

# CHAPTER I

## INTRODUCTION

### 1.1 Background

Today, due to the effect of globalization and liberalization the number of living outside their country of birth is larger than at any other time in history. International migrants would now constitute the world's fifth most populous country if they all live in the same place (UNFPA, 2006:14)

As estimated, 191 million people now live outside their country of birth, making significant contribution to the social and economic development of their host countries and their countries of origin. Female migrants constitute nearly half of all than male migrants' world wide and they are more numerous than male migrants in developed countries (SAARC, 2005:117).

In an increasingly globalized economy migration often provides employment opportunities giving rise to an unprecedented flow of migrants, including increasing number of female migrants. At the same time there are growing numbers of refugees and people initially displaced by natural disasters, armed conflict, or economic and political crises (UNFPA, 2004:25)

International migratory movement has big economic, demographic and socio-cultural impact on both sending and receiving countries as well transit area. Transit and receiving countries have difficulties to manage the migration flows and integrating into society. Sending and receiving countries are economically influenced from migration. Remittances from migrants flow from more to less developed countries.

Nepal has a long history of labour migration. From around two hundred years, Nepali men and women to a lesser extent have been leaving their homes to seek employment and are living aboard. Due to open boarder and

similarity in culture, history of Nepali migrants to India is very old. Marriage is the most affecting factor for female migration. A total of 11,944 females were emigrated due to marriage, and however only 2,157 males were emigrated due to the same reason in 2001. After initiation of Gorkha Regiments by British government, Nepalese were emigrated to join the troops. All these emigrants were male. To obtain the data on emigration by sex, there was not any mechanism before census year 1952/54. In the census 1952/54, a total of 198,120 people were absentee and 24,501 (12.4%) were female out of them. Largest number of emigrants destination was India accounting for 79.4 percent of total emigrants. The second largest number of emigrants had their destination in Malaya. On the basis of the census 1991, a total of 658,290 people were absentees combining 548,002 male and 110,288 female. Out of them only 0.36 percent of total female emigrants were emigrated to Arab countries. So many females seem to be emigrated by census 1991. But emigration to European and American countries were simply not counted as labour emigration because of no working visa permission for those countries. Similarly census 2001 considered latest source of information reveals that there are 762,181 people emigrated from Nepal and out of them 82712 are female. Taking female only 82.88 percent are emigrated to India 0.04 percent, Maldives, 4.66 percent are Hong Kong, 0.08 percent are Malaysia, 1.0 percent are Saudi Arabia, 0.22 percent are Qatar, 0.78 percent Kuwait, 0.3 percent are UAE and 0.15 percent are emigrated to Bahrain. Some other women are emigrated to European, American and other countries (CBS, 2003).

According to Department of Labour and employment promotion (DLEP) 2002, there were 222,273 documented emigrant workers from Nepal. Among them the largest number (79,702) of people are emigrated in Saudi Arabia and followed by Malaysia with 55,414 people. Third stage placed by Qatar

with 50,530 Remaining others are engaged in different other countries like Kuwait, Bahrain, Israel, Maldives, Oman etc.

Most of the foreign job seekers are from rural areas about 86 percent and most of them (about 80%) engaged in agriculture sector. There are less job opportunities, income generation activities, isolation from communication, transportation, education, medical and electricity, unemployment such that most of them are under the poverty line which reflects them for foreign job seekers. Especially, unskilled human resources are moving towards Gulf countries for their economic welfare and employment.

Since the decades of 1990s, the pattern of foreign employment has changed, and it has become easier in the new multi-party democratic system in the country to obtain passport to travel to countries other than India. Initially the destination for foreign employment was Gulf countries. Now, East Asian countries, especially Malaysia are popular destination for foreign employment. Malaysia is the most Nepalese labour observed country and the Qatar has placed second Nepalese labour receiving country.

Most of the female emigrants are working as domestic labour. Women domestic servants are extremely vulnerable to sexual harassment in their work place, and mental harassment from employers. There is no bilateral agreement between governments to address the vulnerabilities of women labour migrants. Although, Nepal has signed nine international conventions so far which are aimed at protecting domestic workers, these conventions are not effectively implemented. As a result, most of women, who migrate to work not protected by insurance, have limited access to health facilities. They have no provident fund and no guarantee of wages or leave (Gurung, 2004: 18). Most of the emigrant women workers are employed as domestic worker in India and Gulf too.

## **1.2 Statement of the Problem**

From a gender perspective, women should have equal opportunities and treatment as men in immigration and emigration policies and access to international labour markets. On the other hand their status as women, as migrants or non-national and as workers particularly vulnerable to various forms of discrimination, exploitation and abuse.

Nepalese foreign labour legislation discourages women to migrate to work abroad. Women are not legally allowed to travel for work in the Gulf countries. Despite the conditions Nepalese women find ways to travel for work in the Gulf. These alternatives often involve higher cost and a greater degree of vulnerability. Women faced considerable problem at home during the recruitment process and at work in the destination countries.

The third countries, lately gulf countries have been attracting the Nepalese labour force in providing the labour job, basically required visas in respective countries for services. It should be properly carry of planning and policy for rapidly increasing trend of labour force migration.

In the context of Nepal, women are less likely to have access to the financial resources to pay the cost involved in such a trip. To obtain passport and work documents from the Department of Labour and Employment Promotion, women need to have the written permission of guardian or husband if married. But it is not easy to get such type of permission. On the other hand, so many manpower agencies are involving for supplying manpower to various countries. People are cheated by some illegal agencies. Many people are much more charged by agencies. Sometime they should wait for a long time for their visas without any financial relief in Kathmandu.

Manipulation of family structure is also a social problem of women emigration.

From human rights perspective, migration is considered as rights based approach. But foreign employment for women is still not regarded as dignified job by society. Besides, some migrant women have been trafficked also. Maiti Nepal has rescued so many women of trafficking from India and even from Gulf like Saudi Arabia, Oman, and Kuwait.

Women are given false information about the type of job, as well as about salary and facilities. Another claim is that, women have difficulty in convincing their families to allow them to work abroad if she is leaving her own. Some false agents and middleman have disappeared after convincing the women to work abroad and taking fee from them (SAMANATA, 2003: 14).

Ganesh Gurung, had presented in a national consultation on empowering migrant women workers on Nepal 2003, that 69 billion Nepalese rupees is received as remittance which is 25 percent of the total GDP but the frequent uses of the HUNDI system gives under recording of remittances sent in by the migrant workers. And it is seen that 0.07 percent Nepali women were migrant workers in 2001, whereas 47 percent of women worldwide were participating in international labour market (ML&TM and UNIFEM, 2003:28). But government has not recognized contribution of migrant workers.

The recruiting agents reported that there is a lot of demand for women workers abroad than men. However due to government policy avoid sending women. The proprietors of the recruiting agencies also reported as there is always some risk of sexual exploitation of women anywhere in the world,

they fear that the women working abroad might get into this kind of trouble (SAMANATA, 2003: 16).

Migrant women have so many problems both in origin and destination. They are misguided by agent and middleman in origin about process and mechanism of migration. Another problem is lack of financial resources. Migrant women workers are discriminated by labour law of the destination countries. They have so many problem of verbal abuse, mental harassment by employers, not paid to them on the agreement basis and many more.

The government has prioritized foreign employment as a main programme in order to activate the dying economy due to conflict. A policy had implemented whereby a minimum 100,000 youths would be sent for foreign employment in the year 2002/03. But there are so many problems in visa due to lack of embassies of related countries in Nepal. Nepalese youth labour receiving counties like Saudi Arabia, Qatar UAE and some others have not established their embassies in Nepal. So, people going those countries have to obtain their visa from Delhi or Dhaka. Although Chinese Embassy is present in Nepal, it doesn't issue the visa to Hong Kong.

Migrant workers have been troubled to get good information and legal protection in destination due to lack of diplomatic mission or labour attache. Similarly, migrant workers have some difficulties to adopt into new culture and society in destination and even way to work due to lack of pre-departure training and orientation.

So many youths (men/women) are emigrating to work abroad using illegal way. Such as Iraq, Afghanistan via India and they called undocumented migrants. Some of them are women emigrants also. Undocumented migrants especially women are often unable to openly organize for fear of reprisal and

deportation. Many more problems have been existing with migrant women workers hiddenly.

### **1.3 Research Questions**

Based on the statement of the problem, following research questions are set:

- ) What is the nature and magnitude of women emigration?
- ) What are the socio-economic prospects of women emigration?
- ) How women migrant workers are facing problems in origin and destination?

To fulfill the above research/study questions analysis are chapter III and IV. Chapter III is about quantitative analysis of emigrants and chapter IV is about socio-economic prospects of emigration.

### **1.4 Objectives**

The general objective of this research is to identify the contemporary trend of emigration from Nepal and its long term consequences. The specific objectives are:

- ) To identify the nature and magnitude of emigration and share of female.
- ) To examine the socio-economic prospects of emigration both men and women.
- ) To find out the problems of migrant women workers.

### **1.5 Rationale of the Study**

There is no data on women migrating overseas for work because government data is not disaggregated by sex. Although government policy does not

encourage women to work abroad and restricts women working in the Gulf region, various sources show that women have not stopped emigration to work. The government has not even been able to prevent Nepalese women reaching the Gulf for work, an estimated 8-10000 Nepali women are working in the Gulf at present (UNIFEM/SAMANATA, 2002 cited in Gurung, 2004: 29).

Nepal has long history of international migration as well female migration. Actually female were followers of their husbands and family in the very past. Nowadays emigration and abroad employment is considered as human rights and gender perspectives. Foreign employment for women has emerged as a economic phenomena in Nepal for now. Women's participation in globalized labour migration is being vital issue. Issue of women labour emigration from Nepal is very new for us even being long history of international labour migration. There are malpractices in recruitment and employment of foreign labour migrants. Mostly women are vulnerable from this process. Similarly sever checks are imposed to female by the family and no governmental support for women.

There is gap in data on labour migration in Nepal due to lack of enough primary and reliable researches. However very few researches has been carried out by different types of NGOs and INGOs like UNIFEM, SAMANATA etc. but some of the studies have only focused on remittance and some others are only highlighted the challenges of migrant women workers. So, this study will attempt to identify and generalize the especial socio-economic concern based on the different types of references. And it will also fulfill the few gaps of information providing updated resources regarding the international women labour migration.

This study will specify the foreign employment of women with references to Overseas, Gulf, Malaysia and different other countries. It gives less importance to India.

## **1.6 Methodology**

### **1.6.1 Research Design**

This study is done especially based on secondary sources of information. Both quantitative and qualitative information are collected to observe situation of international labour migration as well women. Required information is obtained from the national and international publications, authorized documents produced by the government of Nepal, and non-governmental bodies. Some relevant primary information are obtained by the non-formal interviews with experts especially Ghana Nath Parajuli (Member, Nepal Association of Foreign Employment Occupation), which are qualitative information.

### **1.6.2 Sources of Data**

All of the required data and information for this study are collected from the printed sources. Like articles, bulletins, some researches which had already done. Also national and international publications are used as sources of information. All these printed materials are belongs to UNIFEM, ILO, World Bank, CBS, DLEP, UN and etc. Some qualitative information is collected by asking informal questions to returnees.

### **1.6.3 Data Analysis Technique**

Available quantitative data has been presented in the table, percentage distribution, pie chart and bar graph. Then presented data has been analyzed

through the descriptive technique. It means data has been interpreted by explaining an organized way.

## **1.7 Limitations**

No dissertations are found on the issue of women international labour migration even though the limited literatures and specific studies national and internationally are found. It is difficult task to perform on the basis of limited studies. Despite of those lacking, this study tries to identify the characteristics, nature and trend of women emigration from Nepal and socio-economic prospects. This study is on the basis of secondary sources of information due to lack of resources to conduct the primary survey.

Data is taken between the times from census year 1981 to till 2006. But no proper data on labour migration were available before 1993/94 as records of DLEP and census data gives a small figure. So this study may not give a real picture on trend of labour migration by sex since the decades of 1980s. Quantitative information may be different on the basis of sources. So this study may not claim exactly how many people were working abroad in 2006. On the other hand thousands of youth are working abroad illegally. It is estimated that more than 1 million people are working in Gulf and Malaysia but our legal documents show that only around 0.85 million Nepalese are working abroad. So this study won't cover the undocumented emigrants. And this study is done for an individual purpose and using secondary sources of information. Similarly, to find out the problems of migrant women workers only 86 returnees are taken as a sample. So findings of this study may not be generalized in vague sense.

## **CHAPTER II**

### **LITERATURE REVIEW**

This chapter presents about international migration both temporary and permanent. Similarly, it raises the issue of brain drain and brain gain. And it talks about some migration theories, women and migration, and problems of women migrant workers. Lastly it also looks about some good practices to protect MWWs and previous researches on female emigration.

#### **2.1 Review of International Migration**

Human history since the very ancient days is repleted with population movement across national borders due to economic, socio-cultural, geo-physical and political reasons. The past few centuries have witnessed large international migration streams. Voluntary migration between nations is caused mostly by economic reasons. Both the pull and push factors cause international migration.

##### **) Temporary Migration**

One of the earliest examples of temporary migration was in South Africa where chamber of mines began to recruit migrant labour from Botswana, Lesotho, Mozambique and Switzerland as early as 1896. In Europe beginning in 1960s, large numbers of foreign workers were recruited by France, Germany, Switzerland and others from poorer neighbours like Greece, Italy, Portugal, Spain, Turkey and Yugoslavia. By 1974, temporary foreign workers constituted 30 percent of the work-force in Luxembourg, over 18 percent in Switzerland and about 8 percent in Belgium, France and Germany. Temporary migrant workers in the oil rich Middle East countries have grown substantially since the early 1970s. Migrant workers in the Arab

region increased from about 9 lakhs in 1970 to over 1.82 million in 1975 and further to over 2.82 million in 1980. Many African countries are characterized by large labour migration. Apart from Northern Africa there has been a large labour movement in other parts of Africa. Perhaps the best known among them is the region extending from Malawi to South Africa and dominated in terms of labour migration by short term (6-18 months) movements of young males to the mines and industrial complexes in South Africa and until sometime back to zimbabwe. Although within Sub-Saharan Africa the highly structured migration of labour is typical of South Africa and its neighbour countries population movements are common all over Africa. In Western Africa they are often related to employment particularly of a seasonal nature (Cherunilam, 1987: 34).

