The Internal Migration in China & Arab Countries: The Spatial Distribution & Governments’ Policies

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Abstract
Many previous studies had discussed the issue of rural to urban migration in China and others in Arab countries, but this study came with new way of researching by introducing the both regions –China & Arab countries- within same research paper. In addition, the aim of this researching paper has been to analyze in depth one strategy of action that is taken by many young men in rural poor areas and villages to deal with the difficult life and limited jobs opportunities that they face in their villages, under what we called rural to urban migration phenomenon. The paper also will also discuss the governments’ policies in aim to control/guide the huge inflows of rural population into the cities and how do these mechanisms and policies success in some cases and failin others.

Keywords: Rural migrants. China. Algeria. Egypt. Policy

I Introduction
China’s economic success story in the last decades cannot be separated from its plentiful supply of migrant labor from the rural areas in the hinterland to cities along the coast. The analysis of migration trends in China continues to be plagued by problems in interpreting statistics and by inconsistencies in key data over time.

The total urban and rural population have been changed over the last fifty years, the year 1990 was an inflection point of the rural urban migration and as well as the urbanization rates in China, the rural population was more than double of the urban population during all the period from 1953 until 1990, at this year the rural population was more than 800 million persons while the urban population was only about450 million, the floating population has reached to a number of 79million in 2000, and as of 2010, the number of migrant workers from rural China amounts to over 221million.and according to the annual survey results; the total migrant workers in china in 2012 amounted to 262.61 million, which refers to an increase of 9.83 million compared with the previous year with increase percentage by 3.9%. (National Bureau of Statistics 2012).and jump to about 245million by 2013.the opening policy and the development of the industrial sector in china were the key motivations that push and encourage the rural labors to move into the cities in aim to get better job opportunities.

Despite distinct differences between the countries of the Arab Region, there are also many common challenges faced by the countries: expanding populations, a growing youth bulge and high youth unemployment, rapid urbanization and crowding in cities, large flows of immigrants, and shortages of arable land, food and water. Demographic pressures will continue to constitute a core development problem and will continue to have substantial environmental, economic and political consequences for the Region. The Egyptian rural population jump from 44.48 million in 2010 into more than 46.75 million in 2013.while in Algeria the total rural population continued to decline from 12 million in 2010 to about 11.95million in 2013. (World Bank 2014)

The challenge of job creation will need to take into account the millions of new entrants to the labor market as both the working age population and the labor force participation rates, especially for women, will continue to expand. High levels of unemployment will persist even though international migration has provided some relief in certain countries. Consequently, if more opportunities to work abroad are available, the potential for continued emigration will be high.
2 China’s Rural Urban Migration; Trends and Basic Characteristics

The rural urban migration in China increases due to the industrial revolution and open policy, the upsurge in the movement since 1990s was driven by the rapid growth in manufacturing jobs and higher pay in the urban areas, in addition to the liberalization in the rule and regulations. The massive wave of migration of rural laborers to urban centers is estimated to result in 278 million increases in the permanent urban population from 1979 to 2003.

Then in the mid-1980s, the Hukou System — a residence registration system devised in the 1950s to record and control internal migration and which ultimately hindered rural-to-urban movements — began to loosen in response to the demands of both the market and rural residents wishing to seek greater economic opportunity in cities.

At the same time, China’s "Reform and Open" economic policy was already on track for creating unprecedented growth and ultimately resulted in a booming economy with increased incomes across China and large foreign investments directed to the manufacturing industry in Eastern urban areas. Slower income growth for rural families, increased demand for cheap labor in China’s new manufacturing sector, and booming development that encroached on rural lands pushed a large amount of rural surplus labor to the cities. These young rural-urban migrants are referred to as "new-generation” migrants, and this population is becoming the driving force behind China’s migrant labor.

In 1990, the inter-county floating population was less than two percent of the total population, rising to 6.3 percent in 2000. Combining inter-county and intra- county in 2000 suggests that about one in nine Chinese are movers, amounting to a stock of migrants of 144.39 million to 261.39 million in 2010. (Figure 6.2) and continued increasing after 2010 to reach more than 270 million on 2011 & 279 million in 2012.(Table 1.1).

The five-year inter-provincial migration flows from 1995 to 2000 also trebled from 12 million to 32 million, most of whom are temporary migrants without hukou. The rural-to-urban migration rate has increased dramatically from 6.8 percent in 1997 to 22.4 percent in 2006.

Two of the main population’ structural changes in China in 2011 were related to the urbanization and migration phenomenon. The National Bureau of Statistics (NBS2012) mentioned that as following;

- Proportion of urban population was more than 50 percent for the first time

In 2011, the proportion of urban population reached 51.27 percent, climbed 1.32 percentage points over previous year, the urban population stood at 690.79 million persons, went up by 21 million persons, rural population stood at 656.56 million persons, decreased 14.56 million persons. Urban population was 34.23 million persons more than rural population.

- Migration of population continued to increase

In 2011, the population separating from their household in the whole country (residence and household registration in towns where the streets are inconsistent and leave the household registration in more than half year) amounted to 271 million persons, 9.77 million persons increased over previous year. Of which, floating population (population separating from their household in municipal districts does not included) reached 230 million persons, rose by 8.28 million persons over the previous year.

