

CHAPTER - ONE

INTRODUCTION

1.1 Background

Migration is a form of mobility behavior of human beings which connects places far away from each other creating complex new social, economic and political dependencies over large distances. It links policy decisions in the destination countries to local livelihoods in the distant community of origin of migrants (Christine et. al. 2005). Migration is best understood as one of the strategies adopted by individuals' households or communities to enhance their livelihoods. This strategy is much more common than is often assumed, and has been so throughout history (Haan 2000). Many of the poorest migrants migrate as a part of household or individual livelihood strategies. Some travel to work in farming, perhaps seasonally or as a temporary basis or travel to cities to find non-farm employment. Others are young and very young people migrating independently of their parents or families. Various motives underlie such migration. For some of the poorest, migration may be a coping strategy, a response to external shocks, or an effort to insure against chronic insecurity. Other poor people seek work elsewhere as part of aspirations to better income, to improve their dress, or to access better health and education- although rarely are any of these adequate enough to lift their out of property.

Due to the globalization, labour migration has not only increased over time and over space but also it has become more visible in the socio-economic landscape in general. Nepal is no exception and International labour migration in recent years has increased over time and over space more than ever before. Labour migration has been a notable feature of Nepal's economy for more than 200 years and possibly considerably longer (Subedi 2003). So, international labour migration has been acknowledged as means of earning much needed cash for the rural households and means of increasing household's assets for quite some time (Subedi 1993).

Nepal is known as an agricultural country. Most of the rural people are engaged in agriculture. As a matter of fact, large sizes of the economically active population are employed in agriculture, but they do not have enough agricultural land to sustain the whole family. They feel that agriculture does not secure their better livelihoods because of poor and declining farm yields and they follow wage labour as an alternative source. That became the better option for rural people to involve in wage labour either in local areas or elsewhere (Graner and Karmacharya 2001). It some-how creates a diversification to the income sources of households, because some members of households work in agriculture and some of them are involved in labour migration. Labour migration is widespread and is a major source of income for the rural people. Thus, labour migration implies a diversification of household activities. Labour migration is being as a livelihood strategy in recently revealed phenomenon of under developing countries. In this respect, Labour migration is not only a

demographic factor of changing population structure and size but also a survival strategy (Subedi 2003).

Being an under developed country, Nepal lacks different facilities and opportunities as well as faces many problems like rapid population growth (more than 2.24 percent per annum), economic stagnation, limited employment opportunities and increased Maoist insurgent activities in the rural areas. As a result more and more youth adults are moving for employment opportunities outside the countries. It is a fact that Nepali labour migrants are scattered all over the world. The main destination countries where Nepalese people migrate are India, Malaysia, Hong Kong, Singapore, China, Pakistan, Japan, UK, USA, European countries and other Arabian countries. The labour migrants who have their destination place in developed countries are more educated skilled persons, they migrate to these countries for the purpose of study and working aims, and those people who are migrating to India, Malaysia, Dubai, Qatar and other Arabian countries are mostly workers and unskilled persons. Among them about 90% migrants are in India (Shahi^B 2005). So, labour migration to India is a predominant feature both in terms of its long history as well as in terms of migrants involved. The number of labour migrants working in India accounts 6, 00,000 to 30, 00,000 (Graner and Gurung 2003). Because of free and open border between Nepal and India and the provision of 1950 treaty, there exists free and unrestricted movement of population between Nepal and India mostly for labour migration. So, India has been the main destination for rural people.

International labour migration has impact on most of the households in Nepal. It has become a major source of income and it has been a significant base of people's livelihood. Likewise, it seems that the economy of Nepal is being bore up by the remittance. Recently, the published report of the World Bank has shown remittances have contributed 18 percent of the total National Gross Domestic Production (GDP). Nearly US\$ 755 million has entered by the formal way (through bank) in Nepal every year, which would be 12 percent of the total national GDP. Besides that to include the informal ways of remittances, it would be reached US\$ 1.2 billion which may be 18 percent of the total national GDP (Saptahik/National Weekly, Friday, Jan. 20, 2006). In this way, since last decade, remittance has been being main base of the economic development of Nepal. Nepal Living Standard Survey (CBS 2005) has shown that the population living below poverty level has reduced from 42 percent to 32 percent during the last eight years. The major contributing factor for poverty reduction is explained as increasing remittance from foreign labour employment. Although migration has made large contribution to the Nepali economy in recent years and impacts on various societal processes, there is little research as such in the area (Gurung 2003).

Interestingly more than 90 percent labour migrants are working in India, but their earnings are low and individual remittances relatively smaller than foreign countries. The aggregate value of money sent back to Nepal from India has been substantial- probably between US\$ 450-500 million, in the mid-1990 (Seddon et. al. 2001). Due to the low salary, and lower level of work,

remittances from India is limited (*khana launa thikka*) to livelihood and mostly used for homely behavior and consumption purposes (Thieme 2003, Graner and Gurung 2003). However, labour migration to India is being most important for economic support to the rural areas people in Nepal. Household income comes from diverse sources such as agriculture, livestock, business and wage labour. Among them, labour migration is a crucial income source of household in rural areas of Nepal. Thus, labour migration is a survival movement. It can be taken as a coping mechanism of rural poor to secure their livelihoods.

Brief History of International Labour Migration

Nepal has a long history of foreign employment in India, dating back to the beginning of the 19th century, when men from the hill areas of what was then known as Gurkha migrated westwards to the city of Lahore in the northern region of Punjab. There they joined up as soldiers in the army of the Sikh Rajah, Ranjit Singh. Even today, those working abroad are popularly known as "lahures" (Seddon 2005). But, documented evidence of formal labour migration from Nepal begins with Gurkha recruitment in the British-Indian army. During Anglo-Nepal war (1814-15), the British were impressed by the courage and bravery of Gurkha (Nepalese) army despite their defeat over the outfitted British Army. The war ended with signing the "Treaty of Sugauli (1816)" that defined the southern, western and eastern boundaries of present Nepal. The treaty also empowered the British to recruit Gurkhas in their army. Immediately after the treaty four Gurkha battalions were organized in the hills of Garwal and Kumaun by recruiting the prisoners of war of Anglo-Nepal war in 1816. This is one of the earliest records of the formal commencement of International Labour Migration from Nepal (Subedi 2003).

Large-scale migration began since the 1st World War to join the British Indian army (Kansakar 1982). During the 1st and 2nd World War, Nepal suffered highest casualties with respect to total population of the country. It is reported that during the 1st world war, approximately 2, 00,000 Nepalese were recruited of which 20,000 were killed or injured. Likewise during 2nd World War 2, 50,000 were reported to have engaged in the war and no less than 50,000 were killed (Subedi 2003). The tradition of foreign military service has produced a "culture of emigration." When India achieved its independence, in 1947, the existing 20 battalions of Gurkha were divided between independent India and British with 8 of the Gurkha regiments remained with the British army; others 12 Gurkha regiments merged with the Indian army. The recruitment process did not stop after the independence. Gurkha recruitment was selective, ethnic groups primarily Magar and Gurung from the western hills and Rai and Limbu from the eastern hills were recruited in the army. Thus labour migration associated with "Gurkhas" remained largely a hill phenomenon and limited to specific ethnic groups (Subedi 2003). After the Indian independence in 1947 and treaty of 1950 between Nepal and India, many people were attracted to feed the development needs of British India being engaged in tea plantation, mining projects, construction of roads and railways (Khadka 1979). Because of

free and open border between Nepal and India and the provision of 1950 treaty, there exists free and unrestricted movement of population between Nepal and India mostly for labour migration.

Since 1980, for external as well as internal regions of the British government and since last decades, the Indian government has too curtailed its recruitment of Gurkhas. Therefore, the number of Gurkhas in the army has been declining. Now, only about 3,400 Nepalese are employed in the British Gurkhas and nearly 50,000 Nepali are employed in Indian army (Seddon 2005).

With the approval of the Labor Act of 1985, the government of Nepal officially recognized the potential value of foreign labor migration "overseas", meaning beyond the Indian subcontinent. International labour migration from Nepal has been quite diversified in the spatial coverage as well as in the areas of work. Presently, the diverse form of labour migration has ranged from military recruitment through domestic works to semi-skilled works in various countries of the world. From the late 1980s onwards, Nepalese began to migrate in significant numbers eastwards to Southeast Asia and the Far East and, from the mid-1990s onwards, westwards to the Gulf countries (Seddon 2005). Among them about 90 percent are in India. So, Labour migration to India is a predominant feature both in terms of its long history as well as in terms of migrants involved. The number of labour migrants working in India accounts 6, 00,000 to 30, 00,000 (Graner and Gurung 2003). Most were engaged in manual labor jobs in industry, construction work, agriculture, or the service sector. Their wages tended to be low and the work was often dirty, dangerous, and even degrading (Seddon 2005). A general tendency is evident with agricultural labour migration normally taking place towards rural areas of proximity in India and non-agricultural labour migration towards urban areas and to distant places (Subedi 1991).

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1.2 Statement of the Problems

Migration is one of the important processes of population change. Internal and international movements are both eased by means of transportation and communication. Both transportation and communication network and support system established early migrants, which reduce cost and risks. Due to the lack of opportunities of employment and Maoist insurgency, rural youths are compelled to follow the option of labour migration to different countries of the world. Nepal has a long history of labour migration and till now it is getting continuity.

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semi-skilled works in various countries of Asia, Europe and North America. A general tendency is evident with agricultural labour migration normally taking place towards rural areas of proximity in India and non-agricultural labour migration towards urban areas and to distant places (Subedi 1991). Despite the long history of international labour migration, the available information is very sketchy and incomplete. Because of open border with India and lack of population registration system, it is difficult to determine the magnitude of labour migration (Subedi 2003).

Of course Nepal is an agricultural country but majority of the people have less land. Among them the hilly and the mountain regions have poor agricultural lands and result in the low productivity. That is not enough to sustain the whole family. Likewise, due to the under developed country there are unemployment problem in Nepal, People are facing different problems such as socio-economic imbalances, poverty, environmental degradation, political conflict (civil war). These above reasons have compelled the Nepalese youth to go abroad to sustain their livelihood.

Remittance has played a crucial role in the national economy in the recent years. However planners and the policy makers have neglected the importance of foreign labour migration as a livelihood strategy in Nepal. Only few scholars and institutions have been conducted a study about the international labour migration and its impact in Nepal. But that is not sufficient as it cannot represent the micro level.

Thus, migration is an increasing phenomenon of rural areas in Nepal, particularly among the young generation. The majority of the people of Gwadi VDC in Gulmi District are going abroad for better livelihood strategy. The habitations of Gwadi VDC's are suffering from unemployment, Maoist problems, lack of agriculture land, lack of food and basic infrastructures. Consequently only and immediate solution to these problems is to go to India or other countries. The increasing trend of emigration from Gwadi VDC as well as from the whole of Nepal has created serious problems for using resources, land use, development and socio-economic activities. Most of the migrants are male which has also created more problems. The scarcity of manpower is likely to have many changes in the livelihood strategy as well as demographic and socio-economic scenario in this area.

Agricultural production of Gwadi VDC is not good. Only a few families make sufficient food for whole the year but most of the families buy their stocks because of the low arable land and low production. So, large portion of the remittance is spent on food and basic needs. From the study area active youth males have migrated. Only old people, women and children are left in the village. It creates more problems in male labour works and other socio-cultural activities.

Anyways, among the diverse sources of household incomes, labour migration is being the most important source in rural areas of Nepal. Household economy is shifting from predominant agriculture to non-farm incomes (remittance) for

their livelihood. In this regard, the major focus of this study is on the following research questions.

- ✍ What are the socio-economic characteristics of labour migrants and their households?
- ✍ What are the causes of labour migration?
- ✍ How does labour migration effect the livelihood of "Magar" and "Non-Magars" communities in the study area?
- ✍ How does the migration system function?

1.3 Objectives of the Study

The main aim of the study is to examine the causes and impact of labour migration to India in the study area. The specific objectives of this study are:

1. To examine the socio-economic characteristics of labour migrants and their households.
2. To examine the impact of labour migration on livelihoods of "Magar" and "Non-Magar" communities in the study area.

1.4 Signification of the Study

Although various studies have been conducted concerning migration in Nepal. Among them some research studies have been done on the international labour migration. They have focused on the systematic elements influencing migration decision, but only few of them have attempted to discuss the contribution of labour migration on livelihoods. In this micro level study, I am concerned only with labour migration to India from Gwadi VDC, Gulmi and why is it being a major source of livelihood strategies in that place and I try to fill up the gap of knowledge about various aspects of causes, socio-economic characteristics and impact on livelihood of labour migrants and their households, and to compare the role of women in different activities (use of remittances, and decision making) between Magar and Non-Magar communities. This study may contribute to a better understanding of international labour migration and its contribution to livelihood strategies in the rural area. This does not concern only the Gwadi VDC but also is related to the other parts of the nation to some extent.

So, I expect that, this study will be significant for those readers who want to research or know about an international labour migration (especially to India) from Nepal and its impact on different sectors. It will be helpful to those institutions, working to uplift the living standard of rural poor.

1.5 Limitation of the Study

This study mainly focuses on labour migration to India as a livelihood strategy in Gwadi VDC, Gulmi. It has not included abroad migration (except India) in this study. Being a micro level study, it may not represent the whole VDCs' migration trend in Nepal. In this study, I would try to show demographic and socio-economic status of labour migrants and their households, the way of using remittances and women's' role in decision making on family between Magar and Non-Magar communities. To fulfill the given objectives, information has been derived from recruitments and other skilled and unskilled labourers working in India and their family. Primary data has collected through questionnaires survey, field observation, in-depth interview and focus group discussion. Besides these, the studies have also used secondary data and information. And there are used limited statistical and cartographic tools and techniques.

1.5 Operational Definitions

Emigration: Temporary movement of people from the study area to any other country to seek employment is called emigration. Especially, it refers to the migration of labours from Nepal to any other countries. In this study, the duration of more than six months is taken as an emigration

Emigrants/Migrants: In this case emigrants/migrants are defined as persons who have moved outside the country from the study area.

Voluntary Migration: It means a situation, as opposed to group migration, where a single person or a married couple accompanied by their children and some other relation.

Place of Origin: The area from where a migrant departs to the place of destination. In our case Gwadi VDC is the place of origin.

Place of Destination: The area where migrant stay for a short period or a long period for the job. In our case India is the place of destination.

Migration Stream: Migrants who move from a common origin to a common destination within a given period of time.

Economically active population: The people who fall within the age bracket of 15-59 years.

Livelihood: Livelihood comprises the capabilities, assets (including both material and social resources) and activities required for a means of living. A livelihood is sustainable when it can cope with and recover from stresses and shocks and maintain or enhance its capabilities and assets both now and in the future, while not undermining the natural resources base (DFID, 2002).

Livelihood Strategy: Livelihood strategies are the "range and combination of activities and choices that people make/undertaken in order to achieve their livelihood goals" or the way of combining and using assets (DFID, 2002).