### **) Permanent Migration**

According to the report of the World Population Conference held in Belgrade in 1965, countries where immigration accounted for a fifth or more of natural increase in population since 1945 were Israel, Australia, New Zealand. "Substantial as these gain are they have been matched by the experience of some of the major immigration countries of continental Europe. Between 1951 and 1961 net immigration was more than 90 percent of natural increase in Switzerland and the Federal Republic of Germany and over 40 percent in France." The major countries of large immigration today are the United States, Australia, Canada and New Zealand. Although these countries are sources of large emigration, they experience considerably large net immigration. Between 1960-1980, the United States received 7.8 million immigrants while Australia, Canada and New Zealand together admitted 5.7 million (Cherunilam, 1987: 37).

Between 1980 and 2000 the number of international migrants in the world rose from 100 million to 175 million in 2000, rising therefore at a rate of 2.8 percent per year, faster than at any other period since 1960. The steady and rapid increase in the number of international migrants in the developed world has led to a greater concentration of international migrants in developed countries. The United States in particular, now accounts for one fifth of all international migrants in the world. Estimates for the 1960s show that, women and girls already constituted by then nearly 47 percent of all international migrants. By 2000, they constituted nearly 49 percent female migrants are more numerous than male migrants in developed countries. In the developing world, females are particularly underrepresented among the international migrants living in Northern America and South-Central Asia, where their share of the migrant population decreased to 43 percent and 44 percent respectively (UNFPA, 2005: 13).

The United Nations (UN) estimates that migrants account for some 3 percent of the world's population or about 175 million persons. The stock of immigrants to high-income countries increased to about 3 percent per year from 1980 to 2000, up from the 2.4 percent pace in the 1970s. At that rate of growth, the share of migrants in high-income countries population almost doubled over the 30 years period and population growth (excluding migration) fell from 0.7 percent in the 1960s. Immigration has had a particular impact on population growth in several high income countries. For example, without immigration Germany, Italy and Sweden would have experienced a decline in population in the past few decades. By contrast, migration to developing countries rose by only 1.3 percent per year from 1970 to 2000, with rapid population growth the share of migrants in developing countries (World Bank, 2006: 27). About 175 million migrants were estimated in 2000 but now it increased up to 195 million persons.

Large international movements only began in the 16<sup>th</sup> century with the expansion of Europe and the settlement of colonies. Over the last two centuries, migration rose to an unprecedented level, primarily owing to the globalization of economic activity and its effect on labor migration. While, the great majority of those who move are still internal migrants or the number of international migrants is substantial.

International migration can play a key role in development and poverty reduction. It has clear benefits that could be enhanced and disadvantages that could be minimized. The introduction of people from one culture into another tends to generate suspicion, fear and even downright xenophobia. High profile incidents involving migrants and heated debates have both underscored the stories of "migration gone bad". The millions of stories of "migration gone good" – of women, men and youth who leave their country and contribute to both their adopted and home countries through their skills, labour and taxes tends to go largely untold. The number of people counted as living outside their countries of birth has almost doubled during the last 50 years-increasing to 191 million in 2005. Women now constitute almost half of all migrants and dominate in migration streams to developed countries. Most people migrate for labour, family reunification or marriage. The demand for labour migrants has been a major factor in rising levels of migration to developed countries. It is with respect to this group that experts invoke the potential role of migration in development and poverty reduction-especially given the significant impact that financial remittances and other benefits can have on countries of origin (UNFPA, 2006: 5).

## **2.2 International Migration: Brain Drain and Brain Gain**

Emigration of professionals and skilled personal is means for the sending country. Waste of public funds involved in developing human capital.

Further, the pace of development may be affected due to the brain drain. A number of developed countries admitted large number of professional and technical personal most of them come from developing countries. This amounts to the developing countries educating and training these persons at very high costs utilizing their scarce resources for the benefits of the advanced nations. Certain developing countries have experienced very brain drain. Some 36 percent of temporarily recruited migrants from Sudan, for example professionally and technically trained. They included as much as 44 percent of Sudan's engineers, scientists and medial practitioners. During the 1970s, professionals from the Philippines who emigrated to United States constituted 12.3 percent of the increase in the number at home, for Korea this figure was 10 percent. In Bangladesh, professional and technical personal constituted 17 percent total emigration during 1976-78, and their departure is believed to have contributed to a shortage of several types of professional. A number of other developing countries have also been experiencing large emigration of professional and technical personal. Brain drain however has some beneficial effects too. The sending countries get benefit from the emigrants remittances. Further, some of the professional and other skilled professional may return home with better knowledge and experiences which could contribute to national development. In some countries though brain drain has caused shortage of certain categories of personnel find it difficult to find suitable job (Cherunilum, 1987: 43).

Countries spend considerable resources training highly skilled professionals. When they leave the sending country loses both emigrant skills as well as its initial investment. The Global Commission on international migration (GCIM) reports that more Malawin doctors rare currently practicing in the Northern English city of Manchester than in the whole of Malawi. Only 50 out of the 600 doctors trained since independence are still practicing in

Zambia. Direct economic impacts are likely to be adverse. The loss of human capital and lower levels of education in the remaining population can retard economic growth and stall efforts to reduce poverty. However several positive indirect impacts have also been identified. Indeed, the World Bank mentions that developing countries are increasingly concerned about "brain drain". Benefits can only be determined according to each specific case. Moreover, when highly trained people find no outlet for their profession at home, neither the person nor the country benefits and the end result may be "brain waste" (UNFPA, 2006: 7).

All migrants who remit highly skilled, there is nevertheless an important relationship between remittances and brain drain. According to ILO estimates developing countries are currently experiencing a 10-30 percent loss of skilled manpower through "brain drain". The massive outflow of trained nurses, midwives and doctors from poorer to wealthier countries is one of the most difficult challenges posed by international migration today. On the one hand skilled women and men are increasingly turning to migration as a means to improve their families. On the other, their countries are facing health care crises unprecedented in the modern world. In 2003 an estimated 85 percent of employed Filipino nurses were working abroad. From April 2004 to March 2005, 3301 nurses from banned countries registered with the United Kingdom most were from South Africa (UNFPA, 2006: 27).

Some have argued however, that because of the positive effects of migration, origin countries in the long term experience a net gain from migration, whether it be skilled or unskilled. The 2003 World Bank report put it in the following terms: Developing countries about a 'brain drain' even though any output losses from emigration of skilled workers may be more than offset by remittances and positive network effects of trade and investment. Financial

dependency is often created between migrant and remittance-recipient in part because the remittances received out weigh what the recipient could earn at home. Remittances are thus known to have reduced the motivation of its recipient to seek out their own existence. Further, remittances-recipient may be more prone to spend on consumer items than remittances (UNFPA, 2005:46).

Women not only bring money from foreign countries, they also bring skills. Milan Sherchan of Pokhara is known to be the first person to introduce Hanano Osiwana, a Japanese art form using dry leaves. Sherchan introduced this art six years ago when she return from Japan. Serchan learned the art from Japanese teacher Nohara Umi for five days. She organized exhibitions of her art twice (UNIFEM, 2003: 137).

Issue of brain drain and brain gain is not limited only about women emigration. It is related to both men and women international migration. Above literature does not make clear about women emigrants and brain drain/brain gain in Nepal because it talks about worldwide situation. In the context of Nepal, this issue (brain drain/brain gain) is not more relevant because there is only one example of brain gain. Almost all Nepalese women emigrants are non-skilled and low educated and there is less probability of brain drain from Nepal. However, there is high demand of foreign nurses in well paying countries like UK and some Nepalese professionals and highly educated men/women are leaving the nation to seek international employment opportunity. Similarly, in the context of world, so many girls are missing from Asia and there is demand for brides. Brain drain has created a problem of global nursing shortage.

## 2.3 Migration Theories

Most of the laws and theories of migration are related to internal migration and else more they focused on rural-urban migration. Economic motive and chances of employment are the pull factors of migration. Now days, theories of internal migration may generalized for the assumption of international migration because propensity of internal and international migration is more or less same is that living prosperous life.

### ) **Ravenstein's law**

Revenstein, paper presented before the Royal statistical society on March 17, 1885 was based upon the British census of 1881. His second paper which drew upon data from more than twenty countries, however, found corroboration for his earlier views. He developed seven laws of migration. Some relevant are discussed below.

**Migration and Distance:** The great body of migrants only proceeds a short distance and migrants proceeding long distance generally go by preference to one of the great centers of commerce and industries.

**Rural-Urban Difference:** The natives of towns are less migratory than those of rural parts of the country. Actually almost ninety percent of labour migrants are rural area even in Nepal. Female appear to predominate among short journey migrants.

**Technology and Migration:** Technology leads to decide migration because it promotes the manufactures and commerce and people migrate there to seek an employment opportunity.

## ) **Lewis-Fei-Ranis Model**

The famous economist professor Arthur Lewis formulated a simple two sectors model of the economics of labour transfer between the subsistence rural sector and the modern urban industrial sector in 1954. The Lewis model was formalized and extended in 1961 by Professor Gustave Ranis and John Fei.

The Lewis-Fei-Ranis model is concerned with the process of transfer of labour from the traditional low productive sector to modern high productive sector of the economy consequent upon the acceleration of economic activities in the modern industrial sector brought by investment expansion. Thus, the model conceives the under developed economy as consisting of two sectors: [I] a traditional agricultural subsistence sector characterized by zero or very low productivity 'surplus' labour and [II] a high productivity modern urban industrial sector.

According to the model, the modern urban industrial sector is the dynamic sector of the economic investment and output expansion. And the concomitant expansion of employment sector and existence of higher wages in the modern sector results in the transfer of labour from the rural sector to the urban sector.

## ) **Todaro Model**

Todaro, primarily explained about rural-urban migration. People decide to migrate with expectation of prosperous life in urban sector. Migration is the combination and interaction of these two variables 'the urban-rural income differential and probability of securing an urban job' which determine the rate and magnitude of rural urban migration according to Todaro model. People do migrate after analyzing benefits and cost, mostly financial but also

psychological. Decision to migrate depends on 'expected' rather than actual urban-rural wage differentials. But the expected differential is determined by the actual urban-rural wage differential and the probability of obtaining an urban employment. And the probability of urban job is inversely related to urban employment rate.

Further, the Todaro model takes into account only the economic factors. Non-economic factors are not all considered by Todaro. While it is true that economic factors are important determinants of migration, non-economic factors also play their role in the rural-urban migration decision making. Similarly, this theory has not explained clearly about migration by sex or gender disaggregated way.

### ) **Lee's Theory**

According to Everett S. Lee the decision to migrate and the process of migration are influenced by four important sets of factors. They are:

- ) Factors associated with the area of origin.
- ) Factors associated with the area of destination.
- ) Intervening factors.
- ) Personal factors.

There are usually two or three sets of factors that influence the decision to migrate. Lee named +, - and 0 factors to migrate, '+' sign represent the pull factor of migration, '-' sign represent the push factors and '0' represent factors to which people are indifferent.

Lee's conceptualization of migration as involving a set of factors at origin and destination, a set of intervening obstacles and a series of personal factors is generally regarded as a simple one which may be accepted as self-evident.

There is no single, well developed theory of international migration. In view of this state of the art and the recent growth in transorder population movements, the International Union of Social Scientists in Population (IUSSP) formed a committee on South-North Migration, which is systematically examining international migration theories, their assumptions supporting evidence, and policy implications.

International migration is generated as land, raw materials, and labour in areas of origin is drawn into the world market economy and traditional systems are disrupted. The transports, communications, cultural and ideological links that accompany globalization further facilitate international migration. In this view international migration is affected less by wage or employment differentials between countries than by policies towards overseas investments and toward the international flow of capital and goods.

Cumulative causation theory holds that, by altering the social context of subsequent migration decisions, the establishment of international migration streams creates 'feedback' that make additional movements more likely. Among the factors affected by migration are the distribution of income and land. The "social labeling" of jobs in destination area are 'immigrant jobs'. Again once a 'migration system' has developed, it is often resistant to government policy intervention. "The differential in income in terms of attainable wages and salaries are found to play a major role in terms of decisions to migrate from one place to another" (Iadinsky, 1967 cited in Rai 1997: 11).

Primarily, women migration depends on the distance between origin and destination. Basically short distance tends to high stream of women migration with compare to long distance.

More sending countries have entered the labour export market, fueling competition among themselves and providing wider choice and cheaper sources of labour to receiving countries. In the increased competition for a market share or in the attempt to carve out a market niche for themselves, sending countries could sacrifice the protection or interests of their nationals.

## **2.4 Women and Migration**

In 1960, female migrants accounted for nearly 47 out of every 100 migrants living outside of their countries of birth. That proportion increased only slightly by 1980 and has since risen to 49 percent in 2000. Although this trend is consistent with an increasing 'feminization' of international migration, the increment recorded is small compared to the high level of feminization that already existed in 1960. In 1960 there were 35 million female migrants and 40 million male migrants. By 2000, the total number of migrants had more than doubled, although the gap between females and males remained about the same 85 million female vs. 90 million male migrants. In 1980, 50 percent of all migrants in developed countries were women or girls, where as the equivalent proportion in developing countries was 45 percent. By 2000, the difference between the two had risen further. Since female migrants constituted nearly 51 percent of all migrants in the developed world and accounted still about 45 percent of all international migrants in developing countries. Female migrants have been particularly under represented among all migrants in Northern Africa and South-Central Asia. In both regions the proportion of female migrants declined since 1970, partly because those regions have few magnets for international migrants. Most countries of Northern Africa are sources of emigrants rather than receivers, (UNFPA, 2005: 18).

Today, nearly half (49.6 %) of all international migrants are women. If international migration has remained on the periphery of global policy making until recently, the issue of migrant women has received even less attention. This is because research has failed to take into account the socio-economic contributions and unique experiences of women and girls.

It is an important oversight, one that has broad consequences not only for the women who migrate, but also for families and communities left behind. Their remittances constitute a significant contribution to poverty reduction and development. Despite this women face disproportionate obstacles and risks simply because they are female. These include discrimination both at source and destination abuse and exploitation, which testify to the neglect of their right.

While migrant women and men are both in demand the latter are more likely to occupy highly skilled jobs. Women on the other hand, are often restricted to traditional 'female' occupations – such as domestic work, work in the service sector (waitressing), and sex work-frequently unstable wages, the absence of social service and poor working conditions. Nevertheless, the presence of care work, and nursing remain traditional female channels are how roles, certain migration mechanisms are designed to fill the demand for female

*"There are very limited job opportunities in this country (Ethiopia) ... I remember how I suffered before securing a job in Yeman ... things would have been worse for me and my family had I not gone abroad to work"*  
 - Ethiopian women who migrated (undocumented) to Yeman to work as a domestic worker. Within four years, she managed to bring her five sisters  
 Source: UNFPA, 2006: 22

and better paid other hand, are traditional 'female' domestic work, sector (waitressing) frequently unstable wages, the absence of working because care work, traditional female channels are how demand for female

relegated jobs where they are subject to discrimination, arbitrary employment terms and abuses.

