced, 8.5% of women have migrated to the city to survive their issues.

Only 5% of the sample respondents (women) had been employed before their migration, but almost 90% of them are employed after their migration. Among them 63.9% are garments worker, 18% are the domestic servants, 6.56% are the petty trader, 4.9% are garbage picker, and 3.2% of them involved in other informal sectors. Almost all the women (both married and unmarried) can earn money after migration. As a result, these women manage their budget independently, and they contribute to the total household economy. Women's social status has increased due to their financial contribution to the families. Moreover, their decision making power has augmented. Women can also express their opinions on different matters like where to live, whether the wife should work, amount of monthly housekeeping money, issue concerning the children, how many children to have and whether to practice family planning. Employment enhances these poor women's status with considerable emblematic and financial remuneration, allowing women to earn greater freedom, visibility and say in public places.

Most of the sample women migrants claim that they face various types of unfavourable situations after coming to the city. In most cases, their wages are less than the males though they work equally or even more than the men. The women migrants, especially the single migrants fall victim to sexual harassment in slums and at workplaces. The married migrants fall victim to their husbands' torture.

Though it is a complicated matter, we can say from the above analysis that rural-urban migration has enabled the destitute women to increase their status to some extent.

4.7.2 Impact of Migration on Children

In assessing the impact of rural-urban migration on children, one can differentiate three types of young children who may be affected by their parents or mothers migration: those left behind in the village by migrant parents or mothers, as foster-children in the care of relatives or with their fathers; those who accompany their parents; and children born after the migrant's settle in the urban areas.

Because of having inadequate data, this study discusses the impact of migration on the last mentioned two types. Most of the rural people who migrate to the cities in search of livelihood take shelter in slums. All through the developing countries, migrants' women in large cities are more feasible than non-migrants to remain and settle in shantytowns and slums where primitive household facilities crucial for survival and good health are unavailable (Brockhoff, 1993). It has been mentioned a published report of UNICEF, titled 'The State of the World's Children 2012: Children in an Urban World', that the children of slum areas in Bangladesh are more deprived than those of rural areas. The report tells that the fewer than five child mortality rates per thousand are 55 in cities (except slums), 66 in village and 95 in slums (UNICEF, 2012). Though there are lots of large hospitals, clinics and emergency medical care centres in cities, child mortality rate in slum areas of cities is the highest of all. As a result of environmental degradation migrants, children suffer from different kinds of diseases, and that may because of privileged childhood mortality among rural-urban migrants compared to both rural and urban inhabitants in Bangladesh. Beside this, poor migrants have low income, and they expense most of their earnings for housing and transportation. So they are incapable of expending adequate for their children healthcare and nutrition. Also, those children suffer from malnutrition that leads to inferior healthiness among rural-urban migrants children. More than 90% of the women migrants work outside, and most of the mothers are busy with outside and household work; therefore children are deprived of sufficient care by them. In that case, children have mostly cared for older children or neighbours or relatives. So the children may suffer from various diseases for lack of proper care. Along with unhealthy surroundings, mother's poor understanding of cleanliness, dietary practice and nutrition make children more susceptible. According to the survey, different causes are liable for the death of fewer than five years children of 6% household of the sample migrants.

The children of the rural-urban migrants are often occupied with diverse forms of service to donate to the family's earnings or to help their parents at labour, mainly if they are inferior. Again, leaving parents, many children come to the cities with their relatives or neighbours in search of employment. Among the sample households, 44% of households' children (age 2 to 14 years) are employed in different types of works. It should be mentioned that among the employed children 70% are female children. Parents are tended to employ their female children in work more than the male children. In the past female children were trained from an early age to carry out familial errands within the family, duties that were considered to safeguard their status and verdict an appropriate partner (Blanchet, 1996). 52.3% employed children in sample households work in garments, manufacturing and other factories. 14.2% work as garbage pickers, 16.3% work as public transport helpers, 11.6% work as domestic servants or helpers in hotels/restaurants and 5.6% do other tasks. At least one child

