

**DETERMINANTS AND SOCIAL IMPACT OF MIGRATION IN DIPRUNG
CHUICHUMMA RURAL MUNICIPALITY KHOTANG**



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DECLARATION

I hereby declare that this dissertation entitled “**Determinants and Social Impact of Migration in Dibrung Chuichukma Rural Municipality, Khotang**” submitted to the Central Department of Sociology, Faculty of Humanities and Social Sciences, Tribhuvan University, for the degree of **Master of Philosophy in Sociology**, is my original work, and no part of it has been previously submitted for the award of any degree in this or any other university.



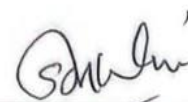
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LETTER OF RECOMMENDATION

This is to certify that Ms. Sabita Basnet has conducted this dissertation entitled **"Determinants and Social Impact of Migration in Dibrung Chuichumma Rural Municipality, Khotang"** under my guidance and supervision. This dissertation is the result of her original research work and has not been copied from any previous research or other sources. Therefore, I hereby recommend this dissertation for final evaluation by the Dissertation Committee of the Central Department of Sociology, Faculty of Humanities and Social Sciences, Tribhuvan University in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the Degree of **Master of Philosophy in Sociology**.



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LETTER OF APPROVAL

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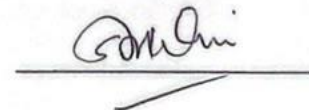
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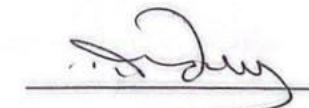
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ABSTRACT

The present study examines the determinants and social impact of internal migration in Dibrung Chuichomma Rural Municipality-3, Khotang. The main objective of this study was to identify and analyze the key social determinants of migration and to examine the resulting social impact on households and the community left behind. This study is guided by the philosophical approach of social constructivism, which views migration as a multidimensional social process created by human experience and interaction. The study employed a qualitative research design to examine the determinants of internal migration and its social impact in Dibrung Chuichomma Rural Municipality -3, Khotang. Qualitative methods were primarily used for data collection, which included field observation, focus group discussions, and key informant interviews. In addition, for the purpose of data collection, a total number of 105 households were selected as the sample from 462 households in the ward consisting of 80 migrant households and 25 non-migrant households.

The data collected from both primary and secondary sources were analyzed using descriptive and analytical methods. The findings showed that migration was mainly influenced by push and pull factors. Key push factors included a lack of employment opportunities, inadequate quality of education, limited healthcare services, poor infrastructure, agricultural labor shortages, and environmental vulnerabilities. Conversely, pull factors included expectations of better employment and business opportunities, access to quality education and health services, transportation facilities, safer living environments, and support from relatives and social networks. Migration was found to be selective, with a higher tendency among the youth and economically active population groups.

The social impacts of migration in Dibrung Chuichomma Rural Municipality were found to be diverse and far-reaching. Migration has brought significant changes to the demographic structure, resulting in a population decline and an increasing proportion of elderly individuals and women remaining in the village. The out migration of working-age individuals has created a shortage of labor, particularly affecting the agricultural sector, where many farmlands remain uncultivated and productivity has declined. Migration has also influenced the education sector; the

number of students in local schools has decreased due to families moving to urban areas to send their children to cities for quality educational opportunities. Similarly, migration has also affected physical infrastructure and settlements, leaving many houses vacant and in a deteriorating condition, which has weakened community cohesion. This study contributes academically by providing localized empirical evidence and integrating multiple theoretical perspectives on migration. Policy-wise, the findings emphasize the need for place-based development interventions, employment creation, and social protection measures to address the root causes of migration and mitigate its adverse social impacts.

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ABBREVIATIONS

CBS	Central Bureau of Statistics
DDC	District Development Committee
FGD	Focus Group Discussion
GDP	Gross Domestic Product
GON	Government of Nepal
HDI	Human Development Index
INGO	International Non-Governmental Organization
KII	Key Informant Interview
LDC	Least Developed Country
LLF	Livelihoods Framework
NGO	Non-Governmental Organization
NLSS	Nepal Living Standards Survey
NPC	National Planning Commission
OLS	Ordinary Least Squares
SDG	Sustainable Development Goals
SLF	Sustainable Livelihoods Framework
TU	Tribhuvan University
UN	United Nations
UNDP	United Nations Development Program
VDC	Village Development Committee
WHO	World Health Organization.

CHAPTER – I

INTRODUCTION

1.1 Background of the study

Migration refers to the movement of people from one region, country, or social environment to another, involving a change in their permanent or temporary residence (Dubey & Mallah, 2015). Different scholars and international organizations have defined migration in various ways, highlighting its multidimensional nature. Eisenstadt (1953) defined migration as the physical transition of an individual or a group from one society to another. This process generally involves leaving an existing social environment and adapting to a new social setting characterized by different social relationships, norms, and patterns of life. According to the International Organization for Migration (2004), migration is the movement of a person or a group of people, either over an international border or within a state. It is a movement of the population, which includes every kind of movement of people, regardless of its duration, its composition and its causes.

Migration is widely classified into internal and international migration. International migration is further divided into emigration and immigration, whereas internal migration is divided into lifetime and period migration. Lifetime migration is further subdivided into inter-district, inter-regional, and inter-zonal and rural-urban streams (Suwal, 2014). Beyond this classification, migration is also understood in relation to social structure. Goldscheider (1987) argues that there is a profound relationship between migration and social structure, reflecting how various types of migration and the complexities of social structure are interrelated over time across different societies, communities and social groups.

International migration is a social phenomenon that crosses national borders and affects two or more nation states (Castles, 2007). Migration has been an integral part of Nepali society. The country has experienced various forms of mobility, including seasonal, long-term, temporary, and permanent, as well as internal and international movements involving in-migration and out-migration. Although Nepali people migrate for several reasons, employment and education are the two main reasons

behind migration within and from Nepal (Bhattarai, 2022). Temporary migration brings workers who will leave before, or at the end of, their working lives. The size of the working age population increases while there is little or no impact on the overall demographic reproduction of the non-working age group. In arithmetic terms, temporary migration can be adjusted in order to fill the gaps caused by a shrinking working-age population, without generating further population aging (Fargues & McCormick, 2013). Many Nepali youth also engage in seasonal labor migration from Nepal to India. This migration flow is not officially recorded or captured in the census or in the major national surveys. According to the 2011 census of both Nepal and India, more than half a million Nepali migrants were living in India (Bhattarai, 2022). Furthermore, Thomson (2011) explained that the most considerable influence in making the decision to emigrate comes from family reasons and economic status.

Internal and international migrants are identified as ‘absentees’ in national surveys, such as the Nepal Living Standards Survey and the Nepal Labor Force Survey. In these surveys an absentee refers to a household member who is present in the household listing but is excluded from the definition of usual household members due to prolonged absence. This generally includes individuals who have been away than six months in the last 12 months and those who have recently left and are expected to be away for an extended period before returning to the same household (Bhattarai, 2022).

The Central Bureau of Statistics (2011) defines a migrant as a person who leaves their district of birth and resides in another district for at least five months. During the census enumeration, information was recorded based on the place where the person was residing at the time of data collection. Generally, an individual lives and sustains their livelihood in a particular place, which is commonly referred to as the place of residence. The latest trend in internal migration in Nepal shows a continued movement of people from the hill to the Terai. It is argued that internal migration in Nepal is mainly due to regional imbalances in the distribution of resources, opportunities, and services, as well as poverty, unemployment, and the difficult livelihoods of households (K.C, 2014).

Migration is not only shaped by economic factors but also by wider social conditions. According to Todaro (1980), individuals migrate for several reasons beyond the

primary economic motive. People migrate to improve their education and skill levels, which ultimately serve an economic purpose. Migration allows individuals to escape social and cultural imprisonment in homogeneous rural areas and to escape rural violence and political instability. Many people also move to join family and friends who have previously migrated to urban areas.

The causes of migration can be classified into two main categories: push and pull factors. Pull factors include aspects such as employment opportunities, better living conditions, security, health services, political and religious freedom and industrial facilities. Push factors include unemployment, limited facilities, poverty, war, lack of property and the absence of opportunities to utilize labor power. Lee (1966) highlights that migration is influenced by a combination of social, economic and political factors which together shape the movement of people to different regions or countries. Social factors such as religious tolerance and better educational opportunities in some countries contribute to the pull of migrants. Similarly, political pull factors include the right to vote, freedom from persecution, stronger legal protection and improved personal safety under the law (Urbański, 2022).

Nepal has been experiencing an unprecedented scale of youth migration over the last decade. For many households, sending a young family member abroad for work or study has become a normal survival strategy rather than an exception. This situation has created a serious national debate (Bhusal, 2025). The impact of this migration can be seen in the country's current economic indicators. The data shows that more than 2.5 million Nepalis have migrated abroad during the last three years alone, at the same time, remittance inflows increased 19.2 percent to Rs.1723.27 billion during 2024/25 compared to an increase of 16.5 percent in the previous year (Nepal Rastra Bank, 2025). These figures reflect the growing scale and economic significance of migration, understanding the factors that drive people to migrate is equally important.

Most migration from low-income countries is driven by hardship; people flee violence or poverty because leaving is preferable to staying. However, this is not the whole story. People in low-income countries also have aspirations to travel and see the world motivations that are usually associated with the mobility of privileged groups. (Carling, & Talleraas, 2016). However, Migration indicate movement of a person or groups of people from one locality to another for the purpose of permanent or

temporary resettling. Migration is not to be compared with any other an individual experience as it situation he starts their life from scratch (Dontsov & Zotova, 2013).

Migration in Nepal has been influence by social, political and economic changes over the past few decades. Following the end of the decade long armed conflict. The restoration of peace and the restructuring of the state encouraged many people to relocate permanently to the Kathmandu valley and other urban areas. Better security improved access to services and the search for employment opportunities were among the major factors attracting migrants to these areas. Secondly, the fear generated by the 2015 earthquake increased migration towards the Kathmandu valley and nearby urban areas (National Statistics Office, 2025).

Migration has also contributed to positive social changes, such as the empowerment of women and marginalized communities. It is an important sector having vast potentials for economic and social development and some of its negative impacts, such as the gradual decline of farming in migrant communities are considered to be manageable by effective policy measures (Gautam, 2017). However, the benefits gained from migration are not equally distributed among all social groups. Kreager (2006) explains that higher status families benefit more from migration opportunities strengthening their social and economic positions whereas poorer households have smaller and weaker social networks.

Apart from these social transformations, migration also has important implications for human capital in the place of origin. Yunusu et al. (2025) explain that the feminization of rural areas resulting from male out-migration has both empowering and challenging implications for rural women. On the positive side, women often take on leadership roles in agricultural production and community governance. Conversely, migration brings several impacts beyond the direct economic benefits received through remittances in the region of origin. One of the widely discussed consequences in migration studies is the 'brain drain'. Sitompul (2023) describes brain drain as the loss of skilled human resources from the place of origin. It occurs when educated and qualified individuals move in search of employment opportunities. This concept means that the area of origin loses because the skilled workers depart from their homeland. Migration therefore changes people and their mentalities. New experiences result from the coming together of multiple influences and peoples,

leading to altered or evolving representations of self-identity (King et al., 1995). When these individual and identity related changes are analyzed in a broader structural context, the impact of migration become visible at a collective level. This effect is naturally expressed in a social form. Suwal (2014) highlights that, internal migration in Nepal has changed the socio-cultural structure as well as the political demography of the country which has affected communal harmony in Nepali society. The internal migration has diversified Nepali society and the people of different communities to share common social and cultural values among each other.

Internal migration refers to the movement of residence or settlement within the same country. It includes movement within provinces, districts and municipalities. In the context of Nepal, internal migration commonly occurs from rural areas to urban centers from hills to the Terai within rural areas and from one urban area to another. In most cases, people migrate from rural areas to urban centers in search of better services and opportunities. Since cities provide more employment opportunities and better access to services than rural areas. Consequently, the trend of rural to urban migration has been steadily increasing in Nepal.

Like many other regions, Dibrung Chuichumma Rural Municipality is significantly affected by internal migration. Over the past few years, there has been a noticeable increase in out migration from this area to the Terai and other urban centers. While migration exerts both positive and negative impacts on the social, economic, cultural, and environmental aspects of society, this growing trend appears to be adversely affecting the overall socio- economic and environmental conditions of the village. Therefore, evaluating these determinants of migration and their social impacts forms the foundational core of this study.

1.2 Statement of the problem

Migration has become one of the most trans-formative demographic and socio-economic processes in rural Nepal. It has significantly reshaped livelihood strategies, household structures and community life. In a developing nation like Nepal, Out migration has become a major structural challenge that is increasingly affects national development efforts. Recent studies highlight the growing intensity of this issue.

Linkha (2025) investigated the patterns and consequences of out migration in the mountain regions of Nepal, focusing particularly on southern Sankhuwasabha. The study demonstrated that out-migration rates are much higher than in-migration, leading to depopulation in these areas. The main factors driving migration include limited employment opportunities and a lack of quality education and health facilities. Furthermore, the research points out several socio- environmental effects on the origin communities.

Similarly, Chaudhary (2025) conducted a study on the Dev community of Biratnagar, highlighting the socio-economic changes caused by migration. However, a gap still remains in understanding how these changes disrupt traditional rural structures. While, employment opportunities and improved living standards drive migration. The shift from agriculture to service-based occupations alters landownership patterns and makes urban adaptation more difficult. This situation raises concerns about the long-term sustainability of rural livelihoods.

According to the National Population and Housing Census (2021), the internal migration rate in Nepal has reached approximately 29.2 %, with the Hill region experiencing the highest level of out-migration compared to other ecological zones. This trend indicates a growing imbalance between rural and urban areas in terms of opportunities and resource distribution.

In this context, internal migration also appears to have had a partial impact on Ward No. 3 of Dibrung Chuichumma Rural Municipality. As a result, the outflow of people from the village has been increasing day by day. According to the Central Bureau of Statistics (2011), the population of Dibrung Chuichumma Rural Municipality-3 was 2,353, but by the 2021 census it has declined to 1,895. This ten year period shows that people from this region have migrated to more developed and better-serviced parts of the country.

Due to this continuous migration, Dibrung Chuichumma Rural Municipality is facing multiple challenges. The out-migration of a capable workforce has led to an increasing amount of agricultural land being left barren, resulting in reduced local food production and growing dependence on external markets. Furthermore, with only women, elderly people, and children remaining in the village, there is a severe lack of

people to provide support during emergencies. The lack of local employment opportunities, quality education, healthcare services, transportation, and functional local markets is further compounding these issues. These conditions are compelling the younger generation and economically active people to migrate to urban areas in search of better opportunities and improved living standards.

Despite their significance, these subtle social transformations have remained largely undocumented and under-researched at the local level. While, migration may provide short-term financial relief to individual households through remittances. It is simultaneously weakening the foundation for the long-term sustainable development of the communities. A review of previous studies shows that most research has focused on the national level or other rural areas.

However, in the specific context of Dibrung Chuichumma Rural Municipality, there is a significant research gap regarding the determinants of migration and its social impacts on the local society. This study attempts to fill this gap by examining the current situation of migration in Ward No. 3 of Dibrung Chuichumma Rural Municipality and analyzing the impact of this migration on the local residents who have remained in the area. The research attempts to identify the main causes of the problem and explore possible solutions.

To ensure the systematic and organized conduct of this study, the following research questions have been formulated.

1.3 Research Questions

1. What are the key social determinants of migration in Dibrung Chuichumma Rural Municipality-3?
2. How has Migration affected the social structure in Dibrung Chuichumma Rural Municipality-3?

1.4 Objectives of the study

The main objectives of this study are as follows:

1. To identify and analyze the key social determinants of migration from Diphung Chuichumma Rural Municipality-3.
2. To examine the effects of migration on the social structure in Diphung Chuichumma Rural Municipality-3.

1.5 Significance of the Study

This study is significant because it generates a comprehensive understanding of the underlying determinants and multidimensional effects of migration in Diphung Chuichumma Rural Municipality-3. A context that has previously received limited academic and policy attention by examining social, economic, demographic, and infrastructural determinants. The study provides empirical evidence on how structural constraints such as declining agricultural productivity, limited employment opportunities and inadequate public services compel individuals particularly youth migrate to urban areas. This insight offers a deeper understanding of the social and economic pressures that shape migration decisions and shows how these pressures reflect broader patterns of rural transformation in Nepal.

The study is important because it documents the impact of out-migration on households and communities that are left behind. It highlights how labor shortages and the shifting of agricultural responsibilities increase the burden on elderly populations and changed traditional household dynamics. These findings clarify how migration reshapes gender roles but does not necessarily translate into enhanced empowerment or well-being for women. The study also shows how long-term migration patterns weaken community participation. It reduce youth engagement in local institutions, and contribute to social fragmentation. These insights are essential for understanding the subtle yet powerful transformations occurring at the local level.

Another major significance of the study lies in its contribution to local planning and policy formulation. The research provides municipality, specific evidence that is previously lacking, thereby enabling local authorities to better identify development gaps and prioritize interventions. By highlighting the direct and indirect impacts of

migration on agriculture, education, labor distribution, and social cohesion the study provides importation information for policymakers. These findings can help in designing more targeted programs to improve local employment, revitalize agriculture and strengthen social protection for vulnerable groups such as women, children and the elderly.

The study contributes to academic scholarship by offering a localized perspective on migration an area often dominated by generalized national-level analyses. Its findings add empirical depth to debates on rural livelihood strategies, demographic change and labor mobility in Nepal. By focusing on a mid-hill rural municipality with distinct geographical and socioeconomic characteristics the study broadens the existing understanding of how migration operates differently across diverse contexts. This provides a foundation for future comparative studies and helps fill the knowledge gap in migration research within the region.

Finally, the study holds practical significance for community stakeholders, including local leaders, educators, cooperatives, and social organizations. By clarifying the challenges created by migration such as declining community participation, weakened family support structures, and rising dependence on remittances, it encourages stakeholders to reassess their roles in promoting community cohesion and developing sustainable local livelihoods. Overall, the study serves as a crucial step toward building more resilient and self-reliant rural communities in Dibrung Chuichumma and beyond.

1.6 Delimitation of the study

The study area is delimited to Dibrung Chuichumma Rural Municipality-3, Khotang. Therefore, the findings may not be generalizable to all rural areas of Nepal. It focuses exclusively on internal migration. The study focuses primarily on households that have experienced migration within the last 5 years, which necessarily excludes older migration flows. Due to time and resource constraints, the research covers only Ward No. 3 of the Dibrung Rural Municipality rather than the entire local unit. Furthermore, the study emphasizes the determinants and social impact of migration, while environmental or long-term demographic effects are examined only briefly.

1.7 Definition of Important Terms

Migration: The physical movement of people from one place to another within the country of Nepal. Typically from their place of origin (rural/ward) to a different district, municipality or settlement, with the intention of changing residence for at least six months (or another defined period).

Sending Household / Origin Area: The household or area from which a person has migrated.

Receiving Household / Destination Area: The household or area where the migrant has moved to.

Social structure: Social structure refers to the pattern of relationships, roles, norms, and institutions within a human community that shape social interaction and behavior. In this study, social structure includes family organization, kinship systems, gender roles, inter generational relationships and participation in community activities. All of these are influenced by migration and are slowly changing over time through that process.

Push Factors: Conditions in the origin area that compel or encourage people to leave (e.g., lack of jobs, poor services, natural hazard).

Pull Factors: Attractions in the destination area that draw migrants, such as employment, education, infrastructure.

Remittances: The financial assets or other resources sent back by migrants to their origin household.

Left-behind Family/ Children: Family members who remain in the origin household after one or more family members have migrated.