The characteristics of migrants are distinct from the general population indicating they are a selective group. Permanent migrants, most of whom are college educated, have higher occupational attainment and tend to be employed as professionals, managers, and government officials. In contrast, there is evidence that selectivity for the temporary migrants in particular has declined based on the 1990 and 2000 Census data.

Two-thirds of both hukou and non-hukou inter-provincial migrants fall into the age group between 20 and 39, and statistics show that the mean age of migrants has declined over time. Both permanent and temporary migrants are sex-selective, especially for temporary migrants with a sex ratio of 1.56 (males/females) in 1990. However, the sex ratio of migrants has declined sharply to 1.1, indicating increased female participation in migration. Over 80 percent of temporary migrants only have junior secondary education or below, although there is sign that they are becoming better educated as well.

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1Fan (2008) shows that temporary migrants account for almost three quarters of all inter-county migrants from 1995 to 2000.
Owing to their low educational attainment, it is not surprising that temporary migrants concentrate on industrial and commercial service occupations. This decline in selectivity for temporary migrants provides suggestive evidence that migration in the long term may indeed reduce inequalities within the sending communities. (Cindy Fan, 2008)

Most of the migrants move to the south and central east part of China for more developed environment and higher wages, such as Guangdong, Zhejiang, Beijing, Tianjin Shandong...etc, another lower density of migration is concentrated in some central and south western parts of China such as; Wuhan, Chengdu, Chongqing, Changsha and Nanchang.

3 Arab Rural to Urban Migration; Spatial Distribution and Modes of Adjustments

Egypt's population doubled from 9.7 million to 19 million in 50 years (between 1897 and 1947), the next doubling to 38 million people took less than 30 years (from 1947 to 1976). Since then, the population size has almost doubled again, totaling 76 million in 2006. This observation can be explained by a considerable increase in life expectancy at birth from 54 to 71 and a decrease in infant mortality from 110 to 33 (per 1,000 live births) between 1975 and 2005. The annual population growth rate has increased from 1.5% in the beginning of the 20th century to a maximum of 2.8% between 1975 and 1985. However, from 1975 to 2005, the fertility rate fell from 5.5 to 3 children per woman, pushing the growth rate down to 2.1% in the period 1986-1996. For 2006, annual population growth rate is estimate at a level of 1.8% (Zohry2007).

Both of rural and urban population in Egypt continuing increasing rapidly, the urban population increased from 19.7 million on 1980 to 28.3 million on 2000 and jumped to more than 35.3 million in 2013, while the rural population continuing increasing as rapid as the urban growth rates; since 1980 until now the rural population exceeds the urban population in Egypt 25.22 million on 1980 to 37.83 million in 2000 (reach an increase of 10 million compared with urban population) and jumped to 46.75 million in 2013 (period after 2000 the rural population saved the same increase compared by the urban one more than 10 million persons) (Figure 1.4).

Internal migration in Egypt has generally been:

a) From South to North,
b) From South and North to the Canal Zone,
c) From Egypt’s hinterland to Cairo and Alexandria,
d) From Egypt’s center to its peripheries.

As numerous studies have shown, the biggest convergence of migration streams is in the Greater Cairo Region, which includes Cairo, Giza, and Qalyoubiya governorates (Adams 1986; Aldakhil 1999; Burden 1973; El-Boraey 1984, 1986; El-Kurdy 1974; Ibrahim 1986; Nassef 1985; Sharraa 1966; Sharnouby 1968).

Migration from South to North: Hence South includes Fayoum, Menia, Beni-Sueif, Assiut, Souhag, Qena, Luxor, and Aswan. These governorates represent a narrow strip of green land on both sides of the Nile. As a function of limited opportunities for either vertical or horizontal agricultural expansion (through intensification of the already highly intensive agricultural regime or expansion of cultivation to new areas), mounting population pressure has been felt for the last hundred years. One response to this pressure has been a steady stream of migration to the north. Souhag, Qena, Aswan, and Assiut have been the major suppliers of migrants to the North.

The Suez Canal Zone: Until the 1947 census, this area was administratively divided into two governorates: the Canal (which comprised the two cities of Port Said and Ismailia) and Suez. The inflow of migrants to the three governorates began upon the opening of the Suez Canal in the 1860s. The two neighboring governorates of Daquhlya and Damitta accounted for most of the supply to Port Said. Sharqyya provided most of the inflow to Ismailia. Qena, in the deep South, contributed the largest share of the net migration gain of Suez.

Migration from the hinterland to Cairo and Alexandria: The two largest Egyptian cities have been the greatest magnets for migration. Besides their net population imports from the South, the two cities attract similar streams from the Delta.

About two-thirds of the scholarly studies on Egyptian migration have concentrated on the capital city of Cairo. Over the long term, Cairo’s net gain from the South averages about 40 percent of its total in-migrants.

The Delta governorates have contributed the balance of 60 percent during the twentieth century. Most of this hinterland contribution to Cairo’s population has come from Menoufia, Souhag, Assiut, Gharbia, Daquh lyya, Qualyoubyya and Qena (Abdel-Hakim 1966, 1968, 1974, 1975; Aldakhil 1999; Nassef 1985).