CHAPTER - TWO

REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

Various scholars have been doing several studies on population and migration. The decision to migrate is the outcome of human psychology and behavior. So, it is very difficult to apply all over the universal and uniform laws to human behaviors. However, many studies, theories and models related to migration have tried to establish patterns and order in understanding the migration decision of the individual and household.

2.1 Theoretical Literature

Ravenstein was the first person who started a study about migration. He presented an article titled as "the law of migration" in 1885. It was based upon the British Census of 1881. Later in 1889, Ravenstein returned to the subject with data from more than 20 countries as found in the first paper and extended in the second paper. In his article the "push and pull" factors were the basis for his law of migration. Ravenstein concluded that the first 5 of the items, migration and distance; migration by slopes; stream and counter stream; urban to rural difference in propensity to migrate and predominance of females among short distance migrants are usually quoted. And the 6 and 7, respectively dealing with technology and migration and dominance of the economic motive, though taken from the general conclusion of his second paper are not ordinarily included. The laws of migration were later on applied by Stouffer and others and then by Lee.

Stouffer (1960) applied another law of migration. His article "Intervening opportunities and competitive", was based on Ravenstein theory. He says that the flow of migration is higher in the place of available opportunities but migration towards the area of lower opportunities is lower.

Bouge (1959) in "Internal migration" viewed migration as an adjustment to economic and social change. Migration redistributes the population of any territory by transferring people from one place to another. He further mentioned that when a person cannot satisfy his needs and there environment, he migrates to other places where he may get relief from the unpleasant situations.

Zipf (1946) has proposed that when unemployment and income are uniformly distributed, the variable in the numerator should be population at the origin and destination and distance is denominator. He formulated 'the principle of least effort' which was based on Revenstein's theory of migration. According to him, the greater distance and the greater effort to overcome the difficulties, therefore the smaller number of migrants and vice-versa.

Lee (1966) developed a general scheme into which a variety of spatial movement could be placed. He divides the forces exerting an influence on migrant's perceptions into push and pull factors. The former is the negative factor tending to force migrants to leave the place of origin where as the latter

is a positive factor attracting migrants. According to him, the factors, which affect the decision of migration and the process of migration, are influenced by four sets of factors. Factors associated with the areas of destination, the area of origin, intervening factors and personal factors. This model is within the framework of push and pull factors and it summarizes the contribution on migration by Ravenstein, Zipf, Stouffer and others.

Todaro (1969) has given the most significant contribution on the migration literature. According to him, migration mechanism can be explained by the differences in expected rather than actual earnings between two places. He formulated migration model in four different features as: (i) Migration is stimulated primarily by rational economic consideration of relative benefits, which are mostly financial and psychological. (ii) The decision to migrate depends on expected rather than actual differentials. (iii) The probability of obtaining employment rate in new sector and, (iv) Migration rate of new employment opportunity growth rates are not only possible but also rational as well and even likely in the face of wide, new or old expected incomes differentials.

Weiner (1985) summarizes the four clusters of variables shaping international migration. The first cluster is differential variables: wage and land prices. The second cluster is spatial variables: distance and transportation costs. The third cluster of variables is religion, culture, language, and kinship network. And the fourth cluster of variables is the access variables: the rules for entry and exit.

In the modern period, the major focuses of migration studies are structural inequalities and cause of migration (Lewellen 2002). Modern migration studies are based on rural to urban migration in developing countries. It argues that although the migrating unit is usually an individual, the decision making unit is a larger group of related people, normally the family or household of which the migrant is a member (Wyss 2003). "People adopt migration as a viable livelihood strategy, mainly because it offers new possibilities to improve economic conditions and to get away from the state of poverty, as it protests against the existing socio-economic arrangements refusing the prevailing social relation of production by being docile (Shrestha 2004).

To sum up these models interpret that migration of population is the matter of profit and loss and is experienced by the migrants themselves. This interaction leads them to move from the place of origin to the place of destination and it is based on pull-push factors. This is also applicable to the Nepalese migrants. Most of the Terai people of Nepal come from the hill and mountain region and most of the rural people are going abroad to solve the problem of bread and butter (*haat mukh jorne*).

2.2 Literature Related to Labour Migration and Livelihood

Martin (2001) argues that subsistence agriculture does no longer guarantee livelihood security for rural households. The most of them need other income sources to survive. Seasonal labour migration and wage labour are a common income strategy of many households in the village. Interaction with urban labour market is a part of rural livelihood pattern, majority of the households are there with a low food sufficiency and a high risk of food security. Rural people try to meet their need for cash income with wage labour and labour migration. Consequently, they move some where else looking for job which implies seasonal long distance migration to India.

Subedi (2003) has explained that Nepal continues its status as a labour sending country in the 21st century. With current population size of 23.12 million growing constantly over 2.2 percent per annum, more than 200 thousands young adults are entering into the labour force every year. Most of this entry is from rural areas. Overwhelming majority of this population is unskilled. He argues that with poverty, lack of employment opportunities, amidst youth bulge labour migration from Nepal is imperative. Taking this into consideration the government considers promoting foreign labour migration of its citizens as a way to benefit both the citizen and the nation. He further explained that foreign labour migration from Nepal has increased over space and over time in recent years than ever before. Indian sub-continent still absorbs overwhelming majority of Nepalese international labour migrants but the recent labour migration through foreign employment promotion programme had been directed towards West Asian and East and Southeast Asia. According to him recent political event in the country is also forcing youths to leave the village.

Subedi (1991) has described the causes influencing human movement on "International Migration in Nepal". Human migration can be categorized into two groups: voluntary and involuntary. He further explained that most of the labour migrants of hilly people are unskilled. Mainly they have moved to the rural areas of India. They have occupied agricultural areas of low economic prospect. There are also Nepali labour migrants in the cities of India. They hold very low level jobs like coolies, *durban*, watchman, hotel boys etc. They show little concern for obtaining citizenship in Indian states. A large proportion of labour migrants intended to return home in Nepal. They are mainly single and seeking short term employment.

Kansakar (1974) describes the different aspect of population in Nepal through the historical analysis of population change. He concluded that the basic reason for migration is poor economic condition of hill as compared to the Tarai. Tarai was the destination of internal migration. The study reveals the volume of migration between India and Nepal with significant impact of Indian migrants on population and economy of Nepal and controlling migration between Nepal and India through bilateral negotiation.

Kansakar (1982) has explained the historical reasons for international migration between Nepal and India. After Sugauli treaty (1816) Nepalese began to migrate to India to join the British- Indian army. From this period,

people from hills have been going out for foreign employment and initially for army and police services and later on to other labour services. This study emphasized the role of emigration and remittances in the rural areas in Nepal. It is confined to the Magars of Bharse, Gulmi and Gurungs of Panchamul, Syangja district, who were recruited in highest numbers in the foreign armies.

Wyss (2003) has summarized that international labour migration is an important source of income for many households in Nepal. Present and past labour migration (remittance and pension from foreign armies) is the main income source for over 70 percents of households in Sainik Basti, This strategy of migrating is, in most households, supplemented with agriculture for subsistence. The non-migrating household members thereby contribute to their own livelihood. He further explained that the main reason to migrate lies in the need for a (higher) income or the desire for a higher standard of living, together with a lack of available well-paid jobs in Nepal. The remittances are primary used to meet the daily needs of households and to repay the loans and interest or are invested in the education of the children, in luxury goods or the building of a new house.

Mc Dougle (1968) has studied about migration in western Nepal that includes Mahakali, Seti, Karnali and Rapti. He emphasizes that temporary migration takes place due to the lack of cash income in village. The cash is wanted for the fulfillment of their basic needs as to buy salt, kerosene, clothes, sugar and other necessities. The main destination of migrants was India. People had started to go India since the very beginning.

Gautam (1999) has studied on Migration to India from Baglung district, he concluded that of the total sample population (538), 120 were reported as currently absentee labour migrants and 32 currently present labour migrants. The absentee population constituted 22.3 percent while total labour migrants constituted 28.20 percent of total sample population out of total absentee population (out of Nepal) 94 percent were working in India and remaining 6 percent in other countries. He further argued that the emigration trend has started since 1914 in this VDC, since then it is gradually increasing day by day. Recent trend shows that most labour migrants were active males of age group 15-29. Emigration is the main income source of these households due to the low agriculture production, unemployment etc.

Graner and Karmacharya (2001) argue that rural labour market has been dominated by short-term engagement, low daily wages and unskilled manpower. Consequently, an increasing number of workers are searching for labour opportunities in urban labour markets. At the same time urban labour markets within the country are being unable to provide sustainable labour opportunities for the long run. As a result of these unfavorable conditions on rural and urban labour market, an increasing number of workers are searching labour opportunities in international labour market, particularly in India

Several studies have concluded that the major causes of seasonal migration are insufficient land, lack of food production, poor crop yields, rural indebtedness, economic hardship, Population pressure, soil erosion, natural calamities, lack

of employment opportunities, and lack of cash income in the place of origin, drought and flood (Pokhrel 2000, Ghimire 1977, and CEDA 1977). On the other hand, land availability and employment opportunities elsewhere are also identified as pull factors.

Graner and Gurung (2003) mentioned that the rapidly increasing international labour migration has been supported by regional inter linkages, open border policy with India, and perception of Nepali hill people as loyal and diligent workers. They further explained that due to the physical proximity and treaty provision, the labour markets in India are easily accessible. In this respect, majority of the Nepali migrants are in India. The number of labour migrants working in India ranges from 600,000 to 3 million

Gurung (1989) pointed out that Nepal has been a population exporting country since the beginning of the nineteenth century. Population increase in the hill (the traditional zone of settlement) force people to move to others areas within the country or out side the country to seek their better livelihood. One of the principle avenues for out-migration was recruitment in the British Indian army and the men were drawn mostly from tribes in the central and eastern hills. Although the bulk of this mercenary labour force returned home after the minimum service of 15 years, many were encouraged to settle in India. Thus the Gurkha colonies are created around the cantonment areas.

Shahi^A (2005) has summarized in his thesis that the income from labour migration to India is an undeniably significant component of village economy. Foreign labour migration has been an important economic option to maintain sustenance. Remittance contributes to fulfill immediate food and family requirement. Remittances always supplement farm income in the village. Hence, labour migration provides a base for their livelihoods.

Gyanwali (2001) has examined the different aspects of emigration that has affected the place of origin both positively and negatively such as in the one hand some households have increased their standard and in other hand the local agricultural lands are changing into non-agricultural land. The emigration are also affecting the socio-economic set-up of the place of origin.

Yamanaka (2000) argues the higher wages received in these countries attract Nepali migrants, although human capital characteristics like age, education and ethnicity bear little relationship to their wage labour. She further adds the rapidly developing and integrating economy of Asia since 1960s has resulted in growing economic disparity between a few rich countries (Japan, Korea, Malaysia, Singapore, Hong Kong, Taiwan, Thailand) and their poor neighbors in the east and south Asia, resulting the rising waves of international labour migration and rapid emergence of integrated labour market with labour shortage caused not by shortage of workers but by a lack of motivated and reliable workers, as most families in Japan send their children to higher education and they do not want to take low level jobs, while Nepali workers are perceived as smart and dedicated workers for these kinds of jobs. She further states that the magnitude of unemployment and underemployment prevailing in

Nepal is pushing out those who are educated but lacking job experiences and personal connection with employers within the country.

Chaurasia (1980) has conducted "Migration of Labour in Nepal-its causes and consequences". He concludes that 94.38% migrated to India whereas 5.63% migrated to other countries. In 1961-71, a decline in the number of Nepalese migrants going abroad took place as a result of falling employment opportunities in the Indian armies and British Gurkha regiment. The end of the Second World War discouraged recruitment in the Indian and the British armies from Nepalese origin.

Dixit (1997) highlights the causes of labour migration. He writes Nepalese are being emigrated since very long in the history of Nepal due to the economic desperation. Their unproductive lands are not able to provide sustenance. Therefore, several thousands of high land people descend to India in search of livelihood. He includes this process of emigration was started by the army recruitment and the tea plantation and how it is continuous and growing large scale. He further says the taxation-levied system and revenue system during the Rana period was one of the major push factors of emigration.

K.C. (1999) reached to a conclusion that emigration from Nepal to India has been influenced by differential in the prospect of employment in the unskilled job, prospect for repatriation of earning and remittances, and unrestricted rules of entry and exit. Indian immigration to Nepal is influenced by differential opportunity for employment, demand for skilled and semi-skilled manpower, small distance, low cost of transportation, unrestricted entry and exit, repatriation of earnings and closer affinity in religion, culture, language and family ties. Emigration from Nepal to India is mainly from the hills and the distance involved and transportation cost is relatively greater. The hill labour migrants are not similar to Indians in culture, language and the family adapt to the socio-economic situation of Nepal especially in the Terai.

Seddon et. al. (2001) argue that foreign labour migration and the income returned to the rural households of Nepal as a result of employment abroad, while tending to consolidate existing inequalities, can, for a significant minority of individuals and households, work against emigration trend and generate a real improvement in lives and standards. For the very poor, however, these opportunities seem not to be available, as much because of the structure of social relationships within the village because of difficulties and risks of seeking employment abroad. The very poor are in fact, relatively little involved in foreign labour migration. Their livelihoods have so far been secured, though precariously, by the generation of local wage employment opportunities because of the 'outside earning' of the wealthier households. Their survival is bought by their continued reliance and dependency on their employers and masters.

Shahi^B (2005) has concluded that Nepalese don't depend on formal institutions of organization either for the travel or for Job seeking. Migration to India is therefore organized by the migrants themselves, often with the help of relatives and friends. He further added that emigration brought some demographic and

socio-economic impacts on the study area. There was shortage of labour force which caused negligence over agriculture, decrease in agriculture production and livestock keeping. There was decrease in active male population and increased dependency ratio in both villages. On the other hand, foreign labour migration has contributed in improving the livelihood of both villages. It has also encouraged the households to maintain their living standard and to improve their household economy.

Above mentioned literatures have dealt with theory of migration, concept of labour migration, causes and consequences, trends, patterns, volume, directions and of emigration. These all are not sufficient to demonstrate the process of migration at the local level and for all caste and ethnic groups. In this study, I have focused on impact of labour migration in two main different castes and ethnic groups, especially magar and non-magar people's livelihood within the conceptual framework of livelihood.

CHAPTER – THREE

RESEARCH STRATEGY AND METHODOLOGY

The purpose of this chapter is to discuss the preparation and conduct of the field for this study, together with the theoretical basis of each of the instruments. My main intention in the field research is to get closer to the people and situation being studied and try to get an authentic and effective result.

3.1 Selection of the Research Site

I have selected my home place (Gwadi VDC) as a study area, where I have spent several years of my life. Though during the higher studies, I could not live in my village continuously since last decade. However I have continued to be integral part of the village. I have consistently maintained contact through regular visits, through villagers and other communications.