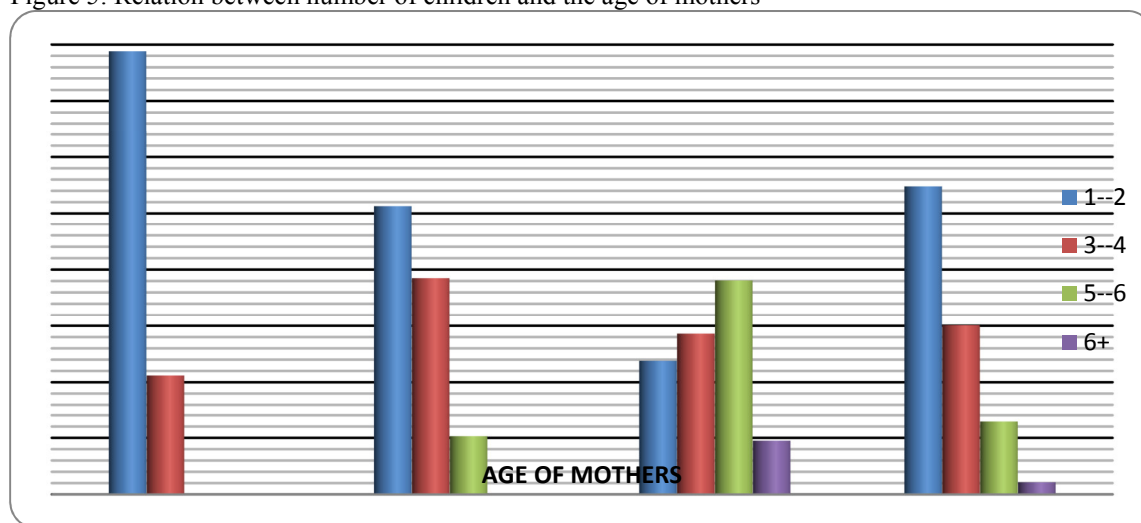
from more than 80% sample households, containing children aged 5-14 years, goes to school. However, it is worthy to mention that admission of the male children is preferred to than that of the female children by the parents of the sample household.

As both father and mother remain busy working outside, they cannot take care of their children properly. So their children roam the city streets and become street-children. Sometimes violence prevails among the migrated households or the relations among the breakdown of the married couple. The go down of a faith relationship with the adult in the home may persuade children to select the street life rather than the family's one. Later these street children engage themselves in various types of crimes and evil deeds like drug addiction, drug smuggling, theft, robbery, snatching.

4.7.3 Impact of Migration on the Number of Children of Migrants

The economic status of women has increased after migration. It has made them more careful than before, and they are not willing to have more children. Besides, most of the migrants are employed, and that is why they have less opportunity to have more children. The active single females marry in delay and their fertility rate declines. Previous studies (Stolnitz, 1982, Goldstein and Goldstein, 1982) found that female members (15-44 years) of migrants' household in urban areas are likely to have lower fertility than their rural cohorts. According to the report of the sample, Figure 5 shows a relation between the number of children and the age of mothers.

Figure 5: Relation between number of children and the age of mothers



Source: Sample Survey, 2017.

It is found that 78.8% of women; aged 18-29 years have 1-2 children while 21.2% have 3-4 children. Among the women aged 30-44 years, 51.3% have 1-2 children, 38.5% have 3-4 children, and 10.3% have 5-6 children. Among the women aged 45 years and above, 9.5% have more than six children, and 31.8% have 5-6 children.

The women having 1-2 children on average are higher in number among the women of all ages. Though it is difficult to draw a definite conclusion from such a small sample, it can be concluded that the number of having children has decreased after migration.

5. Conclusion

With the enlargement of urbanisation and industrialisation, the migrations efficiently take place. Rapid urbanisation is an upcoming challenge for the future development of Bangladesh. There is always a steady internal migration stream that has a decisive role to enhance the scale, diversity and complexity of rapid urbanisation process. Young people (being educated or not) who have support from the social network have gathered in cities to maximise their income opportunities and minimise risk and uncertainties in their place of origin. Although after migration a good number of destitute migrants can make economic gain and consume some civic amenities, they are often offset by the health and security costs that they have to bear in the process. In this circumstance the critical tasks of all concerns to built positive things for cities like productivity, dynamists, efficiency and control those aspects which are deleterious such as inequality, poverty, natural hazards, environmental degradation and manage adequate shelter especially for the poor.

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