Labor Substitution: The socioeconomic process by which migration of productive household members triggers the rearrangement or replacement of labor (for example, through other family members, hiring wage labor in the origin area).

Household Living Standard: A composite indicator of economic welfare of a household, measured through its total income, ownership of assets, consumption pattern and access to essential public services.

1.8 Organization of the Study

This study is divided into seven chapters. Chapter One includes general background of the study, statement of the problem, research questions with objectives, significance of the study, delimitation of the study, definition of important terms and organization of the study. Chapter Two compromise literature review, including both theoretical and empirical review, followed by the research gap and the conceptual framework. Similarly Chapter Three, details the research methodology, outlining the research design, research philosophy, sources of data, sampling methods, and data collection tools. It is also explains the procedures for data analysis and the ethical considerations maintained during the study. Chapter Four, describes the geographical profile of the study area and the demographic characteristics of the respondents. Chapter Five presents the analysis and interpretation of the data, specifically examining the social determinants of migration, including push and pull factors. Chapter Six focuses on the effects of migration on the social structure. Finally, Chapter Seven concludes the study by presenting a summary and conclusions.

CHAPTER – II

REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

2.1 Review of Theoretical Literature

The review of theoretical literature provides an in-depth analysis of the established theories, concepts and perspectives necessary for building the foundation of this study. Under this section, relevant theories are reviewed to understand the determinants of migration and its social impacts in Dibrung Chuichomma Rural Municipality-3. These theories, developed by various sociologists and researchers, after a strong conceptual framework for understanding the relationships among the variables of the study. Furthermore, they establish the theoretical foundation of the research and provide guidance for the academic interpretation and analysis of the findings. Therefore, the major theories employed in this study to examine the multidimensional aspects of migration are presented as follows.

2.1.1 Lee's Push-Pull Theory (Lee, 1966)

To understand the causes of internal migration in Dibrung Chuichomma Rural Municipality, Lee (1966) Push and Pull Theory has been used as the main theoretical framework for this study. According to this theory, an individual's decision to migrate is the result of an interaction between positive and negative factors at the place of origin and destination. It is also influenced by intervening obstacles and personal factors. Lee explains migration in term of push and pull factors. Push factors are related to the place of origin and reflect the difficult conditions that often compel people to leave their place such as poverty, unemployment low agriculture productivity, weak infrastructure and inadequate public services. Pull factors are associated with the place of destination which attract people to migrate. These include better job opportunities, higher wage, quality education, health services and modern facilities. Another important aspect of Lee theory is personal factors. Individuals perspective push and pull forces differently based on their age, gender, aspiration life experiences and social networks. Thus, migration is not only an economic and structural process. It is also a subjective decision shaped by personal evaluation of risks and opportunities (William & Frey, 2005).

Migration is a permanent and semi permanent change of resident driven by push and pull factors. Igwedibai & Ezeonu (2023) argue that push factors are coercive condition at the place of origin such as poverty, lack of livelihood opportunities and environment disasters that force to people leave. Pull factors work as attractive forces at the destination offering better job, healthcare facilities and political stability. The author further argue that migration is not just a simple movement of people but a calculated response to the differences between origin and destination conditions. This theory is relevant for understanding migration in Diprung Chuichumma Rural Municipality. Where many households face strong push pressure such as limited employment decline agricultural production, poor infrastructure and lack of higher education.

2.1.2 Harris-Todaro Expected Income Model (Harris & Todaro, 1970)

Expected Income Model, developed by Harris-Todaro (1970) is one of the most influential theories explaining rural urban migration in developing nations. The main assumption of this model is migration decisions are not determined by current wage differences, but depend on expected income in the future. This expected income is calculated by multiplying the urban wage by the probability of obtaining employment in the urban labor market. This means individuals compare the expected urban wage with the actual rural wage before deciding to migrate. Even if urban unemployment is high, rural people may still migrate because the urban wage rate is significantly higher, and the expected return appears favorable.

Todaro model explains why large-scale migration can occur despite persistent urban unemployment: migrants believe that even a small probability of accessing higher-paying urban jobs justifies the move, especially when rural incomes are extremely low (Amano, 1983). Expanding on this, Calvo (1978) notes that the urban sector is characterized by unemployed workers who still have a positive probability of getting jobs, leading to search unemployment. Its equilibrium is reached under the assumption that job seekers continue to migrate to the urban sector. This process continue continuous until the expected urban wage becomes equal to the rural wage. validating this persistence, Tan (2024) argues that even when unemployment exist in urban area, individual may still decide to migrate, if they perceive favorable

opportunities to secure employment and earn higher incomes. Future opportunities in migration decision are shaped by current circumstance and expectations.

This framework demonstrates how the government policies such as high urban minimum wages can unintentionally attract more and more migrants and worst unemployment. This theory is refers to migration from Dhiprung Chuichumma Rural Municipality, where agriculture is just a survival and employment opportunities are limited through out the rural municipality. Young people have migrated to the cities to expect higher income, even though many urban migrants struggle to find stable employment initially. Thus the decision is shaped by aspiration, peer success stories, and perceived long term gains rather than immediate job security in cities. Thus, the Todaro model provides a powerful explanation why rural youth continue to migrate despite widespread reports of urban job competition and underemployment in Nepal.

2.1.3 Household Livelihoods / Sustainable Livelihoods Framework

The Sustainable Livelihoods Framework proposed Chambers & Conway (1992), the household livelihoods theory, views migration as one of several strategies that households adopt to secure and improve their livelihood under conditions of constraint. According to this perspective, households operate within a context shaped by vulnerability, limited access to services, and unequal distribution of assets. Livelihoods are determined by five key forms of capital: natural capital (land, water, forest resources), human capital (education, skills, labor availability), social capital (networks, community ties), physical capital (infrastructure, housing, tools), and financial capital (income, savings, credit). When these assets are weak or insufficient, households diversify their strategies one of the most common being migration.

The theory emphasizes that migration is not simply a response to poverty or unemployment but a coping and adaptive strategy implemented to manage risks, stabilize income, and improve long-term well being. Households assess their asset base and determine whether sending a member to an urban area can strengthen their livelihood portfolio. Remittances whether financial or social are considered crucial returns that help reduce vulnerability, enhance consumption, fund education and health care, and support agricultural or small-business investments. Migration

therefore becomes a deliberate, calculated choice embedded within household-level decision-making rather than an individual action (Qin,2010) .

This framework is relevant to understanding of Migration in Dibrung Chuichumma Rural Municipality, where natural capital is constrained by small landholdings and declining agricultural productivity, human capital is limited by out migration of youth, and physical capital such as roads, market access, and services remains underdeveloped. Many rural households adopt multiple livelihood strategies to cope with economic and environmental pressures. In this context, migration emerges as a logical and adaptive strategy used to diversify income, reduce vulnerability and compensate for inadequate local opportunities.

2.1.4 Network Theory

Another theoretical basis for this study is the network theory propounded by Massey & his colleagues (1993). This theory does not view migration only as a pursuit of economic gain, but also as a social process. According to Massey, immigrant networks are sets of interpersonal relationships linked on the basis of kinship, friendship, and shared community origin, connecting immigrants, ex-immigrants, and non-immigrants to places of origin and destination (Massey et al.,1993). These relationships act as 'social capital' making it easier for potential immigrants to find employment at the destination, arrange housing and endure other administrative difficulties.

The main argument for this theory is that once the process of migration has begun, it creates a social structure of its own that further facilitates future migration. The cost and risk of migration are high for early-stage immigrants, but as the network expands, access to information increases and the risk decreases. As a result, migration becomes 'self-perpetuating'. As networks become stronger, the flow of migration will no longer depend solely on wage differences or government policies. Rather, it is established as a social institution.

According to (Byerlee, 1974) Migrant networks including relatives and friends already located in cities reduced migration costs, provided information, and supported job searches, thereby facilitating continued rural-urban flows. Educational attainment

increased the likelihood of migration, as urban labor markets rewarded schooling more than rural areas, thereby creating strong incentives for youth. Migration was also influenced by monetary costs (travel, job-search expenses, foregone rural income) and non-monetary or “psychic” costs (risk, emotional strain, loss of social ties, and challenges of adapting to city life). Younger who migrates faced fewer risks and lower opportunity costs than older rural people are the reasons which made them more likely to relocate.

Extending this structural perspective to a more micro-relational level, Mark Granovetter (1973) categorizes social relationships into ‘strong ties’ and ‘weak ties.’ According to him, strong ties such as relationships with family members and close friends provide immediate, reliable, and emotionally grounded support. In contrast, weak ties such as acquaintances, community leaders, and non-family contacts play a crucial role in accessing new information, discovering employment opportunities, and adjusting to new environments. In this way, Granovetter’s concept provides an explanatory foundation for Massey’s argument on social capital: networks do not merely exist; rather, their type and quality significantly shape the direction and outcomes of migration.

Advancing this discussion further into a qualitative and life- course perspective Ryan (2023), in her book *Social Networks and Migration: Relocation, Relationships and Resources*, presents an innovative relational approach to migration studies. According to Ryan, migration is not simply a geographical relocation or an economically motivated decision; instead, it is a process embedded within complex webs of social relationships. She critiques the limitations of the traditional Push and Pull framework and emphasizes the importance of Qualitative Social Network Analysis . From this perspective, migrants’ decision-making processes, choice of destination, and initial settlement arrangements are profoundly shaped by their social networks, including family members, friends, and acquaintances.

In the case of Dibrung Chuichukma Rural Municipality, this theory seems relevant in analyzing how this network is facilitating internal migration from the region and how social relations are attracting people to cities.

2.1.5 Theory of Circular Cumulative Causation

Myrdal (1957) Theory of Circular and Cumulative Causation gives a powerful analytical framework for understanding migration processes and regional inequality, particularly in developing nations like Nepal. This theory rejects the classical economic assumption of stable reinforcing and cumulative process. Myrdal emphasizes that initial advantages and disadvantages tend to grow over time through circular causality rather than being offset by balancing force that reduce inequality. This theoretical approach is too relevant for analyzing both the determinants and social impacts of migration in Dibrung Chuichomma Rural Municipality.

The concept that economic change is universal lies at the core of Myrdal's theory. Less developed regions continue to fall further behind, a slight initial advantage in one region leads to further growth there. The dominance of spread and backwash effects explains this process. Backwash effects refer to the negative impacts of development in growth centers on surrounding rural areas. When developed regions expand, they attract capital, labor and resources from rural areas. This affects the social and economic foundation of the sending region by causing migration flows, especially young, educated and productive people. It is a clear explanation in migration studies, because unequal development and opportunity are the main causes of migration. Spread effects refer to the positive spread of economic growth from developed areas to less developed regions. This could include aspects such as increased agricultural production, technology transfer and remittance flows.

A significant aspect of Myrdal's theory is its focus on the role of the state. He argues that in the absence of government action, market forces alone will deepen inequality. Consequently, policies such as rural development, infrastructure expansion, education access, and employment generation are necessary to strengthen spread effects and reduce backwash effects. Drawing on Myrdal's framework various researchers have investigated the socio-economic and structural aspects of migration and regional development. Fujita (2004) contends that, Myrdal's unique notion of "spread effects" should be reassessed as a significant concept for examining this potential. Although he rather emphasizes the "backwash effects" the important thing is that he doesn't forget to show the forces against the divergent trend. His CC theory, by including

both “backwash effects” and “spread effects” can explain a longer or a more changeable process.

Westlund (2020) discusses Myrdal’s contribution to regional economic development theory, focusing on the concept of cumulative causation. Myrdal recognized that economic problems can not be analyzed in isolation from the broader social context. In contrast to traditional stable equilibrium theories, he emphasized the role of self-reinforcing mechanism and circular causation in driving both regional development and decline. In Dibrung Chuichomma Rural Municipality, backwash effects are visible. Out-migration of youth, decrease agricultural productivity, creates labor shortages and weakens the local economy. Financial capital also flows outward as remittances and savings are often invested in urban areas. This leads to a vicious circle of poverty, where lack of development encourages migration, and migration further deepens under-development. Therefore, migration is not only isolated phenomenon but also an important part of the cumulative process of regional decline.

2.2. Empirical Literature Review

Empirical research provides evidence-based insights into the determinants and social impact of Migration through statistical, survey and case-study approaches. Numerous studies efforts have analyzed migration pattern in both developing and developed contexts, recognizing economic, social, and environmental factor as major drivers.

2.2.1. Global Context

To understand the causes and social impact of migration, focusing on a single country or region alone is not sufficient. A broader understanding of global migration trend is equally important, as it allows researchers to compare experiences across different contexts and develop more reliable and comprehensive conclusions. For this reason, examining studies conducted in various countries and region provides valuable insights into the complex nature of migration. Migration is a global phenomenon influenced by a wide range of structural, social, economic, political and environmental factors. These factors shape migration pattern at both regional and international levels and help explain why people move from one place to another. Migration is not simply the movement of people it also brings significant changes to

both the areas people leave behind and the places where they settle. Therefore an understanding of global migration dynamics offers an important foundation for analyzing migration processes and their impact in the context of Nepal.

Global migration patterns have notably risen in recent decades, driven by elements such as economic opportunities, conflicts, environmental changes and family reunification (Theodosopoulos., 2024). According to the International Organization for Migration (2024), reported that there were approximately 281 million international migrants in the world in 2020, which equates to 3.6 percent of the global population.

In addition, at the beginning of the 21st century, there was a significant rise in the number of migrants of Asian origin moving to North America and Europe. By 2020, Asian migrants in North America reached approximately 17.5 million, while Europe hosted around 23 million, reflecting increasing globalization and the growing integration of international labor migration trends (Tilekova et al., 2025).

Changing patterns of global migration indicate that Western countries have become major destinations for international migration. According to the International Organization for Migration (2020), the United States of America has been the main country of destination for international migrants since 1970. Since then, the number of foreign-born individuals residing in the country has more than quadrupled from less than 12 million in 1970, to close to 51 million in 2019. Germany, the second top destination for migrants, has also observed an increase over the years, from 8.9 million in 2000 to 13.1 million in 2019. These trends show that the need for successful migration policies by reflecting worldwide movement patterns influenced by mobility, political stability and economic opportunities.

Several studies have shown that before migration social and gender inequalities continue to shape migration economic outcomes even after migration. In this context, Shelter (2025) study shows that female immigrants from countries with high rate of child marriage face difficulties in achieving economic success in United States. The study indicates that, pre- migration gender inequality limits education and economic opportunities and its effects persist post-migration. Women affected by child marriage often have low levels of formal education face a lack of employment opportunities and experience low income levels, perpetuating long-term economic inequality.

McAuliffe & Oucho (2024) highlight that recent years have witnessed significant global migration and displacement driven by conflict, disasters and political dynamics. Armed conflicts in countries such as Syria, Yemen the Central African Republic, the Democratic Republic of the Congo, Sudan, Ethiopia and Myanmar have forced millions of people to leave their homes, while the wars in Ukraine and Gaza have further intensified humanitarian crises. Climate and weather related disasters in countries including Pakistan, India, Bangladesh, Brazil and Colombia during 2022-2023 also triggered large scale displacement. The report further notes that migration has increasingly become a political issue, particularly in Europe and other regions facing economic challenges and rising anti-immigrant sentiment.

These global conflicts and natural disasters force a large number of people to migrate and their impact on health has become a serious concern. The World Health Organization (2022) emphasizes that the growing movement and displacement of people around the world has become an important public health issue. The report explains that migrants and displaced populations often face a range of physical, mental and social health challenges during migration and settlement. Similarly, Benassi et al. (2023) examined how the population trends in Italy are strongly spatially differentiated, with some municipalities showing a systematic loss of population, and others showing an equally continuous demographic increase.

Early empirical studies on rural-urban migration have long emphasized the economic and structural factors shaping migration decisions and migrant characteristics. Building on this foundation, Byerlee (1974) examined rural-urban migration particularly in Africa, arguing that it was a selective, economically motivated and structurally shaped process influenced by both individual characteristics and wider labor-market conditions. He noted that Migrants are typically young, better educated, and strongly guided by economic expectations of higher urban incomes and improved employment prospects. Historically, these migration patterns were rooted in colonial taxation systems and circular labor flows, but over time, migration became more permanent as school-leavers and unemployed youth moved toward urban centers.

2.2.2 South Asian Context

To understand the determinants and social impacts of internal migration in Dibrung Chuichumma Rural Municipality- 3, it is important to examine the migration patterns and experiences within the broader South Asian context. Studies from South Asia and neighboring regions provide valuable insights into the economic, social, political, and environmental factors that influence migration decisions and shape their consequences for households and communities.

Hosen & Rumi (2025) argue that migration is an essential issue in South Asia because of its complex patterns of internal, regional, and global mobility that are influenced by social, political, economic, and environmental factors. Despite their shared history, culture, and economy, South Asian countries face a number of challenges when it comes to managing migration.

Economic opportunities and demographic characteristics are widely recognized as important factors influencing migration patterns across countries and regions. Lee (2025) explains that economic and demographic conditions shape cross-border labor migration in Southeast Asia. As expected, the upper four countries have a larger share of migrants in the total population. Singapore, Malaysia, and Thailand saw steep increases in this share between 1990 and 2010, and since then the presence of migrant labor has become established, with their population share holding steady or growing slightly up to 2024. Singapore and Brunei, with markedly higher per capita incomes and smaller populations, are the most reliant on migrant labor, while Malaysia and Thailand also remain attractive destinations for migration.

Chowdhury & Wadood (2023) observe that South Asian countries are closely linked. In the case of South Asia, particular reference must be made to 1947, when the partition of India and Pakistan from British rule triggered a massive migration involving millions of people crossing the newly established borders. War and political conflicts affected Sri Lanka, Afghanistan, and Nepal for decades, and this shaped their respective internal migration patterns.

Supporting the economic perspective of migration, Qin (2010) argues that migration constitutes a key component of human population movement. The study notes that

rural areas contain most of the world's natural resources such as land and forests. Focusing on rural to urban labor migration in Chongqing Municipality, Southwest China. The results confirm the hypothesis that labor-migrant and non-migrant households differ significantly in livelihood activities, including agricultural production, the use of agricultural technology, income consumption, and resource management.

Migration research has highlighted the increasingly selective nature of migration, particularly in relation to education levels, economic conditions and the strength of social networks. Kundu & Saraswati (2012) argue that migration has become selective. It tends to favor Individuals with higher education strong economic status and close social networks. There study also shows a decline in rural urban male migration which reflect structural change in migration patterns.

Beyond economic opportunities migration decisions are also influenced by the quality of governance and institutional arrangements. Jaskolska (2025) focuses on the role of socio economic factors and weak state governance in the study of labor migration in South Asia. The Study shows that push and pull factors drive inter-regional migration. When national legal structure are weakened, migration tend to shift toward informal and insecure channels. The study further notes that organized criminal groups are taking advantage of those regulatory weaknesses, facilitating illegal migration and increasing the risk of exploitation.

Environmental and structural changes are also increasingly recognized as important drivers shaping migration patterns and livelihoods. Similarly, (Qureshi, 2025) notes that migration driven by industrialization and climate change is transforming farming practices in Vietnam. Crop output and land use are affected, as some households continue to engage in agricultural activities while others diversify into non-farm labor. The overall impact on agriculture differs by location, although remittances from migrants support rural investment.

Furthermore, Jin & Gong (2025) examine the impact of urban to rural migration on rural revitalization in traditional villages of Zhejiang Province, China. Their study shows that people move from urban areas to village brought significant change local housing structures, lifestyle and cultural practice. In particular their arrival has

introduced new dimension to the form of traditional houses, spatial arrangement and community life. Similarly, De Has (2010) argues that migration can influence people's participation in the social political and economic activities of their home countries in different ways. Migration not only creates opportunities for migrant and their families to engage and invest in their place of origin but also encourage them to withdraw from such activities.