Gwadi is the one of the VDC among 79 VDCs of Gulmi district. It lies in the Western Development Region of Nepal. This region is the most dominant by the labour emigration than other regions. As far as the selection of the study area is concerned on labour migration to India from its inhabitants, large size of young and adult males are engaged on labour migration to India, which is the major income source of livelihood strategy since very beginning in this area. In addition, Gulmi district is not far away from maoist problem. Due to the maoist problems, there are difficulties to research new places by new scholar. Being a home place (VDC) the researcher, makes it easy to conduct research and I am closely related to the study area as well as the environmental phenomenon, which makes the study more comprehensive and reliable. Previous studies on labour migration were not conducted in this area.

3.2 Before Entry into the Field

After selecting the research topic and research site, I consulted with the teachers, local experts, and elder brothers who had done research in same fields and my colleagues about research and how to start research work. Besides that, I surveyed published and unpublished literature from different sources. Library and Internet sites were the main bases of the literature review. Then, I selected my research objectives. On the basis of the research objectives, I finalize my formal field instruments (questionnaire and schedule formats). I went to research site on first week of September, 2005.

3.3 Entry into the Field

The first week of field visit was spent getting re-acquainted with people and getting permission to do research work. Because this VDC is totally affected by Maoist and they have formed their own Village Janasarkar (Local Government). I informed about my research work to the chief of the VDC and I

got permission to do my research work in this area. Being a native of this area, I was already sure that they don't disturb my work. If my guess was failed at that time I was mentally prepared to do my research work in neighbouring VDC. I had two major tasks before starting a formal survey. These were: i) selecting the number of households from where members have gone to work abroad, especially in India from each and every ward in terms of caste wise ii) taking sample from the emigrating households if there are more than 300 households. I started to do my preliminary work on second week of September. Firstly I consulted with former VDC Chairman about necessary statistics of the VDC, because VDC secretary was staying in the District Headquarters due to the security reason and most of the documents were burnt by Maoist before three years. He hasn't any records/statistics of the VDC. He gave only voters list of the VDC and he also suggested that I should go to every ward and meet former chairman/social workers/educated people who are directly linked to the field. They can know all information about their entire ward. So, I realized that it is the best way to get required data, to visit whole research area and re-acquainted with people there. I started to count those households from where members have gone to abroad to work from my village (ward no.9), where I got help by a social worker and a student. Then I went to ward no. 8 and took data and information with the help of a social worker. Likewise, I took data in ward no. 7 with local teacher, ward no. 5 with former VDC co-chairman, ward no. 2, 3 and 4 with local teachers, ward no. 1 with former ward chairman and ward no. 6 with former VDC chairman and a social worker. In this way I took require data from the entire nine wards in terms of caste wise. At that time I was able to get more information about places, people and their feelings. Then, I finished that work within three days.

On the basis of the field data, I found that out of the total 600 households of the VDC, from 332 households' people have gone to work in India and from 61 households' people have gone to foreign countries other than India. Even though, my study is focused on only those households from where members have migrated to India but within the limited time and resources, I could not conduct entire households. So, I decided to take 20 percent sample of the emigrating households (332 hhs) and to do comparative study between magar and other castes. Because Magars are the indigenous group and they follow the labour migration since very beginning by joining Indian-British army due to their bravery. Later, this trend became the traditional culture in magar community. On the other hand, other caste were engaged in agriculture, government job and business in the beginning. After 1st world war they started to migrate to India for labour force due to the different problems and they adopt that culture later than magars. So, I divided into two groups -magar and non-magars to whole community. It would be better to know, how they perceive the labour migration in this area.

A population as the group, to which a researcher would like the results to be generalizable. In general the size of the sample would be 10-20 percent of the population/universe. -Gay (pp. 66)

I selected 66 households using the stratified sample method, among them 50 percent are Magar households and 50 percent are Non-Magars households. To select the study households, lottery method was used by the numbering emigrants households both magars and non-magars separately. To make research more authentic and real, I have tried to include entire wards and caste/ethnic groups of the VDC.

3.4 Entry into the Main Data Collection and Procedures

According to the research questions, the unit of analysis is represented by a social unit: a household in a rural agricultural community that includes members having migrated to India for income-generating purposes. I have defined households as a social group which makes joint or coordinated decisions over resource allocation and income.

To enhance the quality of the research, I have used multiple sources of evidence in this research, both quantitative and qualitative. The data and information derives from:

3.4.1 Semi-Structured Questionnaire: A survey conducted with a semi-structured questionnaire focusing on labour migration and its impact on socio-economic status of households, it was considered the most fruitful to concentrate on household head and labour migrants who worked in India or currently did and at the moment of field visit, they were on home-leave. Both household heads and labour migrants were interviewed (Appendix-I and II). While conducting interview, I did it without any biasness to men and women. In total, 66 household heads were interviewed about the labour migration, remittances and impacts on their households' socio-economic conditions (Appendix-I) and 11 labour migrants were interviewed on their work, risk, problems and other doing activities in their destination. Furthermore, a representative sample concerning caste (jaat) were intended and reached: Out of total, approximately 275 Non-Magars households of 12 Brahmins, 10 Chhetries and 11 Dalits were interviewed, where as out of the total 57 Magar households 33 households were interviewed. For selecting the households (informants), a lottery method was used and I tried to include each and every caste/ethnic groups and ward numbers. On the interview period, if there was nobody targeted at home, I tried to reach them at work fields and went there another day. Interviews lasted from 30 minutes to more than one hour.

3.4.2 Key-Informant Interviews: Key informants represented knowledgeable persons in their respective communities such as local leaders, teachers, and elder labour migrants who are staying on retired life. The key-informant interviews aimed at providing a more holistic picture of International labour migration and its impact on livelihood in rural areas people and different communities of Gwadi VDC. Some unstructured interviews had been carried out. The key-informant interview have been

taken with the former chairman (53 years) of the VDC, a social worker and former teacher (67 years), VDC Secretary (29 years), and two retired army (66 and 54 years respectively) of India.

3.4.3 Focus Group Discussion: The advantages of group discussions compared to individual interviews are as following: first, people can speak freely and feel more comfortable talking to each other than talking to interviewer alone. Second, very ordinary things like use of remittance or decision-making, which normally are poorly reflected on interview time, may be easier to discuss in groups. And third, the format allows the facilitator the flexibility to explore unanticipated issues as they arise in the discussion. So, it should be covered a new disputed fields that for some reason have been left unmentioned in the individual interviews.

Organization of the Focus Groups

The selected people of the community were called to participate in the meeting. Criteria for selection of participants were their interest in the topic and their promising and effective answers in previous interviews. In order to facilitate fruitful discussions, two groups were composed. The first group was composed consisting only women-whose husbands were at the moment of study in India and second group was composed including local leaders, women in caste wise, labour migrants -who are on the home-leave and retired men. Hence, two groups with 9/12 participants respectively were built.

The first group discussion was held with women having their husbands working abroad. Eight members were participated in this group. Among them, 3 Magars, 2 Brahmins, 2 Chhetris and 2 Dalits women were participated. The main issue of the discussion was: **what is the role of women in the absence of their husband in household or society?** The second group was a twelve member heterogeneous group. This included one local leader, one teacher, two social workers, one Magar women, one Brahmin women, one chhetri woman, one dalit woman - whose husband was India at that moment, and two labour migrant people who had returned from India on home-leave and two retired men from Indian job. In this group we discussed mainly about the **Impact of labour migration and remittance in the household, society and entire VDC**. People were gathered at the village centre. As we were meeting in this public place, the discussion was held with a few listeners. The discussion was expected to develop with very open questions. The role of the researcher was to moderate the discussion. At that time two friends helped me by note-taking about discussion issues and results.

3.4.4 Observation: Specially, to obtain detail information of the houses, furnishings, ornaments, clothes, and surroundings of the study areas direct observation was used in studies. Even, I am an insider and live in upper part of the VDC, from where some villages are not accessible because there is not any work to go there. Observation during the daily

walks or field visits through the village provided supplementary hints and information about the life in, and the development of the village which were very important sources of evidences and served to clarify and cross-check oral information.

3.4.5 Field Note-taking: During the data collection, I had used field note taking as a means of storage device of daily works and experiences because all day's information can not remain in the mind. Field work provides an effective interaction between respondents and the researcher in various natures and activities.

3.4.6 Secondary Data: The study also draws on secondary data from newspaper articles, books, journals, published and unpublished scientific reports, dissertations, from the VDC and DDC offices, Labour Department, CBS office, library and internet sites.

The above-described procedure generated a total number of 66 semi-structured interviews with households and 11 semi-structure interviews with labour migrants who were at home on their home-leave, 5 key informant interviews and 2 focus discussions were held. Additionally, researcher put down his direct observations in Field study notes.

3.5 Conceptual Framework

The framework shows the main factors affecting livelihoods in households as well as community. Within a community, there are a lot of problems which are created by nature as well as human behaviour. This conceptual frame work helps to analyse of labour migration as a livelihood strategy and to provide or means of bringing order into the complexity of all these influences on livelihoods. It tries to emphasise the many feedbacks and interactions between different factors. The starting point for many livelihoods analyses is the assets that are the people' strengths or resources. Simultaneously, livelihood outcomes, that is their goals or objectives, as well as livelihood strategies, the strategies they adopt to achieve theses objectives, are investigated. Then it analyses, how the vulnerability content. It is also possible to focus on one part at the framework while keeping the wider picture in mind

.

Vulnerability Context

The vulnerability context represents the external environment in which people live. Trends, shocks and seasonality are external factors over

which people have no, or limited control. Trends comprise, for instance, population trends national and international, economic or political trends and technological trends. Shocks comprise human health shocks, economic shocks and conflicts. The seasonality may include prices, production, and health or employment opportunities.

Livelihood Assets

The sustainable livelihoods approach is in essence; a way of putting people at the centre of development, and one of its main principles is to build on their strengths. It seeks to draw a realistic picture of the people assets and capital endowments and to find ways how these can convert into beneficial livelihood outcomes. The different livelihood assets like human, natural, physical, financial and social represents skills, knowledge, ability to work and good health; natural resources like land, forest, water, the basic infrastructures like transport facilities, shelter and sanitation, energy as well as information communication facilities, regular inflows of money e.g. bank deposit, cash and jewellery and earned income, pensions, remittances; and assets that effect on the other assets. It is therefore, be a substitute for financial and help to increase it.

Livelihood Strategies

Livelihood strategies are the "range and combination of activities and choices that people make/under take in order to achieve their livelihood goals" or "the way of combining and using assets" (DFID 2002). In this framework, livelihood strategies include wage labour, labour migration and farming of the rural people. These strategies help to get better output. It changes over time and there is an enormous diversity of livelihood strategies geographically, across sectors and within households, livelihood strategies directly influence the sustainability of livelihoods. The more choice and flexibility that people have in their livelihood strategies, the greater their ability to with stand or adapt to the shocks and stresses of the context (DFID 2002)

Livelihood Outcomes

Livelihood outcomes are the achievement or outputs of labour migration. Rather than describing the objectives of people, it records the actual "output" of current assets and strategies. At the same time, it allows to draw conclusion about the motivation behind peoples' actions and choices. It is important to note that livelihood out comes are not only of a financial nature that is people are not solely maximizing income. In fact there are different categories of livelihood outcomes, which may be relevant, according to the given situation. Their categories are more income-increased well being reduced vulnerability, improved food security and more sustainable use of the natural based resources. Livelihood outcomes have a direct return on livelihood assets and there by alter the choice of livelihood assets and there by alter the choice of livelihood strategies (DFID 2002)

3.6 Methods of Data Analysis

As I mentioned above primary and secondary as well as quantitative and qualitative data were used for this study. Basically secondary data were used to create a base line for the present study and primary data which I derived from field survey were processed and analyzed on the basis of conceptual frame work and there are also used statistical and cartographic tools. Qualitative method is not prime but necessary in many aspects of an analysis particularly in an analyzing labour migration and its related issues.

Figure - 2 : Research Strategies and Field Survey Schedule

Stage	Type of Work\Instruments	Time	Respondents	Information to be collected
Formal and Structure Instrument:				
1a.	General Survey and Secondary Material Collection	July to August	Teachers, Local exports & Elder brothers.	- Survey of existing literature, Study District profile & explore possible field site
1b.	Final work on field Instrument(Questionnaire)			
2a.	Re-acquaintance	Until Mid-September	Local Peoples	- Open ended(informal talks)
2b.	Site Conformed		Chief of the VDC (Maoist)	- To get promission to do research
2c.	Informal Discussion		Former Chairman of VDC	- Situation of the Statistics of VDC
2d.	Taking preliminary Data & field visit		Former ward chairman, social workers and educated persons	- Counting those households from where members have gone to India from each ward.
2e.	Selection Study Households using by Sample method			
3a.	Survey of Households	Until End of September	Household head of next available adult(66)	- demographic & socio-economic status of households, - Impact of labour migration on livelihood, - Remittance and its use
3b.	Survey of Emigrant		Emigrants who are on home-leave at surveying time(11)	- work, risk, problems and other doing activities in the destination
Informal and ongoing Instruments:				
4.	Observation	Continue in Field		- About houses, furnishings, ornaments, clothes and surroundings of the study areas
5.	Key Informant Interview	1 st week of October	Local leader, teacher, social worker, elder emigrants(5)	- more holistic picture of labour migration and its impact on rural livelihood
6.	Collection of Testimonies	Suitable time of respondents	3 elderly	- Recording of personal histories, memories and experiences
7.	Focus Group Discussion	3 rd week of October	a. female –whose husband has gone to India for work- by caste wise(8) b. Social workers, leaders, teachers & women by caste wise(12)	a. What is the role of women in the absent of husband in household or society ? b. Impact of labour migration and remittance in the household, society and entire VDC.
8.	Field Notes	Open		Open ended

Source: Subedi(1993), Adopted and Modified 2006

CHAPTER – FOUR

INTRODUCTION OF THE STUDY AREA

4.1 Geographical Location

The Gwadi VDC is situated in Gulmi district in the mid-hilly region of the Lumbini zone in the Western Development Region. Gwadi is one of the VDC among the 79 VDCs of the Gulmi district. It is located between 28° 57' 00" N. to 28° 59' 30" North latitude and 83°25'40" E. to 83°28'15" East longitude at the south-eastern part of Gulmi district. It is about 40 kilometers far from the district headquarter Tamghas. It has an area of 13 square kilometer. It is bordered by Rimuwa VDC in east and the north, Baletaksar and Thanapati VDCs in the west and Shyangja district bordered by Kali Gandaki and Badi Gad Rivers in the south. It is a totally hilly area. It has an altitude ranges from 493 meters to 1563 meters above sea level with a gentle sloping topography facing towards the north and the south. The nearest market centre- Ridi and Baletaksar are situated in average 2 kilometer away from Gwadi which are linked by Tansen to Tamghas motorable road.

4.2 Natural Resources

The climate of this area is warm temperature based upon the climatic perception and national divisional zone of the climate. The maximum temperature in summer exceeds 35⁰ c and winter season falls down to 4⁰ c. About 90 percent of rain falls in summer season. The annual average rainfall is about 1343.9 mm (DDC Office 2060).