Women generally face greater decision making and financial restriction than do men, which can pose obstacles to freedom of movement. Yet income – generation opportunities abroad can loosen traditional constraints on female mobility. Discrimination against certain groups of women single mothers, unmarried women widows or divorces also drives many more elsewhere.

Marriage has played a significant role in female migration. In today's globalized world, however marriage migration has taken on an added dimension the growing phenomenon of international unions, including mail-order brides and arranged and forced marriages. In Asia, there is also a high demand for foreign brides. Migration to Taiwan, province of China, for the purpose of marriage is skyrocketing. Foreign brides, mostly from China and South-Asia, now number about 300,000 half of total foreign population. Since the 1990s nearly 100,000 Vietnamese women have married Taiwanese men.

Domestic work is one of the largest sectors driving international migration. As more female labour from North American, Western European and East Asian women have entered the work force, fewer are available to attend to the elderly children and their families, millions of women offers considerable 'global care chain' benefits, albeit

*"Here there were a lot of opportunities for my children, so they could have a different kind of life. For all the opportunities, all the good things that my children have, I love this country, I love it. I'm very thankful."*

- Venezuelan domestic worker living in the US who fled with her two children from an abusive husband.

Source: UNFPA, 2006: 26

of the largest international migration. As more Western European women have entered the work force, fewer are available to attend to the elderly children and their families, millions of women offers considerable 'global care chain' benefits, albeit

with some serious drawbacks: i.e., separation from children and other loved

ones. Aside from salaries that are several times higher than that they receive at home international domestic workers also gain personal and social benefits, including improved educational and health opportunities for their children, gifts, extra cash to send back home with employer families.

The boundary between 'entertainment' (singers, dancers, hostesses and sex work) is often blurred-especially for those women who have been coerced and/or abducted. For instance, in 2004 more than 1,000 Russian women were engaged in sex work in the Republic of Korea. Most had entered the country on entertainment or tourist visas but were their forced into prostitution by business owners and recruiter (UNFPA, 2006: 26).

A huge international demand for nurses is encouraging more and more women to migrate. But wealthier countries were strived to satisfy their need, others are experiencing troubling shortfalls. Over the past decades, the establishment of factories, such as the Maquiladoras the United States-Mexico border and the textile industries in Asia, has increased employment opportunities for women. These really heavily on female workers and have provided many with a springboard for work in other countries.

In the United Kingdom, the number of migrant women participating in the information, communication and technology, finance and business sectors has also increased. Educated and skilled women are migrating within Africa and Latin America as well. These include arts and sciences professionals from Argentina, Chile and Uruguay to Brazil.

#### **2.4.1 Women's Migration in Asia**

The majority of Asian migrant workers are at the bottom of the employment ladder, doing the dirty, dangerous and difficult '3D' jobs that are shunned by locals and that, once they become 'migrant jobs' tend to remain migrant jobs.

A global trend towards the feminization of labour migration is most evident in Asia. In 2001, women accounted 47 percent of all migrants in Asia. Large numbers of female migrants also originate from Thailand and Myanmar, many having irregular status in the host countries. Seventy percent of the four million Indonesians working abroad are women. Asian female labour migration is strongly concentrated in a very limited number of female dominated occupations which are associated with traditional gender roles, mainly domestic work and the 'entertainment industry' (ILO, 2006).

The problems faced by migrant women are compounded by their being both women and migrants. Asian countries, both sending and receiving have been experiencing with gender selective and gender sensitive migration policies and programmes. Feminization has been most pronounced in Asian international labour migration and Asian women are moving in their own right as autonomous economic migrants. However, it has been particularly the plight of Asian women migrants, especially those in domestic services and entertainment industries.

Socio-cultural attitudes in Southeast Asian countries and Sri Lanka have permitted even young, unmarried women to travel overseas to work. These attitudes are more liberal than Arab countries. Asian women migrants make a good social network and women, especially young women are more likely to move as a result of chain migration. They also rely more than men on informal social networks. Governments of sending countries have played an active role in promoting migration flows. Indonesia, Philippines, Sri Lanka, Korea, Bangladesh and Thailand, all have bureaux or offices to encourage labour exports. But in Nepal no encouraging policy has launched yet effectively.

The growth of an 'immigration industries' in Asia has greatly facilitated female migration both legal and illegal. But illegal intermediaries are the very cause of vulnerability to women migrants. They often charge exorbitant fees and migrant women's frequent relationship of dependence on them can lead to a series of exploitative practices. Women are more likely to use these channels because they are less educated and limited access to information. Similarly, women migrants are particularly vulnerable, because they go into individualized work situations, where there is greater isolation and lower likelihood of establishing networks of information and social support in comparison to male migrants who commonly work in groups.

Most of Nepalese migrant workers both men and women are at the bottom of the employment ladder due to lack of skill and education. Especially Nepalese MWWs are more vulnerable. They are not allowed to travel overseas to work, because sever checks are imposed by culture and institutional barriers. And they are less educated and no skilled. Else more they are not encouraged by government policy to work abroad. Besides it there is no safety and insurance.

#### **2.4.2 History of Women Emigration in Nepal**

Nepal has a long history of emigration. But no exact figure is available before the census year 1952/54. Women are emigrated as a follower of their husband and to reunify the family in earlier. Nepalese youths were emigrated to join the British and Indian army. Some women are emigrated due to marriage. Most of the marriage caused emigration was to India. Migration data was collected for the first time in Nepal in the census year 1920 and 1930, and had recorded only male emigrants on the basis of employment outside the country in the form of [a] army service and [b] other services.

Published data on emigration are available only after the census 1952/54 and total 198,120 people were emigrated at that time. Among total emigrants, 87.6 percent were male and 12.4 percent were female. There is no data on emigration by sex in the census year 1961 and 1971. Percentage of male migrants decreased from 87.6 percent to 81.5 percent in 1981. As a result percentage of female emigrants increased to 18.5 percent from 12.4 percent. The numbers of total emigrants were 658,290 in the census year 1991. When the total population was 19,14,9387 with total absentees, numbers of female emigrants were 110,288 in 1991.

Percentages of emigrants are decreased in the latest census year 2001 with compared to 1991. There were 3.44 percent emigrants out of total population in 1991 and 2001 census shows that, 3.24 percent are emigrated. Total numbers of women emigrants were 82,712 in 2001.

According to 1952/54 census, Malaya was the destination of total 964 emigrants which was the largest number of emigrants on the basis of destination. In 1981, 21.9 percent female were emigrated to other Asian countries. Similarly, total 3,660 female were emigrated to other Asian countries in 1991. 2001 census shows that, total 3,858 female emigrated to Hong Kong which is the largest number on the basis of place of destination.

## **2.5 Problem Faced by Women Migrant Workers**

Migrant women workers have a problem of 'Gender wage gap'. In countries around the world, women have a documented disadvantages is earned income relative to men. The ILO report shows that women earn 20-30 percent less than men worldwide. However they have professional training or qualifications. For example, 23 percent of domestic workers in one study conducted by ILO had university degree (UNIFEM, 2003: 19).

Most of Nepalese women migrant workers are cheated by middleman and manpower agencies in migration process. They are misguided about work what they have to do in destination. Some have not had a job on agreement basis. They sign on paper for company 'A' and reach to company 'B'. They have no any idea about legislation if being exploited physically, mentally, and economically.

There are no health services and life insurance facilities to migrant women workers. They have so many problems of gender based violence in the workplace. In some countries women migrant workers have suffered form the gender form of racism and xenophobia against them (UNIFEM, 2003:35).

Primarily, Nepalese MWWs have to face a problem of family unsupport because our society doesn't allow to daughter to work abroad before marriage. After initiation of emigration process they may be cheated by manpower agency and agent also. Sometimes manpower agency submits fake documents like medical report and work experience. Migrant workers are compelled to sign fake contract paper due to lack of education and they do not get proper insurance documents.

On the other hand, migrant women workers have so many problems at workplace in destination. They have to work long hours without rest. Sometimes they do not get payment on time and they get only partial payment. They are not free to move and risk of sexual and physical abuse. Similarly, they do not get proper accommodation. Sometimes they leave the place of employment due to lack of legislative knowledge and dissatisfaction of job and facilities. Nepalese migrants do not perform tasks due to lack of training.

## **2.6 Good Practices in Some Countries to Protect Women Migrant Workers**

**Bahrain:** The domestic workers categories have been treated than other types of workers since 1976. Sponsors have to provide housing, clothing food and beverages, full salary, special allowance and after two years of sponsorship may treat the workers as family members. The government of Bahrain protects all the workers including the domestic workers without charging any tax from them. They also provide free Medicare for all people living in Bahrain.

**Brunei:** In addressing the issue of domestic workers, various measures have been introduced by the Government. One of them is introduction of employment agencies order 2004. After introducing this 'order' employment agencies must operate according to regulations established under the order and the Department of Labour takes firm legal action against those who violate it. Domestic workers are also given the Labour Hotline Number for their access to report any abuse or complaints.

**Jordan:** In 2001, the Jordan government conducted the first National Workshop on Protecting Migrant Workers. Then the UNIFM–Ministry of Labour launched a project on empowering migrant domestic workers. This project has made a special working contract which arguments the coordination between sending countries and Jordan as a receiving country, and guarantees migrant women's rights to life insurance, Medicare, rest days and repatriation upon expiration of the contract. The contract also reiterates migrant women's right to be treated in compliance with international human rights standards.

**Hong Kong:** Employers have to provide minimum of Hong Kong \$ 3,270 per month to domestic helpers. If it not happens there is way to conduct a criminal case against them (employers). Similarly they have to provide good accommodation or Hong Kong \$ 300 per month for a food. Mostly, domestic helpers have rights to take a leave weekly and with salary accordance with Hong Kong employment ordinance.

**Malaysia:** To ensure the welfare of the employer and migrant domestic workers, the ministry of Human Resources has enforced several provisions under employment act 1955. This act includes keeping detail records about domestic workers and employers in labour department, pay wages without deduction no later then 7 days from the consecutive month and finding suitable replacement if necessary.

**Singapore:** Age of new FDWs have increased form 18 to 23 years in Singapore with effect from January 2005. FDWs must also have completed at least 8 years of formal education. An entry test in English was also introduced in April 2005. These measures are aimed at raising the overall quality and maturity of FDWs in Singapore, which will better able to understand their rights and protection provided under Singapore law. Similarly, the Employment of Foreign Workers Act (EFWA) include provisions on personal safety, proper housing, prompt salary payment and adequate food and rest, require employers to pay for a medical checkup for the FDWs every six month. Employers who breach these work permit conditions can be punished with a fine of up to Singapore \$ 5,000 and jail terms of up to 6 months. The employers have to pay salaries regularly within 7 days of the calendar months.

## **2.7 Previous Research Works and Publications on Women Emigration**

Some researches have been conducted internationally on women international labour migration but in the context of Nepal only few researches have done. However some issues of women emigrants are raised jointly.

- ) UNIFEM, HMG/Nepal and SAMANATA have conducted a rapid assessment social investigation under the title of "policies, service mechanisms and issues of Nepali migrant women workers" in the year 2003.
- ) Ganesh Gurung of NIDS has prepared a report for ILO-Nepal entitled "An Overview Paper on Overseas Employment in Nepal" in 2004.
- ) UNIFEM and NIDS have conducted a research under the title of "Nepali women and foreign labour migration" in 2006. It is the first primary survey research in the issue of female labour emigration in Nepal. But sample size of this survey is very small.
- ) ML&TM and UNIFEM conducted a "National consultation on empowering Migrant Women Workers of Nepal" in 2003.
- ) UNIFEM has published a book "Foreign Employment for women: challenges and opportunities" in 2003.

## **2.8 Conceptual Framework**

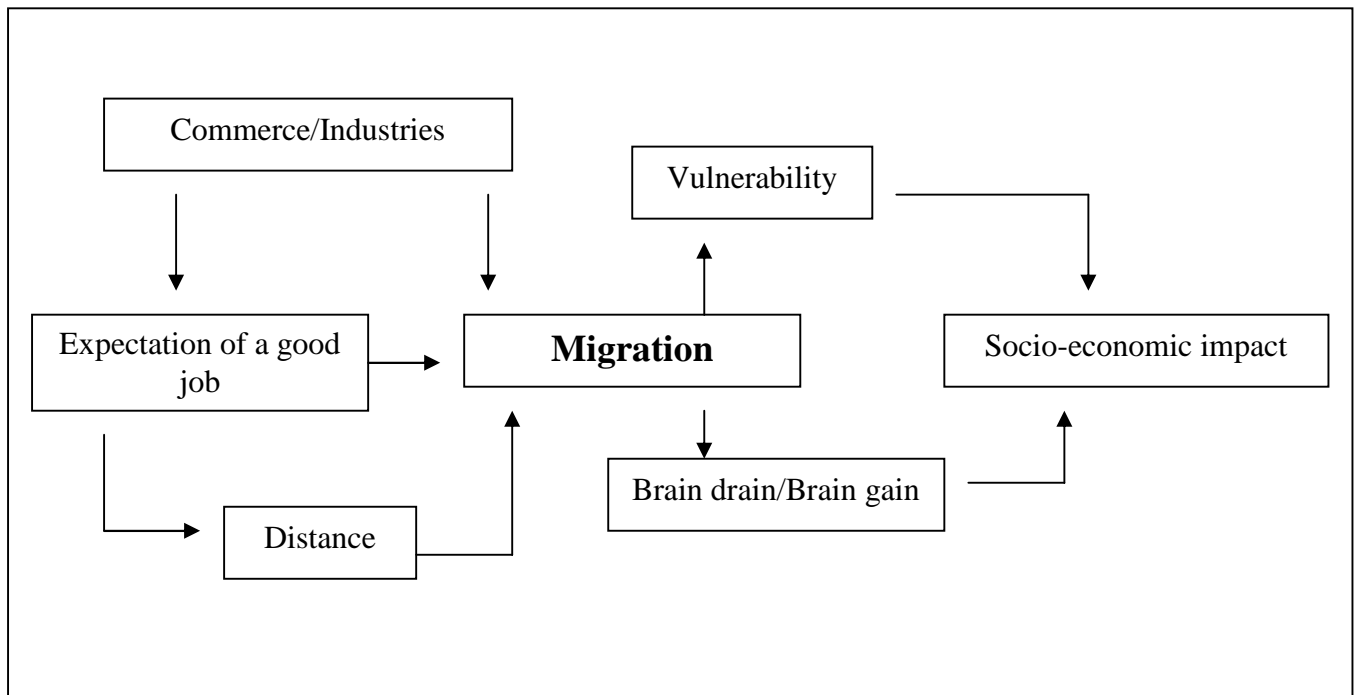
Based on the some theories, laws and social structure of the Nepalese society, concept of the research work can be summarized as:

- ) Stream of women migration tends to be low in long distance and migrants proceeding long distance generally by preference to one of

the great centers of commerce and industries. And employment opportunity is pull factor of migration.