The study suggest that migration increase pestle's capabilities and freedom to make depending on their broader social and economic context. The studies in South Asain context show that migration is influenced by multiple factors. These include economic opportunities, social inequality, political conflict and uneven distribution of services and facilities. The studies also highlight that migration has long term impact on the socio economic structure and development process in place of origin.

2.2.3 Historical Evolution of Migration; Global and Nepalese Perspectives

Migration has been part of human society since the earliest stages of civilization. From a historical perspective, migration emerged as a fundamental survival strategy adopted by individuals and groups in response to environmental, economic, social and political conditions. On global scale, the dynamic of migration shifted dramatically during the mid-twentieth century. Koser (2007) highlights that, the post Second World War, economic boom triggered a massive wave of labor migration across Europe, North America, and Australia. This was the era when many Turkish migrants arrived to work in Germany and North Africans in France and Belgium.

Historical evidence show that early internal migration in Nepal had political implications. In other words internal migration in Nepal was directly related to politics. For instance, King Mukund Sen was the first victorious hill king to win over the eastern Tarai in the 16th Century, using the region strategically (Regmi,1985). Beyond these early political conquests, ecological constraints played a role in shaping traditional settlement patterns. Gurung (1989) observed that the bulk of the Nepalese population was traditionally confined to the hill zone sandwiched between the mountain barrier to the north and the malarial plain to the south. Until the middle of the twentieth century, the internal movement of population was mainly from the drier west to the wetter east along this subtropical hill belt. This migratory movement was

part of a larger regional pattern where caste groups from Kumano, India migrated into Nepal while Nepalese settlers in turn spilled over into Darjeeling, Sikkim, Bhutan, and Assam.

This historical timeline (Thapa & Paudel, 2063) reinforces that Internal migration in Nepal has been taking place since very early times. Such migration used to occur for both long-term and short-term periods. During the eighteenth and nineteenth centuries, Nepali people migrated from the western part of the country to the eastern part. Sharma (2068) notes that successful eradication of malaria in the Tarai and Inner Madhes regions during the 2017 B.S. decade, catalyzed a massive influx hundreds of thousands of people began migrating from the hills in to the fertile plains.

Critically, the post- 1950 movement toward the Terai was not wholly unplanned; rather it expanded on earlier state initiated institutional framework. Shrestha (2061) emphasizes that the planned relocation effort in Nepal actually began before the political change in 2007 B.S. During The Rana government created straightforward practical and appealing policies, rules, acts and laws. This migration was officially launched in 1910, with the establishment of resettlement offices in Hetauda and Biratnagar.

Migration had developed into a socially accepted activity by the late 20th and early 21st centuries. Households began to view migration as a means of lowering risk, promoting social mobility and diversifying income. Migration of young people for work and school become common specifically in rural areas. Therefore migration's historical development showed that it was a dynamic and adaptive process influenced by shifting societal goals economic systems and structural limitations (Gurung, 1989).

Overall, migration history reveals a continuous interaction between people and their environments, mediated by power, opportunity, and constraint. Understanding this historical evolution provides essential context for analyzing contemporary migration patterns and their social impacts in rural settings such as Dibrung Chuichomma Rural Municipality.

2.2.4 Determinants of Migration and Impact

Conceptualizing the underlying mechanisms of human migration helps explain how and why people migrate. Navaratil & Doyle (1977) describe migration as a two-stage decision making process. First, individuals choose whether to migrate or not and second, they choose the destination. The initial decision is mainly influenced by personal factors such as age and education while the destination choice depends on economic conditions like wages and job opportunities.

Migration decisions are influenced not only by economic needs but also by the social relationships, norms and power of structures in which people are already embedded. Van hear (2010) argues that migration is linked in complex ways to class gender, generation, ethnicity and other social cleavages. Which are embodied in hierarchies of power and social status, and position within home and host communities. They further appear in weak and domestic relationships all of which may be transformed in the course of the migratory process.

Spark (2017) highlights that rural urban migration in Nepal significantly reshapes both the economic structure and social relationships of the communities that are left behind. The economic effects included reduction and in some cases abandonment of agricultural land due to a labor shortage. Socially, the elderly experienced disrespect and neglect from the younger generation. They also expressed concern over the decline of traditional Nepalese norms and values in society and in the family. Ghimire (2021) emphasizes the relationship between labor migration, remittance and agricultural change in Nepal. The study identifies two contradictory effects. Migration reduces agricultural production due to shortage of labor in farming sector. Remittance help reduce financial constraints and support continued engagement in agriculture.

This situation can be further understood in relation to the arguments of Sen (1999), who argues that economic facilities and social opportunities are closely interconnected. Access to quality education creates better employment opportunities and higher income makes it easier to access healthcare services. Over time, this contributes to a reduction in mortality rates. In addition, education enables individuals to participate in politics and engage in occupations that require literacy.

Similarly, (Pollani et al., 2001) argue that, Migrant networks connections of kinship, friendship and shared community origin create channels through which potential migrants gain information, support and assistance. These networks reduce the economic, psychological and social costs of migration while increasing expected returns. When someone within a social network migrates, their action transforms ordinary relationships into migration-supportive ties that provide information about jobs, housing, travel, and wages. According to KC (2020), people mostly migrate from rural to urban areas, such as Birendranagar Municipality, due to the availability of better facilities, including education, job opportunities, business, security, modern technological resources, transportation, and communication.

Migration from Nepal's hill districts to international destinations has been extensively examined as an important livelihood strategy influenced by economic opportunities, conflict and evolving social aspirations. In this context, Adhikari & Hobley (2011), in their study *The Effects of Migration from Khotang to the Gulf and Malaysia*, analyze historical and contemporary migration dynamics of Khotang District. The study shows a shift from traditional military recruitment and seasonal labor in India to contract labor migration to the Gulf and Malaysia making Khotang a high-remittance district. Using household surveys and fieldwork, it documents increasing investment in land and housing in the Tarai and urban centers such as Gaighat. The research identifies three migration waves driven by conflict, security concerns, remittances, and access to better education and services, highlighting migration as a transformative livelihood strategy reshaping local socio-economic structures.

In addition, to internal and regional dynamics cross border migration plays a significant role in shaping the socio-economic conditions of migrant-sending communities. Rawat & Shah (2023) examine the historically under researched cross-border migration corridor between Sudurpaschim Province in Uttarakhand. Instead of focusing on the causes of migration, the study analyzes the structural vulnerabilities of Nepali migrants embedded in border regimes, informality, and racialized labor markets, which include limited social protection, a lack of grievance mechanisms, poor literacy, and a dependence on informal remittance channels. Migration between two peripheral Himalayan regions reproduces economic marginalization, while remittance flows sustain local economies.

Internal migration in Nepal has also been examined in relation to rural development and livelihood satisfaction. Chapagain (2007) investigates the drivers and impacts of internal migration from the Hill region to the Terai, specifically focusing on Shivanagar VDC in Chitwan. The study identifies dissatisfaction with conditions at the place of origin as a primary catalyst. Results show that migration decisions are influenced by economic factors, especially employment, which frequently results in occupational shifts from traditional farming to other sectors. The availability of physical infrastructure such as electricity, transportation, and education at the destination acts as a powerful pull factor.

Similarly, Chaudhary (2024) explores the rural-urban migration of the Dev community from Saptari to Biratnagar. The study highlights a significant transition from traditional agriculture and livestock to the service sector and business. This movement, driven by the search for employment and a quality of life, underscores the issues of regional imbalances and the subsequent transformation of occupational identities, lifestyles, and land ownership within migrant communities.

Neupane & Poudel (2023) examine the social and economic impacts of rural out-migration on agriculture in Roshi Rural Municipality, Kavrepalanchok. The study reveals that non-migrant households earn higher agricultural income than migrant households. Although agricultural expenditure remains similar in both groups. Rural out-migration has led to labor shortages, rising wages, increased fallow land and greater responsibilities for left-behind family members, along with environmental issues such as monkey attacks.

Alongside research in Nepal, several studies in neighboring India have also explored migration and its social implications. Jha (2026) examined migration and gender relation in an Adivasi village in central Bastar, India, focusing on the lived experiences of young male migrants and young women engaged in household and casual labour. The study highlights how structural changes in agricultural practices and the decline of the Ghotul institution, reflect broader transformations in social organization.

In recent years, there has been a significant increase in international labor migration, primarily influenced by various economic, social, and historical variables. The inflow

of remittances has emerged as a crucial component of Nepal's economy (Khattri, 2023). In the case of Kandebash VDC, emigration has been mostly shaped by push-pull factors. The major reasons for emigration can be attributed to the following factors such as unemployment, food deficiency, increased expenditure, and the desire to become economically prosperous. Other reasons include family causes, population pressure, and conflict. These factors initiate the desire to migrate to other places, especially India and other countries (Gautam, 2005). The process of migration is continuous and affects the socio-economic structure of the place of departure. Specifically, in South Asian countries like Nepal, in-migration, out-migration, and inter-regional migration have been continuous since the dawn of human civilization (Karki, 2024)

Migration for education has increasingly become an important form of population movement with significant effects on households and relationships between generations. Rawat (2024) observes a rising trend of Nepali students going abroad for higher education. Data from the Ministry of Education, Science and Technology's NOC Section shows that 404,139 students obtained NOCs for foreign study over the last five years. The annual figures also indicate a steady increase, with 51,631 students leaving by February 2024 alone. It shows the increasing trend of student migration. In this context, Antman (2013) highlights that the impact of migration on children's education has both positive and negative dimensions. Children's migration can potentially support non-migrant parents through time-based assistance and financial remittances, but it also affects the health of older parents.

Thapa (2025) analyzes internal migration in Nepal and its effects on social harmony. Using census data (2011, 2021) and field studies in Bara district, the study shows that hill to Terai migration has created a demographic imbalance and increased social tensions. It finds that migration driven diversity can heighten the risks of political exploitation, crime, and ethnic conflict, posing challenges to maintaining long-term communal harmony in Nepal.

In the context of developing countries like Nepal, international migration has an impact on agricultural systems and rural livelihoods. Similarly, Shrestha (2026) highlights that, international migration presents both opportunities and challenges in reshaping the agricultural sector of Nepal. The out migration of labor has resulted in

reduced cultivated land, labor shortages and the weakening of traditional farming practices. Remittance inflows on the other hand have provided households with capital to invest in agricultural inputs and technology.

This rural-to-urban population shift has directly accelerated the pace of urbanization in the country. Rijal et al. (2020) conducted a study on the drivers of urban expansion in Nepal, focusing on the Tarai region. Their findings revealed that, socio-economic factors were perceived to have made the highest contribution(62%) contribution to urbanization particularly through migration-led population growth and the economic opportunities offered by urban areas.

Migration not only shapes economic and livelihood outcomes but also has important implications for gender relations and women's well-being particularly in relation to gender based violence. Rai (2024) examines the relationship between migration and gender-based violence. The study finds that, internal migration plays a significant role in reducing physical, sexual and emotional violence against women in Nepal. Specifically, women with a shorter duration of stay at their destination report a lower likelihood of experiencing domestic violence, whereas prolonged residence is associated with an increased risk. Moreover, rural to rural migration streams appear to be particularly effective in mitigating violence compared to other migration patterns.

These studies show that migration is a complex process shaped by economic, social, and structural factors. It not only reshapes household livelihoods and local economies but also impacts gender dynamics, social networks, and regional development patterns.

2.3 Identified Research Gap

The present study focuses on the current status of internal migration in Ward No. 3 of Dibrung Chuichumma Rural Municipality, Khotang District, examining its Determinants and social impacts on the community. For this purpose, national, international, and local literature, along with relevant theoretical foundations, has been reviewed and analyzed. Most previous studies have primarily emphasized economic restructuring, demographic change, environmental pressures, foreign labor migration and the risk of domestic violence as well as the role of remittances and the

historical patterns of migration to the Terai, thereby giving limited attention to other dimensions of migration.

Global scholarship, particularly Haas (2010), emphasizes the theoretical oscillation between migration optimism and pessimism. Millock (2015) and others highlight the heterogeneous and context-specific impacts of migration. McAuliffe & Oucho (2024) highlight that contemporary global migration has become increasingly driven by conflict, climate change and political instability. In the South Asian context, Hosen & Rumi (2025) conceptualize migration as a multi-level dynamic encompassing internal, regional, and international mobility, which is continuously fueled by structural socio-economic inequalities, weak governance and environmental pressures. Similarly, the studies by Lee (2025) and Qureshi (2025) demonstrate that migration within the Asian region is intrinsically linked to labor market demands, industrialization, and environmental shifts.

In the context of Nepal, Adhikari & Hobley (2013) highlighted migration trends in Khotang, the role of remittances, and the practice of land purchase in the Terai, while Khattri (2024) analyzed the impact of male migration on gender roles in western Nepal. Rai (2024) found that internal migration particularly rural to rural migration can help reduce violence against women. Shrestha (2026) found that migration weakens traditional agricultural systems while also creating opportunities for technological advancement and agricultural investment through remittances. Similarly, Rawat and Shah (2023) examined the historically overlooked cross-border migration between Sudurpaschim and Uttarakhand.

Their study mainly focuses on Nepali workers' economic marginalization and structural vulnerabilities in informal labor markets. However, there is a significant research gap, as till now no comprehensive study has examined the social determinants and impacts of internal migration, in the specific area of Dibrung Chuichumma Rural Municipality. Although Thapa (2025) highlights the broader effects of internal migration on demographic imbalance and social harmony. It seems that studies on the determinants and social impacts of migration at the local areas are still lacking.

First, there is a significant research gap in the empirical evidence available at the local level. Most migration studies conducted in Nepal have primarily focused on national census data, macro-level labor migration patterns within the country and international migration trends. While these studies provide broad insights, they do not clearly show the micro level realities of rural communities. Everyday livelihood factors, such as traditional land ownership, farming, service accessibility and household strategies influences migration decisions in these locations differing significantly from the factors driving migration to urban centers, the Gulf countries or other developed countries. Due to the lack of localized studies, planners and scholars have a limited understanding of how migration affects small rural communities. Therefore, this study provides new evidence regarding social change and household-level experiences in Ward No. 3 of Dibrung Chuichumma Rural Municipality.

Second, previous migration studies have mostly focused on economic determinants, such as employment possibilities, agricultural production, and remittances. Comparatively less emphasis has been given to the relationship between migration social services, quality of education, infrastructure access, health facilities, and the demographic profiles. Migration is a multidimensional process it is not determined by a single factor alone; rather it is the combined effect of various socioeconomic circumstances. The lack of an analytical framework incorporating these variables has created a significant knowledge gap in understanding the migration decision making process in rural areas of Nepal. This study addresses these limitations by examining migration through various dimensions, including employment, education, health access, infrastructure conditions and the availability of households and communities resources.

Third, earlier studies highlight the economic benefits of migration with a particular focus on remittances. The social impacts on origin communities especially in hilly regions have received limited research attention. Migration mainly effects family structures, shift gender roles, and reduces the availability of agricultural labor. It also alters elderly-care systems and community participation patterns. However, such social shifts have rarely been studied systematically at the rural municipal level. Without such an understanding, migration is usually regarded primarily as an economic phenomenon rather than a broader social remodeling. This study fills an

important gap by examining how migration impacts household responsibilities, demographic balance, agricultural practices and community support systems at the local level.

Fourth, another important limitation in the available research is the lack of focus on youth and gender dynamic issues in studies of internal migration. Migration is usually selective in many rural areas, mainly involving young and economically active individuals, particularly men. This selective migration has begun to affect the household composition of Dibrung Chuichomma Rural Municipality, thereby increasing responsibilities for women and elderly family members. The previous research has rarely examined how these demographic shifts affect social stability, care giving systems and local productivity structures. By incorporating a gender-sensitive and age-related analysis, this study strengthens the academic understanding of social impacts of migration in rural areas.

Fifth, earlier studies conducted in Nepal have often focused on migration either as a livelihood strategy or as a demographic outcome. They have rarely examined its implications for local governance, rural development planning, and service delivery systems. In the absence of such an analysis, migration remains weakly connected to local policy formulation processes. Rural municipalities require context-specific evidence to design employment programs, improve service accessibility and reduce involuntary migration pressures. This research therefore, contribute policy-relevant insights that support evidence-based planning at the local government level.

Finally, at the Municipal level, within the philosophical foundation of social constructivism, there exist a methodological gap in the qualitative interpretation of the lived social experiences of migration. Most previous studies are based on quantitative methods and statistical analysis; a qualitative approach for examining human experiences and realities is still lacking.

There appears to be a lack of localized studies on the various determinants of migration and its social impacts. If this academic gap is not addressed, policymakers, researchers, and development practitioners will be forced to rely on superficial and outdated assumptions about migration. As a result, they will be deprived of empirical evidence grounded in the lived realities and experiences of Dibrung Chuichomma

Rural Municipality. This study has been conducted to fill these gaps identified in previous studies. Therefore, it is essential for advancing both academic understanding and practical policy planning related to migration and rural transformation in Nepal.

2.4 The Implications of the Review for the Research

The reviewed empirical literature provides several important implications for the present research. First, the studies demonstrate that migration is neither a uniform nor a linear process; rather it is shaped by socio-economic inequalities, institutional barriers and evolving household aspirations. This framework guides this study in examining migration in Dibrung Chuichumma Rural Municipality-3 from a broader sociological perspective, rather than focusing primarily on narrow economic factors.

Second, the literature suggests that migration decisions are influenced by a multitude of factors, such as social networks and household characteristics. These insights encourage this research to include diverse variables when analyzing the causes and impacts of migration, focuses on family backgrounds, gender roles, educational status and local governance practices.

Third, past research has revealed that migration contains both opportunities and hidden costs. While remittances have improved household welfare, communities have also encountered acute labor shortages, changing gender roles, and social disturbances. These findings demonstrate that the research should adopt a balanced approach to capturing both the positive and adverse consequences of migration in rural Nepal.

Finally, the literature highlights methodological gap. There is limited local-level evidence in rural municipalities. This gap justifies the need for a field-based, context-specific study. Such an approach contributes original insights to Nepal's migration scholarship. Thus, the literature review has shaped the conceptual direction, variable selection, and methodological orientation of the research.