Due to the slope, most of the area is formed by residual soil which is not suitable for agricultural production. Only in river basin areas, alluvial soil is found which is good for agricultural production. However, the large part of the study area is not fertile, due the terrain and to the slope, moreover the rainy season landslides the washes away the fertile soil downward.

Kali Gandaki and Badi Gad Rivers are the main rivers in this area which flow the borders in the southern and the eastern part of this VDC. These are big and permanent rivers. But people have not taken any economic benefits from these rivers. Other rivers are Tal Khola, Dhap Khola, Taruk Khola etc. They economically benefit the people by providing irrigation facilities and drinking water, but the volume of water entirely depends on rainwater.

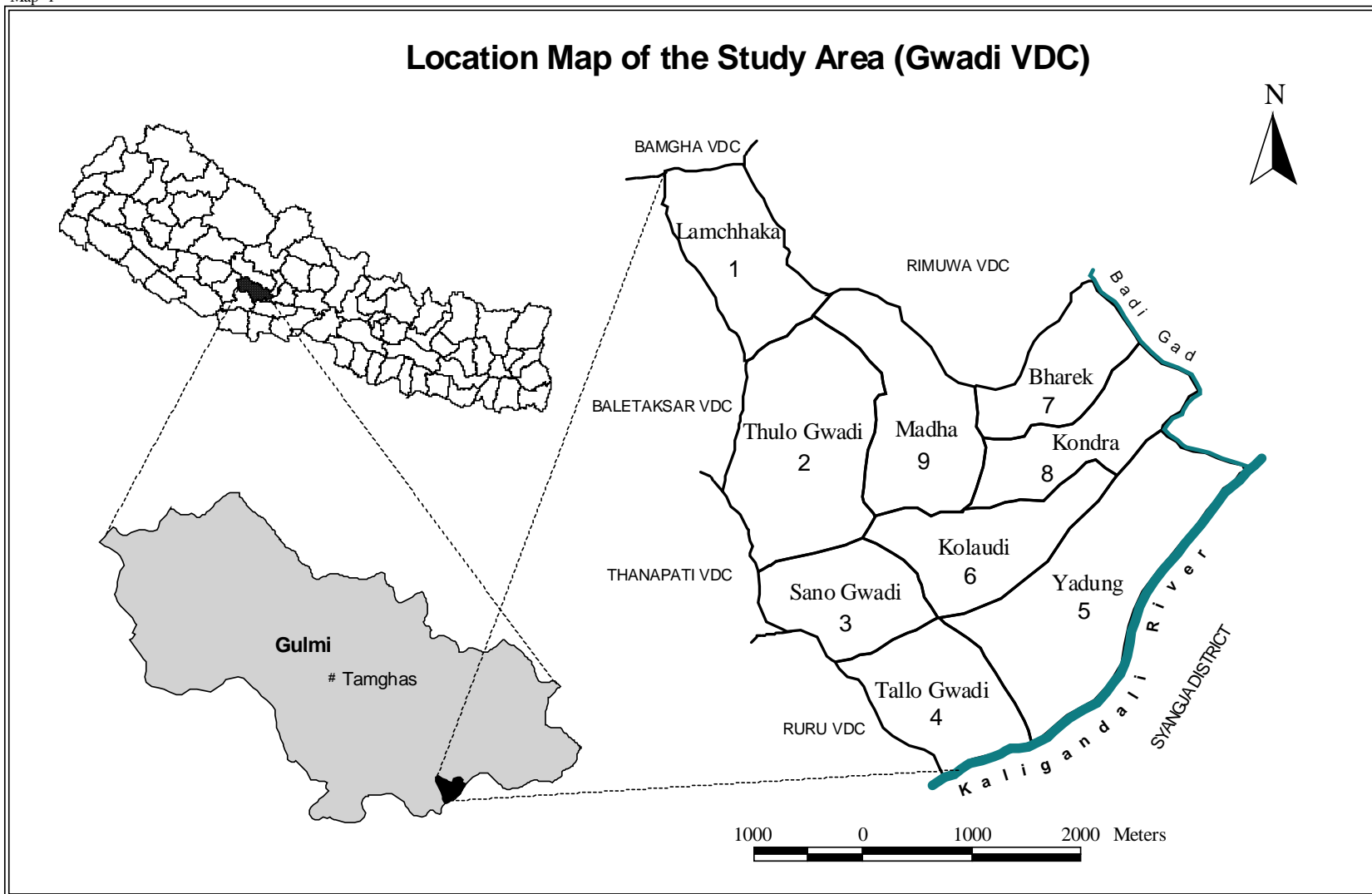
The forest resource in the study area consists of mixed forest, grasses and bushes. There are two administrative section of the forest: (i) Government forest and (ii) Community forest. Community forest was started in 2053 in this area in ward number 3, where as government forest is since very beginning in ward number 4, 5 and 6 of the VDC.

4.3 Infrastructure

Infrastructures are the basic requirement for the overall development of any place. Due to the difficult hilly terrain there is a lack of adequate infrastructure. Nevertheless this VDC is linked by a motorable road but most of the inhabitants of this VDCs' are not benefited because the road just touches in one side of the VDC. Now a days, there are constructing motorable road to link main road. All the goods have to be carried on the back of human and the mules. As a means of communication, telephone plays the vital role. In this area, one telephone service has been started by a private sector since 2060 but it is not reliable. Some times the army cuts the phone line and some times it is technically out of order. So the people have to travel two hours to reach the nearest PCO booth. There is a post office and a health post in the VDC. Nevertheless the government provides the drinking water facilities. Most of the people benefited these facilities. Unfortunately in the high altitudes of this VDC's especially in the upper part, the ward number 8 and 9 suffers from insufficient drinking water supply because there do not exist any suitable means to transfer water. So, the people have to walk half an hour to get water. Electricity has been provided only for a few households in the Rudrabini from the Aslewa VDC, but other parts of the VDC are far from electric connection.

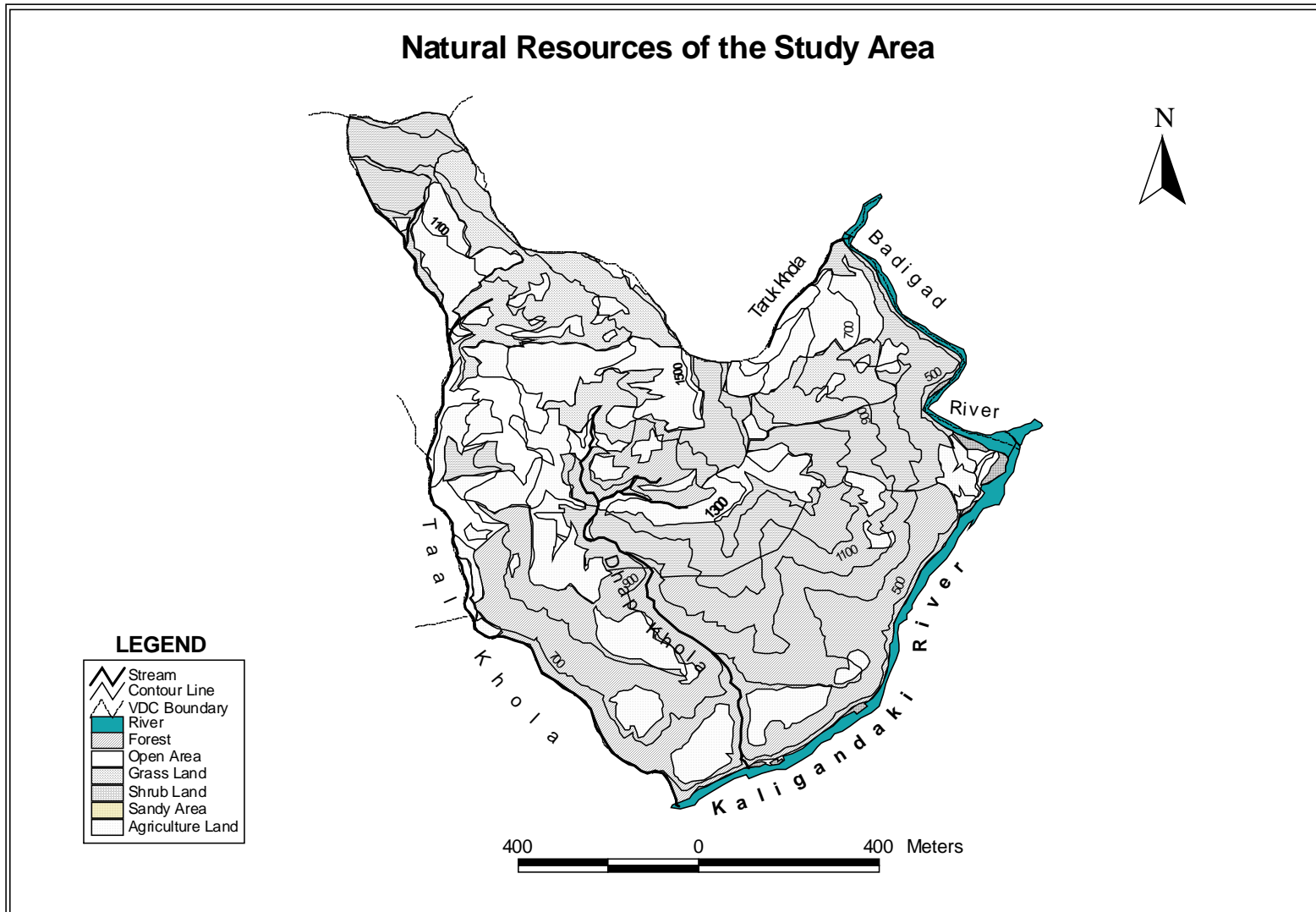
There are eight primary schools and one secondary school but no higher secondary school. For higher level education students have to travel two hours to Ranibash or Ridi bazaar now a days Aslewa where the nearest Higher Secondary Schools are located.

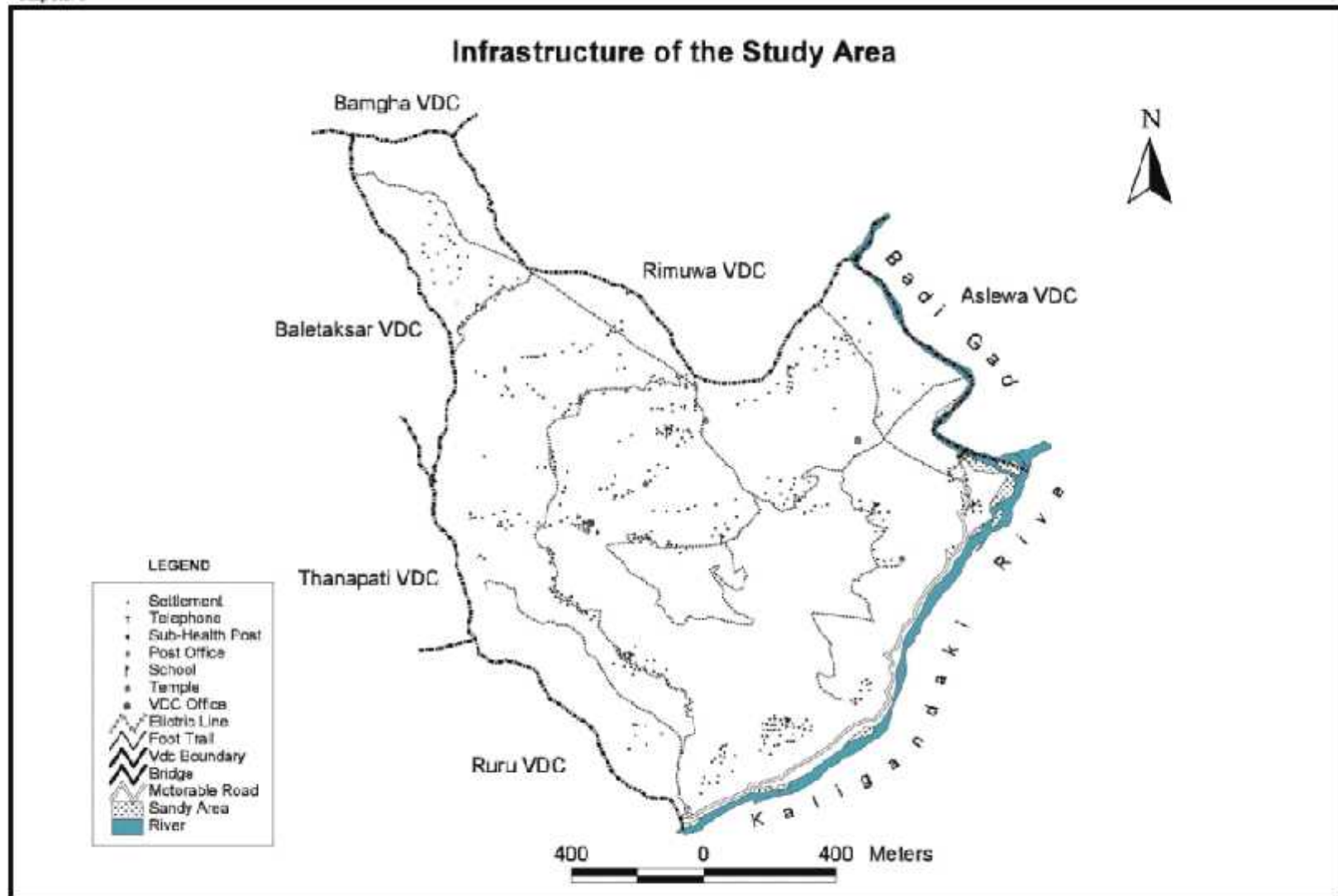
Map -1



Prepared by: Nim Bahadur Thapa, 2006

Source: Survey Department, H.M.G. of Nepal(1993), Toposheet No. 098-04





Prepared by: Nim Bahadur Thapa, 2006

Source : Field Survey, 2005

4.4 Occupational Structure

Agriculture is the main occupation of this VDC. It is largely supplemented by animal husbandry, but that is not sufficient to sustain rural livelihood. Due to the sloppy area, un-arable land and lack of irrigation, agricultural production is very low. Besides that the people are involved in different sectors such as small business, government service, teaching, tailoring, carpentry, cottage industry and construction labour within or outside the place for a better livelihood strategy.