- ) Emigration of women may vulnerable and sexually abusive.
- ) Women can play an important role to improve financial structure in family as well national economy.
- ) Foreign employment is the very new phenomenon for the Nepalese women.
- ) International migration is an issue of Brain drain and Brain gain also.

**Figure 1: Conceptual framework**



## CHAPTER III

### QUANTITATIVE STUDY OF NEPALESE EMIGRANTS BY SEX

It is difficult to find out exact number of emigrants. Government statistics may record those who do so legally, but has no record of the people who emigrate illegally. This chapter will attempt to analyze data on emigration obtained from different sources as much as possible.

#### 3.1 Nature and Magnitude of Emigrants by Sex

The 2001 census data puts Nepal's absentee population, people who have been abroad for at least 6 months prior to the survey. Total 762181 people were accounted as absentee population in 2001.

**Table 3.1: Population Absent from Households and Destination Abroad by Sex, Nepal 1981-2001**

Description	1981		1991		2001	
	Total No.	% female	Total No.	% female	Total No.	% female
Total absent population	402,977	18.5	658,290	16.8	762,181	10.9
To India	375,196	17.9	587,243	16.2	589,050	11.6
To other countries	27,781	26.2	71,047	21.3	173,131	8.2
Total population	15,022,839	48.8	18,491,097	50.1	22,736,934	50.0
Absentees as % of total population	2.7	1.0	3.6	1.2	3.4	0.7

Source: CBS, 2002, Gender Disaggregated Indicators, Nepal

Table 3.1 shows declining trend of women migration, however the census data gives a much smaller volume of Nepalese emigrants to foreign countries. In the census year 1981, there were 18.5 percent women out of total abroad absentees, which decreased to 16.8 percent in 1991 and 10.9 percent in 2001. Volume of female emigrants was in increasing trend from 1981 to 1991. Total 74529 women were abroad absentees in 1981 and it

increased up to 110,288 in 1991. But even volume of women emigrants was decreased to 82,712 in 2001. More information about emigrant on the basis of destination countries are given in table 3.2.

**Table 3.2: Countries of Destination of Nepalese Emigrants, 1991**

Countries	Male		Female		Total	
	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%
India	492,079	83.8	95,164	16.2	587,243	89.21
South Asian countries	3,652	73.4	1,325	26.6	4,977	0.76
Arab countries	6,345	93.8	394	6.2	6,345	0.96
Other Asian Countries	16,364	81.7	3,660	18.3	20,024	3.04
European Countries	4,581	71.5	1,823	28.5	6,404	0.97
North American countries	1,484	69.0	666	31.0	2,150	0.33
Other Countries	445	76.6	136	23.4	581	0.09
Not stated	23,446	76.7	7,120	23.3	30,566	4.64
<b>Nepal</b>	<b>548,002</b>	<b>83.2</b>	<b>110,288</b>	<b>16.8</b>	<b>658,290</b>	<b>100.0</b>

Source: CBS, 2003

From the table 3.2, it seems that the highest stream of women emigration by countries (31.0%) was to North American countries. However, only 0.33 percent out of total was emigrated to same countries. Secondly more absentee females were emigrated to European countries with 28.5 percent and followed by South Asian countries with 26.6 percent. Least women were destined to Arabian countries in 1991. Only 6.2 percent were female out of total emigrants to Arab. However, Arab countries are known as workplace of Nepalese foreign workers now.

**Table 3.3: Absentee Population by Countries and Sex in 2001**

<b>Country</b>	<b>Male</b>	<b>Female</b>	<b>Total</b>	<b>Percent</b>
India	520,500	68,550	589,050	77.28
Other SAARC countries	2,271	420	2,691	0.33
Saudi Arab	66,629	831	67,460	8.85
Qatar	24,208	189	24,397	3.20
UAE	12,298	246	12,544	1.64
Other Gulf countries	5,660	765	6,425	0.83
UK	5,997	1,274	7,271	0.95
Other Europe/Australia	5,881	1,243	7,124	0.92
Hong Kong	8,143	3,858	12,001	1.57
Malaysia & Singapore	9,421	755	10,176	1.33
Other Asian countries	9,668	1,940	11,608	1.50
USA, Canada and Mexico	7,227	2,330	9,557	1.25
Other countries	1,566	311	1,877	0.24
<b>Total</b>	<b>679,469</b>	<b>82,712</b>	<b>762,181</b>	<b>100.00</b>

Source: CBS, 2003

In 2001, most of Nepalese were emigrated to India. Due to similarity in culture and open border it is relevant to go to India for a job. Then after Saudi Arab was the biggest destination for Nepalese migrant workers. There were 67460 Nepalese with 831 women in Saudi Arab in 2001 census. Qatar placed third destination country for Nepalese, where 3.20 percent or 24397 Nepalese with 189 women were emigrated. Similarly, UAE and Hong Kong are fourth and fifth country for Nepalese migrant workers respectively. Remaining about 7 percent of absentees was to different (American, European, Australian and Asian) countries.

### **3.1.1 Registered Nepalese Labour Emigrants**

Government of Nepal had not opened for labour supply in earlier decades. So people have gone to work abroad from undocumented way. Documented emigrants before 2001/02 are given in table 3.4.

**Table 3.4: Number of Documented Migrant Workers 1996/97 -2001/02**

Country	1996/97	1997/98	1998/99	1999/00	2000/01	2001/02	Total
Saudi Arabia	6,659	4,825	14,948	17,867	17,966	21,094	83,459
Kuwait	489	137	609	465	885	378	2,973
Oman	43	7	90	32	68	96	336
Qatar	1,618	1,802	90,30	8,791	14,086	19,895	55,222
UAE	250	284	1,417	6,360	8,950	8,411	25,672
Bahrain	91	111	787	583	904	695	3,171
Hong Kong	275	195	301	209	331	481	1,753
Singapore	-	-	1	-	-	16	17
South Korea	1,518	192	267	766	245	131	3,119
Brunei	51	-	-	-	-	132	183
Malaysia	-	89	151	171	11,306	52,926	64,643
Saipan	53	143	-	1	11	38	246
Macao	-	-	102	119	82	50	353
Maldives	-	-	46	71	35	39	191
Kosovo	-	-	-	27	21	34	82
Israel and others	-	-	41	81	135	322	585
<b>Total</b>	<b>11,157</b>	<b>7,745</b>	<b>27,796</b>	<b>35,543</b>	<b>55,025</b>	<b>104,739</b>	<b>2,42,005</b>

Source: CeLRRD, 2002: 8, Table 1

Table 3.4 shows the increasing trend of emigration. Volume of documented emigrants was only 11,157 till 1996/97 but these data are summed up. Numbers of registered emigrants were only 3,605 till 1993/94; it increased up to 242,005 within ten years by accelerating. Accelerated increasing trend of emigration started only after 1997/98. Before than, pace of increment was slow. From the table, we can see that trend of emigration to Malaysia is highly accelerated after 1999/2000. Saudi Arabia was a popular destination for Nepalese migrant workers since very past and increasing trend is also high. Qatar is third destination of Nepalese migrant workers.

**Table 3.5: Number of Women who went to Foreign Employment through DLEP (1985-2001)**

<b>Countries</b>	<b>No. of emigrants</b>
Hong Kong	52
South Korea	16
UK	2
Saipan	10
Israel	81
<b>Total</b>	<b>161</b>

Source: DLEP, 2001

From the table 3.5, we can see more Nepalese women were working in Israel till 2001 and followed by Hong Kong. Very few or only 2 women were emigrated to UK as records of DLEP till 2001. Legal documents give smaller volume of emigrants by countries and by sex. Department of Labour and Employment Promotion (DLEP) have started to record emigrants by sex since 2002/03 or 2059/60 which is given in following table.

**Table 3.6: Number of Documented Migrant Workers by Sex, (2002/03-2003/04)**

<b>Country/Region</b>	<b>2002/03</b>			<b>2003/04</b>		
	<b>Total</b>	<b>Male</b>	<b>Female</b>	<b>Total</b>	<b>Male</b>	<b>Female</b>
Africa	47	47	0	17	17	0
USA	43	42	1	48	44	4
East Asia	879	692	87	888	344	544
South Asia	88	88	0	354	340	14
East/Southeast Asia	44,524	44,524	0	47,084	47,021	63
East/central Asia	59,252	59,252	17	57,695	57,626	69
Europe	82	77	5	108	79	29
Others	123	123	0	457	288	169
<b>Total</b>	<b>105,055</b>	<b>104,945</b>	<b>110</b>	<b>106,660</b>	<b>105,768</b>	<b>892</b>

Source: DLEP, 2004

Table 3.6 shows increasing trend of emigration. Mostly, we should note that volume of women emigrants in 2003/04 was eight time larger than 2002/03. Similarly, during the year 2003/04, total 246 women went to new countries. East Asian countries seems good destination for Nepalese women because more than half number of women were recorded going there (East Asia).

There are two ways to emigrate for foreign employment. One is individual (personal) approach and another is cooperation with manpower agency (organization). Labour office (Kathmandu) has been keeping record of individual and especially women migrant workers since 2061/62 or 2004/05. Data on emigration documented separately are shown in table 3.7.

**Table 3.7: Number of Outbound Workers Receiving Final Approval from DLEP**

<b>Country</b>	<b>2061/62</b>	<b>2062/63</b>
Malaysia	66,290	82,798
Saudi Arabia	13,359	18,261
Qatar	41,952	58,266
Israel	708	916
UAE	12,503	15,441
Bahrain	258	554
Kuwait	1,686	655
Others	922	615
<b>Total</b>	<b>137,678</b>	<b>177,506</b>

Source: DLEP, June 2006

In table 3.7 it is mentioned ‘others’ worth 8 and 9 countries in 2061/62 and 2062/63 respectively. Malaysia has become an attractive destination for Nepalese in recent years and followed by Saudi Arabia. Qatar and the UAE has placed third and fourth rank in volume of Nepalese migrant receiving. Table shows the increasing trend of migration both volume and by countries. Only Kuwait had received less Nepalese workers in 2062/63 compare to previous year (2061/62).

**Table 3.8: Number of Foreign Employment in Personal Approach**

Country	2061/62			2062/63			2063/64*		
	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female
Qatar	447	442	5	747	712	35	124	123	1
USA	102	101	1	320	287	33	127	122	5
Israel	171	107	64	1,132	56	1,076	1,639	266	1,373
UAE	236	223	13	213	172	41	136	126	10
Hong Kong	591	345	246	92	3	89	3	3	0
Bahrain	279	278	1	807	795	12	396	396	0
Cyprus	66	46	20	173	11	162	33	5	28
UK	98	81	17	62	48	14	55	48	7
Lebanon	0	0	0	14	0	14	21	2	19
Others	408	398	10	1005	946	59	570	561	9
<b>Total</b>	<b>2,398</b>	<b>2,021</b>	<b>377</b>	<b>4,565</b>	<b>3,030</b>	<b>1,535</b>	<b>3,104</b>	<b>1,652</b>	<b>1,452</b>

\*2063/64 covers only (Shravan – Falgun)

Source: Labour office, Kathmandu May, 2007

Especially talking about female emigrants, volume of emigrants in fiscal year 2062/63 was four times larger than previous year which is accelerated increasing trend. Number of female emigrants are little bit same in fiscal year 2062/63 and 2063/64 however only eight months' data have attached here in last fiscal year 2063/64. Share of female seems large number in compare to male particularly in Israel, Cyprus, and Lebanon. In table 3.8, mentioned by 'others' country means those countries where less Nepalese women had been emigrating. Nepalese women had emigrated to different fourteen countries when male had emigrated to 39 countries in the fiscal year 2063/64 till Falgun (14 March, 2007).

### 3.1.2 Undocumented Women Emigrants from Nepal

Emigrating through India is not a new issue for us because so many Nepalese are going abroad through India since very past. Maiti Nepal has established transit homes at major Nepal-India border towns to monitor the girls trafficking. These border towns are potential points where a little

vigilance can have significant pay offs. Maiti Nepal informed safe migration total 26,729 women those who were way to abroad, from different transit homes given in table 3.9.

**Table 3.9: Number of Women Informed Safe Migration**

<b>Transit home</b>	<b>No. of women</b>
Bhairahawa, Rupandehi	4,927
Biratnagar, Morang	9,658
Birgunj, Parsa	805
Kakarvitta, Jhapa	913
Gaur, Rauthat	450
Nepalgunj, Banke	185
Pashupatinagar, Ilam	528
Dhangadhi, Kailali	1,244
Mahendranagar, Kanchanpur	939
Nagdhunga, Kathmandu	7,080
<b>Total</b>	<b>26,729</b>

Note: - Very few of them returned back their home after informing.

Most of them (about 90%) were going to Lebanon and Qatar for domestic work.

Source: Maiti Nepal, 2006

Table 3.9 shows that large volume of emigrants use the way of India. Such types of emigrants are known as illegal or undocumented and they may be trafficked also. Undocumented women are often unable to openly organize due to lack of legislation. And such types of migrants are more vulnerable in comparison to documented migrants.

### **3.1.3 Emigration from Nepal by Reason**

Reliable data on migration were not available before 1981 census. Talking about labour migration, DLEP had not recorded more data before the decades of 1990s. Data on emigration is not available by sex even till 2002. After 2002/03, DLEP has recorded by sex. Emigration seems in increasing trend since before. Poverty and lack of employment opportunity is known as

push factor of emigration in the context of Nepal. This sub chapter attempts to show the trend of emigration by reason since 1981 to 2001.