2.5 Formulation of Conceptual Framework

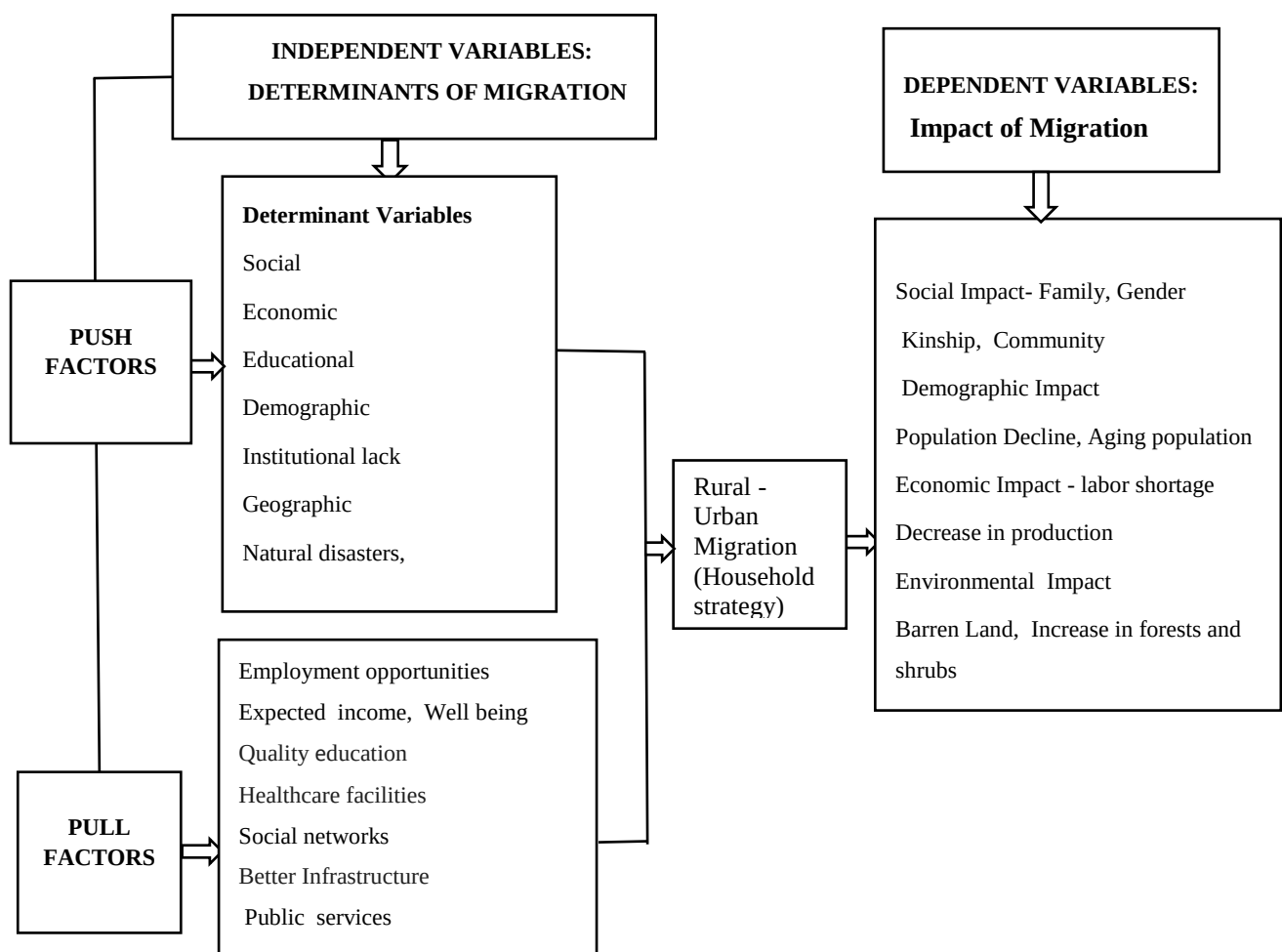
The conceptual framework of this study is based on a combination of Lee's (1966) Push Pull Theory, Todaro's (1970) Expected Income Model, Massey (1993) Social

Network Theory, Chambers and Conway (1992) Sustainable Livelihood Framework, and Myrdal (1957) theory of Cumulative Causation. It illustrates the cause and effect relationship between the determinants of migration from Dibrung Chuichumma Rural Municipality and its impacts on rural society. In this framework, push and pull factors are considered as independent variables that motivate individuals to leave their origin place and move toward urban areas.

The migration process is viewed as being facilitated by household decision making and social networks which act as intervening variables. Finally, the resulting social, economic, demographic, and environmental changes are included as dependent variables, thereby integrating the overall objectives and analysis of the study. Thus, this framework provides a clear theoretical foundation for understanding the determinants of migration and its social impacts.

2.6 Conceptual Framework

Determinants and social impact of Migration in Dibrung Chuichumma Rural Municipality



2.6.1 Measurement of the study

The conceptual framework of this study explains the social determinants of migration from Dibrung Chuichomma Rural Municipality and its impact on society. It is grounded in a multi-theoretical approach, combining Lee's (1966) Push-Pull Theory- which explains migration as a process driven by push factors that force people to leave their place of origin and pull factors that attract them to a destination to understand the main causes of migration. Todaro (1970), in his Expected Income Model, views migration as a rational decision based on expected income rather than actual wages. This model suggests that individuals compare rural income with expected urban income, which includes both higher urban wages and the probability of getting a job.

Migration process is further explained by the Social Network Theory and the Sustainable Livelihood Framework. These theories view migration as a planned household strategy that relies on social relationships to reduce risks and diversify sources of livelihood. This process further weakens place of origin and makes the destination more powerful. Therefore, Myrdal's (1957) theory of Cumulative Causation explains migration in relation to the growing regional inequality between rural and urban areas. They also provide the basis for understanding why and how migration occurs, explaining the decision-making process. They also provide a holistic analysis of the social and economic impacts on communities.

2.6.2 Determinants of Migration: Independent Variables

At the core of the conceptual framework are the independent variables, which present the determinants of migration. These determinants are divided into push and pull factors based on Lee's theory. Push factors refer to the unfavorable conditions in the place of origin that force people to migrate.

In the context of Dibrung Chuichomma Rural Municipality, multiple factors drive migration. These include economic problems such as unemployment and low income, inadequate educational and health facilities, weak social cohesion, demographic pressures and geographical remoteness. These factors force people to migrate from

rural areas. Pull factors represent the attractive conditions in urban areas, such as employment opportunities, higher expected income, improved well-being, quality education, healthcare services, social networks, better infrastructure, and public services. These factors attract people to migrate toward urban areas.

2.6.3 The Migration Process: Migration as a Household Strategy

The process of migration has been considered as an intermediate variable, particularly as a strategic household decision within the framework of rural-urban migration. This is consistent with the Todaro Model, which suggest that migration decision are based on expected income rather than immediate employment. In this study, migration from Dprung Chuichumma Rural Municipality do not necessarily move because they already have a job but because they expected better economic opportunities and living standards in urban areas. Migration thus becomes a rational and planned decision aiming. It aims to improve their long term soc-economic conditions. Network theory play significant role in this process, highlighting how social networks, such as relatives and friends in urban areas, facilitate migration by reducing risks and costs.

2.6.4 Socio- Economic Impacts: Dependent Variables

The dependent variables in this framework represent the multidimensional impact of migration in Dprung Chuichumma Rural Rural Municipality. They focus on social, demographic, economic and environmental dimensions. These variables explain how migration leads to structural changes in rural society. Socially, migration affects family structures, alters gender roles, change kinship relations and reduce community participation, leading to weaken social cohesion.

Demographically, it results in population decline in the place of origin and contributes to an ageing population. This happened most young and economically active individuals migrate out. Economically, migration creates labor shortages in agricultural sector, reducing productivity and leaving land barren fallow, which affects local livelihoods and rural economic activities. Environmentally, migration has mixed effects. The abandonment of farming and the increase in fallow and unused land lead to the growth of forests and shrubs, which ultimately affects the environment. These dependent variables show that migration is not only a process of

population movement but also a major factor bringing multidimensional changes in rural communities. This conform the interrelationship between change in social structures, economic activities, demographic compositions and environmental conditions caused by migration in the study area.

Overall, the conceptual framework of this study attempts to understand migration from Dprung Chuichumma Rural Municipality from a multi-theoretical perspective. It explains migration as a result of push and pull factors, the expected income model, social networks and cumulative causation process. Furthermore, the framework also considers migration as a household strategy shaped by economic opportunities and social relations. It highlights the long term social, demographic, economic, and environmental impacts on the place of origin. Thus, this study helps to understand the determinants of migration and its social impacts within Dprung Chuichumma Rural Municipality.

CHAPTER – III

METHODOLOGY

Every study employs its own specific methods to achieve its objectives, which require both empirical and theoretical approaches depending on the nature of the research. This chapter provides a detailed discussion of the research methods used to study the determinants of migration and its social impacts in Dibrung Chuichomma Rural Municipality-3, Khotang. It covers aspects such as the nature and design of the study, the research philosophy, sources of data, sampling methods, techniques and tools for data collection, as well as methods for data processing and analysis.

3.1 Research Philosophy

The philosophical foundation of this study is based on social Constructivism, which does not regard social reality as merely an objective truth but as a process constructed through individual experiences and collective interpretations. This perspective helps to understand the analysis of the determinants and impact of migration in Dibrung Chuichomma Rural Municipality not only in economic terms but also as a social process. It examines migration as the result of dynamic interactions between social structures, including family systems, kinship, gender roles, community networks and individual agency. Based on the assumption that a single factor cannot produce uniform effects across all societies or individuals, this study explores these impacts through a multidimensional lens.

According to this research philosophy, the impacts of migration differ from one individual or family to another, influenced by their unique social and historical backgrounds. For some, migration may serve as an opportunity for social and economic advancement, while for others it may lead to family disintegration and transformations in cultural practices and emotional life. The study adopts a multidimensional ontology of social reality and an epistemological position that knowledge is co-created through people's lived experiences and stories. Therefore, it emphasizes subjective lived experiences over purely objective data. The interpretive analysis of how people understand and make meaning of the causes and impacts of migration is the primary emphasis of this study.

3.2 Research Design

This study adopts both analytical and descriptive research methods. The primary objective of the research is to analyze the determinants and social impacts of migration in Dprung Chuichumma Rural Municipality 3. The analytical approach helps to identify the major determinants and impacts of migration and facilitates their application in practical contexts, while the descriptive framework assists in illustrating the socio economic characteristics of the respondents. The study is conducted using a qualitative research method, ensuring a comprehensive understanding of the migration phenomenon in the area.

The present study adopts a multidimensional theoretical perspectives to analyze the determinants of migration and its social impacts in Dprung Chuichumma Rural Municipality. It combines the migration theory established by Lee (1966), which analyze migration decisions through the role of push factors at the place of origin and pull factors at the destination. Similarly, the Expected Income Model formulated by Todaro (1970) provides an economic explanation for why migration occurs even in conditions of increased urban unemployment. To understand migration as a calculated household strategy, this study utilizes the Sustainable Livelihoods Framework, developed by Chambers & Conway (1992). This approach illustrates how family members relocate to manage risks, capture new opportunities, and achieve livelihood stability.

This study draws upon the theory of Massey et al.(1993) to understand how social networks sustain and facilitate migration flows. In addition, the theory of Circular and Cumulative Causation proposed by Myrdal (1957) is used to understand the impacts of migration in Dprung Chuichumma Rural Municipality. Guided by these theories, this study analyzes the factors driving internal migration and its social impacts in Dprung Chuichumma Rural Municipality- 3.

3.3 Sources of Data Collection

This research incorporates both primary and secondary sources of data. Primary data were gathered through household surveys, interviews, observations, individual case studies, and group discussions. Secondary data sources include newspapers, journals,

research reports, books, various articles and writings, online materials, as well as data obtained from national and international organizations related to migration. These sources were utilized to provide comprehensive and credible evidence for the study.

3.4 Sampling Method

The present study was carried out in a systematic and reliable manner by selecting a total of 105 households as the sample ensuring representation from different settlements, communities, ethnic groups and social backgrounds in the study area. According to the National Population Census (2021), there are 462 households in Dibrung Chuichumma Rural Municipality-3. Among these, all 80 households that had permanently migrated were selected using purposive and snowball sampling techniques. Since the number of migrated households was limited; all of them were included as part of the sample.

Likewise, out of the 382 households that had not migrated, 25 households affected by migration were selected. These households were chosen using the systematic sampling method at a ratio of one household for every 15 households. Since qualitative research prioritizes the depth of individual experiences, lived realities, and contextual insights over mere mathematical figures this overall sample size is deemed appropriate. During the fieldwork responses from participants gradually began to repeat, indicating data saturation. Based on the richness and adequacy of the information collected to fulfill the objectives of the study, the total sample of 105 households was considered sufficient.

To collect qualitative data, three focus group discussions were conducted with individuals aged 18 to 72 from different neighborhoods, with 8 participants in each group. These discussions helped to understand the determinants and social impacts of migration. Furthermore, to gather information about the local conditions of the municipality, personal interviews were conducted with 10 key informants, including teachers, health workers, local leaders and government representatives. Data related to schools, employment opportunities, health services, land use and household conditions were collected from these interviews and incorporated into the study sample.

3.5 Data Collection Methods and Tools

For this study, the following methods and tools were used to collect data.

3.5.1 Interviews

The interview method was used to collect relevant data related to migration. Based on the objectives of the study, separate interview guidelines and schedules were prepared, and interviews were conducted with both migrant and non-migrant households residing in the village. The study included both open-ended and closed-ended questions, facilitating a detailed understanding of different research aspects. To identify the determinants of migration, direct interviews were conducted with the 80 migrated households by visiting their current places of residence. A separate interview schedule was used for this group, as it aimed to elicit detailed information regarding the causes of migration, such as employment, education, healthcare, transportation, infrastructure, and other push and pull factors.

To understand the impacts of migration on the village, interviews were conducted with the 25 non-migrant households living in the study area. A separate interview schedule was prepared for this group, focusing on gathering information regarding village population decline, labor shortage, changes in social relations, the impact on agricultural production, and changes in community activities. Two separate interview schedules were used to gather information from different types of respondents for different purposes and types. Data obtained through live interviews, questionnaires, and group discussions have been used as the primary source of this study.

3.5.2 Household Survey

The primary data required for the study were collected through a household survey. The main objective of the study was to examine the causes of internal migration in Dibrung Chuichumma Rural Municipality 3 and its impacts on society. Specifically, the survey collected information on the respondents' demographic status, educational level, occupational status, migration determinants' changes in agricultural and family structures, physical structure and impact on settlements. In order to make the survey systematic and effective, the study area was divided into five clusters (toles). Data

were collected from each locality in such a way that there was a proportional representation, which ensured that no household was repeated.

The survey included both migrant and non-migrant households so that the causes and impacts of migration could be analyzed comparatively. Out of the total 462 households in the study area, 80 migrated households were selected through purposive sampling to study the causes of migration. Data from these households were collected by visiting the places where the families had migrated. Likewise, 25 non-migrant households living in the study area were also included to understand the impacts of migration on the local society. A total of 105 households were selected as the sample of the study. During the data collection, direct interviews were conducted with members who could provide reliable information about the status of the household. The survey used a structured questionnaire that included questions related to the causes of migration and its social impact. The information obtained through the questionnaire was the main basis for the analysis of the study.

3.5.3 Observation

The field observation was conducted in various clusters (Tole) within Ward No.3 of Dibrung Chuichumma Rural Municipality. The observation focused on the conditions of settlements, physical infrastructure, housing condition, school status, demographics situation, and land use. Various tools such as checklists, field notes, and cameras were used during the observation. In addition, direct interactions and informal interviews were conducted with local residents to understand the real situation of the study area. Questionnaires were also filled in the required spaces, which included both open-ended and closed-ended questions. The data collected through this field observation provide essential primary information for the study.

3.5.4 Data Analysis Procedures

The data analysis for this study followed a systematic procedure to provide a reliable and accurate analysis of internal migration patterns in Dibrung Chuichumma Rural Municipality. After preparing the gathered data for analysis, the completed questionnaires were processed through error-checking and systematic coding according to established variable categories. After entering the data into statistical

software, the data were reviewed to identify missing values and outliers. Descriptive statistics, involving percentages and cross-tabulations, were used to analyze demographic patterns, migration status, occupational characteristics, and cluster-level variations. When needed, inferential analysis was used to investigate the relationship between independent variables and migration outcomes. The data gathered from interviews and focus group discussions were transcribed into written form and analyzed through thematic analysis. This helped identify themes related to push and pull factors, livelihood strategies and social impacts.

3.5.5 Ethical Consideration

This study paid special attention to research ethics. During the research process, respondents were informed about the purpose of the study and their consent was obtained before data collection. Participants were given free to decide whether or not to take part in the study. The data were used only for academic research. Furthermore, respondents personal details and privacy in the study were kept secure.

CHAPTER – IV

PROFILE OF THE STUDY AREA

4.1 Introduction to the Research Area



Dibrung Chuichumma Rural Municipality lies in the Khotang District of Koshi Province, featuring a diverse ecosystem and rich in natura resources. The municipality is located around 67.2 kilometers south of the district headquarters, Diktel. It was formed by merging several former Village Development Committees, including Yamkha, Temma, Dandagaun, Chhorambu, Batase and Sapteswar-Chhitapokhari. Covering an area of 136.50 square kilometers, the municipality is divided into seven wards. It shares borders with Sakela Rural Municipality to the east, Halesi Tuwachung Municipality to the west, Rupakot Majhuwagadhi Municipality in the north and Khotang Rural Municipality to the south. The name Dibrung Chuichumma comes from the Chamling language, reflecting the dominance of the Chamling Rai community in the area. Ward No. 4 Batase is the largest land area, while, Ward No. 3 Chhorambu is the smallest. Geographically the area ranges in elevation from approximately 600 to 2500 meters above sea level. In this mid-hill region, the terrain is steep and sloping, which influences agricultural practices and settlement pattern (Dibrung Chuichumma Rural Municipality, 2079).

According to CBS (2021) Dibrung Chuichumma Rural Municipality has a total population of 16,305 residing in 3,752 households. Out of seven wards, Ward No, 7

has the highest population 2,376 and Ward No, 6 has the lowest population 2,326. Different ethnic groups live in Dibrung Chuichumma Rural Municipality, speaking language such as Kirati, Magar, Newar and Tamang. Nepali is the most spoken mother tongue. The cultural diversity of the area is shaped by both Hindu majority and various indigenous and ethnic communities, including, Rai, Tamang, Magar and others. Traditional festivals such as Dashain, Tihar, Haritalika Teej, and Dewali, along with Sakela dance, Lakhe dance, and other local cultural celebrations, are widely observed in the municipality. These festivals, dances, and religious-cultural rituals have made a significant contribution to the preservation and promotion of local traditions, cultural values, and social identity.

4.2 Demographics Profile

The demographic details of Dibrung Chuichumma Rural Municipality outlines the sex ratio and the specific of total population distribution throughout each ward. This information helps explain the distribution of population across rural municipality and highlight the wards where population concentration is higher or lower.

Table 4.1 Ward wise household and population details of Dibrung Chuichumma Rural Municipality

Ward No.	Household	Male	Female	Frequency	Percent %
1	551	1,150	1217	2367	14.51
2	522	1028	1126	2154	13.21
3	462	950	945	1895	11.62
4	679	1563	1563	3126	19.17
5	532	1143	1225	2368	14.52
6	374	801	753	1554	9.53
7	681	1408	1433	2841	17.42
Total	3801	8043	8262	16,305	100

Source; National Census, 2078

The table 4.1 shows that, ward No. 4 has the highest population concentration accounting for 19.17% of the total population. It is followed by Wards 7 with 17.42%

and Ward No.5 with 14.52% respectively. Ward No. 6 record the lowest population share, representing only 9.53% of the total population. Overall, this uneven population distribution reflects disparities in access to resources, services and job opportunities, which in turn have contributed to migration in this ward.

4.3 Age of Respondents

The sample population covers both household members who have migrated from Dibrung Chuichumma and those now residing in the village. The participants range in ages from 18 to 51 years above, covering young and middle-aged and older adults within the working population. This diverse age group provides a more comprehensive understanding of migration experiences and their social impacts.

Table 4.2 Age Composition of Sampled Respondents

Age	Frequency	Percentage
18 below	5	4.76
18-30	28	26.66
31-40	32	30.47
41-50	26	24.76
51 Above	14	13.33
Total	105	100

Source: Field Survey, 2025

The age distribution of the 105 respondents shows that the majority fall into the economically productive and socially engaged age groups. The 31-40 age group accounting for 30.47% is the biggest cohort, reflecting a higher participation of people in their productive age who play important role in household livelihoods and decisions of migration. Similarly, 26.66% are in the 18-30 age group, highlighting the presence of young people who are dynamic and have high aspirations. The 41-50 age group comprises 24.76 of the respondents, while 4.76 % are below 18 years of age, suggesting that the participation of children in migration decisions remains low. The respondents above 51 years of age 13.33% of the total, showing the effect of youth out migration such as a labor shortage and social isolation. The age structure

underscores that migration decisions and perceptions are primarily shaped by the working-age population.