4.5 Population Setting

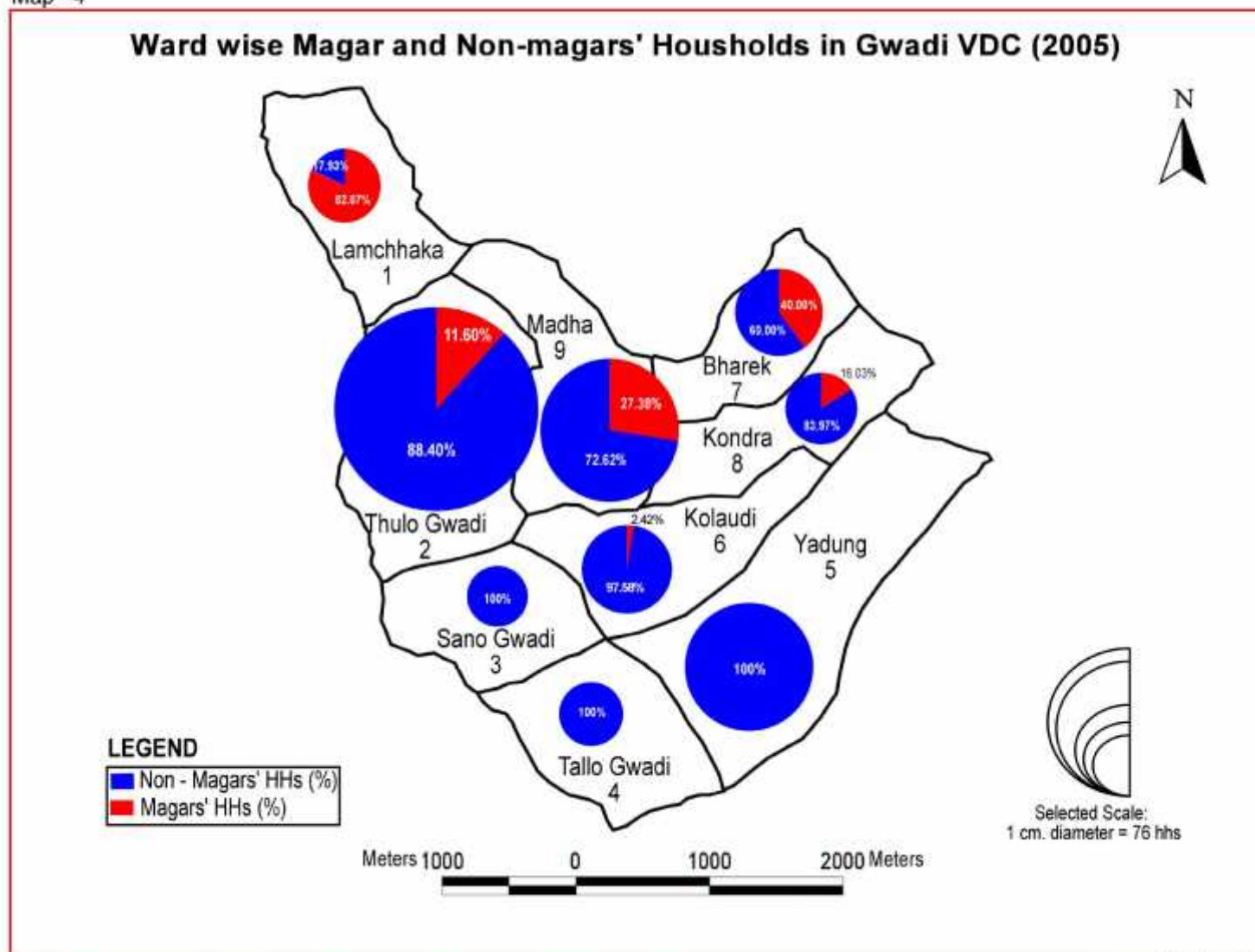
The total population of Gwadi VDC is 2860 in which 1193 persons are male and 1636 persons are female. The total households of this VDC are 600. The average household consists of 4.8 members, and the population density is 220 persons per square kilometer. Literacy rate of this VDCs' are 74.3 percent, in which 88.0 percent are males and 64.0 percent are females (DDC, 2059). Ward wise and caste wise population distribution is shown in the following table.

Table – 1: Ward wise Magar and Non-Magars' Households in Gwadi VDC (2005)

Ward Number	Total Households	Magars in Percentage	Non-Magars in Percentage	Total Percentage
1	47	82.1	17.9	100.0
2	132	11.6	88.4	100.0
3	38	0.0	100.0	100.0
4	40	0.0	100.0	100.0
5	84	0.0	100.0	100.0
6	56	2.4	97.6	100.0
7	55	40.0	60.0	100.0
8	50	16.0	84.0	100.0
9	98	27.4	72.6	100.0
Total	600	19.4	80.6	100.0

Source: VDC Office, 2062

Map - 4



Prepared by Nim Bahadur Thapa, 2005

Source : VDC Office, 2005

The above figure shows the ward wise Magars and Non-Magars' households in Gwadi VDC. Here, ward no. 3, 4 and 5 has no presence of Magar community; other 6 wards have presence more or less Magar community. Among them ward no. 1(one) has the highest proportion of Magar compared with other castes.

Caste and Ethnic Composition: The population of Gwadi VDC comprises different caste and ethnic groups. The Brahmin has the highest proportion (26.7%) of the total population. The population of Chhetri and Magar's are 23.3% and 19.3% respectively. Which are shown in the following table.

Table – 2: Population by Caste and Ethnic of Gwadi VDC

S.N.	Caste	Population	Percentage
1	Brahmin	769	26.7
2	Chhetri	671	23.3
3	Magar	556	19.3
4	Kami	399	13.9
5	Sanyasi	30	1.0
6	Sarki	94	3.3
7	Damai	90	3.1
8	Sunar	70	2.4
9	Newar	17	0.6
10	Others	184	6.4
Total		2880	100.0

Source: Gulmi Mirror, DDC Gulmi, 2060

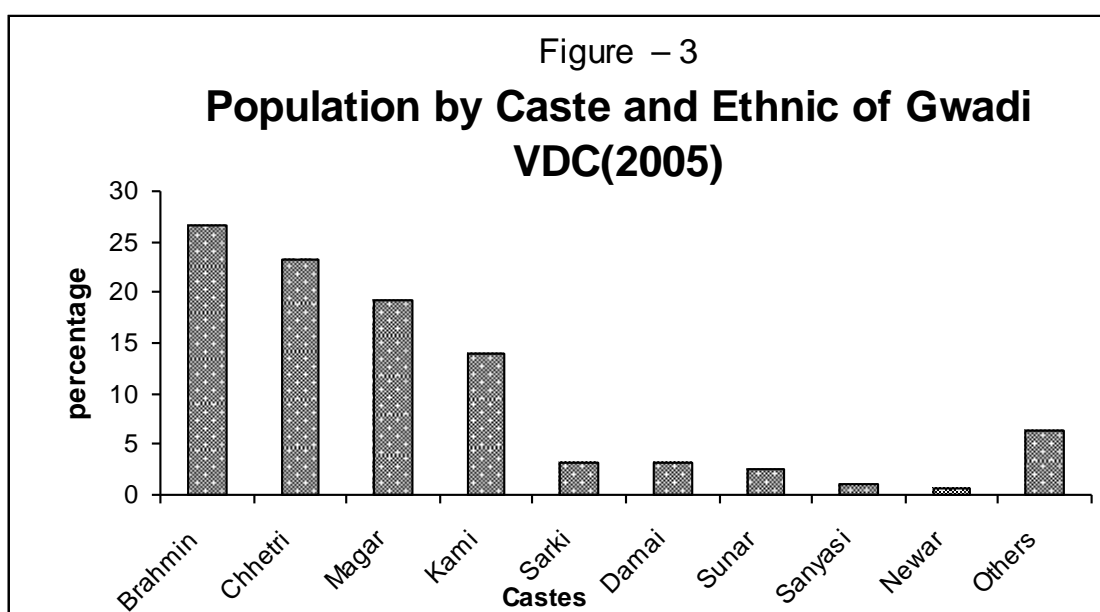


Table-2 or figure- 3 represents the diverse composition of caste/ethnic groups in this VDC. Thakuri, Chhetri, Kunwar are included in chhetri and Gharti, Gurung, Khawar are included in other caste/ethnic group. The different

caste/ethnic groups have own social norms and values. Of course there are higher and lower castes but exists an inter-relationship on the basis of mutual understanding among the different castes and ethnic groups.

4.6 History & Pattern of International Labour Migration

The history of labour migration of this area seems since very beginning, but not found actual evident till now. According to the old retired men, it started before the First World War. Their father fought in First World War and they fought in Second World War. At that time people migrated to India to join the army. So called *galas* played the vital role to migrate the youngsters. He went to villages and looked for healthy young man to recruit for the British-Indian army. The galas were also former army of British-Indian whose job was to select youngsters and bring them to the camp (Kudaghat, Gorakhpur) of the British-Indian army where these underwent the real recruiting exam. If they had not selected for army, they engaged other job in India. In this way people started to migrate to several places in India. So the tradition of foreign military service has produced a culture of emigration and they also established network access for its accomplishment. As a result new generation has been socialized to be familiar with international migration.

Since last decade, people have started migrating to different countries for job opportunities. According to the most reliable informant, the first men from Gwadi started around 1985 to migrate to Gulf state. Then, people began to migrate to Hong Kong, Malaysia and Arabian countries since 1990s in a few volumes. At least one member is migrating to work in inside or outside of the country from the most of the households of Gwadi. There is no doubt that international labour migration is strongly increasing among the villagers of Gwadi. The labour migrant households - from where at least one member is going to abroad to work- are shown below.

Table -3: Pattern of Labour Migration from Gwadi VDC, 2005

Ward No.	Total hhs	India	Malaysia	Saudi Arab	Qatar	Dubai	Korea	Hong Kong	Kuwait	Iraq	Total Migrated hhs
1	47	24	6	1	-	-	-	-	-	-	31
2	132	76	-	4	-	-	2	-	-	-	82
3	38	20	-	3	1	2	-	-	-	-	26
4	40	23	-	2		3	-	-	-	-	28
5	84	34	3	2	1	1	2	1	1	-	45
6	56	16	1	2		-	3	-	-	1	23
7	55	36	2		3	1	-	-	-	-	42
8	50	38	-	-	-	4	-	-	-	-	42
9	98	65	2	2	2	-	3	-	-	-	74
Total	600	332	14	16	7	11	10	1	1	1	393

Source: Field Survey, 2005

Table 3 shows that the pattern of labour migration from Gwadi VDC. Most of the households follow the Indian labour migration, it means more than 84 percent households' member have gone to India for a job. Then Saudi Arab (4%), Malaysia (4%), and Dubai (3%) follow in orderly. People have go to Hong Kong, Kuwait and Iraq only one person respectively. So, the people of the Gwadi VDC have migrated to different countries of the world for seeking the job, which are shown clearly in the following map – 5.

In summarize Gwadi VDC is lies in the totally hilly region which has not good infrastructure facilities and arable land as well. There are about 600 households and more than 2860 population in this VDC. The average household consists of 4.8 members, and the population density is 220 persons per square kilometer. Literacy rate of this VDCs' are 74.3 percent, in which 88.0 percent are males and 64.0 percent are females. Various caste and ethnic groups live in this VDC. Although, agriculture is the main occupation with largely supplementary by animal husbandry of this VDC. But that is not sufficient to sustain rural livelihood. So, most of the people follow the labour migration to support their livelihood. It has been becoming traditional culture since very beginning. According to a old retired man (84 years), "*there are not clear evident about labour migration from this VDC. However, it might be before the 1st World War because I fought in 2nd World War and my father was also a Indian-Brithsh army man. He fought in 1st World War. At that time only few people was engaged in Indian-British army in this area.*" This statement clear that labour migration to India started before 1st World War from Gwadi VDC. Now a days it has been spreading different countries of the world. Among them more than 80 percent people have gone to India for labour migration.

CHAPTER – FIVE
DEMOGRAPHIC AND SOCIO-ECONOMIC PROFILE OF THE
SAMPLE HOUSEHOLDS

5.1 Population by Clans of the Sample Households

Nepal is known as a garden of four colors and thirty-six castes. There are several caste and ethnic groups. So, Nepali caste system is much complex. However, Magar and Non-Magar are categorized in this study. Within the Magar there are different subgroups such as Regami Magar, Rana Magar, Darlami Magar, Lamichhane Magar etc. but in Non-Magar, there are included all caste and ethnic groups except Magar, such as Brahmin, Chhetri, Dalit etc. The caste wise population is shown the following table.

Table - 4 : Population by Clans of the Sample Households, 2005
(in percent)

Magars				Non-Magars			
Clans	Male	Female	Total	Clans	Male	Female	Total
Regami	11.8	10.8	22.6	Brahmin	15.2	17.3	32.5
Rana	9.8	8.8	18.6	Kunwar	10.2	11.7	21.8
Garamja	5.4	7.8	13.2	Kami	11.7	10.7	22.3
Darlami	6.9	6.4	13.2	Sunar	3.1	3.6	6.6
Lamichhane	5.4	3.9	9.3	Thakuri	2.0	2.5	4.6
Dangal	3.9	2.9	6.9	Gharti	2.0	2.0	4.1
Raskoti	2.5	2.0	4.4	Damai	2.0	1.5	3.6
Bucha	2.5	2.9	5.4	Sarki	2.0	0.5	2.5
Midhun	1.5	2.0	3.4	Chhetri	1.0	1.0	2.0
Sharu	2.0	1.0	2.9				
Total	51.5	48.5	100.0	Total	49.2	50.8	100
	N=105	N=99	N=204		N=97	N=100	N=197

Source: Field Survey, 2005

Note: N= Total Numbers

The figure - 4 shows that the highest number among Magar is Regami (22.6%) and it is followed by Rana (18.6%) and Garamja (13.2%). On Non-Magars, Brahmin is the highest (32.5) percent and it is followed by Kunwar 21.8 percent and Kami 22.3 percent. In comparison of both groups and sub-group Brahmin's population is seemed highest that is 32.5 percent. The lowest number is shown of chhetri caste, which is 2.0 percent.

5.2 Population Composition by Age & Sex

Age and sex composition is one of the important demographic variables. It helps to observe demographic changes by age and sex. From this composition, easy to predict population growth rate and dependency ratio. Besides that it shows the distribution of population by different age groups. Here, I have tried to analyze age and sex composition comparing between Magar and Non-Magar's sampled population.

Table - 5 : Population Composition by Age & Sex (in Percentage)

Age-Group	Magar			Non-Magars			Grand Total		
	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total
0-4	4.9	5.9	10.8	1.5	8.1	9.6	3.2	7.0	10.2
5-9	7.4	5.9	13.2	7.6	4.6	12.2	7.5	5.2	12.7
10-14	4.9	4.9	9.8	4.1	4.6	8.6	4.5	4.7	9.2
15-19	5.4	6.9	12.3	5.1	7.1	12.2	5.2	7.0	12.2
20-24	4.9	4.9	9.8	5.1	4.1	9.1	5.0	4.5	9.5
25-29	4.4	2.9	7.4	5.6	3.6	9.1	5.0	3.2	8.2
30-34	4.4	2.9	7.4	7.6	5.1	12.7	6.0	4.0	10.0
35-39	2.9	1.5	4.4	2.5	2.0	4.6	2.7	1.8	4.5
40-44	2.9	2.9	5.9	1.0	2.0	3.1	2.0	2.5	4.5
45-49	1.0	2.9	3.9	2.0	2.0	4.1	1.5	2.5	4.0
50-54	2.9	2.0	4.9	2.0	1.5	3.6	2.5	1.8	4.2
55-59	1.0	1.5	2.5	0.5	2.0	2.5	0.8	1.8	2.5
60+	4.4	3.4	7.8	4.6	4.1	8.6	4.5	3.7	8.2
Total	51.5	48.5	100.0	49.2	50.8	100.0	50.4	49.6	100.0
	N =105	N =99	N =204	N =97	N =100	N =197	N =202	N =199	N =401

Source: Field Survey, 2005

Note: N= Total Numbers

Figure 5 shows that Magar's male population is greater than female. Similar result is shown of Non-Magars too. The average population of Nepal, female comprised 50.0 and male's 50.0. Female population is highest than that of male. But, this study has shown opposite of national average size of sex.