The Frontier Governorates: A minor stream of migration has occurred from the center to the Red Sea and Sinai areas from the late 1930s onward. (Naturally, the flow to Sinai was interrupted during the years of Israeli occupation, 1967-84). Although very small in absolute volume, it looms large in relative terms because of the low population of these areas.

The main suppliers of migrants to the frontier areas were Qena, Souhag, and Cairo itself. The expansion of the Red Sea and South Sinai coastal resorts will probably stimulate further migration to these developing coasts provided the tourism industry emerges from its current stagnation.

Studies of internal migrants illustrate their characteristics. Most studies concentrate on the statistical age and sex composition; a few describe the occupational, educational and socioeconomic profiles of migrants. The overall conclusions are the strong preponderance of males over females, and of young over old; and the lack of an explicit selection process as regards migrants’ socio-economic characteristics.

The studies show, however, that the migrants tend to be of relatively higher educational and occupational background than their counterparts at the point of origin, but lower than their counterparts at the destination. One of the strongest factors motivating internal migration in both of Egypt & Algeria is the hope of better work opportunities, thereby enabling migrants to come out of poverty. However, despite the prominence of this factor, only a few studies on Egyptian migration reviewed in this section have focused specifically on it.

In Algeria the rural and urban population curves moved on different way; the urban population continue increasing and jumped from 9.47 million in 1980 to more than 13 million in 1990 and increased rapidly after 2000 to reach about 27 million in 2013 (figure 1.4).

The population distribution in Algeria is differ from the Egyptian case, the geographical characteristics of the country divided it into three regions; each region includes several provinces; the north part, where the capital city and most of the population located, middle part(what we call the high plateaux) which has the second high density of population and the southern part of the country (desert) which cover the largest surface of the country (Figure 1.5).

The trends of the internal migration is also different; most of the Algerian migrants prefer the intra-provincial type of migration and most of those who move far distance from their villages choose to work in south part of the country where the oil national and international companies are located.

With regards to the provinces population growth rates data of (1998-2008); Djelila city got the second highest population growth rate (3.3%) with about 1.092 million persons. Compared with only 1.6% of population growth rate in Algiers (the capital city). (Table1.3)

**Forced migration in Egypt (1967war) and Algeria (during 1990 Th)**

Forced Migration after the 1967 War in Egypt

After the Arab-Israeli War, the three cities of Port Said, Suez, and Ismailia were evacuated. Over 60 percent of their populations became temporary forced migrants in other parts of the country. The total number of forced migrants was nearly three-quarters of a million. Many migrants settled in Sharqyya governorate, the nearest governorate to the Canal Zone. Zagazig -the capital of Sharqyya governorate- received 56,000 migrants from the Canal area. This would have been about 6-7 percent of all migrants.

The vast majority of migrants re-located in Cairo or in their father’s homeland governorates in the Nile valley and the Delta. The peak of migration from the Suez Canal area to the rest of Egypt was in 1967-1969. Starting in 1974, after the 1973 Arab- Israeli war, many of them returned home. The return movement continued until about 1976 (Abdel Shakur et al. 2002).

**The Aswan High Dam and the Nubian Exodus in Egypt**

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3 Here I mention that the distribution of the country’s population and its characteristics seems to be similar to Chinese; in Algeria it’s well known that each province or region is the hometown of one minority.

4 The Algerian economy based totally on the hydrocarbon sector.
The region known as Nubia is the area stretching from the Nile’s First Cataract, in the north near Aswan, to the southern end of its great bend, midway between the Third and Fourth Cataracts. Nubians constitute an ethnic group of nearly 120,000 people (0.29 percent of the total population of Egypt at the time of relocation in 1963). The Aswan High Dam was completed in 1970 and is one of the largest earthen embankment dams in the world. Although the reservoir has benefited Egypt by providing power and controlling floods, it has also had detrimental effects on the Nile system. Before the dam was built, an estimated 110 million tons of silt was deposited by the annual flood of the Nile, enriching agricultural lands.

Cernea (1990) has calculated that 1.2 million to 2.1 million people are internally displaced worldwide every year by the construction of dams. The number of people affected by major dams in the last few decades ranged between 12 thousand (Nangbeto dam, Togo/Benin) and 383 thousand (Danjiangkou, China). The people affected by development-induced migration in general, and the construction of dams, are often the very poorest and the least powerful in society (Cernea, 1990; Scudder and Colson, 1982).

When it was built, the new reservoir required relocation of nearly 100,000 residents and some archaeological sites. The people who were most affected by the dam were the Nubians. All Nubian lands within Egypt and about one-third of the Sudanese Nubian Valley were completely flooded. All Egyptian Nubians and those Sudanese affected by the new lake had no choice but to leave their homeland (Fahim 1981, 1983).

The Nubian resettlement to Kom Ombo (New Nubia) in 1963-64, a district belonging to Aswan governorate created a number of stresses associated with the move itself such as shifts in agricultural styles, food and water problems, and the general upheaval of the social structure (Fahim 1983: 66). The Nubians have always felt that the dam severely disturbed their traditional life and placed them, against their will, in an uncertain situation.