4.4 Religion of Respondents

This section presents the religious status of the respondents in the study area. Religion plays a vital role in shaping the cultural values, social cohesion, and decisions such as migration in any society. According to the National Census (2021) the distribution of population by religion in Nepal shows that Hindus constitute the largest share, accounting for approximately 81.19%, reflecting the predominance of Hinduism in the country. Buddhists represent the second-largest group with 8.21%, with a high concentration especially in the mountainous and hilly regions. Similarly, Islam is followed by 5.09%, making it the third-largest religious group, while Kirat followers stand at 3.17%, with their presence primarily concentrated among the indigenous nationalities of Eastern Nepal. Christians account for 1.76%, a figure that has shown an increasing trend in recent years. Other religions, such as Nature/Prakriti (0.35%) and Bon (0.23%), are limited to much smaller percentages.

According to the National Population and Housing Census (2021), the religious distribution of Dibrung Chuichumma Rural Municipality is distinct from the national average. The number of Hindus here is 9,888 (60.6%), followed by Kirat followers at 4,775 (29.3%). The prominence of the Kirat religion at the local level, contrasting with its fourth-place standing nationally, underscores the strong influence of the Kirat community on the local indigenous culture and social structure.

Similarly, 1,336 (8.2%) residents are Buddhists, 198 (1.2%) follow Prakriti, and 103 (0.6%) are Christians. Thus, a comparison between the national and local levels shows that Hinduism remains the predominant faith in both dimensions. However, the relatively high concentration of Kirat followers in the municipality makes the local social dynamic particularly significant. The proportion of followers of different religions in Ward No. 3 of Dibrung Chuichumma Rural Municipality is shown in the table below.

Table 4.3 Religious Composition of Respondents

Religion	Household	Percentage
Hindu	86	81.90
Buddhist	4	3.80
Kirat	15	14.28
Total	105	100.0

Source: Field Survey, 2025

The table shows that Hinduism was the predominant religion among respondents, representing the vast majority of households. This indicates a strong influence of Hindu social norms and practices in everyday life. The presence of a notable Kirat minority reflects the indigenous ethnic and cultural roots of the area. The Buddhist population remains minimum. This religious composition suggests relative cultural cohesion, which may can facilitate social networks and collective decision-making processes influencing patterns and motivations of internal migration.

4.5 Educational Status

The literacy status among the migrant population reflects the level of awareness on overall social, economic, cultural, and political issues. In Nepal the literacy status among the population is typically measured by an individual's ability to read and write. Literacy status simply provides general information on individuals' basic proficiency in reading and writing (Khatiwada, 2010). According to the National Population and Housing Census (2021), the overall literacy rate in Nepal is 76.2%, with a clear gender disparity: male literacy stands at 83.6%, while female literacy is significantly lower at 69.4%. underscoring a persistent historical gap in educational access between genders at the national level.

According to (CBS, 2021) the overall literacy rate of Dibrung Chuichumma Rural Municipality is 77.2%. the literacy rate of male is 85.3%, and female 69.5%. This comparison shows that, the literacy rate of male is higher than of at the both national and local level. The table below present the educational qualifications of the respondents in the study area.

Table 4.4 Educational Status of respondents

Qualification	Frequency	Percentage
Illiterate	9	8
Literate	28	27
Primary	26	25
Secondary	23	22
Bachelors	11	10
Masters	8	7
Total	105	100

Source: Field Survey, 2025

The table 4.4 presents the educational details of the respondents and their literacy levels. A small proportion, 8%, of the respondents are illiterate, indicating that a segment of the population still lacks access to formal education. Notably, 27% of the respondents are literate without formal education and they have learned basic reading and writing skills through informal means. Similarly 25% have completed primary education and 22% have completed secondary education. This indicates that basic and secondary education are fairly accessible in this area. Looking at the higher education status 10% have achieved bachelor's and 7% remains limited, with only 10% holding a bachelor's degree and 7% completed postgraduate or higher studies. This pattern suggests that basic education is becoming common but higher education is still leading to migration for further studies.

4.6 Structure of Caste and Ethnic Households

Understanding the distribution of ethnic groups plays an important role in analyzing the social conditions of any study area. According to the National Population and Housing Census (2021), Nepal comprises a total of 142 ethnic groups. The Chhetri is the largest ethnic group, making up 16.45% of the population. This shows that the Chhetri community holds a prominent place in the national population. The Hill Brahmin is the second largest group at 11.29%. Together, these two groups make up a large share of the population reflecting their historical access to power and resources.

The Magar communities represents the third largest group, with 6.9% of the population, followed by the Tharu 6.2% and Tamang 5.62%. These communities are among the major Indigenous ethnic groups in Nepal and maintain a considerable demographic presence. Other notable population groups include Muslim (4.86%), Bishwakarma (5.04%), Newar 4.6% and Yadav community represents about 4.21% of the population. On the whole, Nepal is a multicultural country with diverse social groups. According to the National Population and Housing Census (2021), the ethnic composition of Dibrung Chuichumma Rural Municipality is diverse. The Rai community is the largest population group, accounting for 33.2%, of the total population, which reflects a historical and cultural presence in the area.

The second largest group is the Chhetri, comprising 32.4%, showing that both Rai and Chhetri communities are highly influential in the local social structure. Together, these two groups make up nearly two-thirds of the total population, indicating their strong dominance in the area.. In second place is the Kshetri community, which has a share of about 32.4%. This shows that the Chhetri community is equally influential in the area. Together, these two communities account for nearly two-thirds of the total population, indicating their strong dominance in the social structure. The third place is the Magar community, which is about 6.4%. It is followed by Tamang at 5.8% and Newar at 5.3%. These groups have also made significant contributions to local social and cultural diversity. Similarly, Bishwakarma 4.7%, Pariyar 3.6%, Gharti/Bhujel 3.4%, and Mijar about 2.9% also form notable population groups. The Hill Brahmin community has a relatively small share of around 2.4%.

Dibrung Chuichumma Rural Municipality is a multi-ethnic society where Rai and Chhetri communities have a combined dominance even though no one caste is completely dominant. Also, there is a significant presence of indigenous nationalities such as Magar, Tamang, Newar, and Dalit community in significant proportion. Overall, Nepal is a country with a multi-ethnic structure. Where there is no complete dominance of any one race, but there is a mixed settlement of different castes. The presence of different ethnic groups in Ward No. 3 of Dibrung Chuichumma Rural Municipality appears to influence social cohesion, division of labor, and the nature of migration. The ethnic composition of the respondents in the study area is presented in the table below.

Table 4.5 Caste and Ethnic Household Composition

Caste/Ethnicity	No of Household	Percentage
Chhetri	64	61
Janajati	34	32
Dalit	7	7
Total	105	100

Source: Field Survey, 2025

The caste and ethnic composition of the 105 respondents reflects the social diversity of Dibrung Chuichumma Rural Municipality. The majority are Chhetri (61%), indicating that migration-related perceptions are largely shaped by households belonging to this dominant caste group. Janajati communities constitute 32%, representing a significant share of the population and highlighting their active involvement in local socio-economic processes. Janajati groups live in geographically challenging areas so they face different kind of livelihood related risks. Dalits make up only 7%, suggest that their representation is limited. This may be due to their smaller population size or having less participation in decision-making process. Ethnic distribution demonstrates how current social structures, opportunities and coping strategies shapes migration experience and their impacts.

4.7 Migration Pattern of Nepal

In Nepal Migration has traditionally followed social, economic, political and geographical patterns, shaped by development inequalities and livelihood opportunities. Migration from rural to urban areas is driven by search for employment, education, health care and better standard of living. Kathmandu Valley, Pokhara, Butwal, Dharan and Bharatpur have emerged as major receiving centers. Another significant pattern has been hill to Terai migration, influenced by better agricultural land, road connectivity, market access and public services in the Terai region. This flow has gradually transformed the demographic composition of many Terai districts. In addition, internal district rural to rural migration remains common, particularly for marriage, land access and family relocation.

The 1961 census for the first time collected data on both internal and international migration within Nepal on the basis of citizenship and place of birth (Kansakar, 1979). An analysis of data from various national Population Censuses shows that between 1951 and 1961, a total of 170,000 people migrated internally within the country. This number increased significantly to 445,000 between 1961 and 1971. During this period, the Mountain region lost about 40,000 people, while the Hill region experienced a loss of approximately 360,000 individuals (National Population Census, 2003). By the 1981 Census, the number of people involved in internal migration had reached 929,000, which was more than double the figure recorded in 1971. Furthermore, the number increased to 1,228,356 in 1991 and to 1,727,350 in the 2001 Census. Among those who migrated, the majority moved to the Terai region (National Population Census, 2003).

Similarly, according to the National Population Census (2011), the internal migration rate had reached 9.7 percent, and by 2078 B.S., it has significantly increased to 29.2 percent. These statistics indicate that the unequal development of basic services such as education, healthcare, employment and other essential facilities across different parts of the country has compelled people to leave their birthplace and move to other locations. The lack of adequate services and opportunities remains the main cause of internal migration in Nepal.

According to province-wise analysis, a total of 2,142,363 people have migrated from one province to another in 2078 B.S. Similarly, inter-district migration data reveal that about 20 percent of the population have permanently migrated from their district of origin. A comparative analysis of all 77 districts shows that 18 districts have lost more than 20 percent of their native-born population. In fact, there is no district in Nepal that has not experienced out-migration (National Population Census, 2078). In Nepal, the unequal distribution of basic services and opportunities has forced people to leave their place of origin and migrate elsewhere. According to recent data, out-migration is occurring from all 77 districts of the Nepal, which has created a shortage of population in rural areas. Until education, health and employment opportunities are expanded fairly in rural areas, it will remain challenging to control this growing trend of migration.

4.8 Internal Migration in Diprung Chuichumma Rural Municipality

The presented data illustrate the population dynamics and migration patterns of the individuals living in Diprung Chuichumma Rural Municipality. Understanding internal migration is essential to analyze the socio-economic conditions and demographic structure of any area. By examining the birthplace of residents and their migration status, helps in understanding population pressure at the local level, social relationships and interactions among residents. Furthermore, the proportion of native and foreign-born residents provides crucial insights for local governance and rural development planning.

Table 4.6 Internal migration in Diprung Chuichumma Rural Municipality

Category	Population	percentage
All native born	16,264	99.7
Born in same palika	13,788	84.6
Born in other palika of same district	1,846	11.3
Another district	626	3.8
Foreign born	41	0.3
Total	16,305	100

Source: National Survey,2078

The census data of 2078 indicate that, Diprung Chuichumma Rural Municipality has limited in-migration, as 99.7% of residents are native-born. A large majority (84.6%) are born within the same municipality, showing strong local settlement continuity. Only 11.3% are born in other rural municipalities of the same district, suggesting short-distance rural-rural migration. There are extremely few residence who are foreign-born (0.3%), and minor percentage (3.8%) have moved from other districts. This demographic composition underscores that out- migration significantly outpaces in-migration in Diprung Chuichumma Rural Municipality.

4.9 Internal Migration in Diprung Chuichumma Rural Municipality-3

The table 4.7 shows the present situation of internal migration in Diprung Chuichumma Rural Municipality-3. Migration helps in understanding the population

structure and social dynamics of a particular geographical area. This study presents the distribution of people who are native to Dprung Chuichumma -3 and those who have migrated from other places.

Table 4.7 Household Survey on Internal Migration in Dprung Chuichumma Rural Municipality-3

Category	Population	Percentage
All native born	1895	11.62
Non migrant	1550	81.8
Migrant	345	18.2
Total	1895	100

Source: Field survey, 2025

Table 4.7 shows that, out of the total population of 1,895 in Ward No.3 of Dprung Chuichumma Rural Municipality 81.8% are born and continue to live in the same region. This implies a relatively high level of residential stability in the ward at the same time, 18.2% of people have migrated from other locations. This suggests that despite the majority of long term local inhabitants, the wards has also experienced a certain level of population mobility.

This migrant population consists of persons who had migrated either from other wards of the Dprung Rural municipality from outside the municipality. Employment, education, and family-related reasons appear to be some of the factors for these movements. Although local residents made up the majority of the population, the fraction of migrants suggests that internal migration is steadily changing the demographic composition of the ward. Although the local residents made up the majority of the population, the fraction of migrants suggests that internal migration is steadily changing the demographic composition of the ward.

Table 4.8 Comparative pattern of migration

Category	In Nepal	% Migration	of In Diprung	% Migration	of In ward No. 3	% Migration	of
Migrated people	8,302,938	28.4	2559	15.50	345	18.20	
Total population	29,164,578	100	16,503	100	1895	100	

Source; National Census Survey, 2078

Table 4.8 presents the comparative pattern of migration at the national, municipal and ward levels. At the national level, 28.4% of the population have migrated from their birth place, suggesting that population movement is fairly common in Nepal. Compared to the national trend, Diprung Chuichumma Rural Municipality has a lower migration rate of 15.50%, suggesting less population movement. The migration rate in Ward No. 3, stands at 18.20%, which is above the municipal average but remains lower than the national migration rate.

CHAPTER -V

SOCIAL DETERMINANTS OF MIGRATION

5.1 Determinants of Migration

Migration occurs as a result of multidimensional factors in both origin and destination areas. Push factors such as poor health facilities, lack of employment opportunities, inadequate educational system, insecurity, fear of political crisis and natural disasters force people to leave their place of origin, while pull factors like better job opportunities, quality education, improved healthcare and security attract them to a new location (Lee, 1966). There are many factors that drive migration. Some are common to several Asian countries, such as regional inequality, underemployment in rural areas, and the spread of labor-intensive industries, other factors differ depending on the history, culture, policy environment and social structure of the country (Deshingkar, 2006).

In Dibrung Chuichomma Rural Municipality, migration is driven by interconnected social, economic and geographical challenges that shape the residents' daily lives. The respondents stated that the shortage of essential services such as quality education and healthcare service has significantly limited local opportunities for development. Consequently, migration has emerged as one of the most significant demographic processes transforming the social, economic and cultural landscape of the region.

This phenomenon is driven not only by immediate economic pressures but also by broader infrastructural and environmental constraints. Furthermore, the local social structure specially regarding caste, ethnicity and gender relations profoundly influences these economic factors and shapes migration decisions. Families with better financial and social resources often relocate to urban areas such as Udayapur, the Tarai region, and Kathmandu where they can easily afford the costs of quality schooling and improved living standards.

A respondent who had migrated from Dibrung Chuichomma said :

We are compelled to migrate as there are no livelihood opportunities other than traditional agriculture in the village. There is no proper hospital in the

village for medical treatment and transportation services are irregular. Because of these difficulties, we decided to migrate. Most of the families have left the village. The land has become barren and bushy. If the government does not provide proper subsidies for technical education, health services and agriculture in the villages, it is certain that the villages will be empty in the next few years (Interview, October 29, 2025).

This statement of the respondent shows that migration in this area is not just a desire but a compulsion to fulfill basic needs and future. In particular, the lack of basic services such as health, education and transport seems to be the main push factor of migration. Which highlights the unequal development embedded within the rural social structure. Based on these ground realities, the determinants of migration in the study area can be categorized into the following push and pull factors.

5.2 Main Push Factors of Migration

Migration is a global phenomenon caused not only by economic factors, but also by social, political, cultural, environmental, health, education and transportation factors. It commonly takes place because of the push factors of fewer opportunities in the socio-economic situation and also because of pull factors that exist in more developed area (Krishnakumar & Indumathi, 2014). Push factor of migration in Dibrung Chuichumma Rural Municipality primarily emerged from structural and livelihood-related constraints at the place of origin. Limited employment opportunities, low agricultural returns, and persistent income insecurity reduced household economic stability. Inadequate access to quality education and health services further intensified migration pressure.

Weak infrastructure, environmental risks, and crop damage caused by wildlife undermined rural livelihoods, compelling households to view migration as a necessary coping strategy. The migration theory propounded by Everett S. Lee in 1966 identifies four major factors that influence the decision to migrate, factors at the place of origin, factors at the place of destination, intervening obstacles, and personal factors. These four elements collectively shape the migration process. This theory is highly relevant in analyzing the migration occurring from Dibrung Chuichumma Rural Municipality. The push factors driving migration from this area are as follows.

Table 5.1 Household Distribution by Push Factors

Causes of Migration	Household	Percentage
Lack of Employment	19	23.75
Lack of Quality Education	17	21.25
Lack of Health Services	15	18.75
Lack of Working Manpower	11	13.75
Conflict Affected	2	2.5
Lack of Infrastructure	10	12.5
To be troubled by Wild Animals	3	3.75
Natural Disaster	3	3.75
Total	80	100

Source: Field survey, 2025

The table 5.1 show that household-level distribution of migration causes arising from push factors in Diprung Chuichumma Rural Municipality. The data indicate that migration decisions were largely influenced by structural, institutional and environmental constraints within the place of origin. Each push factor is analyzed below in order of magnitude.

5.2.1 Lack of Employment

Rural to urban migration in Nepal has increased as a result of social, economic and environmental issues, significantly affecting rural development. The main causes of this migration include declining agricultural productivity in rural areas and lack of employment opportunities (Sharma,2026). Economic inequality remains one of the primary push factors behind skilled migration from Nepal (Bhatt, 2023).

In this study, a lack of employment was identified as the most dominant push factor, affecting 19 households, which accounted for 23.75% of the total sample. This reflected the limited availability of income-generating opportunities within the rural economy. Specially a heavy dependence on subsistence agriculture, seasonal labor demands and the absence of local industries restrict stable employment. In line with structural and push-pull perspectives, migration functions as an economic adjustment

strategy adopted by households to cope with persistent rural unemployment and underemployment.

This finding is consistent with the study by Sharma (2026). According to Sharma, rural-urban migration in Nepal has increased due to social, economic and environmental problems, particularly the decline in agricultural productivity in rural areas and the lack of adequate employment opportunities. The present study also confirms that the lack of employment is a major driving factor, while other supporting causes are also evident. Therefore, it can be concluded that migration in Dibrung Chuichumma Rural Municipality is not driven by a single factor but is the result of multidimensional factors.

The interviews conducted with the local residents of Dibrung Chuichumma Rural Municipality-3 during the study;

Nowadays, people do not like to live in the village and do farming, most of them want to become self-reliant by getting a job. Most individuals aspire to secure jobs and become self-reliant. The village lacks facilities that are available in urban and most importantly, there are limited employment opportunities. The only form of work available locally is agriculture. Due to the absence of nearby markets, it is also difficult to run businesses, which has forced people to migrate to other places for the better future of themselves and their families. On the basis of caste, there are settlements of Chhetri, Rai, Tamang, Bhujel, Magar and other castes. Among them, the Chhetri community has migrated in larger numbers, while other ethnic groups have migrated comparatively less. Due to its geographical remoteness, there is a lack of basic infrastructure, such as transportation and drinking water, floods and landslides during the rainy season are a major problem. In the past, people used to enjoy in the village even when there were fewer facilities, but now there are improvement in facilities than before, but people have started going to the city. Since traditional agriculture alone is no longer seen as sufficient to ensure a better future, migration has increased as people seek higher income and improved living standards. To some extent, migration is also a matter of personal choice, as individuals prefer to move to more developed areas in pursuit of better job opportunities and progress in

life. Once people leave the village, they rarely intend to return. After securing jobs, they tend to buy land and settle permanently in urban areas. This has weakened the social structure of the village, leaving only the elderly, women and children in the village. The out-migration of people has created additional challenges in implementing development plans in the village (Interview, October 29, 2025).

The lack of employment is seen as a major factor in migration from this region. This has weakened the economy of the region and increased the trend of the outflow of active workforce. The social structure of the village has also been affected due to continuous migration.