The dependent population comprised of 40.4 percent both of Magar and Non-Magar and economically active population are 59.6 percent and young population are 33.8 percent and old population are 7.8 percent in Magar, where as Non-Magar's child population are 30.5 and old population are 8.6 percent. Comparatively in Magar child dependency is seen high and old age dependency is high in Non-Magar. Average household size of sampled population is 6.1 where as national average is 5.5 populations per household. It seems that population growth rate is very high in this area.

5.3 Marital Status

Marriage is an essential thing to drive the world. Early marriage creates rapid population growth than late marriage. So, marital status shows the average age of marriage of particular area. Here marital status of the study households is shown.

Table - 6 : Marital Status of Sample Households by 15 years of age and above (in Percentage)

Types	Magar			Non-Magar			Total		
	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total
Married	23.5	24.0	47.5	22.8	24.9	47.7	23.2	24.4	47.6
Unmarried	27.0	22.5	49.5	24.9	23.4	48.2	25.9	22.9	48.9
Widow	1.0	2.0	2.9	1.5	2.5	4.1	1.2	2.2	3.5
Total	51.5	48.5	100.0	49.2	50.8	100.0	50.4	49.6	100.0

Source: Field Survey, 2005

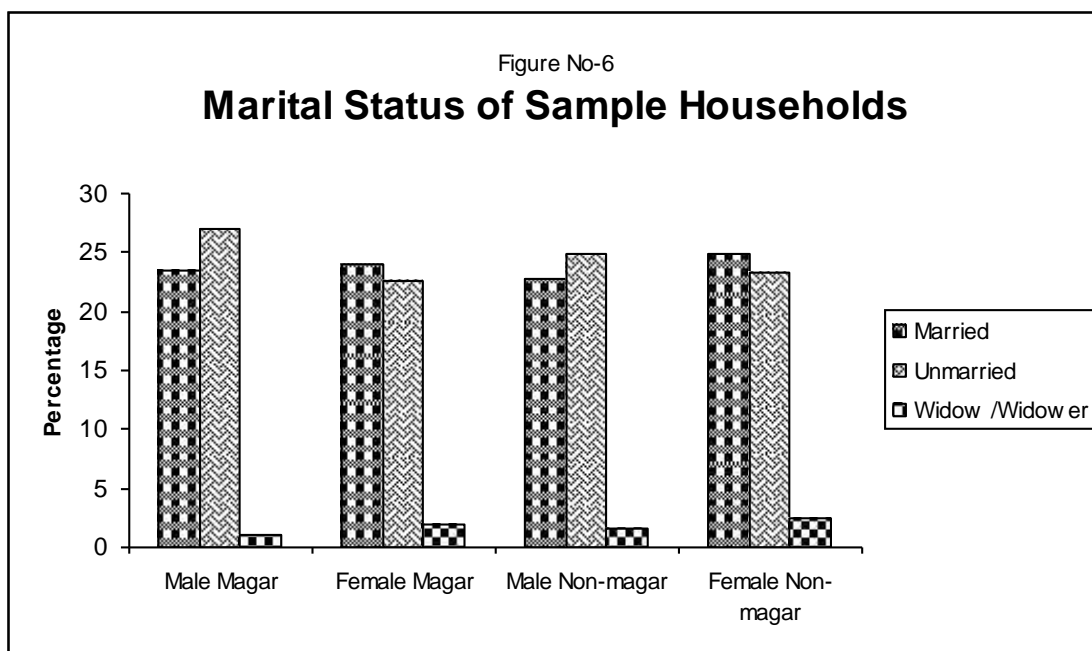


Figure 6 has indicated that 47.6 percent married, 48.9 percent unmarried and 3.5 percent widow/widower. In comparison to male and female, 23.2 percent of male and 24.4 percent female are married. The married percentage of female is high than male. Similarly, unmarried male comprised 25.9 and female 22.9 percent. It shows that male marriage relatively less than female because most of the males are going to the foreign country and they understand and they see the different troubles of other people and they realized that early marriage is not good, so they get married late. Widow male is comprised of 1.3 percent where as the widower is 2.2 percent.

The married and unmarried percent between Magar and Non-Magar is relatively similar. But the widow and widower percentage between two groups are differences. Magar widower/widow is 2.9 and Non-Magar is 4.1 percent.

5.4 Education Attainment

Education is one of the most important variables which help to know the level of consciousness of population. It determines every aspect of social life. Education is not only essential elements for economic development and social reform but also to operate the daily activities. In fact education develops the personality of a person. It is needed for labour migrant to get good job and attractive salary in the foreign countries but due to the lower and unskilled education, most of the Nepalese are working lower level work in the abroad (Seddon 2005). The education status of this study is shown following table which helps to generalize what type of society existed in study area.

Table - 7: Educational Attainment of the People in Sample Households by Six years age and above

Types	Magar			Non-Magar			Total		Grand Total
	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	
Literacy Status									
Illiterate	8	22	30	7	19	26	15	41	56
Literate	89	63	152	88	74	162	177	137	314
Total	97	85	182	95	93	188	192	178	370
Educational Attainment									
Not Schooling	8	7	15	12	18	30	20	25	45
Primary Level	42	35	77	41	29	70	83	64	147
Lower Sec.Level	32	15	47	18	15	33	50	30	80
Secondary Level	7	2	9	12	7	19	19	9	28
I.A. or Above	0	4	4	5	5	10	5	9	14
Total	89	63	152	88	74	162	177	137	314

Source: Field Survey, 2005

Note: N= Total Numbers

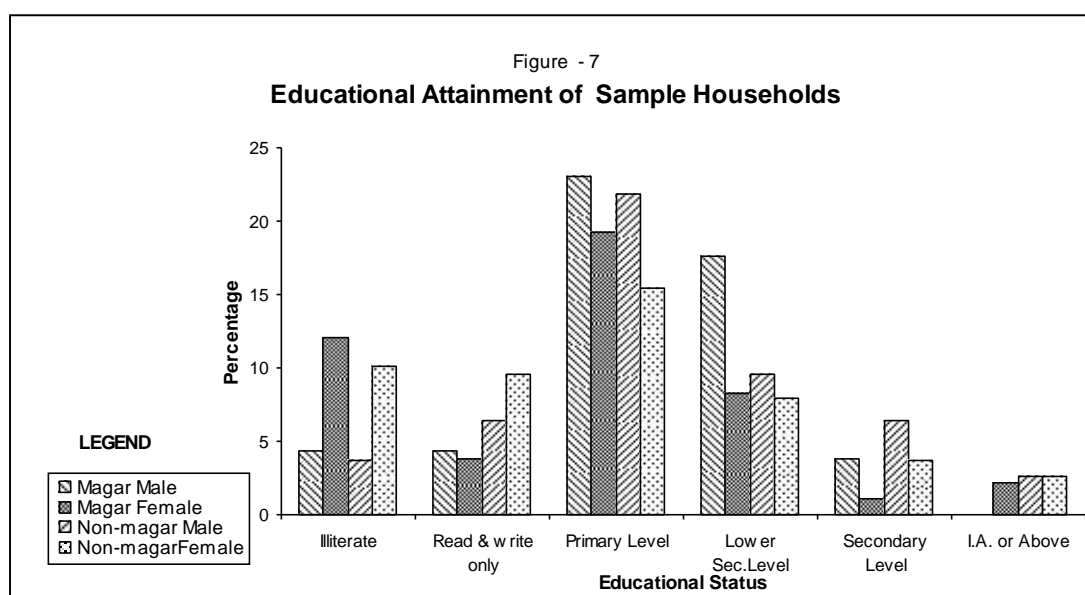


Figure 7 shows that only 15.1 percent populations are illiterate whereas other remaining percentages are literate. Comparison between Magar and Non-Magar's education, illiterate percentage is more in Magars than Non-Magars. There are getting more proportion in primary level in both groups i.e. 42.3 percent and 37.2 percent respectively. Magar proportion has more in Lower Secondary level but to in higher education and above, Non-Magar's proportion are high than Magars. Here, interesting thing is that, in Magars only females are studying in I.A. or above. It is caused by the general tendency is to go to join the army after finished their lower secondary and secondary level in male Magars in this area.

In general, higher population (39.7%) has got primary education but higher educated populations are very few (3.7%). It seems that there are reverse-

increasing the level of education, decreasing the proportion. It is caused by poverty, drop out system and the tendency of going abroad.

5.7 Family size

From the family study of family size, we can analyze social structure, norms and value of the particular areas. Due to the modernization and urbanization traditional family structure is change. It means the effects of nuclear family are increasing instead of joint family. Following table shows the family size pattern of the study households:

Table - 8: Family Size of the Sample Households

Family Size	Magar		Non-Magar		Total	
	Households	%	Households	%	Households	%
< =3	3.0	9.1	4.0	12.1	7.0	10.6
4 – 6	15.0	45.4	17.0	51.5	32.0	48.5
7 – 8	9.0	27.3	8.0	24.3	17.0	25.8
9 =>	6.0	18.2	4.0	12.1	10.0	15.1
Total	33.0	100.0	33.0	100.0	66.0	100.0

Source : Field Survey, 2005

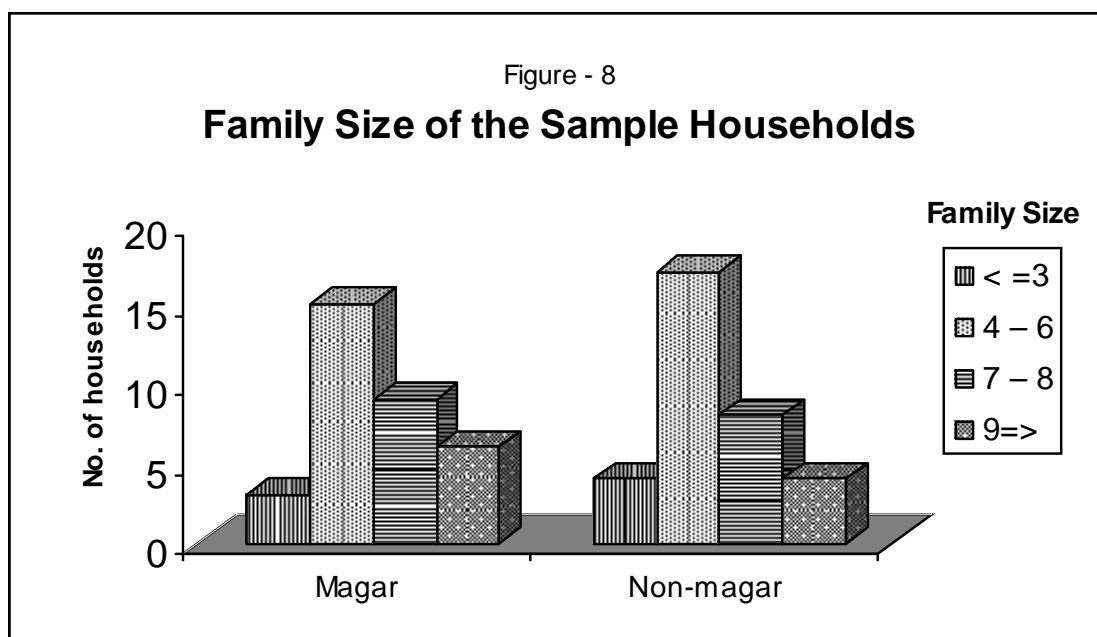


Figure - 8 shows that the highest proportions (48.5%) of the households have 4-6 family members in total. More than 9 members of the households are only 15.2 percent, whereas only 10.6 percent households have less than 3 members.

In the comparison between Magars and Non-Magars communities, highest households 45.6% and 51.5 percent have 4-6 family members in Magars and Non-Magars respectively. Magar community has greater in more than 9 family members than Non-Magars. It seems that most of the households have single/nuclear family but the existence of joint family are till now in this study area.

5.6 Landholding Pattern

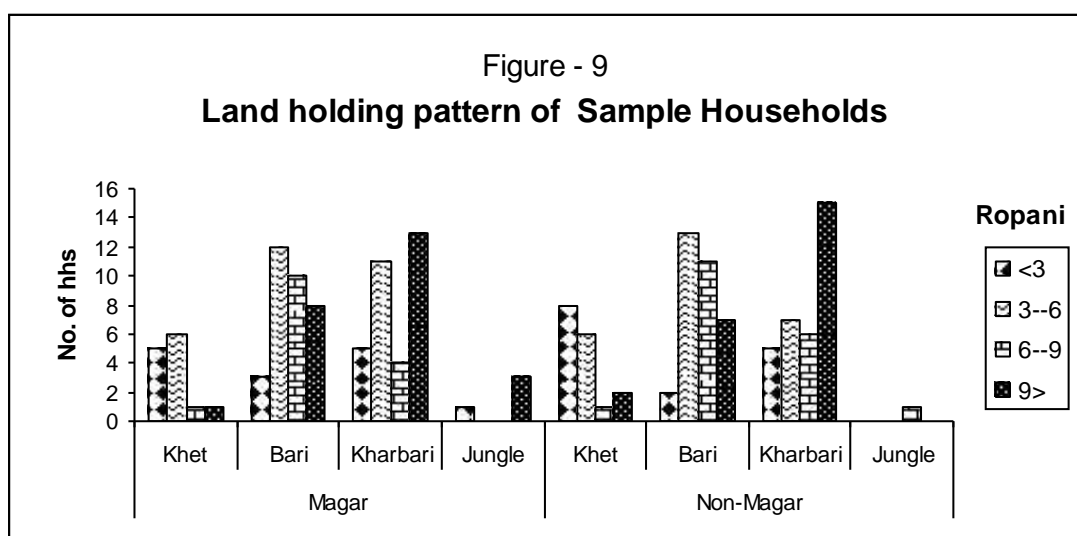
Landholding pattern is not same in Nepal; it is very small for majority of the population. According to living standard survey (1996/97), forty percent of all households have less than 0.5 ha land. Landholdings are rather smaller in western hills and mountains (49 percent are smaller than 0.5 ha) (Graner and Karmacharya 2001). These facts suggest that majority of the farmers have less access to land asset and they have increasing difficulties to secure their livelihoods.

Gwaid VDC is itself hilly region. So, most of the places are covered by sloppy area which are not productive. Here, land holding pattern shows that the land holding size of each household of Magar and Non-Magar communities. This is shown in following table.