Forced migration during 1990th in Algeria

The period of 1990th was an inflection point in the rural to urban migration history of Algeria and that due to the bad political and security situation (Algerian massacres of the 1990s) in the country.

in that period and starting from 1994 a huge flows of rural people came into the nearest cities which has better security conditions, and most of them tried to find jobs in aim to stay in the city and didn't back to their villages after 2000. A lots of rural residents from the provinces in the middle region moved into the south; I mentioned here about huge migrants came from different cities to Djelfa and most of them prefer to stay forever in Hassi Bah Bah (My hometown)

4 Rural to Urban Migration and Population Policies in Three Countries

4.1 China’s Hukou System and its Reform

Modeled after the propiska system in the Soviet Union and with roots that date back to ancient China, the Residence Registration System (hukou) was established in 1958; it ties citizens to a specific location within China through residency permits (K. W. Chan and W. Buckingham, 2008).

The hukou also outlines an individual’s rights to entitlements: in an agricultural area, the hukou entitles the holder to farmland, while a hukou in an urban area grants the holder access to jobs, housing, food, and other public services. The 1984 reform liberalized the movement of the rural poor, but without changing the hukou system; and without a local hukou (i.e., permanent change in residency) they are not fully entitled to social benefits (e.g., government housing) or public services (e.g., urban education system) or access to jobs in the destination areas. As in other areas of reform, the Chinese government has chosen a gradual and partial approach: providing labor rights but falling short of full establishment of the hukou system.

The reforms include exemptions for major cities, and analysts say key measures are not enforceable by the centre. Even if 100 million gain new rights, there are more than that already living in cities without official status. The hukou system, introduced in the 1950s, ties people's access to services to their residential status. When controls on movement were relaxed, tens of millions of migrant workers left the fields to work in factories, toil on building sites, and serve in restaurants or clean homes, contributing to China's spectacular economic growth.

But while they have built new cities and boosted their incomes, they have not enjoyed the same benefits in health care, pensions and other social welfare as city residents. Their children often struggle to access education; tens of millions have been left in the countryside to be raised by grandparents.
From the late 1980s to the mid-1990s, many city governments offered the “blue-stamp” hukou to well-off migrants who were able to make sizable investments. Training of rural-urban migrants is one of the policies in the early 1990s. The Migration Work Registration Card at the migrants’ place of hukou origin and the Employment License at the place of destination were created to facilitate job searching and give migrants access to employment service from government agencies.

In 1997, the State Council approved a pilot scheme to grant urban hukou to rural migrants who held stable jobs and had resided in selected towns and small cities for more than two years.

In recent years, governments have undertaken reforms to establish a unified hukou regime to effectively eliminate the distinction between agricultural and non-agricultural hukou. Experiments in 12 provinces have been underway since 2007, although in general, small cities and towns have liberalized faster than the big metropolitan areas where barriers remain high. In 2007, the new Labor Contract Law gave migrant workers along with other ordinary workers better rights and greater protection in terms of entitlement to written labor contracts and long-term job security. In 2008, the Ministry of Human Resources and Social Security announced that the measures on the portable pension for migrant workers will be implemented by the end of 2008 (Fang Cai et al., 2009).

The reason that the household registration system is encouraging group hierarchies (certain groups have the right to social insurances but others do not) in current circumstances. In other words, residents who are encouraging the household registration system believe that “unequal social outcomes and social hierarchies are appropriate and support the unequal distribution of resources among ethnic groups”.

The participants have stronger attitudes regarding the Hukou system compared to political rights, even though the responses to both questions are focusing on the rights of actualizing interests of their own and the sharing of existing limited resources. But the rights that come with the household registration are clearer and straightforward compared to the ability of participating in elections.

All of the arguments are based on the interest of protecting the limited resources, which illustrates their concern of power and wealth of the in-group. Applying to ChongFa Yuan, the vice president of the China Urban Development Institute, the bigger a city the more power it has and in turn more resources. Based on the announcement of Yuan, the resources will expand in accordance to the demands and that is why city residents do not have to worry. On the other hand, one can argue to what extent a city will be able to expand and in the end, it will reach a point where the city can no longer grow. Moreover, the tendency to dissociate the group membership is obvious, compared to the three citations above, the argument below highlights the reason immigrants chose to move to cities. They want to become city residents because of the welfare and living insurance and that is why we instead should improve welfare in countryside.

Instead of focusing on how to solve the problems with migrant workers in the city, the government should increase the social and economy development in rural areas. However, other political documents that have been published such as “the12 five-year plan” highlights the importance of increasing development in rural regions. Fei-ling Wang, a professor at Georgia Tech and author of Organization through Division and Exclusion: China's Hukou System said: "The system is simply too important to get rid of: it helps the government to rule." He said even incremental reform was good news, noting that specific details in the document – such as limits on how long governments can require social welfare contributions from migrants before granting them a hukou – should help workers.

He also noted that the document did not get to grips with the crucial question of land rights. In trials, many migrants have been reluctant to adopt an urban hukou because that would mean losing land rights, which they regard as an insurance policy. Deferring the issue might reassure workers for now but raised questions about the long term, he said. "It could even be a new way of appropriating their land."

Lu Yilong, an expert on hukou at Renmin University, said eradicating the urban/rural hukou distinction would form the basis for broader welfare and social service reforms. "Although regional differences, such as the difference between Beijing and Anhui, are likely to linger on, the reform will gradually bridge gaps within the same region," he said.