5.2.2 Lack of Quality Education

Lack of quality education is one of the major problems in rural areas, which has a direct impact on human development. In the national context, Student migration is rapidly growing in the recent years in Nepal. Every year thousands of students leave the country to pursue their higher education to the different developed countries across the world (Tamang, 2019).

The table 5.1 show that the second major causes of migration from Dibrung Chuichumma is the lack of quality education. Out of the 80 households surveyed, 21.25% (17 households) reported education as the main reason for migration. This indicates that there are significant issues in both access to and the quality of education in the study area. Although schools exist in the region, the lack of qualified teachers, limited subject options, weak physical infrastructure and the lack of absence of practical and skill-based education have left students dissatisfied. Consequently, Parents are compelled to send their children to urban areas they receive a better education and secure future employment. Furthermore, due to work in the village, children are not able to put much effort into their studies. They do not have enough time to complete homework. Since learning is limited only to textbooks, the lack of computer education, modern technology and extracurricular, skill-based activities has hindered their overall development, forcing them to migrate.

The finding of this study are consistent with Sen (1999), argues that education is a key means of expanding human capabilities and improving life opportunities. In line with this, households in the study area migrate to provide better educational opportunities for their children, with the expectation of securing better employment and improving their living standard in the future. This study further extends Sen's argument by showing that the problem is not limited to lack of access alone the quality of education in rural areas is also weak. Although, schools are available in the village, inadequate infrastructure, a shortage of qualified teachers and the lack of skill-based and technical education aligned with students interests have constrained actual learning outcomes. Therefore, in this context, education is not only a means of development but has also emerged as a major push factor driving migration.

One respondent shared that he completed his school-level education up to SLC in the village before moving to the Terai for higher education.

In the village, education is available up to Grade 12, but I couldn't study the subject I was interested in, so I came to the city to continue my education. Here, I was able to study according to my interests, gain practical skills, and through hard work, I have now secured a job and feel satisfied with it. At present, our entire family has migrated and settled in the Terai. My brothers and sisters are also studying here, each pursuing subjects of their own choice. Even though we would have preferred to stay in the village, our move here was mainly due to educational reasons (Interview, October 29, 2025).

This interview shows that, even though there are educational institutions in this area, students are forced to migrate to the city due to not being able to study the subject of their choice. The relocation, which began with the search for educational opportunities, has gradually transformed all families into permanent migration.

5.2.3 Lack of Health Services

Health status could potentially be important for migration aspirations, though poor health might either encourage staying or encourage moving, depending on the context (Aslany et al., 2021).

According to the field survey, fifteen households (18.75%) out of eighty households identified inadequate health services as a push factor. Limited availability of health facilities, trained medical personnel and emergency care increased vulnerability, particularly for households with elderly members and chronic patients. Migration, in this context, represented a coping mechanism to secure basic well-being and health security, reflecting the role of institutional capacity in shaping mobility decisions. This study shows that people have migrated from this region due to lack of health services. The lack of access to health care in Dibrung Chuichomma Rural Municipality can be taken as a push factor.

Looking previous studies on migration, K.C. (2014) argues that internal migration in Nepal is mainly driven by the unequal distribution of resources and opportunities. Migration from hill to Terai has been driven by unemployment, poverty and difficult living condition. This study specifically identifies weak local health services, shortage of trained medical staff, and emergency services as reasons for migration. Overall, migration in this area is not only a search for opportunities but also a forced step taken to access healthcare services.

5.2.4 Lack of Working Manpower

In Dibrung Chuichomma Rural Municipality, another reason for migration is the lack of working manpower. The data show that 11 households (13.75%) experienced migration due to a shortage of working manpower. This factor is closely linked to the earlier migration of productive members, which has reduced household labor availability for agriculture and daily activities. This finding supports the concept of cumulative causation, where migration generates conditions that encourage further migration within the same household. Ultimately, the study conform that labour shortage contributes to subsequent migration, thereby reinforcing Myrdal's theory of cumulative causation.

The findings of Neupane and Poudel (2023) both strengthen and complicate the results of this study. Specially, their observations regarding labour shortages and rising wages and increasing fallow land are consistent with this study, wherein a lack of working manpower has further accelerated migration. This trend shows how out migration weakens the local agricultural system. The higher farming income

generated by non-migrant households directly challenges the common assumption that financial inflows inherently improve rural living standards. This suggests that the shortage of labor reduces agricultural productivity, which remittances cannot fully offset. Therefore, both studies indicate that migration is not only a livelihood strategy, but also driver of rural economic decline.

A 56-year-old Man, who migrated from Diprung Rural Municipality to Triyuga Municipality, Gaighat, explains the reasons for his migration;

Compulsion is the main reason we left the village. There were only two of us in the house, while all our children were here in the Tarai for employment. It was also difficult to find people to help with the farming work. We could not farm, now we are getting old day by day, what to do? we could not stay till we could work, then we came here looking for support by following our sons. All our sons and daughters are engaged in jobs and businesses here in the Terai, and our grandchildren also study here. We felt the need to look after them as well. Our children were in one place and we were in another, they were not willing to live in the village. It is difficult to sustain a livelihood in the village without a salaried job. Our house in the village has been locked. The farmland around the house has been given to neighbors to cultivate, while the remaining land lies fallow. The land does not sell-who would buy property in the village? If people have money, they prefer to purchase land in the Tarai (Interview, November 4, 2025).

This observation emphasizes that factors such as aging, labor shortages and being away from family contribute to increased migration in the area. It also reflects the declining viability of subsistence agriculture in the absence of active family members. The interview shows how economic necessity and inter generational dynamics are transforming settlement patterns and rural social structures.

5.2.5 Lack of Infrastructure

Poor rural infrastructure is a main obstacle to socio economic development. Strengthening basis services can help improve livelihoods and reduce poverty. Prince et al. (2025) note, under-investment in physical capital such as transport infrastructure

networks and water supplies. This inadequacy creates barriers to stepping on the productivity ladder and opportunities.

Geographical remoteness and lack of infrastructure are one of the major factors of migration from rural areas. This makes people's daily life difficult and risky. According to the study, (10 households) 12.5% of respondents said they migrated due to geographical remoteness and lack of infrastructure. From the perspective of development and service facilities, this area is still known as a backward place, where there are major challenges in the development of physical infrastructure, which has made the lives of local residents risky and difficult. Even though there are unpaved roads in the name of road network in the area.

The roads are blocked due to flood and landslide, so vehicles do not run regularly. Because of this, in emergency situations if someone becomes seriously ill and needs immediate treatment, they are brought to Kathmandu by chartering a helicopter by paying high amount of money, while those with normal economic status are forced to carry patients on stretchers and reach the hospital through risky journey. Since there is no local market in the village, there is a compulsory situation where people have to walk for a long time to reach the district headquarters Diktel or Gaighat for business, trade, and buying and selling daily necessities.

The finding that migration take place due to lack of infrastructure and geographical remoteness partially aligns with the structural vulnerabilities noted by Rawat & Shah (2023). Their study emphasized the weak infrastructure, limited access to services, and fragile protection systems in peripheral regions increase the risks faced by migrants. Which is also reflected in this study, where poor road conditions and the absence of emergency health services have forced people to migrate. While Rawat & Shah focus on cross-border labour systems. This study shows that in Diphung Chuichumma, the lack of infrastructure and geographical remoteness are the main drivers of migration.

Interview with the Ward Chairman of Dibrung Chuichumma Rural Municipality-3 on the reasons for migration;

The main problem in our village is that the village is now emptying due to migration. During emergencies, it is difficult to find people. The farms are becoming barren due to the lack of working people. Monkeys have started coming right up to houses and destroying crops and vegetables. There are no students in the school. Various initiatives are also being taken in recent times to solve this problem of respiratory diseases. We are trying to help farmers with improved seeds and technology to modernize agriculture. Hand tractors were recently distributed to the farmers, small and medium enterprises have been encouraged to be set up and the municipality is also conducting vocational training. In order to improve education and health services, priority has been given to improving the quality of schools and conducting regular health camps in the health posts. Emphasis has also been laid on infrastructure development. There is no transportation facility, floods and landslides occur in rural areas, roads are obstructed, and it takes time to construct them (Interview, October 30, 2025).

This situation shows that in Dibrung Chuichumma Rural Municipality, the lack of infrastructure and geographical remoteness have made people's daily lives risky and difficult. The study shows that limited access to transportation, health services and market has been limiting economic activities. The basis for living in the village has weakened and people are increasingly drawn toward migration.

Linking the findings of this study with Chowdhury & Wadood (2023), they argue that historical political events and conflict in South Asia have long-term effects of migration patterns. Their discussion of the 1947 Partition, as well as conflict in Sri Lanka, Afghanistan, and Nepal, shows that large scale population movements are influenced by past insecurity. While their study focus on regional and cross-border migration and this study reveals that even the fear and experience of local-level conflict can lead to internal migration and long term changes in settlement patterns.

5.2.6 Fear of Wild Animals

In Dibrung Chuichukma Rural Municipality, 3.75% of the households reported that they had to leave their settlements due to wild animals, including monkey destroying their crops. They were able to harvest only about half of what they cultivated during the year. As the population decreased, the settlement became more deserted, and wild animals increasingly entered the village and caused problems. Respondents said that they migrated because there were no alternative sources of income other than agriculture in the village. People have been compelled to move to more convenient places to reduce economic hardship and to seek better livelihood and investment opportunities. Thus, the economic differences between the place of origin and the destination serve as the primary reason of migration in the region.

This situation has created challenges for the agriculture based livelihood in Dibrung Chuichukma Rural Municipality. Thereby increasing the pressure for migration. As a result, some households have been forced to migrate to safer places in search of livelihood opportunities. The finding that crop destruction by wild animals has forced households to migrate, shows how environmental pressure and limited livelihood options push people out of Dibrung Chuichukma. This partially matches with Adhikari & Hobley (2011) explain that migration from Khotang is driven by the search for better opportunities and income and is seen as a livelihood strategy. However, their study focuses on broader economic transformation and remittance based migration. This study highlights loss agricultural production caused by wild animals as a direct push factor. Although both studies view migration is a means of improving livelihoods.

5.2.7 Natural Disasters

Natural disasters refer to natural and environmental events such as flood, landslides, and droughts. Which affects people's livelihood. The impact of such disasters has also been seen in Dibrung Chuichukma Rural Municipality. In particular, flood, landslides and drought have significantly reduced agricultural production. These disasters not only reduce agricultural output but also make people feel insecure, forcing them to migrate to safer places. In this study, Natural disasters such as landslides and soil erosion affected three households (3.75%) out of eighty households. Although limited

in number, disaster-induced migration reflected growing environmental vulnerability. Migration in such cases acted as an adaptive response to ecological risk and livelihood disruption.

This finding further supports and extends the argument of K.C (2020). In the context of Birendranagar, K.C. highlights pull factors such as education and employment opportunities that attract people to migrate. This study emphasizes the importance of environmental push factors in rural migration. Whereas KC focus on the attraction of urban facilities, this study shows migration as a forced response to natural disasters. Thus, Migration is not only a search for opportunities but also a way to survive natural disasters and insecurity.

5.3 Main Pull Factors for Migration

Pull factors represent the elements that attract individuals to a specific destination serving as the direct opposite of push factors. For example of these pull factors are job opportunities, better living conditions, political and religious freedom, enjoyment, education, better medical care and security (Krishnakumar & Indumathi, 2014).

Migration from Dibrung Chuichomma Rural Municipality is mainly driven by the opportunities available in urban and semi-urban areas. Which are shaped by the existing rural social structure. The primary pull factors include better employment prospects, which attract working-age individuals seeking stable income and access to quality education, enabling children to pursue higher learning. Urban centers attract families by offering better access healthcare services and medical treatment on time. They also provide infrastructure facilities, job opportunities, easier market access and basic public services. Comparatively safer and comfortable environment encourage people to migrate in search for better quality of life.

These economic and infrastructure factors are connected to caste, class, family and kinship network of the village. The data shows that the ability to take advantage of urban opportunities is not equal for everyone. Economically well being family have necessary financial resources and social networks to cover school fees, housing land and healthcare in cities. But poor and marginalize families are economically and socially vulnerable and deprived of migration in favorable conditions. The migration

of youth has led to labor shortage in village, which is making agricultural land barren and increasing the risk of wild animals. The opportunities available in urban areas are not only pull factors of migration but also important elements that indicate social inequality and lack of resources in the village.

Table 5.2 Pull Factor of Migration for Household Distribution

Main Pull Factors	Households	Percentage
Opportunities for Employment and Business	18	22.5
Opportunities for Quality Education	16	20
Opportunities to Farm on Fertile Land	9	11.25
Access to Health Services	11	13.75
Facility of Transportation	10	12.5
Proper Utilization of Remittance	7	8.75
Safe Environment	4	5
Relatives and Friendship	5	6.25
Total	80	100

Source: Field survey, 2025

This table shows the main pull factors affecting the migration from Dibrung Chuichomma Rural Municipality. Migration is not only driven by rural push factors but is also influenced by appeal of urban facilities. The primary cause attract people including better employment, and business opportunities, quality education, healthcare services, transportation facilities, fertile agricultural land and close social networks also play main role in migration.

5.3.1 Opportunities of Employment and Business

Rural- urban migration persist even when unemployment in cities is high because people base their decisions on expected income rather than actual earnings. Individuals often compare their current rural income with they believe they can earn in urban areas including share information by friends and relatives too. This expectation is shaped by wage levels in cities and likelihood of securing formal employment . according to Todaro (1970), migration happens when the expected

urban income is perceived to be higher than rural earning, even if job possibility in urban areas is unknown.

In this study, better employment and business opportunities stood out as the primary pull factor, drawing 18 households (22.5%) out of eighty. These migrant households were attracted by the availability of wage employment, formal service jobs and business opportunities in urban and semi-urban areas. Compared to limited rural income options, destination areas offered diversified economic activities. In line with expected income theory, households migrated after assessing higher potential returns and income stability at the destination.

In this context, Lee (2025) analyzes how economic and demographic conditions shape cross-border labour migration in Southeast Asia. This study shows that 22.5% of households migrated due to employment and business opportunities, in urban areas. While, Lee focuses on international labour migration and this study demonstrates that internal migration is also driven by similar economic pull factors. The geographical context of the study differs, both studies show that the key attractive factor of migration is the search for economic opportunities.

In an interview with individuals who migrated from Diprungs Chuichumma Rural Municipality to Sunsari District, the participant stated :

We migrated because there were no opportunities for employment and business in the village. Here, is favorable environment for jobs, employment and business. At first, my wife and I both worked in the factory. We save money and start our own business. We are able to properly support our children's education and meet our needs for food and clothing. Life here is better for us compared to the village. There was a lot of hardship in the village and there was no source of income. Even after farming the whole year, it was only enough for eat. Apart from agriculture, there was no other source of income. To pay for things like meat and fish, we had to carry a load of rice and walk all day to sell it at the district headquarters, Diktel. The next morning, after selling the rice, we would return home carrying essential goods such as salt, oil, sugar, soap and spices. New clothes could only be bought once a year. Now, there is no such hardship here. Our income is

fairly good, and we are able to save money. We have enough to eat and wear. There are transportation facilities available for travel. There is a hospital nearby. The children have studied well, we are happy with that. We have built a house to live in and also have a small piece of land for growing vegetables. We migrated here because life in the village was very difficult (October 29, 2025).

The study and interview shows that employment and business opportunities are the major attractions for migration. After migration, the respondents experienced an improvement in their income and standard of living. People have decided to migrate because of the availability of income opportunities and employment in urban areas compared to rural areas.

5.3.2 Opportunities for Quality Education

Urban centers usually have better educational facilities, including schools, colleges, and universities. Families often migrate to cities to provide their children with quality education, which is perceived as a pathway to better employment prospects and improved social mobility (Qureshi, 2025). Lack of quality education is also one of the reasons for rural-urban migration.

Another main reason for migration from Dibrung Chuichomma Rural Municipality has been found to be the lack of quality education. In the study, (16 households) (20%) out of eighty households who participated in the study considered education as the main reason for migration. According to the respondents, they migrated to better facilities so that their children could receive quality education, secure future employment and become self-reliant. There are schools in the village, the teaching is mostly limited to textbook-based learning, with a lack of modern, technical, and practical learning environments. In particular, there is a lack of skill-based and practice-oriented subjects that match students interests and abilities for higher education. At the same time, parents do not trust community schools and prefer private schools. Which has forced many families to leave their place of origin.

This finding aligns with Byerlee (1974), argues that in the African context, educated youth tend to move to urban area in search of better opportunities. This study shows

that the lack of skill-based and technical education and parents decision to move cities for their children's better future appear to be the main causes of internal migration. While Byerlee focuses on selective migration of educated individuals. These factors reveal that internal migration not only driven by individual aspiration but also by broader structural and institutional inequalities.

5.3.3 Opportunities to Farm on Fertile Land

One of the major pull factors of migration from Dibrung Chuichomma Rural Municipality is the opportunity to farm on fertile land. Among these, 9 households (11.25%) out of eighty households reported migration due to access to fertile land for farming. Compared to the sloping and less productive land in the place of origin, destination areas provided better soil quality and irrigation potential. Migration thus functioned as an agricultural livelihood strategy to enhance productivity and food security. This study is compared with the study of Chapagain (2007), focuses on urban pull factors like job and infrastructure. This study shows that low agricultural productivity and the lack of fertile land in the place of origin, force people to migrate for better farming conditions. In this sense, migration is not only driven by urban opportunities but also need to improve agricultural livelihoods.

5.3.4 Access to Health Services

Urban areas generally offer more advanced healthcare facilities and medical services. Access to better medical care and health infrastructure is a significant pull factor for individuals and families from rural areas, where healthcare services may be limited or of lower quality (Qureshi, 2025).

Table 5.2 highlights that the lack of healthcare services serves as a significant institutional push factor, compelling 13.75 % of households to migrate from Dibrung Chuichomma Rural Municipality. Although there is a basic health post in the area, it still lacks of sufficient healthcare workers, modern medical equipment, essential medicines and skilled physicians. Consequently, People are forced to travel long distances on foot to reach the district headquarters in Diktel, Udayapur, Gaighat, Biratnagar and Kathmandu for advanced medical treatment.

This infrastructural deficit creates severe challenges, especially for vulnerable groups such as pregnant women, children, and elderly family members. In critical instances seriously ill patients have been unable to receive timely emergency treatment and have even lost their lives during transit. While the World Health Organization (2022) views migration as a global public health issue with physical, mental and social risks, the data from Dibrung Chuichukma Rural Municipality highlights a more localized structural reality. Here the lack of healthcare services stands out as a direct and major driver of migration. Therefore, addressing localized healthcare gaps is essential to managing and reducing this out migration.

5.3.5 Facility of Transportation

In this study, only 10 households (12.5%) out of eighty households migrated due to transportation facilities. The expansion of road networks and the availability of public transportation have made daily travel more convenient for local residents. Better access to marketplace, health facilities, education and other essential services has motivated many people to move these places in search for a more convenient and better quality of life. This condition also reflects the continuous imbalanced development between different regions, it can be interpreted in several ways.

This finding is compared with the study of McAuliffe & Oucho (2024) analyzes migration in relation to conflict, war, climate disasters and political instability, factors that largely explain forced migration at the global level. In this study, migration appears to be voluntary in nature, where transportation facilities, accessibility and development opportunities act as the main pull factors. The causes of migration at the global level are multidimensional, at the local level, development and infrastructure appear to be the main determining factors.

5.3.6 Proper Utilization of Remittance

Remittances refer to financial support sent by migrants to their home nations, which can serve as a vital income source and a means of foreign currency. The money migrants send helps to fund education and businesses, while diaspora networks create new opportunities for trade and investment, fostering local innovation, entrepreneurship, and knowledge sharing (Gyanwali & Bashyal, 2025).