**Table 3.10: Abroad Absentness by Reason of Absence and Sex, Nepal 1981-2001**

		Absentees	Trade/ commerce	Agriculture	Employment/ service	Study/ training	Marital relation/ dependent	Other/ Nst
1981	Total	402,977	2,523	14,105	257,764	10,640	3,596	114,349
	Male	328,448	2,161	11,722	249,147	8,460	358	56,600
	Female	74,529	362	2,383	8,617	2,180	3,238	57,749
1991	Total	658,290	11,387	27,781	412,803	14,990	115,836	75,493
	Male	548,002	8,861	22,495	382,855	12,156	80,039	41,596
	Female	110,288	2,526	5,286	29,948	2,834	35,797	33,897
2001	Total	762,181	12,050	7,763	600,550	31,747	14,101	95,970
	Male	679,469	11,140	6,608	572,285	24,929	2,157	62,350
	Female	82,712	910	1,155	28,265	6,818	11,944	33,620

Source: CBS, 2001, 1991 and 1981

Table 3.10 shows that volume of female emigration (abroad absentees) highly increased in 1991 census in comparison to 1981 census. But in 2001, it decreased to 82,712 from 110,288 (in 1991). In 1981 census, 18.5 percent were women out of total absentees which decreased to 16.7 percent in 1991 census and 10.9 percent in 2001. Questions are likely to be raised 'why do people go abroad?' In order to address such questions, reasons are categorized as Trade/commerce, agriculture, employment/service, study/training, marital relation and dependent. Table shows that the majority of absentees are gone for work (employment) and this is more clearly reported for males. For female data shows hesitation in reporting. From the table we can find that 77 percent absent females in 1981, 31 percent in 1991 and 41 percent in 2001 reported the 'other' or not stated category.

Marriage is another contributing factor for female migration. In 1981, 4 percent of female absentees reported reason for martial relation or dependent. It increased up to 32 percent in 1991 and decreased again to 14 percent in 2001. Female absentees by reason of employment and service

were 11 percent in 1981. It increased up to 27 percent in 1991 and 34 percent in 2001 census. So we can say that female abroad absentee by reason of employment is in increasing trend and women are going abroad to work.

### 3.2 Countries of Choice to Emigrate and Country as Destination of MWWs

UNIFEM and NIDS jointly conducted a Survey in Pokhara, Dharan and Kathmandu in July-December 2002 by taking interview with 86 returnees women and published result in 2006. On the basis of that survey rank of preferred countries and countries of emigration are given in table 3.11.

**Table 3.11: Rank of Preferred Countries for Emigration and No. of Emigrants by Country**

Rank	Countries	Countries	No. of emigrants
1	Hong Kong	Kuwait	21
2	Kuwait	Hong Kong	18
3	Japan	Saudi Arabia	9
4	Saudi Arabia	UK	6
5	Oman	Bahrain	6
5	UK	Malaysia	5
5	Malaysia	Japan	5
5	USA	Korea	3
6	Korea	Brunei	3
7	Brunei	Dubai	3
7	Bahrain	USA	1
8	Dubai	Others	6
9	Singapore	Total	86

Source: UNIFEM/NIDS, 2006

Table 3.11 shows that, Hong Kong, Kuwait, Japan, Saudi Arabia, the UK, the USA, and Malaysia as preferred countries (in order of importance). Other Gulf States were identified by a few respondents as priority countries. Altogether 13 countries were selected 'good place to go'. We can see in the same table not all people were able to go to the country chosen by them.

Hong Kong was ranked first but more women were emigrated to Kuwait. Similarly, Japan was third ranked country but Saudi Arab replaced that rank in receiving Nepalese MWWs.

Most of the respondents (about 65%) were not able to go to the country of their choice. Therefore they went to different countries. The country of second choice for most women was Kuwait. The reason for country of choice included good pay, relatives and friends in that country, and spouse working there. Other influencing factors were existence of many Nepalese, having good information about the place and etc. Urban living people prefer more likely to go to developed countries like UK, USA and Japan. Among 21 returnee women, 10 were living in Pokhara and 11 were Dharan. Similarly Kathmandu living had not returned from Saudi Arabia, Brunei, Bahrain and etc. Rural living had not returned from the USA.

### 3.3 Nepalese Abroad Workers (Excluding India)

Today more than 0.85 million Nepalese migrants are working abroad. Having a reputation of hardworking and honest people there are high demand for Nepalese in labour market in some countries like Malaysia and Gulf. Numerical guestimations are shown in table 3.12.

**Table 3.12: Number of Nepalese Working Abroad (excluding India) in 2006**

<b>Region</b>	<b>Male</b>	<b>Female</b>	<b>Total</b>
Gulf	510,577 (65.45)	47,040 (52.03)	551,317 (64.22)
South Asia	6,753 (0.87)	315 (0.04)	7,068 (0.82)
East/Southeast Asia	229,913 (29.47)	20,619 (26.33)	250,532 (29.18)
Europe/Australia	16,262 (2.08)	9,164 (11.70)	25,426 (2.96)
Africa	653 (0.08)	30 (0.04)	683 (0.08)
North America	15,985 (2.05)	7,440 (9.50)	23,425 (2.73)
<b>Total</b>	<b>780,143 (100.0)</b>	<b>78,308 (100.0)</b>	<b>858,451 (100.0)</b>
	90.88%	9.12%	100%

Source: UNIFEM/NIDS, 2006

Table 3.12 shows that, 90.88 percent of abroad working population is male and only 9.12 percent are female. Most of abroad working population has engaged in Gulf countries. There were 510,577 male and 47,040 female in Gulf, which was 65.45 percent and 52.03 percent of total 780,143 male and 78,308 female respectively. The second largest size of abroad workers accounted for East/Southeast Asian countries with 229,913 male and 20,619 female. Very few numbers of Nepalese abroad workers were working in African countries, where only 653 male and 30 female were accounted. Europe and Australia placed the third position as Nepalese migrant workers receiving region with share of 2.96 percent.

**Table 3.13: Number of Nepalese Workers in Gulf Countries in 2006**

Countries	Male		Female		Total	
	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%
UAE	72,550	98.0	1,550	2.0	74,100	100
Kuwait	8,150	81.3	1,870	18.7	10,020	100
Qatar	198,200	99.0	1600	1.0	199,800	100
Saudi Arabia	205,000	87.2	30,000	12.8	235,000	100
Oman & Jordan	977	97.0	30	3.0	1,007	100
Bahrain	4,200	75.8	1,340	24.2	5,540	100
Iraq	20,000	100.0	0	0.0	20,000	100
Lebanon	1,000	20.0	4,000	80.0	5,000	100
Israel	500	58.8	350	41.2	850	100
<b>Total</b>	<b>510,577</b>	<b>92.6</b>	<b>40,740</b>	<b>7.4</b>	<b>551,317</b>	<b>100</b>

Source: UNIFEM/NIDS, 2006

Saudi Arabia is the most Nepalese migrant worker receiving country, there were 205,000 male and 30,000 female in 2006. 73.64 percent of Gulf working female were only in Saudi Arabia. Out of 5,000 Lebanon working Nepalese, 4,000 or 80 percent were female. Kuwait placed the third position in observing Nepalese women worker, where 1,870 women/females were working in 2006 and followed by Qatar with 1,600 Nepalese women migrant workers. But 99 percent of Nepalese migrant workers in Qatar were male.

After Lebanon, Israel was the second country as Nepalese migrant women workers receiver because 41.2 percent of Nepalese workers in Israel were female. Similarly in Bahrain nearly one fourth of Nepalese workers were female.

Hong Kong, Japan and Malaysia were accountable among East Southeast Asian Countries in 2006 for Nepalese women abroad workers. There were 14,500 women workers out of total 44,500 Nepalese in Hong Kong in 2006. Similarly, 3,500 workers were women in Japan out of 8,500 Nepalese. There were 1,000 Nepalese women worker in Malaysia in 2006. However it was very minor in comparison to male because, there were 184,000 male workers in Malaysia at the same time.

Among European and Australian countries only Australia and Britain were accountable for Nepalese women migrant workers. There were 3,000 women out of total 7,000 Nepalese in Australia in 2006. And 5,000 women out of 15,000 Nepalese were in Britain in 2006. No more Nepalese women migrant workers were in Africa in 2006. America is known as the most attractive place of the world, where 7,000 women out of total 22,000 Nepalese were working in 2006.

In 1981, there were 402,977 people were abroad absentees and 74,529 were women. Number of abroad absentee population increased up to total 658,290 with 110,288 female in 1991. In a survey in 1997, the total number of Nepali foreign labour migrants was estimated about 100,000. In 2001, 762,181 were emigrated with 82,712 female. Eventually, number of emigrants increased up to 858,451 (excluding India). This has been possible because of globalized labour market and emigration policy of government. Ceasing opportunity in origin/Nepal is also a cause of it.

### 3.3.1 Nepali Nationals Working Abroad in Selected Top Fifteen Countries in 2006

According to a guestimation made in 2006 Nepalese are working in 65 countries in the world. Nepalese workers in Denmark Spain and Cyprus were not stated. Here some fifteen countries are selected on the basis of size of Nepalese women workers.

**Table 3.14: Nepalese Migrant Workers by Sex in Selected Fifteen Countries in 2006**

<b>Countries</b>	<b>Male</b>	<b>Female</b>	<b>Total</b>	<b>% female of total</b>
Saudi Arabia	205,000	30,000	235,000	12.8
Hong Kong	30,000	14,500	44,500	32.6
USA	15,000	7,000	22,000	31.8
Britain	10,000	5,000	15,000	33.3
Lebanon	1,000	4,000	5,000	80.0
Japan	5,000	3,500	8,500	41.2
Australia	4,000	3,000	7,000	42.9
Kuwait	8,150	1,870	10,020	18.6
Qatar	198,200	1,600	199,800	0.8
UAE	72,550	1,550	74,100	2.1
Bahrain	4,200	1,340	5,540	24.2
Malaysia	184,000	1,000	185,000	0.5
Korea	4,350	700	5,050	13.9
Brunei	3,000	500	3,500	14.3
Israel	500	350	850	41.2
<b>Total</b>	<b>744,950</b>	<b>75,910</b>	<b>820,860</b>	<b>9.25</b>

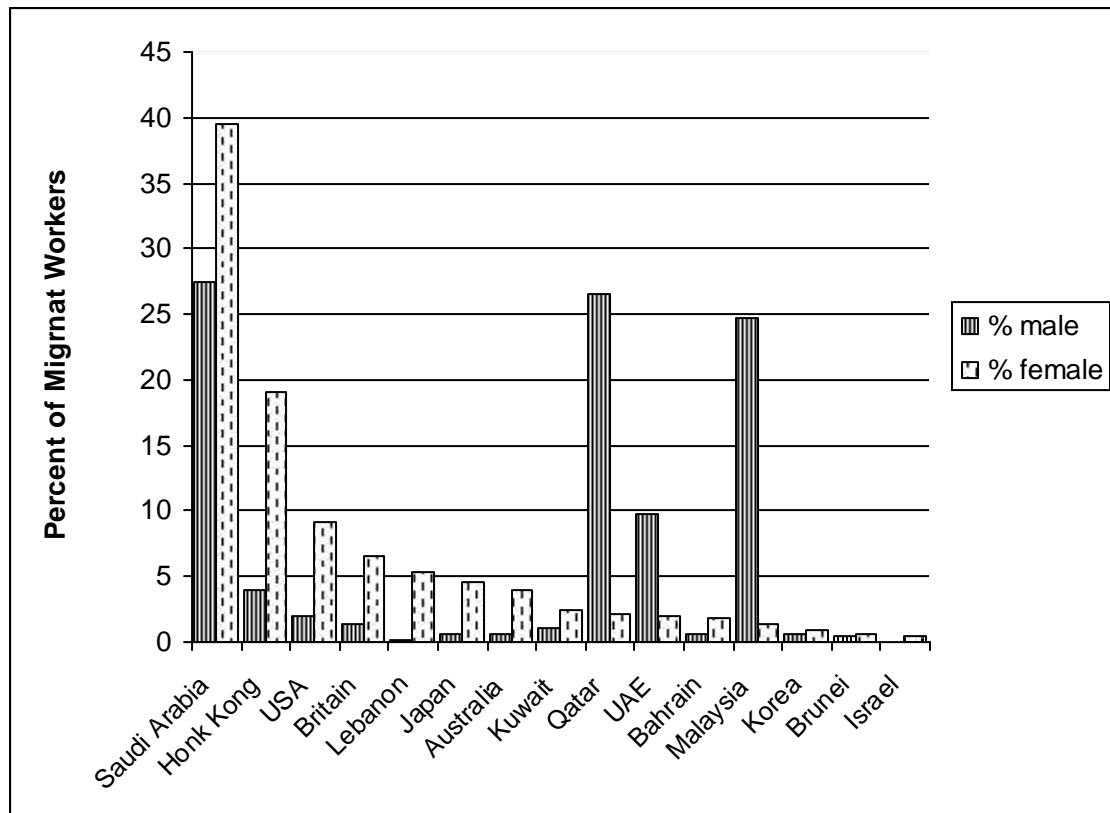
Source: Calculated from UNIFEM, 2006, Table 1.4

There were 17,685 non-national women domestic worker in Brunei in 2005 and 34,097 non-Bahrainis women in Bahrain in 2001, when number of Nepalese women was 500 and 1,340 in Brunei and Bahrain respectively.

Table 3.14 shows that most of Nepalese foreign workers had gone to Saudi Arabia both male and female. More women had gone to Hong Kong after Saudi Arabia but Hong Kong placed fifth position in observing the

Nepalese migrant workers. 199,800 Nepalese had gone to Qatar but only 0.8 percent was female. Malaysia was destination of 185,000 Nepalese with 1,000 women; share of women was only 0.4 percent. 80 percent of total Lebanon going Nepalese was women; Lebanon has received the most Nepalese women in comparison to men. Among fifteen countries Israel has received the least volume of Nepalese women workers, where 350 Nepalese women were working in 2006.

**Figure 2: Percent Distribution of Nepalese Migrant Workers in Selected Top Fifteen Countries by Sex**



Source: Calculated from UNIFEM/NIDS 2006, table 1.4

Figure 2 is constructed based on separate calculation by sex (75,910 female and 744,950 male). According to figure, nearly 40 percent of female migrant workers were concentrated in Saudi Arabia, and followed by Hong Kong with nearly 20 percent of total 75,910 female abroad workers in fifteen countries. Minimum 350 to maximum 30,000 migrant women workers were working in these fifteen countries. So, figure clearly shows the descending

order women's pillar from left to right. Figure again shows that more Nepalese are emigrating to Gulf countries and Malaysia but there is unequal distribution of sex. Malaysia had received about 25 percent of total male migrants but it had received less than 2 percent of total female emigrants. Similarly, Qatar had received more than one fourth of total male migrants but it received only 2 percent of female among total 75,910. More female were working in well paying countries like USA and Japan. Nearly 10 percent of total female abroad workers were in USA in 2006. And only 2 percent of total male abroad workers were in USA at the same time. Similarly, more than 5 percent and nearly 5 percent of total women abroad workers were in Britain and Japan respectively. But as a counterpart little bit more than one percent and less than one percent of total male migrant workers were in same countries Britain and Japan.