He said the government needed to follow up with matching reforms in areas such as education equality, social welfare and city planning.
Tao Ran, an expert on rural policy and urbanization at Renmin University, said funding should be provided for public services. At present, local governments have few sources of income. Migrants will be able to settle in small cities freely, but will face restrictions if they seek to move to cities with populations of between three to five million and a tough points system for cities with more than five million inhabitants.

4.2 Egyptian Migration Policies and Management

A statistical study made by Mervat Abdel-Atty from Cairo University in 2009 about the relationship between the in thermal migration and fertility in Egypt found that large variations are between rural and urban non-migrants, while the characteristics of migrants who move between similar types of places (rural-rural and urban-urban) are approximately the same as the characteristics of non-migrants. On the other hand, the characteristics of rural-urban and urban-rural migrants lie between the two extremes of non-migrants (characteristics of urban and rural non-migrants).

With respect to achieved fertility, it was found that fertility of urban non-migrants is significantly lower than rural non-migrants fertility. With longer duration of stay in destination area, fertility of migrants who move between different areas is intermediate between fertility of urban non-migrants and that of rural non-migrants. Fertility of urban-urban migrants does not statistically differ from that of urban non-migrants, while fertility of rural-rural migrants is lower than fertility of rural non-migrants (disruption effect of migration). Logistic regression analysis showed a significant effect of fertility on migration (adaptation effect of fertility). She found appreciable effects of place of residence and change in residence on fertility. The nature of these effects is quite diverse, by place of origin, place of destination and previous childbearing. The results are most consistent with the selection process (model), with great evidence for.

Egypt's Family Planning Program

Egypt's national family planning program, in existence since 1965, has been fairly successful in increasing the use of family planning methods and lowering the population growth rate in Egypt. Governmental efforts in the field of population and family planning activities became widely noticeable in the 1950s after the establishment of the National Commission for Population Matters in 1953. The National Charter, which was proclaimed in 1962, contained the first official government support for family planning: “Population increase constitutes the most dangerous obstacle that faces the Egyptian people in their desire for raising the standard of population in their country in an effective and efficient way. Attempts of family planning deserve the most sincere efforts by modern scientific methods” (Zohry 2002).

Recently, governmental efforts to deliver family planning services have been strengthened. Political leaders frequently speak out in support of family planning and its utmost necessity for curbing rapid population growth (Osheba, 1993). The most recent development carried out by the Ministry of Health and Population is the integration of family planning services within the umbrella of reproductive health and women's status. The role of the non-governmental organizations was greatly strengthened and appreciated after the 1994 International Conference on Population and Development (ICPD), held in Cairo.

The analysis of total fertility reveals a significant adaptation effect in case of both the rural-urban and urban-rural migrants. Rural-urban migrants display considerably lower levels of cumulative fertility compared to urban non-migrants. Similarly, in keeping with the adaptation hypothesis urban to rural migrants are associated with fertility level as that of rural non-migrants.

4.3 Algeria Government Policies in aim to Control the Rural Urban Migration

First and before I move to the migration and rural development policies adopted by the Algerian government, I want to mention about some characteristics of both rural and urban employment; the table 6.4 below shows the share of both urban and rural labors in different sectors by gender provided by National office of statistics (NOS2014), the share of the rural labors in the agricultural sector was 23 percent, lower than public construction sector with about 23.7 percent and 45.1 percent in the commerce & services sector, while the industrial sector received the lower percentage of the rural labor with only 8.2 percent compared by other sectors.

The general characteristics of the Algerian employment show that commerce & service sector is the most active sector with 50.02% of the total employment in the country’s economy (65.3 percent of the urban employment are under this sector), in the second level the agricultural sector covers 23.36% of the total employment, while the industrial and public construction sectors come in the last level with 13.34% & 13.28%. (Figure1.6)
Evolution of the Employment Created by Wilaya between 2005 and 2006:

The wilaya -Province- of El Bayadh comes in first level with 8453 position, with a decrease of 37% compared to 2005. The province of Djelfa comes secondly with 5798, has regressed compared to 2005 (9771 a decrease of 40.66%). As against the wilaya Saida recorded an increase of 643 jobs, or 14.87%, and the province of M'sila whose progress is 764 or 21.49% compared to 2005 (Figure 1.7).

For 2006, only 5 wilayas have created more than 4,000 jobs each and totaling 28043 jobs or 26.88% of the total. When they were 8 to have created more than 4,000 jobs each.

Rural Development Strategy in Algeria

Rural Development Strategy in Algeria was in 2006 to develop a strategy for rural development (rural renewal), and in 2008 was to continue the path through the renewal of the agricultural economy strategy, where the aim of this strategy (2009-2013), as a National Plan for Sustainable Development of Agriculture to create permanent positions filled and enhance food security of the country.

This plan is based on five key areas:

- Upgrade motivational environment for investors and agricultural dealers in the food industry and strengthen support for harmonizing policy;
- Development of organizational tools in particular through the amendment of the wide consumption of agricultural products system, securing wealth producers (in the field of agriculture, animal husbandry and food industries);
- Input element of youth between the exploiters of peasant women investors and promote their technical abilities through the activation of training and research and circulated;
- Modernization of agricultural management and strengthening of institutions and public bodies involved (forest management, veterinary services, plant health services, granting brands ...).