Utilization of remittance has also been found to be another pull factor of migration from Dibrung Chuichomma Rural Municipality. According to the study, seven households (8.75%) out of eighty households migrated with the objective of investing the income received from foreign employment in better locations. The respondents stated that they migrated to urban areas, after purchasing land and houses with the money sent from abroad. They did so in order to provide education for their children. Remittances have improved the economic condition of the people of Dibrung Chuichomma Rural Municipality. It encouraged them to migrate to places with new investment opportunities.

This demonstrates how migration reinforces itself through financial flows, which is consistent with the theory of cumulative causation. When compared with the study of Gautam (2005), some differences are observed. He identified unemployment, food scarcity, rising expenses, family pressure and conflict as the main push factors of migration in Kandebar VDC Baglung. However, in this study, the utilization of remittances is associated with financial management and improvement of their living standards is seen as a pull factor.

5.3.7 Relatives and Friendship

In the context of Dibrung Chuichomma Rural Municipality, the study shows that the decisions of relatives and friends also play an important role in migration. Among the surveyed households, 6.25% of respondents reported that they migrated to places where their relatives and friends were already living. This was mainly due to the availability of social support, security and a more comfortable environment. Although this percentage is lower compared to those of factors such as economic, educational, or infrastructural reasons, social networks still play a supportive role in the migration process. They help migrants adjust more easily to new destinations while providing a sense of security and belonging.

When compared with the study by Kundu & Saraswati (2012), this research shows some differences. Kundu and Saraswati argue that migration is more likely among individuals with higher education, strong economic conditions, and close social networks. However, in this study, social networks (relatives and friends) influenced 6.25% of the respondents. This indicates a comparatively low impact, as the data

demonstrates that migration in this area is mainly driven by economic opportunities, education, and physical facilities. Consequently, social networks have been found to support people after migration, rather than acting as a primary encouragement for them to migrate.

5.3.8 Safe Environment

Among the various attractive factors of migration, the safe environment is found to be comparatively low. Table 5.2 show that, out of a total of 80 households, 5% (4 households) have migrated due to the safe environment. This percentage appears to be low compared to other economic or educational reasons. The role of security remains important in the decision of human settlement. According to the respondents, they migrated in search of safety after their houses in the village were risk of landslides. They said that they chose the place because there was no fear of natural disasters such as floods and landslides in the new destination. This makes it clear that while economic opportunities are the main reasons for migration, natural disasters and lack of security force people to leave their ancestral place.

The findings of this study partially support the conclusions of Thapa and Paudel (2063), who argue that internal migration has been a long-standing process in Nepal. Their study emphasizes the historical continuity of migration between different regions of the country, whereas the present study shows that contemporary migration decisions are also associated with local environmental problems. Although only 5 % of households migrated in search of a safer environment, the study indicates that natural hazards such as floods and landslides can serve as important push factors. Therefore, along with economic reasons, environmental security also appears to play a significant role in shaping migration patterns in the study area.

5.4 Occupational Profile of Migrants

In terms of human development a profession represents a core economic activity required to secure a livelihood. This engagement directly shapes the economic status social standing and prestige of an individual their family and the nation. A field survey was conducted to identity the occupational background of individuals from

Diprung Chuichumma Rural Municipality. The following table present the distribution of migration based on their previous occupations.

Table 5.3 Migration details by main occupation

Main Occupation	Number	Percent
Agriculture	11	13.75
Trade Business	17	21.25
Wage Labor	7	8.75
Government Private service	18	22
Depend on Foreign Employment	9	11.25
Quality Education	15	21.25
Other	3	3.75
Total	80	100

Source; Field survey, 2025

The household survey indicated that migration in Diprung Chuichumma Rural Municipality was mainly influenced by occupational factors. The highest share of migration came from government and private service (22%) followed closely by those engaged in business activities (21.25%) and individuals seeking quality education (21.25%) . Migration from agriculture (13.75%) and foreign employment dependence (11.25%) also contributed notably. A smaller proportion migrated for daily wage labor (8.75%), while other reasons accounted for only 3.75%. The data showed that both economic diversification and educational aspirations played central roles in shaping migration decisions.

Data from the study area show that migration is due to employment, business and education reason. Navarstri & doyle (1977) argue that migration is distinct two-stage decision-making process. The findings here indicate that aspirations for education and employment are highly decisive during the initial stage itself, rather than merely influencing destination choice in the second stage. In the past, migration was connected with agricultural livelihoods as the main basis rural life. However, the recent data shows that people are migrating in search of economic opportunities and educational prospect, which is changing established patterns of migration.

5.5 Caste/ Ethnicity wise Migration

Caste refers to the form of social identity shaped by birth and ancestry. In a diverse country like Nepal, people from different caste and ethnic group are found living in various regions. Historically, many of these groups have been connected with the traditional Hindu varna system. In local communities, people from different caste live together, where social interaction and relationships are common in everyday life. Their settlement patterns are determined by social rank, economic situation and traditional occupations.

According to the National Census (2078), Dibrung Chuichumma Rural Municipality consists of various caste and ethnic communities. Among them, Rai constitutes 33.5%, followed by Chhetri 32.4%, Magar 6.4%, Tamang 5.8%, and Newar at 5.3%. These variations reflect the socio-cultural diversity of the area and show how caste composition shapes migration patterns, livelihood strategies and community dynamics.

In the context of Dibrung Chuichumma Rural Municipality-3, among the five major ethnic groups, the Rai community constitutes 25 % of the population, which is the highest proportion. It is followed by Chhetri 18.68 %, Tamang 12.31% Bhujel 3.18 % and Magar 2.54%. During migration, different ethnic communities tend to select their destination areas by considering factors such as social networks, geographical proximity, availability of services and facilities, and cultural compatibility. Table 5.16 shows the migration situation according to different ethnic groups in Dibrung Chuichumma Rural Municipality.

Table 5.4 Status of Migration by Caste/Ethnicity

Caste/Ethnic Group	Household	Percent %
Chhetri	55	68.75
Janajati	21	26.25
Dalit	4	5
Total	80	100

Source; Field survey, 2025

The household survey of 2082 showed caste based differences in migration patterns within Dibrung Chuichomma Rural municipality. The Kshetri household accounted for the largest share of migration (68.75%), indicating their stronger mobility linked to employment, education, and service opportunities. Janajati households contributed 26.25%, reflecting moderate participation in migration, possibly supported by social networks. Dalit households represented only 5%, suggesting limited mobility, due to economic constraints and low opportunities.

The findings of this study partially support Van hear (2010) argument that migration is shaped by social chains and inequalities. In the study area, the pattern of migration varies according to social and economic conditions. Where there is more mobility in the comparatively upper caste. This study emphasizes the influence of ethnic/caste composition and local socio-economic conditions more than the gender and multinational power relations. Overall, migration appeared more prominent among socially and economically advantaged groups.

5.6 District of Destination

Migration is an important process that bring change in the social economic and demographic structure of any place. People move their place of origin and settle in new locations for various reasons, with the search for better opportunities being the most significant. In the context, information on the districts within Nepal where families from Dibrung Chuichomma Rural Municipality have migrated at different times is presented in the table below.

Table 5.5 Destination Districts of Migrated Households

Districts Migrated To	Household	Percentage %
Udyapur	32	40
Sunsari	18	22.5
Morang	11	13.75
Saptari	6	7.50
Jhapa	4	5
Kathmandu	5	6.25
Other	4	5
Total	80	100

Source: Field survey, 2025

The table 5.5 shows that the migration from Diprung Chuichumma Rural Municipality -3 is concentrated in nearby Terai and Urban areas. Udayapur district has the highest number of migrants with 32 households (40%), have migrated there. The main reasons are its nearby location, better access to services, low cost, close relatives and easier living conditions. In the second and third Sunsari (22.5%) and Morang (13.75%) people migrated in this places because better job possibility, access to education and transportation facilities. Places like Saptari, Jhapa and Kathmandu show that people are moving for different reasons. The 5% moved other districts influenced by social networks. This shows that the main destination for migration of people from Diprung Chuichumma Rural Municipality -3 is the nearby Terai districts.

In the past the studies by Gurung (1889) and Shrestha (1961) explained that migration in Nepal moved from west to east across the hilly region. During the Rana rule deforestation was controlled and rehabilitation programs were introduced. However, new data from Diprung Chuichumma Rural Municipality shows that the old historical and policy framework has now changed. In the past migration was a key factor in the state's land policy and the international labor market. But the current migration is not driven by any resettlement program. Instead, people are moving in search of modern facilities socio-economic aspirations and geographical proximity.

5.7 Dynamics of Migration Decision Making Process

Decision to migrate people is one of the most important economic decisions an individual can make. Many factors influence this decision, from employment prospects and amenity differentials to life-cycle considerations and migration costs. In each of these factors, social networks play vital role. It is through social networks that migrants learn about opportunities and conditions in potential destinations, at home, the structure of migrants social networks shapes their ability and desire to leave (Blumenstock et al.,2025).

Influence of social networks on migration decisions among households in Ward No. 3 of Diprung Chuichumma Rural Municipality. In particular, relationships with family members, relatives, neighbors and friends have played an important role in people's migration decision.

Table 5.6 Household Decision-Making for Migration

Migration Decision	Household	Percentage
Neighbors	13	16.25
Family	37	46.25
Relatives	24	30
Friends	6	7.5
Total	80	100

Source; Field Survey, 2025

The data show that migration decision in Dibrung Chuichumma Rural Municipality are primarily influenced within the household, with 46.25% of respondents reporting that family members play the main role. Relatives also significantly guide migration choices (30%), reflecting strong kinship based support networks. Neighbors account for 16.25%, indicating community-level influence, whereas friends have the least impact, contributing only 7.5% to migration decisions.

The finding of this study are consistent with Migration networks purposed by Polanyi et al. (2001) In this study area, migration decision were found to be strongly influence by family members, friends and relatives, which conform the importance of social networks in the migration process. In this way, social relationships were found to be facilitate and sustain the migration process.

The study show that migration is mostly shaped by close social relationships, highlighting the important role of family and kinship ties in decision-making processes.

Table 5.7 Living Condition Before Migration

Living Situation Before Migration	Households	Percentage
Problematic	71	88.75
Comprehensible	9	11.25
Total	80	100.0

Source: Field Survey, 2025

The data on living condition before migration show that significant majority of household (88.75%) experienced emblematic circumstance previous to relocating. These difficult like included limited quality education, poor health service, inadequate infrastructure, agricultural constrain & social insecurities condition cited as push factors in rural Nepal. Only 11.25 % of household reported comprehensible living situations, indicating that voluntary or importunity driven migration was relatively minimal. In this context, Amtman (2013) highlight both positive and negative effect of migration. Remittance can support children's education but there may also be negative impacts on the health of elderly parents left behind. In this study 88.75% household experienced hardship, migration due to poor education, health service and lack of infrastructure. This suggests that migration in this area is not a planed or strategic choice but rather a result of structural crisis which shows a partial different from Antman's study.

CHAPTER - VI

AFFECTS OF MIGRATION ON SOCIAL STRUCTURE

The effects of migration are profoundly visible in both the sending societies (place of origin) and the receiving societies (place of destination). These societies are not merely bounded by nation lines; indeed the socio-cultural impacts of internal migration on villages can be as severe as international movements are for an entire nation (Singapur & Sreenivasa, 2014).

Migration is a dynamic phenomenon that affects of social structure in many ways. In the place of origin, it causes a shortage of youthful workers and impedes local development, while in the destination area, it increases population pressure and strains existing resources and services. As Dibrung Chuichukma Rural Municipality is a place of origin of migration, this process has multidimensional impacts on the society.

According to the survey in Dibrung Chuichukma Rural Municipality migration has affected social, economic, educational, infrastructural and environmental sectors. Socially, the migration of the active working-age population has weakened social cohesion and reduced the number of individuals available to participate in and support community activities. Due to the shortage of working manpower, fertile agricultural land has started becoming barren. Similarly, in the education sector, students enrollment is decreasing due to migration. These shortcomings have long-term effects on society as many young people leave the village in pursuit of better jobs which ultimately weakens the community.

Financially, capable individuals tend to migrate to escape these obstacles, while marginalized households face severe difficulties and are often left behind. These differences in migration patterns also shows the fact that social class influences the decision-making ability of different groups. This out migration brings changes to the demographic and social structures of the Dibrung Rural Municipality.

6.1 Changes in demographic structure

Demographic transformation represents one of the most immediate and visible impacts of migration on rural social structures. Migration, particularly rural to urban

migration, often involves the movement of young, economically active individuals seeking better opportunities in cities or abroad (Yunus J. et al., 2025).

Diprung Chuichumma Rural Municipality has been demographic change due to migration and socio economic factors. The out migration of working- age adults has led to a higher proportion of elderly residents and children in the remaining population, resulting in labor shortages and increased dependency ratios. Population density has declined in certain wards. Leaving settlements sparsely populated and weakening community cohesion. The gender distribution is relatively balanced, but the shortage of young and skilled workers has affected local development, agricultural production and social activities. These demographic changes show that migration pattern in this area are linked to social, economic and cultural changes.

Table 6.1 Population Details 2058-2078

Details	Census 2058	Percent	Census 2068	Percent	Census 2078	Percent
Total Household	498		479		462	
Total Population	2537		2353		1895	
Male	1260	49.66	1137	48.32	950	50.13
Female	1277	50.34	1216	51.67	945	49.86

Source; National Census Survey, 2078

The demography data for Diprung Chuichumma Rural Municipality from 2058 to 2078 BS shows that the declining trend in both households and population is concerning. The households decreased from 498 in 2058 to 462 in 2078, suggesting a significant out migration of people along with the consolidation of settlement over the twenty year period. In the same period the total population dropped from 2,537 in 2058 and 1,895 in 2078, pointing to a trend of depopulation. The percentage of males and females stayed almost unchanged during the era. In the year 2058, males comprised 49.66% and females 50.34% of the population. When 2078, the males accounted for 50.13% and females 49.86%, suggesting only a small difference in the gender composition. The decrease in both population and households is associated

with migration related to employment, quality education, health services and transportation facilities.

Benassi et al. (2023) examined differences in population change across various region of Italy. This showing that some areas experience continuous population decline while others record growth. Dibrung Chuichumma Rural Municipality also shows a decline in total population between 2058 and 2078, indicating a clear depopulation trend in the region. However, the main difference of this study is the lack of working manpower due to migration at the local level. The increase in dependent population and the impact on agricultural and social activities, which was shown by Benassi et al. This study focused on micro- level effect than analyses focused on spatial inequalities. Although both studies have a similar essence, this study mainly focuses on the changes and impact of migration in rural society of Nepal.

6.2 Impact on the Educational Sector

Migration is directly related to education. One implicit assumption behind this relationship is that educated individuals possess more information regarding employment, income potential, and other benefits available to them in the destination regions than less educated individuals. (Sharma,1978).

Education itself has become a major driving factor of migration, while migration, in turn, exerts both direct and indirect impacts on the education sector. According to the report published by the Center for Education and Human Resource Development (2081 BS), there are a total of 49 schools in Dibrung Chuichumma Rural Municipality. Among them, one is a private school and 48 are public schools. In terms of classification, there are 34 pre- primary, 48 basic schools, and 14 secondary schools. Out of these 14 secondary schools, six operate +2 (higher secondary) programs. Among these institutions, one school located in Ward No. 3 of Dibrung Chuichumma Rural Municipality was selected as a sample; the student enrollment data for that school is presented in the table below.

Table 6.2 Student Enrollment Details of Shanti Mavi Chhorambu Academic Session 2080-2082

Level	Academic Session 2080	Percentage (%)	Academic Session 2081	Percentage (%)	Academic Session 2082	Percentage (%)
Pre-Primary	13	5.90	6	3.40	6	4.8
Basic Level 1-8	107	48.63	109	61.93	99	76
Secondary Level 9-10	30	13.63	25	14.20	15	12
Higher Secondary 11-12	70	31.81	36	20.45	5	4.16
Total	220	100	176	100	125	100

Source; Education Branch, Dipart Chuichumma Rural Municipality, 2082

The table 6.2 presents the student admission data of the academic sessions 2080 to 2082. The Total number of registered students decreased from 220 in 2080 to 125 in 2082. This decline is related to school age students going to urban areas for study and families migrating to other places.

The Primary education accounts for a small share staying below 6% throughout the period. The level grades 1-8 consistently makes up the largest proportion of students rising from 48.63% in 2080 to 76% in 2082. This shows that even though overall student admission has decreased, most students focused on the basic level. Enrollment in secondary education (grades 9-10) decreased from 13.63% to 12%, while higher secondary (grades 11-12) experienced a sharp drop from 31.81% to 4.16%, suggesting migration of older students for better opportunities.

Rawat (2024) found that the number of students going abroad from Nepal for studies is continuously increasing. The data from Diprung Chuichumma Rural Municipality shows the opposite situation at the local level, where student enrollment has been decreasing. Although Rawat's study focuses on study abroad at the national level, this study shows the subtle effects of decreasing students in schools of rural areas, such as a decrease in the quality of education. While both studies highlight the relationship

between migration and education. This study emphasizes the reality of structural transformation of rural areas due to educational gaps.

A conversation with the principal highlighted the impact of migration on the education sector. The principal stated:

People migrate from villages, the number of students in schools has decreased. In the past, there used to be a lot of students in the class, but now we feel bad when we have to teach a small number of students. The main reason for the decrease in the number of students is the change in the mindset of the parents. As soon as their economic situation improves, they are willing to send their children to boarding schools in the city. Neighbors have sent their children to boarding schools, so why can't I? Earlier, there were not so many facilities like now, and now the students were stuck in the classroom, now they have to go to the city school to find a student. Due to geographical remoteness, we are lagging behind in other services, development works are going on, it is not possible to provide all the facilities today. Most people don't like to live here because they need immediate development and facilities. In the remaining days, there will be no stinginess in the contribution that we can make in the education sector, we were doing well in the past, we will make it even better. The problem that we are facing is not only a weakness but also the government of Nepal. After working by keeping urban development in the first priority, people try to go where there is convenience, and in the coming days. The government will not take any interest in rural development and if this wave of migration is not stopped, then the villages will be empty (November 21, 2025).

These trends reflect a decline in the number of students in schools and a weakening of access to higher education. This shows that it is a challenge to maintain academic continuity and retention of students in this areas.

6.3 Impact on Agriculture

In Dibrung Chuichukma Rural Municipality-3 shows that migration has significantly affected the agricultural sector. Respondents, explain, shortage of young and active manpower in the village has led to an increasing number of farmlands remaining uncultivated. This has directly impacted local agricultural production, adding further challenges to the village's food security. Many households depend on subsistence farming but a shortage of high quality seeds, fertilizers and modern agricultural tools limit production. Consequently, due to the out-migration of male youths elderly people and women are left engaged in agriculture. The traditional farming system has become difficult to sustain, resulting in a decline in agricultural self-sufficiency in the rural municipality.

Interview with a 45-year-old farmer, from Dibrung Chuichukma Rural Municipality-3, he expressed his views on the impact of migration on agriculture as follows;

The village is not like it used to be. Nowadays, everyone prefers the city. People leave their land barren in the village and prefer to buy rice from the market. Everyone wants to live in the city. The fields and farms of those who migrate are becoming barren. Not only those who migrate, but even those who stay here are leaving their land uncultivated. The young people who are capable of working do not want to stay here; they are all in the city searching for jobs. Who will do the farming? We farm as long as we can; otherwise, the land remains barren. Agriculture is our main source of income, but now it has become difficult to manage household expenses. We have left a lowland field that used to produce 30 muri of paddy uncultivated for the past three years because we could not repair the irrigation canal alone. It requires many people to repair it, and landslides keep burying it. It is not possible for one or two people to fix it. We are cultivating only the fields near our house, and that too only as long as we live here, because we need food. If this wave of migration continues, the village may become empty in a few years (November 22, 2025).