### **3.4 Situation of International Migration in the World**

Migratory movement now considered as human rights perspectives. Everybody can travel, work and study throughout the world. However some countries have made different types of law regarding migration. World situation of international migration is tabled below to compare Nepal with Asia and World.

**Table 3.15: International Migration since 1970 to 2000**

<b>Major area or region</b>	<b>1970</b>	<b>1980</b>	<b>1990</b>	<b>2000</b>
World	81,527,177 (47.2)	99,783,096 (47.3)	154,005,048 (47.9)	174,933,814 (48.6)
More developed regions	38,282,819 (49.0)	47,726,643 (50.0)	89,655,849 (51.7)	110,291,947 (51.0)
Less developed regions	43,244,358 (45.7)	52,056,453 (44.7)	65,349,199 (44.2)	64,642,767 (44.6)
Africa	9,862,987 (42.7)	14,075,826 (44.2)	16,221,255 (45.9)	16,277,486 (46.7)
<b>Asia</b>	<b>28,103,771</b> <b>(46.6)</b>	<b>32,312,541</b> <b>(44.4)</b>	<b>41,754,291</b> <b>(42.8)</b>	<b>43,761,383</b> <b>(43.3)</b>
Latin American/Caribbean	5,749,585 (46.8)	6,138,943 (48.2)	7,013,584 (49.9)	5,943,680 (50.2)
Northern America	12,985,541 (51.1)	18,086,918 (52.6)	27,596,538 (51.0)	40,844,405 (50.3)
Oceania	3,027,537 (46.1)	3,754,597 (47.9)	4,750,591 (49.1)	5,834,976 (50.5)
USSR (former)	3,092,512 (48.0)	3,251,070 (48.5)	30,322,532 (51.1)	29,468,703 (52.1)
Europe	18,705,244 (48.0)	22,163,201 (48.5)	26,346,258 (49.8)	32,803,182 (51.0)

Note: The italicized figures refer to the percent female of all international migrants.

Source: UN, 2005

From the table 3.15, 48.6 percent of all international migrants were female in 2000. When, total numbers of migrants were 175 million in the world. There were 43.8 million international migrants in Asia for the same time in 2000, and 43.3 percent were female among migrants in Asia. Nepal has a small share of international migration in comparison to world and Asia. There were total 658,290 abroad absentee people in 1991. Abroad absentees increased to 762,181 in 2001, but share of female decreased to 10.9 percent from 16.8 percent. The latest guestimation in 2006 accounted total 858,451 Nepalese abroad workers excluding India.

Total 808,917 Nepalese were working in Asia in 2000 with 7.6 percent female. Where, share of women international migrants were 43.3 percent. With 36 percent share of female, there were 25,426 Nepalese were working

in Europe in 2006. Very few number of Nepalese were working in Africa and share of female also very minor (4.4 %). Share of female international migrants was 50.3 percent in Northern America in 2006. One thing we should note that, we are talking about only Nepalese emigrants. International migration refers both immigration and emigration. In 2001 census, 1,191,692 people were foreign born in Nepal. Share of female was nearly 70 percent, and 49 percent were born in India.

## **CHAPTER IV**

### **WOMEN EMIGRATION: SOCIO-ECONOMIC IMPACTS**

It is difficult to analyze the socio-economic characteristics of women migrant workers. Because no more researches has been done especially under the issue of women migrant workers and it is new phenomenon for us. And share of female to work abroad is very small in Nepalese context. This chapter is about female emigration and socio-economic impacts. It includes socio-economic background of migrant workers as possible as female. Furthermore it includes remittance earning and its contribution to improve socio-economic status of migrants and their family but remittance sent to Nepal by migrant workers is not disaggregated by sex. Besides this, the chapter deals about problems of migrant workers and impacts of international migration.

#### **4.1 Socio-economic Characteristics of Migrant Workers**

There are various diversities in socio-economic characteristics of migrant workers. We discuss about caste and ethnicity, education, age, motive to go abroad etc. in this chapter.

##### **4.1.1 Caste and Ethnicity of Emigrants**

UNIFEM and NIDS took an interview with 86 returnees women as sample to conduct a survey in 2002. We discuss here using that reference.

**Table 4.1: Caste/Ethnic Group of the Nepalese Migrant Workers**

<b>Ethnic groups</b>	<b>Pokhara</b>	<b>Dharan</b>	<b>Kathmandu</b>	<b>Total</b>
Gurung	29 (69.0)	1 (3.1)	3 (25.0)	33 (38.4)
Brahmin/Chettris	1(2.4)	10 (31.3)	5 (41.7)	16 (18.6)
Dalit	10 (23.8)	2 (3.2)	-	12 (14.0)
Rai	-	5 (15.5)	1 (8.3)	6 (7.0)
Limbu	-	6 (18.6)	-	6 (7.0)
Tamang	-	3 (9.3)	-	3 (3.5)
Magar	2 (4.8)	-	-	2 (2.3)
Other	-	5 (15.5)	3 (25.0)	7 (8.1)
<b>Total</b>	<b>42 (100.0)</b>	<b>32 (100.0)</b>	<b>12 (100.0)</b>	<b>86 (100.0)</b>

Source: UNIFEM/NIDS, 2006

Table 4.1 shows the largest proportion of Gurungs (38%) and followed by Brahmin/chettris nearly (19%), Dalits (14%), Rais/Limnus (12.8%) and Tamags and Magars (5.8%). The 'other' category contained mainly Newars. Place of interview above mentioned in table 4.1 was not birth place of interviewees. For example of the 42 MWWs in Pokhara, only 10 were born in Pokhara itself and others were born in village in Kaski district. From the above table, large share of MWWs seems form lower caste in society.

#### 4.1.2 Socio-Economic Status of Emigrants

Normally, people from lower class are compelled to work abroad due to poverty but they cannot pay because of financial deficiency. More numbers of migrant workers seems from lower middle class in society.

**Table 4.2: Social Status of MWWs by Different Places**

<b>Place</b>	<b>Upper middle</b>	<b>Lower middle</b>	<b>Low class</b>	<b>Total</b>
Pokhara	2	23	17	42
Dharan	2	17	13	32
Kathmandu	11	1	-	12
<b>Total</b>	<b>15 (17.4)</b>	<b>41 (47.7)</b>	<b>30 (34.9)</b>	<b>86 (100.0)</b>

Source: UNIFEM/NIDS 2006

Table 4.2 shows that a large proportion or nearly half (47.7%) migrant workers were from 'lower middle class' in society. About 35 percent were

from 'low class' and only 17.4 percent from the 'upper middle class'. It means, people from lower middle class more likely to involve in migratory movement. Almost all of respondents from upper middle class are from Kathmandu. Foreign employment is needed especially to lower class people because not more earning opportunity goes to those people in origin country. This table suggests that foreign labour migration is mainly taken up by those who identify themselves as 'middle class' especially from lower middle class households. People from upper class society go to developed and better paying countries to earn more.

Migrant workers from Gurung and Magar communities are concentrated in army jobs, and in high paying countries (like Japan, Singapore Brunei and Saipan) where they work as security guards. From upper class society and good academic background have emigrated to developed region because they have found jobs in the USA and Europe. On the other hand, people from lower middle class society Brahmin and Chettri family migrate to work in the Gulf countries. Many uneducated and poor people from Nepal find low paid jobs in India.

#### **4.1.3 Age and Education of Migrant Workers**

Particularly, youths (men and women) are more likely to go work abroad. They should be 18-40 years to work abroad according to rule. However some illegal migrants, they do not follow the rules and if they live abroad continue, rule of maximum age limit brake down itself.

A study conducted by Graner in 2002, has shown the majority of migrant workers were 20-30 years age and sample size of that study was 795 randomly selected migrants who work in the Gulf countries. Similarly, most

of the migrants were between 25-30 years of age out of 86 returnees women, according to a survey conducted by UNIFEM and NIDS in 2002.

**Table 4.3: Percentage Distribution of Absentees by Rural-Urban, Gender and Age, Nepal 2001**

	Nepal	Rural			Urban		
		Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female
Total absentees	(100) 762,181	(100) 683,668	(100) 613,137	(100) 705.31	(100) 78,531	(100) 66,332	(100) 12,181
Age at departures							
< 15 years	10.4	10.9	9.7	20.5	6.9	6.0	11.6
15-24 years	53.4	53.7	53.8	52.5	50.9	50.6	52.6
25-34 years	23.9	23.5	24.0	19.4	27.7	27.9	26.6
35-44 years	8.3	8.1	8.5	4.8	10.3	11.1	6.2
44+ years	3.9	3.9	4.0	2.8	4.2	4.4	3.1

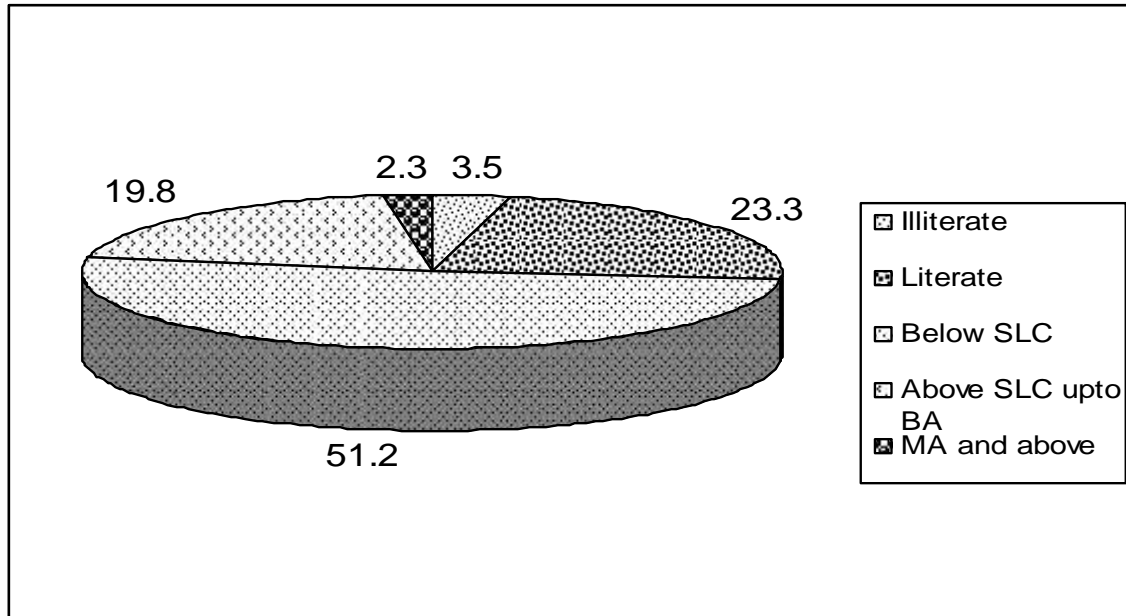
Source: KC, 2005 (calculated from CBS, 2002, Table 14)

Table 4.3 shows that, total absent population from the country, 53.4 percent were at age 15-24 years and followed by age groups 25-34 years with share of nearly 24 percent and it indicates foreign labour migration of this age. Volume of rural female absentees seems more than five times larger than urban female absentees. Most of the females seems absent at age 15-34 years in both rural and urban area. 71.9 percent and 79.2 percent females seems absent at this age group 15-34 years from rural and urban area respectively. Share of urban female absentees seems little bit larger at age 25-34 years than rural female absentees.

Simply we know that, most of foreign labour migrants have not passed SLC and those who has passed the SLC and above goes to other countries than Gulf. Few numbers of people having higher education goes to Gulf and Malaysia to work. Educational background of 795 randomly selected Nepalese migrant workers in Gulf has shown overwhelming proportions of migrant workers have failed their SLC examination or are high school dropouts. Only about 20-30 percent seems to have passed their SLC exam

and almost insignificant proportion seems to have access to higher education.

**Figure 3: Educational Status of MWWs**



Source: UNIFEM/NIDS, 2006

Figure 3 shows that more than 75 percent of the women participating in foreign labour migration had not passed the SLC examination. On the other hand, about 20 percent were education levels form SLC to BA and migrants form higher academic qualification (MA and above) were rare. These low levels of literacy and educational attainment affect both kinds of jobs and complexity in migration process and moreover they do not perform well.

#### **4.1.4 Marital Status of Migrant Women Workers**

Simply, daughters are not allowed to leave home for a long time especially for abroad. It is because of our culture. Most of the parents prefer to get married their daughter in earlier age. So, most of the MWWs seem married.

**Table 4.4: Marital Status of MWWs Before and After Going to Foreign Countries**

<b>Marital status</b>	<b>% before going abroad</b>	<b>% after returning to Nepal</b>
Unmarried	31.3	18.6
Married	62.8	73.2
Widow	1.2	2.3
Separated	4.6	5.8
Total	100.0	100

Source: UNIFEM/NIDS, 2006 N = 86

Table 4.4 shows that, nearly two thirds (63%) of the MWWs were married when they went to foreign labour migration and one third of them were unmarried. 4.6 percent of women were separated from their husband. Table 4.4 gives small figure of unmarried women after returning back. It means they got married after returning or while in employment. It seems slight increment in separated case. It may be that women feel able to live lonely after returning from working abroad because of having money and confidence build up.

## **4.2 Causes of Emigration**

Migration process is always affected by ‘push’ and ‘pull’ factors. Women are not economically strong in Nepalese context. No job opportunities are available here. Some are suffering from husband marrying again, so they feel lonely and decide to go to work abroad to improve their individual economic status. These all are push factors for emigration. They see their friends earning by working abroad and economic motive is one of the great factor to make decision to migrate.

Majority of women reported the causes of going to abroad are desire to earn money, to become self-reliant, to pay back loan, to educate children, spouse’s request to be together and etc. More women say, reasons to work abroad is to earn money and than due to poor economic condition. Both give

the meaning little bit same. Very few women have pulled by spouses' request to be together and some want to be self-reliant. It means women want to become a more significant source of income so that they can contribute to the household's resources and economic status. Most of the women (70%) go to work abroad after getting suggestion of family and friends, relatives, neighbors, spouse etc. and about 30 percent of women go abroad by self-motivation. About 50 percent women go to abroad by assistance of recruiting agents.

Earnings of friends, neighbors and relatives lead to take decision to work abroad. According to a research conducted by UNIFEM and NIDS in 2002, it was reported that, an average women migrant friends of the respondents sent Rs. 2.38 lakhs to her household in a year. The maximum amount recorded was Rs. 12.5 lakhs in a year and minimum was only Rs. 30,000.

Income is difference on the basis of background characteristics like socio-economic status, education, knowledge etc. Those who are able go to better paying countries can earn more income and those who go to less paying countries earn less income.