At the same time, agriculture and rural development sector initiated the conclusion of two types of performance contracts in each state, one relevant to the agricultural side and the renewal of Agricultural Economics (ten programs) The second is irrelevant rural renewal and about politics Rural Renewal (12000 project Maids Integrated Rural Development) and will apply these extended contracts over the period 2009-2013 from the 2008-2009 agricultural season

- Aims to support rural renewal of four standardized software program:
- Modernize the villages to improve the conditions of life in rural homes,
- Diversification of economic activities,
- Preservation and enhancement of natural resources,
- Protecting and valuing rural heritage tangible and intangible.

Regarding the results, the agriculture sector has been known sophisticated growth (1.9% in 2005 and 9.4% in 2006 and 5% in 2007. The figure is 8% of the raw domestic income) and the government launched in 2000 the National Development Plan and rural renewal, which among its objectives ensure food security for the country and upgrade revenues operating in rural areas in a sustainable way of natural resources resulted in the implementation of the national plan for the development of rural and specifically to increase the inventory tree.

The most important planned rural development programs is to provide jobs in Algeria: this was done through a number of projects are as follows:

- **Rural Employment Project**: This project was launched in 2004 on an area of 1.4272 million hectares located in mountainous areas at the level of 6 states (Tiaret, Tasemsilt, Chlef, Ain Defla, Medea, Bouira), and the target population group is estimated at 1,340,206 people, and was the primary goal of this project is Create a permanent positions filled within the framework of the fight against unemployment and the rural exodus.

- **Project for the development of agriculture and the creation of jobs in the mountains and in the basin slope of the valley of Willow**: launched in 2003 for a period of 7 years, and for an estimated area of 34110 hectares located within the mandate of the Skikda (3 municipalities) and the state of Constantine (one municipality), and Category reached the target unemployment 23000 people.

- **National plan for forestation**: This ensures that the planned open positions of permanent and temporary jobs for idle in the countryside, where they were created for a period of twenty years to take care of partially combat desertification and protect sloping basins, and priority is given where the dams being exploited, and
dams under construction, where the aims of this scheme in total of 600,000 hectares, of which 265,000 hectares, or about 45% of the achievement in the context of protecting and valuing the vicinity of steep mountainous areas in the basin.

- **Associated with the preservation of land and water sectors development programs:** funded by the state to create new jobs and reduce rural exodus, and are released annually (such as economic growth and support the program and the high plateaus).

- **Intensify the completion of rural barracks program:** The Algerian state tried by supporting rural development programs attempt the rural population, through the rural housing programs, which even reached the end of 2007 about 529,000 housing, benefit from the financial support of the state. The following table shows the contribution of the agricultural sector in creating job positions.

Through the table we can verify the importance of the rural sector in the creation of new jobs, but we note a significant decrease in the jobs that have been developed from the sector, and can be ascribed to the modern techniques used recently in the sector, through modern technology; in addition to the jobs updated from other sectors that have had the greater weight of the agricultural sector, and the economic transformation in Algeria and pursued the policy of industrialization, which contributed to the existence of differences between the entrances in the agricultural sector and other sectors, and the latter is working to lure workers and thus attract labor to it frequently, and the lack of financial resources peasants, which led to their migration to the cities in search of work.

### 6. Conclusion

This study is case-oriented and focuses on rural to urban labor migration in three countries; China, Algeria and Egypt. Significantly, it’s started with the earlier studies, literature reviews presented in the earlier parts of this paper. Then the researcher goes more deeply on the case study by introducing the rural to urban migration characteristics and trends in three countries, and finally make a discussion about each government reactions in aim to control/ guide this floating of rural population into the cities.

What is undeniable, however, is that casual migrant labor is widespread in the developing world. Poorly paid and condemned to work in the most marginal jobs under tough exploitative conditions, migrants involved in internal migration are still surprisingly little understood in countries such as Egypt and Algeria. Which describe internal migration as country’s rural to urban symbiosis, and stresses the lack of scholarly researching attention and strategic policies addressed to this important yet silent revolution.

My study can therefore be seen as an attempt to fill at least part of this scholarly void, although for reasons of time and manageability my research has been rather narrowly focused on one specific migration stream, that of landless and semi-landless laborers from rural villages to the three cities where my study was done. The primary location of the research has been at the destination –urban cities-, where the main case study was carried out.

I also intended to examine the phenomenon of internal migration within the context of a set of broader macro-issues which are the concern of the governments as well as of social scientists and researchers, and that based on discussing the similarities and differences among the three countries to come out with some lessons to learn from. From this study and previous studies I found that the Migrants are less educated than the urban areas citizens. Also they are the poorest, and it is precisely this poverty, often linked to landless and large families, which motivated them to migrate. Also, they do not live a complete social life in the city.

In case of Egypt for example; from the village point of view, a wife's fear of losing her husband in the urban environment perhaps encourages her to tie him with more children.

One explanation for migrants’ higher than expected fertility relates to the increased material well-being of migrants’ remittances which guide to an increase of the financial input, migrants may feel able to have more children than they would have had without this extra income supplement. It’s normal and well known that the education level of the parents has a negative relation with the number of children –fertility- educated migrants have fewer children than non-educated migrants.