Table - 9 : Land Holding Pattern of Sample Households

Area in Ropani	Magar's Households				Non-Magar's Households			
	Irrigated Land	Unirrigated Land	Grass Land	Forest	Irrigated Land	Unirrigated Land	Grass Land	Forest
<3	5	3	5	1	8	2	5	0
3-6	6	12	11	0	6	13	7	0
6-9	1	10	4	0	1	11	6	1
9>	1	8	13	3	2	7	15	0
G-total	43	221	281	53	42	210	244	7

Source: Field Survey, 2005



The total households (66) have 46.9 percent agriculture land and 53.1 percent kharbari and jungle. The highest numbers of the households (6, 12, 11 in magars and 6, 13, 7 in non-magars) have 3-6 ropani land: khet, bari and kharbari in both groups, 1 and 8 households in Magars and 2 and 7 households in Non-magars have more than 9 ropani khet and bari

In general, there are only few irrigated and cultivated land with both magars and non-magars as compare unproduced land in this area. In terms of agricultural land bari has highest (221 and 210 ropani) with Magar and Non-

magars respectively. But khet are almost same proportion in both groups. It seems that agriculture land of this area is very low and unproductive land.

5.7 Subsistence Farming and Food Security

Agriculture is the keystone as well as the backbone of the entire economic structure of Nepal. It is the prime source of food for man and of raw materials for industry. The role it plays on the economic system of the country is undoubtedly tremendous. To be more specific, agriculture in Nepal provides livelihood to 81 percent of the total working population and contributes 39 percent of the total GDP. This reflects that in the present context of Nepalese economy, no other economic sector deserves as much attention as agriculture does (Shrestha 2004). It seems that most of the rural people primarily depend on agriculture but agricultural production is mostly for self-consumption in the rural areas of Nepal. It is not only the economic occupation but also a way of life for them (Bhatta 2001).

Landholdings are very small for majority of the population in this area which is mentioned in above chapter (table 8). All the study households are subsistence farmers. They are cultivating some land and keeping some livestock. The food production is very low in this area. Although the main food production of Nepal is paddy but being hilly region maize is the main food crop in this area. Besides that wheat, paddy, millet and barley are the other main food crops and mustard (oilseed) is the main cash crops of this area. Generally two seasonal crops are produced in one year. Because of the hilly region, unproductive land, lacks of irrigation, agriculture production are not sufficient to sustain whole year which are shown in following table.

Table – 10: Agriculture Production in Sample Magar Community

Production in Muri	Households							
	Maize	Paddy	Wheat	Oilseed	Millet	Barley	Phapar	Lentil
<1	-	-	5	12	8	5	6	9
1-4	1	4	14	8	7	5	4	2
4-8	10	8	2	1	-	-	-	-
8-12	13	1	-	-	-	-	-	-
12>	9	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
G-Total (muri)	357	38	62	23.95	10.9	9.35	9.3	8.45

Source: Field Survey, 2005

Table – 11: Agriculture Production in Sample Non-Magar Community

Production In Muri	Households							
	Maize	Paddy	Wheat	Oilseed	Millet	Barley	Phapar	Lentil
< 1	-	-	6	9	8	2	4	23
1 – 4	-	5	19	20	3	2	3	3
4 – 8	16	4	5	-	-	1	-	-
8 -12	6	3	-	-	-	-	-	-
12>	11	2	-	-	-	-	-	-
T-Total (muri)	303	54.85	88	35.45	6.95	8.15	7.4	5.75

Source: Field Survey, 2005

Note: 1 muri = 20 pathi, 27 pathis = 1 quintal
 1 muri = 74 kgs. 27 pathis = 100 kgs.

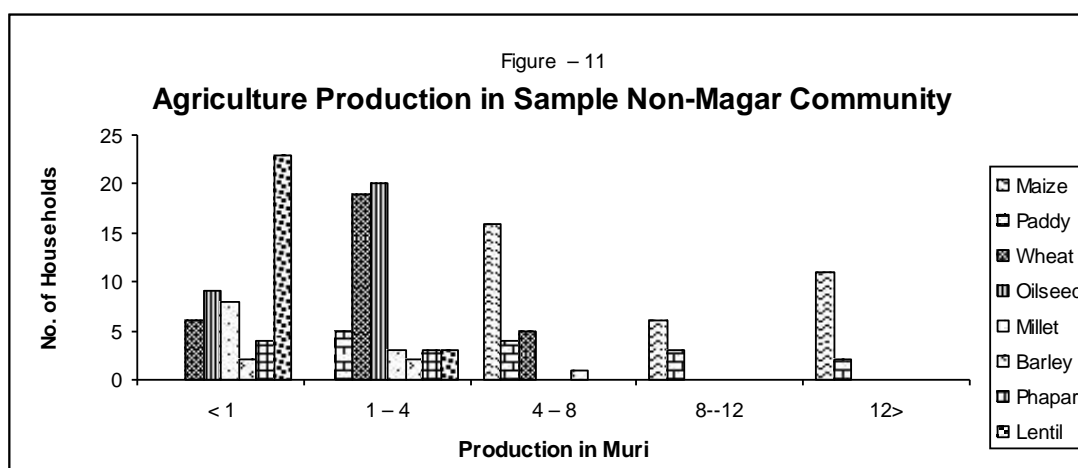
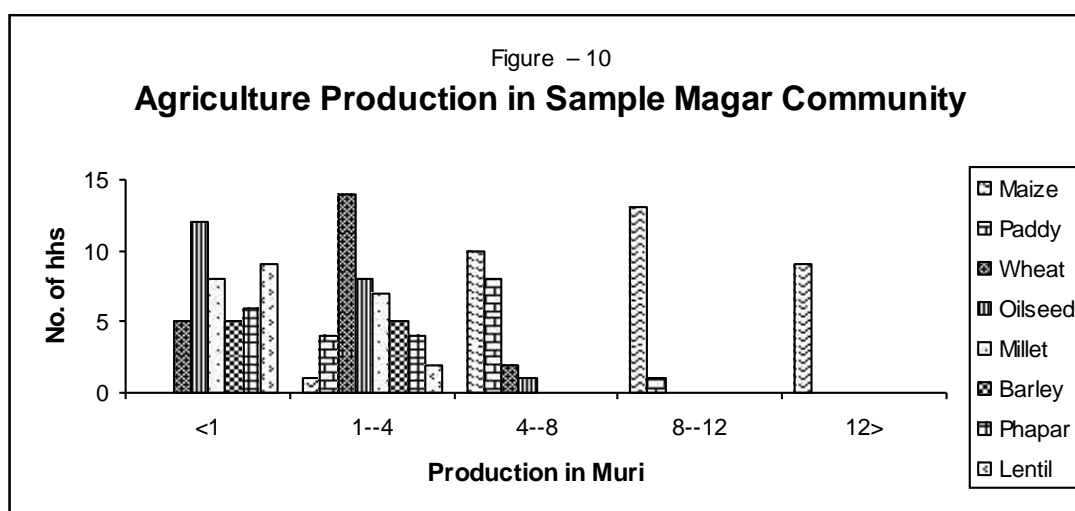


Figure 10 and 11 show that the amount of agriculture production by Magar and Non-Magars. The main food crop is maize in this area. Its production is more than 12 muri by 9 households in Magars and 11 households in Non-Magars. Like wise 8-12 muri maize is produced by 13 Magar households and 6 Non-Magar households. Likewise 4 - 8 muri maize produced by 10 Magar households and 16 Non-Magar households. Wheat production are less than 4

muri in both groups and other crops mustard (oilseed), barley, and lentils are low in production in this area.

In total, 357 and 305 muri maize in produced by Magar and Non-Magars respectively. Like wise 38 & 54.9 muri paddy, 62 & 88 muri wheat, 23.9 & 35.6 muri mustard (oilseed) are produced by Magar and Non-Magars respectively. Where Non-Magars have produced more than Magars except maize. Above tables show that the food production is very low in this area and the Majority of the farmers in the village have no food security in the whole year which is shown below.

Table – 12 : Food Sufficiency (in relation to agricultural production) of the Sample households

Duration (Months)	Magar		Non-Magar		Total	
	Households	%	Households	%	Households	%
< 3	13	39.4	10	30	23	34.9
3 – 6	8	24.2	6	18	14	21.2
6 – 9	10	30.3	12	36	22	33.3
9 >	2	6.1	5	15	7	10.6
Total	33	100.0	33	100	66	100.0

Source: Field Survey, 2005

The subsistence nature of agriculture is slowly eroding. It is no longer possible to feed the entire households for more than six month in a year. The field data shows that 34.8 percent households have a food sufficiency for less than three months. 21.2 percent households have 3-6 months, 33.3 percent households have 6-9 month and 10.6 percent households have sufficient food for more than nine months from their own production.

To compare the food sufficiency between Magar and Non-Magar households, there are more food sufficient in Non-Magar households than Magars. 39.4 & 30.3 percent households have a food sufficiency for less than 3 months in Magars and Non-Magars respectively. Likewise 6.1 percent and 15.2 percent households have food sufficiency for more than nine months. The agriculture land and food production are more in Magar households but food sufficiency is low than Non-Magars. It is caused-according to the respondent- in Magar communities they use to more food in domestic consumption- to make alcoholic beverage for daily use or for the festivals and ceremonial occasion. Though, in Non-Magars - kunwar and dalit also use to make this thing but they are very few.

5.8 Diversification of Household Income

Agriculture is a main base of livelihood for 86 percent people in Nepal. Most of the people are engaged in this sector. During the 1990s, Agriculture wage laborers accounted for 10.6 percent, while 9.4 percent are engaged in non-agricultural wage labour. Agricultural sector itself accounted for 60 percent of total household income where, own farm production contributed 47 percent and

agricultural wages (off-farm income) contributed 14 percent and 8 percent household income came from non-farm employment (CBS 1997). In recent years, involving trend in non-farm employment is increasing to urban areas and foreign countries. It seems that besides agriculture product, small business, agriculture and non-agriculture wage labour play the important role in the households' income. So, household economy implies the diverse sources of income. The field data also support the above-mentioned statements. Among the sample population, official jobs (within Nepal), small business, wage labour within the village, agricultural product, livestock and remittances from India are the major sources of household income.

Table - 13: Diversification of the Sample Household Income, (in yearly)

Sources	Magar		Non-Magar		Total	
	Rupees	Percent	Rupees	Percent	Rupees	Percent
Agriculture	10000 (3)	0.6	45000 (11)	2.4	55000 (14)	1.6
Labour	74000 (11)	4.7	64500 (9)	3.4	138500 (20)	4.0
Remittance	1055000 (33)	67.4	1553700 (33)	83.0	2608700 (66)	75.9
Pension	393000 (9)	25.1	200000 (5)	10.7	593000 (14)	17.3
Business	13500 (4)	0.9	0 (0)	0.00	13500 (4)	0.4
Others	21000 (6)	1.3	8700 (3)	0.5	29700 (9)	0.9
Total	1566500 (33)	100.0	1871900 (33)	100.0	3438400 (66)	100.0

Sources: Field Survey, 2005

Note: Others = selling livestock, poultry, diary product, grass and wood

() = involved household

Table 13 shows that the household economy in the village comprises the diverse sources of income. The village economy not only relies on agriculture, but it is highly supported by remittances. The yearly total income of the studied households is 34,38,400 rupees and the average household income is 52,096 rupees by yearly. Out of the total yearly income of the study households, 93.2 percent are covered by remittance (foreign job and pension), where as other sectors have low contribution. Agriculture provides cash income for 0.6 percent. The income from agriculture is included only selling product of the household's not self production and consumption within the households. Besides that agriculture product, small business, selling livestock, poultry, ghee and wood are the other income sources.

Comparing the Magar and Non-Magars, Non-Magars have the higher income than Magars. The contribution of remittances is more than 90 percent in both groups. The income from the agriculture is relatively high in Non-Magars but the income from other sources is high in Magars. Only few households have involved in these activities. These observations suggest that labour migration

has become a main means of earning for people's survival (livelihoods) in this area.

5.9 Livestock

Animal husbandry is an essential and integral part of subsistence farming. Farmers keep livestock for different purposes, e.g. Manure, milk, meat, wool and ploughing. Sometimes they get cash income by selling their livestock and its products in the village. Most of the households were kept at least one livestock in the village. According to VDC record (2060) the total numbers of different livestock are 4522 and the average livestock sizes are 7.5. Here I have shown the number of livestock of the study households in the following table.

Table - 14 : Size of Livestocks in Sample Households

Animal Size	Magar Households						Non-Magar Households					
	Cow	Buffalow	Ox	Goat	Poultry	Pig	Cow	Buffalow	Ox	Goat	Poultry	Pig
< =2	15	21	8	8	1	4	8	23	16	15	3	1
3 – 4	3	8	3	15	6	-	-	10	-	9	4	-
5 – 6	-	2	-	4	7	-	-	-	-	4	2	-
7 = >	-	-	-	3	7	-	-	-	-	1	5	1
GTtotal	32	70	24	119	186	4	12	81	33	84	81	12

Source: Field Survey, 2005

Table 14 shows that the comparison the keeping livestock between Magars and Non-Magars communities. Here all of the households are kept at least two or more than two livestock. Talking about the grand total of the livestock Magars has kept higher number of livestock than Non-Magars, where 186 chickens, 119 goats, 70 buffalows, 32 cows and 24 oxen are kept in Magars but in Non-Magar 84 goats, 81 buffalows, 81 chickens, 33 oxen, 12 cows and 12 pigs are kept. Most of the households are kept less than two major livestock. Greater than seven goats and chickens are kept only few numbers of households. These animals are being the alternative earning income sources. People sell their goats, chickens, pigs, oxen and buffalows.

In summary, there are living different caste and ethnic groups in the study area. The average household size of sampled population is 6.1, which is higher than the national size. Active populations are higher than other child and old populatin. About 90 percent populations are literate. small land holding size (table: 8), low production (table: 10 and 11) and the higher food insecurity in the village show that physical and natural settings have contributed to the food insecurity. These observations show the strong relation between total agricultural production and level of food sufficiency among the sample households. These facts support a general finding that subsistence farming does no longer guarantee livelihood security for rural households. It requires additional income to satisfy daily needs. So, the household economy implies

the diverse sources of income. People engaged in different sectors, such as agriculture, wage labour within the village, labour migration in different countries, small business and other income generating works. Among them, labour migration contributes significant role in households income in this area.

CHAPTER – SIX
LABOUR MIGRANTS AND THEIR PERCEPTION TOWARDS
LABOUR MIGRATION

6.1 Labour migrants' Population and Educational Status by Age and Sex

Labour migration is usually characterized by energetic, healthy and capable youths who can take risk as well as face difficulties. As a result males are predominant in labour migrant and interesting thing is that even a single woman could not be found as a labour migrant in this area. Regarding the labour migrants about Magar and Non-Magars communities, 37 people migrated from the sample households of Magars whereas 52 people migrated from the sample households of Non-Magars.