### **4.3 Employment Status of MWWs**

Most of the Nepalese migrant workers both males and females are non-skilled, only few are skilled workers and they are well paid than non-skilled. Migrant workers have so many problems due to difficulty in language, lack of education and being non-skilled. Particularly migrant women work indoor and called domestic worker. Some educated (highly educated) and skilled women work in supermarket, nursing home, and factory. Nepalese migrant workers have not enough idea about workers' rights.

### 4.3.1 Types of work of MWWs

Different types of works done by MWWs are given here.

**Table 4.5: Types of Work Done by Nepalese MWWs**

<b>Types of work</b>	<b>Percentage</b>
Domestic work	66.3
Factory work	11.6
Restaurant work	9.3
Office work	7.0
Cleaner	2.3
Labourer	1.2
Nursing home staff	1.2
Work in shopping center	1.2
Total	100.0

Source: UNIFEM/NIDS, 2006 N = 86

Table 4.5 shows that, large majority (66%) of MWWs were involved as domestic workers and followed by factory workers (11.6 %), restaurant workers (9.3%) and office workers (7%). Staff nurse seems only 1.2 percent of MWWs. Education and skills are correlating factors with type of work. Jobs are available in factories, restaurants and somewhere else but high concentration of women in domestic work is may a cause need of physical strength in hard work.

**Table 4.6: Guestimation of Nepalese Domestic Workers in Different Countries**

Country	Number of DW (guestimated)	Salary in US \$/month
Saudi Arabia	1,000-3,000	100-200
Bahrain	500-1,500	100-200
UAE	2,000-3,000	100-200
Qatar	1,000-2,000	100-200
Kuwait	500-1,500	100-200
India	50,000-100,000	20-60
Korea	250	200-500
Malaysia	25-50	100-200
Israel	100-200	400-500
Hong Kong	1,000-2,000	400-500
Japan	1,000-1,500	1,000-1,200
UK	600-700	500-800
USA (New York only)	200-300	500-800
<b>Total</b>	<b>57,925-116,000</b>	<b>3,620-5,460</b>

Source: Gurung, 2004

Table 4.6 shows the huge concentration in India as domestic worker. More women are concentrated in UAE except India. There are about 12,000 Nepalese working as domestic worker in foreign countries except India. These people are almost all women. In short, we can say most of Nepalese have concentrated in Gulf and followed by Hong Kong and Japan. They get same salary in Gulf except Israel (US \$ 400-500). Japan is the best country for domestic workers from earning point of view.

### **4.3.2 Problems of Migrant Women Workers**

Migrant women workers have so many problems both in home country and destination also. In the context of Nepal, Nepalese culture does not permit mobility to women. So, they do not get family support to go abroad and they have to face the monetary problem. Similarly they are in risk of being exploited by local agents and manpower agencies. Society does not feel good about migrant women workers especially Gulf going women and they have

to face problem to re-integrate in society. Some migrant's husband does marry again then her family relationship breakdown. Similarly, migrant women workers are not well treated in airport, when they return back after working aboard. Some people ask for bribes. Vulnerability is another plight of migrant women workers because they are in risk of being trafficked and sexually abusive. They are suffering due to lack of job orientation.

MWWs have some problems in destination like discrimination and xenophobia, gender wage differential, long working hours and etc. Problems experienced by MWWs are presented in table 4.7.

**Table 4.7: Problems Faced by MWWs at Work Place**

<b>Problems</b>	<b>Percentage</b>
Language difficulty	41.0
Difficulties in handling electronic goods	5.5
Lack of work skill	3.9
Cultural shock	3.1
Hard work	3.1
Low income	18.9
Exploited/strict employer	3.9
Not enough food	1.6
No holiday/resting time	15.7
Others	3.3
Total	100.0

Source: UNIFEM/NIDS, 2006 N = 86

Table 4.7 shows language difficulty is the biggest problem at work places. Low income is considered as another important problem and they do not get time to take rest. Another problem is difficulty in holding electronic goods. So, skilled manpower is required for the job. They have faced several problems like hard work, exploitation, cultural shock etc. Language and work skill play vital role to good income and welfare of workers. Well paying countries like Japan and Korea do not give appropriate salary due to lack of language and work skill. Problem of illegal migration is high in

Japan. Sometimes workers stay in the refrigerator when there is raid in the company.

#### **4.4 Impacts of International Migration**

Migration is also a component of population change because it redistributes the population in both origin and destination countries. Migration affects in different aspects in the society such as economy and demography. And effects of emigration may differ by gender (men emigration and women emigration). This chapter attempts to discuss about socio-economic impact of emigration at origin both positive and negative. Primarily, emigration creates a problem of labour shortage as an example of negative effect, on the other hand collecting remittance is an example of positive effect.

Migration does not favour the emigrating country and favours the immigrating country, and that migration would widen the development disparity between the countries because of the drain of resourceful person from the relative underdeveloped country to developed country. As an opposite side of a coin, emigration considered beneficial to origin. Migration draws upon the surplus labour and the disguised unemployment, it would help the emigrating region, when migration draws away the unemployed, including disguised unemployed, the removal of disguised unemployment increase the average productivity.

The labour exporting country may gain economically by the money brought by the emigrants. Remittance not only sustains the families they also promote the whole money economy in place of the traditional exchange or barter economy. The money sent to the nation by the migrants may enable the recipients to make some productive investment. The migrants who return

to village may start encouraged by the experience gained in the destination abroad, some business and small scale industries.

Mostly economic motive plays a vital role to decide to migrate and migration involves considerable costs (transportation fees charged by recruitment agencies, fee to obtain a visa and work permit). Sometimes migrants may remain unemployed, unable to find a better job, breach contract before time and income (earnings) may insufficient to look after himself. Such situation needs an outflow of money from the origin.

Urban area usually brings certain amount of social changes in migrants because influence of social character of the cities. Migration leads to break down the rude traditional characters, like marriage, occupation and cultivating system. And it is sociologically most important aspect for welfare of society. There were some instances of increased land prices in India and Turkey in the 1980s. Even in Nepal, we have experienced of increased land prices in Kathmandu and some other city centre in result of remittance earnings and Maoist insurgency in recent decades.

Both men and women emigration promotes the gender equality. Left behind women, when a male (husband) head of household migrates abroad, get a chance to household practice as a household head. In Kerala, for example women who stayed behind reported that remittances from their husbands in the Gulf states raised their authority and status. When men are left behind, they too can adjust to and accept new roles. One study of migrant Indonesian females found that many reported that their husbands were more respectful and took greater responsibility for child care (UNFPA, 2006: 30).

Women migration may promote a sex industries (prostitution and trafficking), because sex work is lucrative business. Even in Kathmandu,

there are thousands of women involving in sex work, underground nature and almost all they are migrants. Sex workers are spreaded in Asia and Europe. And also move from Latin America to Europe, and North America and from Eastern to Western Europe. Actual numbers are difficult to count due to unregulated and underground nature. Some estimates pin the numbers of women working in the illegal sex trade in the European Union at 200,000 and 500,000. Many have been trafficked. Irregular migration provokes exploitation especially female are more likely to be sexually and physically abuse. In the context of Nepal Maiti Nepal had rescued total 44 women of trafficking in 2003. Among them 4 from the Gulf and 40 form India (Mumbai, Delhi, Poona and Kolkota).

Migration of low-skilled workers is usually beneficial. Emigration of low-skilled workers can act as a safety valve for the failure to create appropriate employment at home. Further more low-skilled migration has contributed to poverty alleviation. But high skilled migration has both negative and positive impact in origin countries. Risk of brain-drain is negative impact of high skilled migration and good remittance earning is positive aspect. Nepalese emigrants to better paying countries simply are skilled and some are high-skilled. But emigrants to the Gulf and Malaysia are non-skilled and low skilled, majority of Nepalese migrants are concentrated in the Gulf and Malaysia excluding India. So many Gulf going Nepalese used to use thumb to sign and used to earn Rs.100 per day and hardly save few. After going abroad, they are sending good remittance which is being vital to pay back loan and improve socio-economic status.

#### **4.4.1 Abroad Earning, Saving and Importance of Remittances**

Remittance is known as the most important result of migration. Some experiences of cultural and social adjustment and skills are also called as

abroad earning. Seddon and Gurung (2000) estimated that in 1996-1997 foreign remittances to Nepal Rs. 30 billion was send back form India. They estimated a total Rs. 69 billion in remittance with 11 percent remittances from migrant women workers. Gurung again stated that 69 billion of Nepalese rupees is 25 percent of the total GDP but the frequent usage of the HUNDI system gives under recording to the remittances sent in by the migrant workers. This sub-chapter attempts to discuss about remittances and other types of abroad earnings, social remittances.

**Table 4.8: Top Twenty Countries of Remittance as Share of GDP, 2004**

<b>Country</b>	<b>Remittance as % of GDP</b>
Tonga	31.1
Moldova	27.1
Lesotho	25.8
Haiti	24.8
Bosnia and Herzegovina	22.5
Jordan	20.4
Jamaica	17.4
Serbia and Montenegro	17.2
El Salvador	16.2
Honduras	15.5
Philippines	13.5
Dominican republic	13.2
Lebanon	12.4
Samoa	12.4
Tajikistan	12.1
Nicaragua	11.9
Albania	11.7
<b>Nepal</b>	<b>11.7</b>
Kiribati	11.3
Yemen	10.0

Source: World Bank, 2006

We can see in table 4.8, Nepal had placed 18<sup>th</sup> position among top twenty countries of remittances as share of country's GDP in 2004, however Albania ranked 17<sup>th</sup> with equal share 11.7 percent. 11.7 percent share of GDP increased up to 12 percent in 2005 as stated by ADB. Almost all countries on

the table are known as developing or less developed countries. So, remittance is more fruitful for developing countries than developed countries. In 2001, only 3.4 percent of total population was absentees (emigrants) and 9.12 percent Nepalese abroad workers were women in 2006. we can calculate that about 4 percent of total population are contributing 12 percent of national GDP.

**Table 4.9: Remittances Sent to Nepal, (1995/96-2000/01)**

<b>Year</b>	<b>Amount in Nepali Rs. (Crores)</b>
1995-1996	12.5
1996-1997	21.3
1997-1998	24.5
1998-1999	16.6
1999-2000	30.0
2000-2001	40.7 (estimated)

Source: IMF as stated in Nepal, June 2002

Table 4.9 shows the increasing trend of remittances sent to Nepal since 1995. Remittance in 1995-1996 was 12.5 crores and it reached up to 24.5 crores in 1997-1998 with gradually increasing. But remittance declined to 16.6 crores in 1998-1999. Maoist conflict may be the cause of it. After 1999, Nepal has been receiving remittances in accelerated increasing trend.

**Table 4.10 Foreign Remittances Reaching Nepal by Region in 1997**

<b>Region</b>	<b>Workers (estimated)</b>	<b>Remittance (estimated)</b>
The west	15,000	4.4 billion
The Gulf	40,000	1.5 billion
East/S.E Asia	44,000	23 billion
India	25,000	6 billion
Others	1,000	-
<b>Total</b>	<b>350,000</b>	<b>35 billion</b>

Source: Seddon et al, 2002

From the table 4.10, East/S.E. Asian region were highly contributing to send remittance to Nepal. According to table estimated 15,000 workers in the West region had sent 4.4 billion remittances in 1997. But 40,000 workers in

the Gulf region had sent remittance to Nepal only 1.5 billion and approximate 250,000 workers in India had sent remittance only 6 billion in the same year 1997. Remittance sent to Nepal is depends on country of paying. Gulf and India are low paying country, so more Nepalese migrant workers are concentrated there but they are fewly contributing to send remittance in comparison to migrant workers who work in well paying countries of the West region and Asian countries like Japan.

According to ADB, remittances sent to Nepal in 2005 amounted to US \$ 1.1 billion-up 17 percent from the previous year, an amount that accounted for 12 percent of the country's GDP (ILO, 2006: 49). Particularly, as most remittances are transformed informally so it is difficult to estimate, however David Seddon had estimated 69 billion remittances (possible). In recent years, remittances from all sectors have grown. The Nepal Rastra Bank says that the expenditure patterns of households have also grown. KC 2005 claimed that estimated more than one million Nepalese have migrated to India, Gulf and other countries and a substantial amount of about US \$ 920 million is being remitted to Nepal through official and unofficial channels. "The sending and receiving of remittances takes place within certain gender relations for instance female migrants often earn less, but possible remit a higher proportion of their earnings than male migrants" (SAARC, 2006: 124).

**Table 4.11 Remittances and Poverty Reduction by Countries**

Country	Remittances received (Mln US\$)		Poverty	
	1990	2004	1990	2004
Bangladesh	758	3,372	58.8	49.8
India	2,069	12,256**	36.0	26.1**
<b>Nepal</b>	<b>442</b>	<b>620</b>	<b>40.0</b>	<b>30.8</b>
Pakistan	1,995	2,725	34.4	23.9
Sri Lanka	295	1,564***	26.1	22.7***

\*\*year 2000, \*\*\* year 2002.

Source: SAARC, 2006

Remittances from family members working within Nepal and abroad have become a major factor in poverty reduction in Nepal. Recent reduction of poverty is largely attributed to increasing flow of remittances in Nepal. We can see in table 4.11, five countries of SAARC region had increased remittance and reduced their poverty within 14 years (from 1990 to 2004). Talking about Nepal it had received US \$ 442 million remittances in 1990 and remittances increased up to US \$ 620 million in 2004. On the other hand, poverty had reduced from 40.0 to 30.8 within same 14 years period.

**Table 4.12: Importance of Remittances**

<b>Description</b>	<b>1995/96</b>	<b>2003/04</b>
Percent of all households receiving remittances	23.4	31.9
Share of remittances in total households income among recipients	26.6	35.4

Source: NLSS, 2003/04, CBS 2004

Table 4.12 shows that, remittances are becoming a very important source of income for Nepalese households. In 1995/96, 23.4 percent of households had received remittances. It reached up to around 32 percent by increasing in 2003/04. Similarly, 26.6 percent of income among recipients was depending on remittances and it reached up to 35.4 percent in 2003/04. Both indicators in table are improving.