The difference is more than one live child between the two groups. However, this comparison should only be taken as an indicator of the effect of education, rather than a hard fact, due to the few numbers of educated migrants (UN2005). For the same reason, calculating the mean number of children by wife's education is not possible due to the prevalence of illiteracy among migrants' wives.
A further factor which compromises the significance of the educated versus non-educated figures of numbers of children is the age factor, for older migrants are the ones who tend to have both less education and (by virtue of their age) more children.

A majority of people in China probably agree that the household registration system is archaic and unfair and that rural hukou holders working in the cities should be given greater access to schooling, social and medical welfare benefits. (SCC2012) However, there is also considerable resistance from urban residents to relaxation of restrictions. Urban governments often do not have the financial resources to expand provision of social services to include all migrant workers and their families. There is also resistance from the police to wholesale hukou reform, at least until an alternative system of national identity cards can be put in place that can ensure effective surveillance and tracking of criminals (State Council 2011).

At present, hukou reform has been limited to piecemeal reform at the local level, with individual regions relaxing restrictions for certain rural migrant workers, in most cases those from the same province and those who have already made a demonstrable contribution to the local economy. That approach seems destined to continue for the foreseeable future.

Therefore, solving the problem ofigrant workers in cities- even for those who are still living in the city- does not fundamentally solve the problem of all farmers." This theoretical perspective, actually belong to tinkering, palliatives, metaphysics, on paper. He believes that the difference between urban and rural household registration system is triggered one of the reasons .Urbanization is the essence of the residents into farmers, small producers into the main body of the modern market economy.

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Liang, LiQing. They were born in cities, but they are confused. The new generation peasant workers are always on the road. Shanghai China News, 20 Feb 2012, <http://www.sh.chinanews.com/pageurl/20122201314417.html>,


**Figure 1.1: Urban vs. Rural Population in China (1953-2010)**

Unit (10 million)

![Urban vs. Rural Population in China (1953-2010)](image)

Source: made by author depends on National Population Census. NBS

**Figure 1.2: China’s Population Migrations 2000-2010**

![China’s Population Migrations 2000-2010](image)

Source: Wu Jie, the Vital Statistics System in China (June2011) Department of Population and Employment NBS
Table 1.1: Changes of Population of Residence-Registration Inconsistency and Floating Population in China (2000-2012)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Population of Residence-Registration Inconsistency</th>
<th>Floating Population</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>2000</td>
<td>1.44</td>
<td>1.21</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2005</td>
<td>/</td>
<td>1.47</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2010</td>
<td>2.61</td>
<td>2.21</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2011</td>
<td>2.71</td>
<td>2.30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2012</td>
<td>2.79</td>
<td>2.36</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: made by author depends on National Population Census. NBS

Table 1.2: China’ Migrants Profile per Education Levels (2010 %)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Education</th>
<th>Intra-provincial</th>
<th>Inter-provincial</th>
<th>Age 20-24, national total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>M</td>
<td>F</td>
<td>M</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Primary or lower</td>
<td>17.3</td>
<td>22.0</td>
<td>17.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Middle school</td>
<td>39.1</td>
<td>38.3</td>
<td>39.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>High school</td>
<td>26.2</td>
<td>23.5</td>
<td>26.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>College or above</td>
<td>17.4</td>
<td>16.3</td>
<td>17.4</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


Figure 1.3: Trends of Migration in China (2012)

**Figure 1.4: Rural Urban Populations in Egypt (1980-2013)**

Source: made by author depends on World Bank Data (2014)

**Figure 1.5: Migration Trends in Egypt**

Source: made by author depends on different sources

**Figure 1.6: Rural Urban Population in Algeria (1980-2013)**

Source: made by author depends on World Bank Data (2014) and NOS (2014)
**Figure 1.7: The Population Density in Algeria (2012)**

![Map of Algeria showing population density](image)