In many households, land that previously produced 40 to 50 muri of paddy and 12 to 15 muri of maize and millet is now gradually becoming barren, and in some cases, has even turned into forest. Most of these uncultivated lands belong to those who have migrated, although even families still residing in the village have been forced to leave their land fallow. The primary reason for this situation is the lack of working manpower. In the past, vegetables, fruits, milk, curd, ghee, poultry and goats were locally available in the village. But now, these goods must be imported from outside and purchased from the market. Respondents also complained that there is no nearby market, making access even more difficult.

When we look at previous research, the impact seen in this study on agriculture is similar to Jha (2026) study in the Bastar region of India. According to him, the agriculture sector has changed due to migration and the production system is weakening due to lack of youth labor force. Also, the collapse of the Ghotul institution and the gender division of labour have shown changes in the rural structure. This shows that the impact of migration is not only in Nepal but also in the rural areas of India.

Shrestha (2026) mentions that migration has both positive and negative effects. The negative factors are the lack of manpower, barren agricultural land and the weakening of the traditional agricultural system. However remittance inflows also provide opportunities by increasing investment in agricultural inputs and technology. But, the reality of the study area shows that remittance income is mostly spent on daily consumption and urban migration rather than being invested in modern agriculture.

Table 6.3 Land Use Details of Dibrung Chuichumma Rural Municipality, Ward No.3

Land Status	Area in km ²	Percent
Agricultural Area	5.50	51.06
Forest Area	2.26	20.98
Bush Area	1.13	10.49
Grassland Area	0.37	3.43
Barren/ Fallow Land	1.40	12.99
Rivers, Stream and Ponds	0.04	0.37
Other Bank and Cliffs	0.07	0.64
Total	10.77	100

Source; Field Survey, 2025

Land use data for Dibrung Chuichumma Rural Municipality 3 shows that out of a the total area of 10.77 square kilometers, the agricultural sector occupies the largest share (51.06%). This indicates that the local economy and the primary livelihood of the residents are mainly based on agriculture. The data confirm that people in this area have traditionally depended on farming. However, the fact that 12.99% of the land remains barren signals a concerning situation. The major reason behind a large portion of cultivable land remaining unused. The shortage of young labor due to migration, declining interest in farming, and the lack of irrigation facilities and modern technology. Consequently, this has created serious challenges for local food security and self-sufficiency.

The combined share of forest area (20.98%) and shrub land (10.49%) shows that a significant portion of the rural municipality consists of natural resources. However, the increasing proportion of barren land cannot rule out the possibility of future expansion of forest and shrub areas. Spark (2017) argue that migration leads to shortage of labor, resulting in the abandon of agricultural land and wreaking social relations. But this study shows that the problem here is not only linked to social change but also to lack of irrigation, lack of modern technology and declining attraction to farming, which support Spark's arguments to some extent.

The data and interviews show that migration has affected both agricultural production and the village's overall economic structure and food security. The increasing amount of barren land due to the shortage of economically active manpower indicates a long term agricultural crisis. If migration trends are not managed in a timely manner, the agricultural sector of the village will inevitably weaken further in the coming years.

6.4 Impact on physical infrastructure and settlements

Out-migration from Dprung Chuichumma has significantly impacted physical infrastructure and settlements. Due to this migration, many houses have been left empty, and traditional resting places such as chautari, pati pauwa, along with public properties have started deteriorating because of poor maintenance. Furthermore, lower population density has led to the weaker maintenance of local infrastructure. At the same time, land that was once cultivated is slowly being left unused and is becoming covered by forests and shrubs. These changes point to both environmental and socioeconomic impacts of migration.

Table 6.4 Changes in Housing Status in Dprung Chuichumma Rural Municipality-3

Housing Status	Number of Hh	Percent (%)
Vacant but Habitable	51	11
Uninhabitable and collapsed	16	3.46
Houses without owners	13	2.81
Not migrant households	382	44.31
Total	462	100

Source: Field survey, 2025

The table 6.4 shows the changes in housing conditions, reflecting the impact of internal migration on settlement patterns. Out of the total houses, 51 houses (11%) are vacant but still in usable condition. Although the house owner have migrated to other places some have entrusted their neighbors to take after their houses and some houses remain vacant. A smaller portion, 16 houses (3.46%), are damaged and uninhabitable, reflecting neglect and lack of maintenance following out migration. Additionally, 13

houses (2.81%) are temporarily managed by neighbors in the absence of the owners, showing informal arrangements to prevent property deterioration. Despite these changes, the majority-382 houses (44.31%) remain occupied by residents who have not migrated, maintaining continuity in community life and daily activities. The findings of this study differ from those of Rijal et al. (2020). Their study focuses on migration, mainly urban expansion and population growth, as the major consequences of migration. The study showed that nearly 62 % of migration was influenced by socioeconomic factors. They mainly highlight population growth and economic opportunities in the Terai and urban areas. This study focuses on how migration impact in rural areas. Although, Rijal's findings are focused on urbanization, this study highlights the negative impact of migration to rural settlements.

Furthermore, comparing these dynamic with Jin & Gong (2025) found that urban to rural migration in Zhejiang Province, China has brought some positive changes. Including improvements in housing conditions, changes in lifestyle and cultural transformation. Although it has also created challenges for traditional structures and local spatial arrangements. In Dibrung Chuichumma Municipality, migration is mainly one way movement from rural to urban centers. As a result village are becoming empty and many houses being left vacant and public infrastructure becoming weaker. Thus, both studies suggest that the impact of migration are not the same everywhere but differ depending on place and context.

According to the interviews with the local residents;

In the past, people used to be found in any house in the village. We used to share conversations about joys and sorrows, and it was lively and enjoyable. Now, after visiting one house, the next house is empty. Some houses have started to collapse, and their courtyards are covered with weeds. The traditional 'ghumaune ghar' houses are gradually disappearing; now only two or four remain. In the past, after returning from work carrying heavy loads, there were resting places (chautari) to relieve fatigue and wells to drink cool water. Now, some have already collapsed, and others are covered by bushes. There is no one left to maintain them. Earlier, villagers used to come together to clean and maintain the surroundings, but now, as the population has decreased, everyone is busy with their own work and does not have time (November 21, 2025).

The migration seems to have changed the physical structure and settlements of this area. The number of vacant houses is increasing and the population is declining. Traditional structures are deteriorating due to lack of protection. Overall, these facts show that impact of migration in this area.

CHAPTER- VII

SUMMARY & CONCLUSION

7.1 Summary

The main objective of this study was to identify the determinants of migration and its impact on society in Dibrung Chuichomma Rural Municipality-3, Khotang. Adopting a qualitative research approach, the study was grounded in the philosophical foundation of Social Constructivism. Data were gathered from both primary and secondary sources. A samples were selected from 105 households was selected using purposive, snowball and systematic sampling methods. In addition, qualitative information were collected through key informant interviews (KLLS) and focus group discussions (FGDs). The data obtained in this way have been analyzed using descriptive and thematic analysis methods.

From the perspective of demographic distribution, the population within Dibrung Chuichomma Rural Municipality was found to be unevenly distributed. According to the data of the National Census 2078, Ward No. 4 and 7 exhibit the highest populations, where Ward 6 has the lowest population. This shows that there is inequality in access to services, facilities, infrastructure and development opportunities within the rural municipality.

In term of major findings, the study reveals that 99.7 % of the population is native-born, in Dibrung Chuichomma Rural Municipality- 3. The external migration is exceptionally low, which indicates that this area functions as a sending area. In this ward 18.2 % of the population is related to migration, indicating migration due to education, health, employment and other reasons. Although the Dibrung rural municipality's migration rate (15.5%) is lower than the national average of Nepal (28.4%), Ward No. 3 has 18.2% which is higher than the rural municipality average.

The study found that occupation, ethnicity, age, gender, education and economic status also influence the pattern of migration. Migration was found to be higher among individuals involved in government and private services as well as business related activities. Whereas migration was comparatively lower among households dependent on agriculture. Chhetri communities have a high rate of migration,

indicating inequalities in resources, access and opportunities. Most of the migrants are in the age group of 15-40 years, showing that youth are leaving the village for education, and employment. Males were found to migrate for employment, while females migrated mainly due to marriage, education, and family related reasons. Similarly, individuals with secondary and higher levels of education were found to migrate more, which reflects the relationship between education and social mobility.

The study analyzed the push and pull factors of migration in Dibrung Chuichumma Rural Municipality 3. The lack of employment has been seen as the main push factor. A total of 23.75 % of the households have migrated in search for employment. This is followed by lack of quality education (21.25 %), health care (18.75 %), labor shortage (13.75 %) and infrastructure (12.5 %). In addition, 3.75 percent of households migrated due to the fear of wild animals, another 3.75 % due to natural disasters, and 2.5 % because of conflict-related issues. These facts show that the lack of basic services, employment and security in the area has contributed to migration.

Similarly, among the pull factors, 22.5 % of the households that migrate due to employment and business opportunities are the highest. Migration for access to quality education accounted for 20 %, access to health services represented 13.75, transport facilities (12.5 %) and opportunities for farming on fertile land accounted for 11.25 %. Likewise, proper utilization of remittances 8.75, social networks of relatives and friends 6.25 % and safe environment is 5 %. These findings indicate that migration in Dibrung Chuichumma is not only compulsion but also influenced by the aspiration for better employment and business opportunities, services and standard of living. Furthermore, the main destination areas of migration were found to include districts such as Udayapur, Sunsari, Morang, Jhapa and Kathmandu.

Migration has affected social, economic, educational and physical infrastructure of Dibrung Chuichumma rural municipality-3. In particular, after the out-migration of young and economically active people from the village, significant changes have been observed in the social structure, agricultural system, family relations, and community life. Migration has created a shortage of labor force in the villages, which has affected agricultural production, local economy and development works. There is a shortage of people to help with emergencies and social work. There has been a change in family relations, community cohesion and traditional social norms, the study found.

The impact of migration on the agricultural sector has been found to be most significant. According to the study, out of the total area of 10.77 square kilometers, about 51.06 percent of the land is used for agriculture however, 12.99 percent of the land was found to be barren. Only women and elderly people are involved in the agriculture sector. This has reduced agricultural production and a weakening of food self-sufficiency. Although remittances provide some economic ease, the money seems to be being used more for daily consumption and expenses related to urban migration than for investment in productive sectors. In this way, the rural agricultural economy is gradually shifting from self-reliance towards dependency.

Migration has also changed the demographic structure of Dibrung Chuichomma Rural Municipality-3. The total population has decreased from 2,537 in 2058 to 1,895 in 2078, while the number of households also declined from 498 to 462. This indicates a continuous decline in the village population. In particular, after the out-migration of the 15-40 age group, the proportion of elderly people and children has increased in the village. This has led to a rise in the dependent population, a shortage of labor force, and a direct impact on the local production system.

Migration has also affected the educational sector. The number of students has decreased from 220 in 2080 to 125 in 2082. Specifically, the higher secondary level (11-12) decreased from 31.81 % to 4.16 percent. This indicates that growing trend of students moving to urban areas for higher education.

Migration has affected the social and family structure of Dibrung Chuichomma Rural Municipality. It was found that participation in community activities has gradually decreased as working age people migrated out of the village. With the migration of male family members, women have been forced to take care responsibility for household chores, agricultural work, childcare, and the care of elderly family members.

Migration has also affected physical structures and settlement patterns in the area. Out of 462 households in the study area, 51 (11 %) were vacant but in habitable condition and 16 houses (3.46 %) were found in damaged and collapsed condition. In addition, 13 households (2.81 %) were found to have a neighbor who did not live in the house. As the population decreases, the traditional houses, chautari, and other public

structures in the village seem to be deteriorating due to lack of protection. The settlements are becoming increasingly deserted, while bushes and forest areas are expanding over vacant land.

7.2 Conclusion

Based on the overall analysis of the present study, Dibrung Chuichomma Rural Municipality-3 appears to be a sending area, where people tend to migrate out. The findings indicate that push factors such as a lack of employment opportunities, limited access to quality education and healthcare services, inadequate infrastructure, natural disaster, and social insecurity have compelled people to leave the village. Similarly, Pull factors include employment and business opportunities, quality education, access to healthcare services, social networks and modern amenities available in urban areas. These findings support Lee's (1966) theory of migration. The main destinations of migration from the study area include Udyapur, Sunsari, Morang, Jhapa, Kathmandu, and among others. Although it was difficult to find employment in these destinations in the early stage, the continuous migration of people conforms the expected income model of Todaro (1970). In the study area, many young people were found to migrate to urban areas with hopes of a good income and social prestige in future, even if they do not have a job.

Patterns of migration were found to be related to age, gender, ethnicity, education and economic status. The rate of migration is particularly high among young people in the 15-40 age group. This has created a shortage of the labor force in the village. Males are migrating for employment, while women are more likely to migrate for reasons such as marriage, education and family. The findings are also consistent with the network theory of Massey (1993). Relatives, friends and existing social networks in destination areas were found to provide information, reduce migration cost, and minimize risks for new migrants. As many people have migrated from the village, the amount of cultivable land remaining barren has gradually increased. This has pushed the local economy from self reliance towards dependency. In addition, remittance income was found to be spent mainly on daily consumption and urban migration rather than on particular productive investment.

The total population and number of households have been declining. With the out-migration of the working-age population, the proportion of the dependent population in the village has increased. Traditional social and cultural activities carried out collectively have gradually disappeared. After male migration, women have to bear the double burden of household responsibilities.

The number of students in school has been continuously decreasing. The greatest impact has been seen at the secondary and higher secondary levels. Families with better economic conditions are increasingly sending their children to boarding schools in urban areas. This trend has created additional challenges for schools in the village. Most of the people who have migrated have left their homes vacant, while others have collapsed. As the population declines, the settlements of the village are becoming deserted and the barren land is gradually being covered by bushes and forests expansion. These findings are consistent with (Myrdal's (1957) theory of cumulative causation. This creates a 'Backwash Effect' which slowly weakens rural communities. The present condition of Dibrung Chuichomma Rural Municipality also appears to be closely related to this process.

From a theoretical and academic perspective, this study fills an important gap in existing migration research in Nepal at the local level. In comparison to studies focused at the national level and international level, it provides a micro-level analysis. It highlights the interrelationship among structural constraints, lack of opportunities in the local area, household strategies, and the social structure. This process has provided migrants with opportunities and financial resources. However, it has adversely affected the production system of the village and community life. Unless quality and technology oriented improvements are made in education, health, and employment opportunities in this area the trend of migration is unlikely to stop. The local government should not only focus on controlling migration but also on managing it effectively by investing in the development of commercial agriculture at the local level, the establishment of small industries, the creation of employment opportunities, improvements in the quality of education and health services and the development of physical infrastructure.

This study will provide a basis for understanding not only the existing situation of Dibrung Chuichumma Rural Municipality-3, but also the key social determinants and impacts of internal migration in other rural areas of Nepal.

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Appendix -I

Questionnaire

Demographic Characteristics of Migration

Personal and Family Information of the Respondent

1. Respondent's Name ;
2. Municipality:
3. Ward No.:
4. Age:
5. Gender:
 - (a) Female (b) Male (c) Other
6. Marital Status:
 - (a) Married (b) Unmarried (c) Other
7. Level of Education:
 - (a) Illiterate (b) Primary (c) Secondary (d) Higher Education
8. Main Occupation:
 - (a) Agriculture (b) Service/Job (c) Business (d) Other
9. Total number of family members:
10. How many members of your family have migrated?
11. Where have the migrated members gone?
 - (a) Within the district (b) Terai/ Urban area (c) Kathmandu
 - (d) Abroad

Causes of Migration (Push & Pull Factors

1. What is the main reason for your family's migration?
 - (a) Lack of opportunities (b) Lack of education/health services
 - (c) Lack of employment
2. Did you migrate because employment opportunities in the village were insufficient ?
 - (a) Yes (b) No

3. Did you migrate due to decreased agricultural production caused by natural disasters and environmental problems?

(a) Yes (b) No

4. Did you migrate due to the lack of infrastructure such as roads, drinking water, or electricity?

(a) Yes (b) No

5. Were you attracted to migrate because of the facilities and comforts available in the city?

(a) Yes (b) No

6. Did you migrate because other family members or relatives had already migrated?

(a) Yes (b) No

7. Did you experience migration due to conflict or insecurity?

(a) Yes (b) No

8. Did you migrate because of the threat of wild animals in the village?

(a) Yes (b) No

9. What was your standard of living before migration?

(a) Normal (b) Good (c) Moderate (d) Very Good

10. Who made the decision to migrate in your family?

(a) Head of the household (b) Husband/Wife (c) Children
(d) Mutual agreement (e) Other

11. What should be done to create employment opportunities in the village?

(a) Modernization of agriculture (b) Establishment of small and medium industries
(c) Tourism development (d) Vocational training
(e) Marketing of local products (f) Other

12. Did you have financial debt at the time of migration?

(a) Yes (b) No

12. Did you face any problems while migrating from your place of origin to here?

(a) Yes (b) No

13. Did you migrate due to the lack of good schools or colleges in the village?

(a) Yes (b) No

14. What are your suggestions for the development of Dibrung Chuichumma Rural Municipality?

15. What suggestions do you have for future migrants?

Social Impact of Migration

1. What impact has migration had on the demographic structure of your village?

- (a) Youth population has decreased (b) Number of elderly and children has increased
- (c) Number of women has increased (d) Overall population has decreased
- (e) No significant impact (f) Other

2. Are agricultural lands lying fallow?

- (a) Yes, mostly (b) Yes, partially (c) No

3. What is the main reason for land remaining uncultivated?

- (a) Lack of labor (b) Wild animal threats (c) Irrigation problems
- (d) Other

4. What effect has migration had on agricultural production?

- (a) Production decreased (b) Production increased
- (c) No effect (d) Other

5. What is the condition of traditional mud houses in the village?

- (a) Abandoned/Collapsed (b) Vacant (c) Maintained

6. What impact has migration had on local culture and traditions?

- (a) Cultural activities have decreased (b) Traditional customs are disappearing
- (c) New culture has entered (d) No significant impact
- (e) Other

7. What is the level of participation in public programs in the village?

- (a) Decreased (b) Same as before (c) Increased

8. What impact has migration had on social relations and cooperation in the village?

- (a) Mutual cooperation decreased (b) Participation in festivals decreased
- (c) No effect

9. Has the threat of monkeys or other wild animals increased?

- (a) Yes (b) No (c) It existed before

10. If wild animal threats have increased, what impact has it had on agriculture and daily life?

- (a) Crops destroyed (b) People forced to leave the village
(c) Other

11. Do you think migrated families will return to the village?

- (a) Yes (b) No (c) Can not say

12. What environmental impact has migration had on the village?

- (a) Decreased cleanliness (b) Forest area increased

(c) Environment became cleaner (d) No impact

13. What problems are elderly people facing due to migration?

- (a) Lack of care (b) Financial problems (c) Loneliness
(d) Health problems (e) Other

14. Have migrating families sold their land/property here?

- (a) Not sold (b) Sold

15. What is the biggest problem you have felt in the village due to migration?

- (a) Lack of manpower (b) Impact on agriculture
(c) Weakening of social relations (d) Other

16. How do you find the role of local leaders and representatives in solving migration issues?

- (a) Active (b) Normal (c) Neutral (d) Don't know

17. Do you think the rural municipality has taken the migration issue seriously?

- (a) Yes (b) No (c) Can not say

18. In your opinion, can migration from rural areas be controlled or stopped?

- (a) Yes (b) No (c) Can not say

19. Do you have any suggestions regarding additional questions that could have been included?

- (a) Yes (b) No