**Table 4.13: Importance of Remittances for Various Groups, 2003/04**

<b>Groups</b>	<b>% of household</b>	<b>Share of remittances in total HH income</b>	<b>Average amount among recipients (NRs)</b>
<b>Economic status</b>			
Poorest	27.6	32.7	13,906
Second quintile	26.9	33.6	21,820
Third quintile	30.5	33.7	24,225
Fourth quintile	40.3	34.9	31,683
Richest	32.3	40.0	65,514
<b>Residence</b>			
Urban	25.4	39.1	68,981
Rural	33.2	34.9	29,530
All Nepal	31.9	35.4	34,698

Source: CBS 2004, NLSS

Remittances are important for all groups. It is also an important source of income of rural as well as urban people. We can see five socio-economic status of people in table 4.13. According to table households from poorest group as remittance recipients seems 27.6 percent which is larger than second quintile. 40.3 percent households from the fourth quintile (upper middle class) had received remittance which was most among all five groups in 2003/04. Average amount among recipients was from NRs. 13,900 to NRs. 65,500 gradually from poorest to richest groups in 2003/04. Remittance is more important in total household income for richest group than poorest group and for urban living than rural living according to table. Average among recipients in urban sector seems more than twice than in rural sector.

**Table 4.14: Estimates and Sources of Remittances**

<b>Estimate</b>	<b>1995/96</b>	<b>2003/04</b>
Average amount of remittance per recipient HH (nominal Rs.)	15,160	34,698
Per capita remittance amount for all Nepal (nominal Rs.)	625	2,100
Total amount of remittance received (nominal Rs. Million)	12,958	46,365
Source of Remittances (in %)		
From within Nepal	44.7	23.5
From India	32.9	23.2
Form other countries	22.4	53.3

Source: CBS 2004, NLSS

Table 4.14 shows that, average amount of remittance per recipient household is increasing. Similarly, per capita remittance amount and total amount of remittance are also increasing. But unit of time for that amount has not mentioned in table 4.14. In short, improvement of these indicators is positive achievement for us. Remittances from within Nepal and India had declined in 2003/04 than 1995/96. Just oppositely, remittance from other countries had increased at same period of time. So, we can speculate that, countries other than Nepal and India are being better source of remittances for Nepal than before.

Nepalese MWWs going to low paying countries can earn minimum of around 14,000 per month as reported by returnees. They can save 9,000 per month (Table 4.15), it is difficult to do at home. Abroad earnings depend on class background of migrants because upper class people can emigrate to well paying countries.

**Table 4.15: Average Monthly Income, Saving and Duration of Stay in Foreign Job of Women Migrants of Different Socio-Economic Status and their Departure Expenses and Income in Nepal**

<b>Income/saving</b>	<b>Upper middle class</b>	<b>Lower middle class</b>	<b>Lower class</b>
Monthly income (Rs.)	132,440	31,463	14,916
Monthly savings (Rs.)	80,185	19,137	9,408
Duration of stay (year)	4.47	3.71	3.17
Total saving (Rs.)	4,301,123	851,979	357,880
Departure expenses	243,333	71,631	389,000
Income in Nepal/year	58,266	25,109	50,900

Source: UNIFEM/NIDS, 2006

Table 4.15 makes a dilemma about total saving and departure expenses because it shows more expenses than saving for lower class migrants. Another thing is that lower class people go to low paying countries and it needs low expenses. But table shows the highest departure expenses for lower class migrants. Excluding it, table shows around Rs. 350,000 savings of lower class migrant women workers within 3 years time. Similarly we can calculate from the table an average total savings around Rs. 180,000 within 3.78 years, but upper middle class makes high share of total saving and it does not distribute equally. Migrant workers use that savings brought back from foreign countries to educate their children, purchase land, run a business, construct house, pay back loan and etc. Than it make chain effect in social welfare. One thing we should note that women migrants can save a larger proportion of their income as compared to their male counter part because they don't go for extravagant expenditure. According to a survey conducted by the CBS, women contribute 11 percent of the total remittance that enters Nepal. Migrant workers not only gain economic benefits they gain social earning (social remittances) also.

**Table 4.16: Women's Experiences as the Advantages of Migration**

<b>Indicators</b>	<b>Response frequency (%)</b>
Improvement in economic condition than before	97.0
Improvement in skills and experience than before	96.0
Improvement in social relationship than before	93.0
Improvement in social status than before	88.0
Improvement in legal status than before	95.0
Improvement in personal attributes than before	97.0
Improvement in self-confidence than before	92.0

Source: UNIFEM/ NIDS, 2006

#### **4.5 Key findings of the Study**

Labour migration from Nepal excluding to India, itself is a new phenomenon. So gender disaggregated data on migration abroad to work and its consequences are rare. Keeping in mind, objectives and research questions some key findings are mentioned.

- ) Portion of women emigrants from Nepal is very small in comparison to world and Asia. Women are emigrating in minor size with compare to men even in the context of Nepal.
- ) Women are contributing to national socio-economy with social remittances by working abroad however it is needed to avoid some few negative aspect of women emigration like vulnerability.
- ) Migrant women workers have some problems of education, skills and gender base discrimination at origin and destination also and women migration is vulnerable due to risk of being trafficked. Lack of language and long working hours are problems of MWWs to destination.

## **CHAPTER V**

### **SUMMARY OF FINDINGS, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS**

#### **5.1 Summary of Findings**

Volume of Nepalese emigrant seems in increasing trend since 1981 to 2001 census. There were nearly 0.86 million Nepalese working abroad excluding India, with 78 thousand women and share of women abroad workers was only 9.12 percent in 2006. 2001 census shows 10.9 percent share of women out of total absentees. Total 89.21 percent were India absentees in 1991 census, and 3.04 percent absentees were other Asian countries, other remaining was minor. According to 2001 census, most of the Nepalese were emigrated to Saudi Arabia and Qatar except India. More women were emigrated to Hong Kong, UK, Saudi Arab, Kuwait, Singapore and USA. However, DLEP had recorded only 161 women emigrants between the time of (1985-2001). More than 50 percent women out of total abroad workers are in the Gulf with the highest share of Saudi Arabia. Remaining others are primarily concentrated in Japan, Hong Kong, Britain Australia and the USA. Malaysia has a very small share of Nepalese MWWs. However, number of male emigrants to Malaysia is highly accelerated after 2000.

More than 90 percent of Nepalese MWWs except India are working in different 15 countries. The Gulf region contains 7 countries and others are Hong Kong, USA, UK, Japan, Malaysia etc. These 15 countries worth minimum 350 to maximum 30,000 Nepalese MWWs. Women are emigrating in accelerated increasing trend in recent years. Marriage is an affecting factor for female emigration. And marriage, as a reason of

migration decreased from 32 percent in 1991 to 14 percent in 2001. But employment and service, as reason of migration is increasing gradually since 1981 to 2001. It was only 11 percent in 1981 and reached up to 24 percent in 2001. It is an example of increasing trend of women working abroad. Most of the Nepalese migrant women workers are indigenous people and Dalit. Brahmin/Chettris have borne a small share. Similarly, around 40 percent are from lower middle class society. One quartile of women emigrants are literate with small share of illiterate, half are under SLC and 2 percent are MA and above. Around 60 percent of women go to work abroad after marriage. Economic motives of abroad earning and lack of employment opportunity at home are considered as 'pull' and 'push' factors of migration respectively.

Around 65 percent of women abroad workers are domestic workers. Approximate 12 thousand Nepalese domestic workers except India are almost all women. Particularly, domestic workers and unregulated women emigrants have to face problems like language difficulty, low income, long working hours, hard work and sexual abuse. Nepalese abroad workers both male and female almost are less or no educated and low or no skilled. So it is beneficial to Nepal, sending youths to work abroad to bring remittance but some skilled emigrants are creating a problem of brain drain. Abroad working has reduced a problem of brain waste in Nepal.

Nepal has placed 18<sup>th</sup> position among top twenty countries of remittance as share of GDP with remittances as 11.7 percent of GDP. However Gurung has mentioned 25 percent of GDP depends on remittance. Remittances sent to Nepal through official channels as share of national GDP are approximately three times larger than emigrants out of total population of Nepal. Similarly, share of women in sending remittances is larger in comparison to women emigrants. Nepal is receiving remittance in increasing

trend since 1995 and remittance has played a vital role to reduce poverty. Share of remittance in total household income among recipient had increased from 26.6 percent in 1995/96 to 35.4 percent in 2003/04. Similarly remittance from within Nepal and India is decreased and from other countries is increased between the periods of 1995/96 to 2003/04. Besides economic benefits, Nepal has received social remittances like skills, self-confidence gender empowerment etc. in migrants. Migrating movement promotes the gender equality.

## **5.2 Conclusions**

International migration has become fruitful to Nepal due to lack of industrialization and loss of employment opportunity within the country reason of Maoist insurgency for the last twelve years. It would than become extremely difficult to provide employment to 300000 young people who enter job market every year. Globalization has also opened up opportunities for women to work abroad. But these opportunities have not been accessible to Nepalese women in comparison to world and Asia also. Nearly half (48.6%) international migrants were women in 2000 in the world and 43% were in Asia. ILO 2006 stated that, women amounted some 47 percent of all migrants in Asia in 2001. Only 10 percent emigrants were women in Nepal in 2001 census. Some social, institutional, and legal barriers against women in Nepal have become reason for difficulties to undertake foreign labour migration legally.

International labour migration mostly in the Gulf, Malaysia, and South Asian countries is new in the Nepalese context and moreover for female. Numbers of people going abroad to work have been increased for the last few years. Major concentration of Nepali migrant workers was in Gulf States for the very beginning. But now more Nepalese are emigrating to Malaysia even

though the number of people going to the Gulf is still significant. Major concentration of Nepalese MWWs is in Gulf States, Hong Kong, Brunei, and some well paying countries like USA, UK, and Japan. People prefer to go, where their friends, family and relatives have gone. This migration process makes a 'network' of migration.

There are some examples of unsuccessful migration, not mentioned in earlier units. Some women have been becoming trafficked, some have returned back home from the way to destination. The situation of women migrant workers is more vulnerable as compared to men. The existing law in itself is found discriminatory towards women. More than 20 thousand women have gone abroad through India unregulated or undocumented way. Undocumented migrants are more vulnerable due to lack of legislation. Almost all Nepalese migrants have to face problems but those who work in group or organized industries; they have fewer problems due to some rules. Domestic workers have to face more problems because they should work indoor and lonely. So domestic workers are in more risk and exploited.

Most of Nepalese migrant workers are at age 20-35 years, moreover 25-30 years. It is relevant from legislative point of view because emigrants must be 18-40 years to work abroad. Above mentioned emigrating age group (25-30 years) itself is the most energetic time of human life. It does not give a sound symbol for long run nation's prosperity. More than 60 percent women migrants are married before going abroad. It is because of early marriage pattern of Nepalese society and not allowed mobility to daughter before marriage. Having flexible and liberal attitudes towards women in indigenous society, large number of women migrants are from indigenous and Dalit in comparison to Brahmin and Chhettris. One thing we should note that women may not go to work abroad due to reproductive role.

Foreign employment opportunities are not accessible to poor group even though they need it. Poor people are disadvantaged from opportunity due to lack of education, money and social network. These all are result of weak government mechanism to inform and educate to citizens. Migrants both men and women have not so more ideas about migrant workers' rights, importance of pre departure orientation, what is their status at the work place, role of Nepalese Embassy/Labour Attache how to get good information before going abroad and etc. So government and stakeholders should make a good mechanism towards abroad employment because it is being an industry.

Remittances to Nepal now are considered as an important source of economy. 34 percent of household had received remittance in 2003/04 and remittance from other countries than India is increasing now. Some experiences brought back to Nepal by working abroad are another positive aspect of emigration from Nepal. But some few skilled workers and educated persons are being brain drain from emigration. It may fruitful to brake or gear down the skilled emigration and creating good opportunity for them. Similarly, government should take an action to enable to invest both social and economic remittances and to re-integrate.

### **5.3 Recommendations**

Some recommendations are set on the basis of problems and prospects to manage and regulate the foreign employment and its impact.

#### **To government sectors:**

- ) Government should recognize the contribution of MWWs to the national economy. They would have been a burden if they had not gone out, but now they are contributing in national economy.

- ) Foreign employment opportunity should go to backwards society and disadvantaged group through government mechanism. To do it, the local political bodies like VDC and DDC should be responsible in providing information about foreign labour migration and in selecting candidates belonging to work effectively and economically excluded groups for foreign labour jobs. And government should provide financial support like loan in low interest.
- ) Government should pay an especial consideration to the welfare of women migrant workers and all discriminatory laws/acts practice regarding the women involvement in foreign employment should be amended as per the guiding principle of the state.
- ) Government should establish embassy and assign trained labour attache and welfare officers, especially women officers in their embassies in host countries with specific responsibility to protect MWWs.
- ) The government needs to strengthen the capacity of trade union organizations to facilitate counseling work among the potential migrant workers in the grassroots level and other welfare schemes in the national level.
- ) National labour policy should try to safeguard migrant labours from the risk of being trafficked. Similarly, government should dialogue with labour receiving country to make guarantee to protect migrant labours.
- ) The government should strengthen a mechanism to monitor the role of recruitment agencies in insurance and other safety systems. Recruitment agencies should be categorized and companies with better grade should be awarded.

- ) The frequent cases of cheating and the bureaucratic process of police and labour department should be made simple. The role of police should be clearly explained so that migrants could get justice if somebody cheated them. An effective complain mechanism and quick decision system should be established.
- ) It is needed an effective system of providing information and counseling services for the returnee migrants. Returnees may need some money also to establish an enterprise because usually migrants do not come with huge amount of money. Together, government should take an appropriate action to overcome drawbacks of high-skilled emigration. Government should simplify administrative procedure and reducing the costs of migration to regulate illegal migration.

**To non government sectors:**

- ) NGOs should involve effectively, in activities such as providing pre-departure orientations, networking and spreading information about protection of migrants.
- ) Society should develop positive attitude on migration for foreign employment and MWWs. Steps should be taken towards this effect.
- ) Recruitment agencies should educate the migrant workers about the rights, working condition, labour laws and regulation of the employer's country prior to the recruitment.
- ) NGOs and civil society's role in advocating equity, social protection development of international network and research should be strengthen.

- ) Recruitment agencies should be reached extensively out of Kathmandu Valley. This will help to avoid the involvement of local agents in different level and build up manpower-worker direct contact.
- ) Migrant workers especially women should be empowered through training, education and orientation. So it is needed legal, educational and social outreach to migrant women through civil (social) sectors.
- ) Gender discriminations should be completely abolished from social practice.
- ) A media campaign to sensitize families and communities with a positive message about women's migration for work and to eradicate the existing taboos on migrant women workers.
- ) Harassment should be minimized at documentation period and airport when time to departure for the migrant workers. Especially those emigrants who are not aware of the official procedure, they should help and not scolded. The practice of asking for money should be totally removed.
- ) Migrant workers own self should aware prior to go abroad about place of destination, type of work, minimum fixed wages/salary, contract period and many more about foreign employment. If they are not capable to do so they should consult their friends, relatives and experts also.

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