Source: world trade press 2012

**Table 1.3: Algeria’s Population growth by Sex and growth rate per Province (Wilaya) (1998-2008)**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Wilaya</th>
<th>Masculin</th>
<th>Feminin</th>
<th>Total</th>
<th>Taux d'accroissement</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Adrar</td>
<td>203836</td>
<td>195878</td>
<td>399714</td>
<td>2.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chlef</td>
<td>502470</td>
<td>499618</td>
<td>1002088</td>
<td>1.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Laghouat</td>
<td>232517</td>
<td>223085</td>
<td>455602</td>
<td>3.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ouarg El Bouaghli</td>
<td>314084</td>
<td>307527</td>
<td>621612</td>
<td>1.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Batna</td>
<td>565320</td>
<td>554472</td>
<td>1119791</td>
<td>1.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bejaia</td>
<td>465612</td>
<td>446965</td>
<td>912577</td>
<td>0.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Biskra</td>
<td>395040</td>
<td>356317</td>
<td>751357</td>
<td>2.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bechar</td>
<td>135436</td>
<td>134626</td>
<td>270061</td>
<td>1.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Biskra</td>
<td>595960</td>
<td>493335</td>
<td>1009295</td>
<td>2.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bouchra</td>
<td>353195</td>
<td>342367</td>
<td>695562</td>
<td>1.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Béjaoue</td>
<td>908380</td>
<td>958836</td>
<td>1867216</td>
<td>2.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ténès</td>
<td>326086</td>
<td>323617</td>
<td>638703</td>
<td>1.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tlemcen</td>
<td>480364</td>
<td>464771</td>
<td>945135</td>
<td>1.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tizi Ouzou</td>
<td>560974</td>
<td>562333</td>
<td>1123307</td>
<td>0.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sidi Bel Abbès</td>
<td>1499880</td>
<td>1488345</td>
<td>2988225</td>
<td>1.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Blida</td>
<td>562207</td>
<td>529977</td>
<td>1092184</td>
<td>3.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Djelfa</td>
<td>320820</td>
<td>316128</td>
<td>636948</td>
<td>1.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Jijel</td>
<td>756434</td>
<td>733545</td>
<td>1489979</td>
<td>1.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Setif</td>
<td>166717</td>
<td>163925</td>
<td>330642</td>
<td>1.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Skikda</td>
<td>452232</td>
<td>446288</td>
<td>898520</td>
<td>1.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sidi Bel Abbès</td>
<td>305130</td>
<td>299514</td>
<td>604644</td>
<td>1.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Annaba</td>
<td>305030</td>
<td>304969</td>
<td>609999</td>
<td>0.9</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 1.4: Distribution of the Employed Population by Establishing Business Sector, Gender (Unit: Thousand Persons)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sector</th>
<th>Masculin</th>
<th>Féminin</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Effectif</td>
<td>%</td>
<td>Effectif</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Urbain</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Agriculture</td>
<td>226</td>
<td>4,1</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Industrie</td>
<td>709</td>
<td>12,8</td>
<td>265</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>BTP</td>
<td>984</td>
<td>17,8</td>
<td>27</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Commerce –services</td>
<td>3614</td>
<td>65,3</td>
<td>1205</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total Urbain</td>
<td>5533</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>1508</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rural</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Agriculture</td>
<td>706</td>
<td>23,0</td>
<td>65</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Industrie</td>
<td>252</td>
<td>8,2</td>
<td>103</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>BTP</td>
<td>727</td>
<td>23,7</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Commerce –services</td>
<td>1385</td>
<td>45,1</td>
<td>281</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total Rural</td>
<td>3070</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>454</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ensemble</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Agriculture</td>
<td>932</td>
<td>10,8</td>
<td>75</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Industrie</td>
<td>961</td>
<td>11,2</td>
<td>368</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>BTP</td>
<td>1711</td>
<td>19,9</td>
<td>32</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Commerce –services</td>
<td>5000</td>
<td>58,1</td>
<td>1487</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>8603</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>1962</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: NOS publication « ACTIVITE, EMPLOI & CHÔMAGE EN AVRIL 2014 »

BTP « Bâtiments et travaux publics »: refers to the Building & construction sector

Figure 1.8: The Distribution of Total Algerian Employment by sector 2014

Source: Algerian Ministry of Agriculture and rural Development (French)
Figure 1.9: Creation of Job Opportunities in Each Province (2006)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>4000 et +</th>
<th>Entre 2000 et 4000</th>
<th>Entre 1000 et 2000</th>
<th>Moins de 1000</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>El-Bayadh</td>
<td>8 453</td>
<td>Laghouat</td>
<td>3 990</td>
<td>1 926</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Djelfa</td>
<td>5 798</td>
<td>Medea</td>
<td>3 955</td>
<td>1 907</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Saida</td>
<td>4 965</td>
<td>Guelma</td>
<td>3 927</td>
<td>1 781</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tlemcen</td>
<td>4 508</td>
<td>Tiaret</td>
<td>3 891</td>
<td>1 774</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>M'sila</td>
<td>4 319</td>
<td>Tipaza</td>
<td>3 649</td>
<td>1 714</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>S. B.Abbes</td>
<td>3 602</td>
<td>1 659</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Chlef</td>
<td>3 057</td>
<td>1 474</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Mascara</td>
<td>3 008</td>
<td>1 446</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Skikda</td>
<td>2 635</td>
<td>1 439</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>O.E.Bouaghi</td>
<td>2 565</td>
<td>1 418</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>El-Oued</td>
<td>2 447</td>
<td>1 414</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Blida</td>
<td>2 383</td>
<td>1 414</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Annaba</td>
<td>2 252</td>
<td>1 157</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Jijel</td>
<td>2 126</td>
<td>1 137</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Tissemsilt</td>
<td>2 034</td>
<td>1 128</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


Table 1.5: The Contribution of the Agricultural sector in Creating Job Positions (Thousands)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Years</th>
<th>2000</th>
<th>2001</th>
<th>2002</th>
<th>2003</th>
<th>2004</th>
<th>2005</th>
<th>2006</th>
<th>2007</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Total jobs</td>
<td>168</td>
<td>356</td>
<td>320</td>
<td>361</td>
<td>773</td>
<td>448</td>
<td>505</td>
<td>267</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>In the agricultural sector</td>
<td>/</td>
<td>143</td>
<td>110</td>
<td>127</td>
<td>52</td>
<td>66</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>72</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The contribution of the agricultural sector (%)</td>
<td>/</td>
<td>40.16</td>
<td>34.37</td>
<td>35.18</td>
<td>6.72</td>
<td>14.73</td>
<td>19.2</td>
<td>26.96</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Algerian Ministry of Agriculture and rural Development (2013)