Table -15: Educational Status of Labour migrants by their age group

Age Group	Magars					Non-Magars					Grand Total
	Illit.erate	Read & write only	Primary	Secondary	I.A. / Above	Illit.erate	Read & write only	Primary	Secondary	I.A./ Above	
15-29	-	-	4 (10.8)	10 (27.1)	-	2 (3.8)	-	6 (11.5)	11 (21.2)	3 (5.8)	36 (40.4)
30-44	-	-	8 (21.6)	4 (10.8)	-	-	3 (5.8)	8 (15.4)	7 (13.5)	1 (1.9)	31 (34.9)
45-60	1 (2.7)	4 (10.8)	5 (13.5)	1 (2.7)	-	-	2 (3.8)	6 (11.5)	3 (5.8)	-	22 (24.7)
Total	1 (2.7)	4 (10.8)	17 (45.9)	15 (40.6)	-	2 (3.8)	5 (9.6)	20 (38.4)	21 (40.5)	4 (7.7)	89 (100)

Source: Field Survey, 2005

Note: () percentage

Table 15 shows that the age group of 15 - 29 has the higher proportion (40.4%) of migrants in both communities. Then, the 30 - 44 age group has second higher proportion (34.8%). Likewise, the 45 - 60 age group has the lowest proportion of labour migrants having 24.7%. It shows that most of the young and adult people are migrated for their better livelihoods. According to the Hindu philosophy this stage is known as "*grihashthashram*" which means the householder, the genuine social being in the material world. Of all stages, *grihashthashram* has its special position because in at this stage the individual has an opportunity to serve the whole society materially, to fulfil his ancestral obligations, and to help those on other ashrams (Subedi 1993). Younger people can give more time for work as compared to elderly people. These observations support the general findings that migration is an age and sex selective phenomenon.

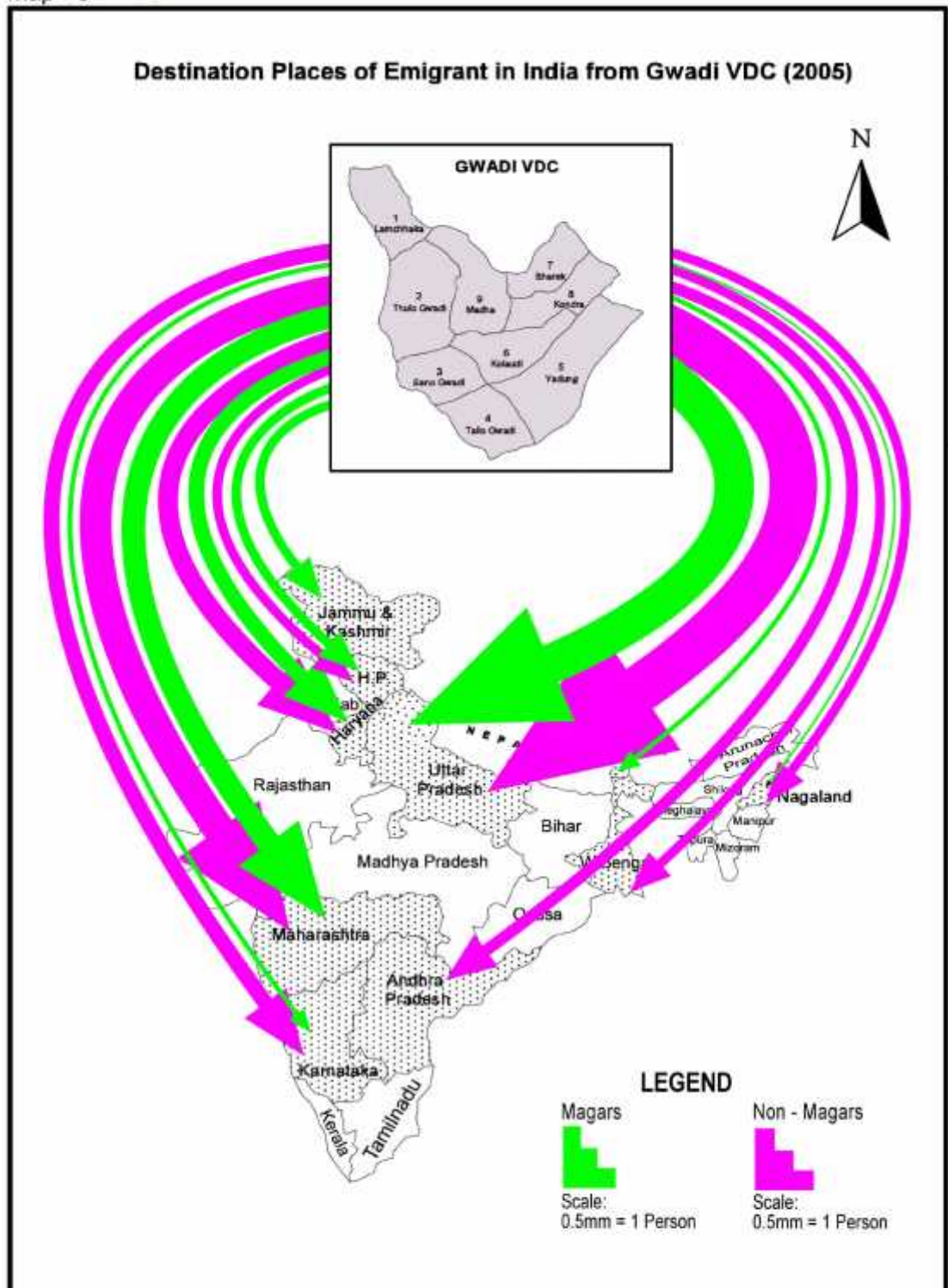
Regarding the education status, it directly or indirectly influences in migratory behaviour. Education gives the people creative thinking and skills. The general tendency also shows that most of the educated persons are migrated. This fact is applied in this area but most of the labour migrants have got low level of education. Table- 15 shows that most of the labour migrants are literate in both Magar and Non-Magars communities. Only 2.7 percent in Magar's and 3.85 percent in Non-Magar's are illiterate. The highest proportion (45.9%) labour

migrants have primary education in Magars, where as 40.5 percent labour migrants have secondary education in Non-Magars. Then it becomes reverse in proportion of primary and secondary education of labour migrants between Magar and Non-Magars. There are not higher educated person in Magar but 7.7 percent labour migrants are higher educated in Non-Magars. It also shows that the percent of secondary educational status is much higher in 15-29 age groups. It suggests that new generation is also equally involving in the labour migration after their high school education or there are high chances to drop out in secondary level.

6.2 Destinations and Employment Access

People are migrating to various part of India for searching better livelihood strategies. Some are working near from the native place and some have gone to far place of India. I have met a labour migrant on my field survey who are working at Banglore and I asked a question – why have you gone so far to work? At that time he replied that – *“at first I had gone to Bombay with my father and I worked there in a hotel. Two years later, my boss had send me to Banglore on his another hotel. Definitely it is far from Nepal. It is not my interest but compulsion”*. Like that some people have gone far places of India. According to the respondent, most of the labour migrants have gone to Utter Pradesh and Maharastra. Then Hariyana, Himachal, Karnatak, Andhra Pradesh, Nagaland, West Bangal, and Sikkhim comes respectively. Which are shown in the following Map - 5.

Map - 6



Prepared by: Nim Bahadur Thapa, 2006

Source : Field Survey, 2005

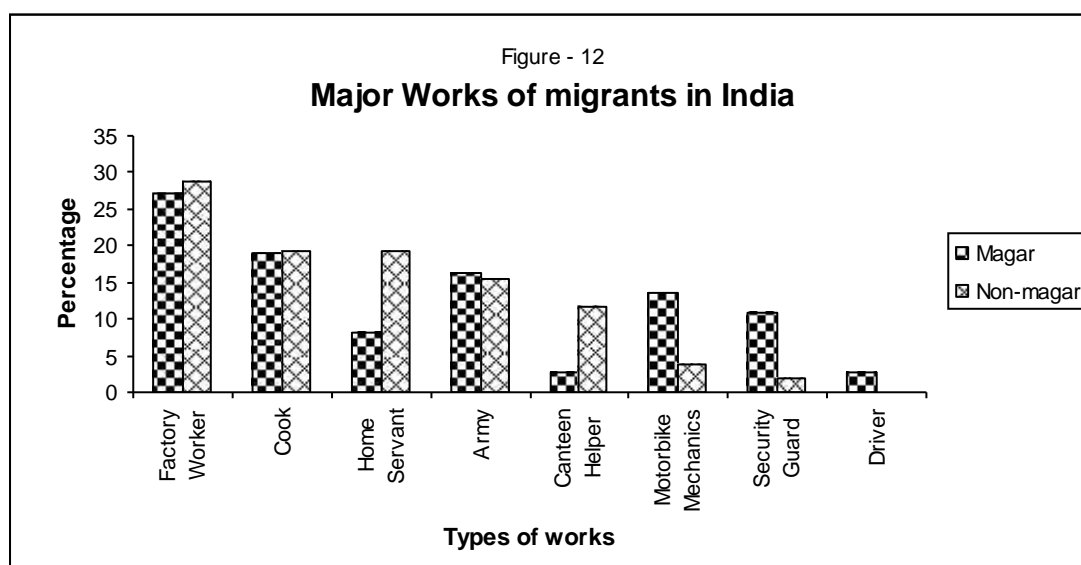
People are migrating with their relatives and friends who have already been working in the destination places. According to respondent, finding a job is not difficult, after staying 15 days to one month. They can get job with the help of their relatives or friends. Most of the labour migrants' works are unskilled and low types of work due to the unskilled and low education. A labour migrant Man Bahadur said that –“Now a day the employers don't believe Nepali people due to the Nepal's political situation. They give employment but at the initial times they take-care our activities very carefully to remove their doubt ness”. According to another labour migrant, the money is obtained from the relatives or friends to meet the expenses during the unemployment period.

It is the fact that Nepalese migrants are known by the name of 'Bahadur' or 'Kanchha' in India. They are also perceived as intelligent workers. Therefore, they have an easy and early access to employments. Nepali migrants are preferred to Indians in private houses, factories, hotels, and in unskilled construction work. Since they are simply literate or illiterate, they do not get involved in any types of technical jobs on the initial time. Later, when they get experience on their jobs then they can get skilled work and good salary.

Table -16: Major Works of migrants in India

Work Area	Magar		Non-Magar		Total	
	Population	Percent	Population	Percent	Population	Percent
Factory Worker	10	27.0	15	28.9	25	28.1
Cook	7	18.9	10	19.2	17	19.1
Home Servant	6	16.2	8	15.4	14	15.7
Army	5	13.5	2	3.9	7	7.9
Canteen Helper	3	8.1	10	19.2	13	14.6
Motorbike Mechanics	1	2.7	0	0.0	1	1.1
Security Guard	4	10.8	1	1.9	5	5.6
Driver	1	2.7	6	11.5	7	7.9
Total	37	100.0	52	100.0	89	100.0

Source: Field Survey, 2005



The figure 12 shows that majority of the migrants (28.1%) work as factory workers, then it is followed by cook and home servant in second and third position and lowest proportion (1.1%) involve as a Motorbike mechanics. Comparing about Magar and Non-Magar, 27.0 percent Magars and 28.8 percent Non-Magars are involved in factory workers respectively. Then cooks and helpers are relatively higher in Non-Magars than Magars, but security guards and army men are higher in Magars than Non-Magars.

The migrants who involved in households servant constitute 15.7 percent of the total migrants. Where as 16.2 percent are Magars and 15.4 percents are Non-Magars. The percentage for mechanics security guard, army and driver are very limited (small).

6.3 Perception towards Labour Migration

Most of the people have been compelled to move to the other countries for searching their better livelihood strategies in developing countries. Nepalese also have been bothered by the same problem. Because of the main problems like as hilly region, unfertile soil, increasing unemployment and maoist insurgency, they have been compelled for the safety of their family. To understand their attitudes towards labour migration I have gathered information from focus group discussion and taking interview with 11 labour migrants-who have on home-leave at that time. Most of the labour migrants expressed that they had been to the other countries with their friends because they were unable for reading. A local migrant worker Nirmal of 18 years old expressed the reasons for going to the foreign countries in this way-

"Those friends of mine, who had been to the foreign countries, impressed me by their changing behaviour and gesture. So, I also became ready for moving to this unknown place. Then, I left my study and I escaped with my friends to Delhi."

It seems that, from this area knowingly or unknowingly, most of the younger people have gone to the foreign countries by the impression of their friends. But who are married and who have to complete the responsibility for their family, express that they had been to there by their compulsion. In the same context, 30 years old Birkha Bahadur says,

"When I was at home, I used to go to do wage labour work in the village but it was uncertain and irregular. I earned some money but it was not enough for me for solving my basic problems. That's why I have gone to India."

Among the migrants, who are army and permanent job holders have earned enough money. Older generation have got more chance for this types of work but in new generation, because of the lack of proper skill, education and experience they are compelled to do lower level of work in private sector. As a result, there is too much difference in earning level also.

Social linkage has played an important role in labour migration in this area. At first, when a person goes with his friends or relatives as result he would not have to face the problems of accommodation and they would help him for

looking for a job. But not being involved in any social organization, they have felt uneasy when they have to face the obstacles.

In their attitude towards the labour migration, it is the significant necessity for the sustainable livelihood of their family. The labour migrants questioned themselves that *if they were not allowed to go to India what it would be?* It's impossible to imagine. In our village most of the people are depended on the Indian employment. By the same reason, people are being aware a little bit about their health and sanitation. They have been introduced with the modern world also. On the other hand, the youths have learned different types of skill by going there. Like that a dalit Indian army man says,

"I joined in Indian army when I was at grade four. It was very easy to be recruited at that time. It has been the main source of income for the family right now. If I was in Nepal, how would I get this much salary?"

But, it is a little bit difference according to the youths. A young man named Raju of 18 years old says, *"we work there (India) in our working period, besides that at the leisure time we also meet our friends and relatives. Sometimes we go to watch cinema"*. According to the above sayings show that the old generation and the married people have to take the responsibilities and duties for their family, but the new generation especially unmarried do not have comparatively. They prefer to be adopted in the modern world. They wanted to imitate the other's behaviour.

The attitude of the gentle men of village towards labour migration seem positive. There is too much difference between the migrants and local people. The migrants are more forward than the local people. The proverb *Gharakile gharai garnu, mardale chahardai garnu* is totally applied in this context. Perhaps, non migrants can be found rarely in this VDC. A local gentle man Top Bahadur of 64 years old says,

"It is better to go to the abroad than stay at home for the youths. If they stay at home, they bother to their parents and they might be walked in wrong way. But instead of they may know about the value of money and they may get an experience of being labour in the foreign countries. It helps them to be pragmatic."

Like that Suntali Devi(48 years) on old woman says that it would be better if her sons were at home but in order to accomplish the basic needs, there is no option except being a labour migrant. Formal local teacher named Lil Bahadur Malla(68 years) says,

"Due to the labour migration, this area has been enlightened. 50/60 years ago, there was no school, so they were gradually changed a little bit by the same army men who had come to their houses on holidays by gathering them altogether. Later on by the help of them, we were able to establish a school. As a result the local people also got a chance to be educated. It is the significant contribution of the labour migration".

In conclusion, labour migration has been main medium for the sustainable livelihood in this area. So, at last we can say that there are more positive aspects of laobur migration than negatives. That's why, the flow of emigration is increasing day by day.

6.4 Causes of Emigration

'Migration process is voluntary', but it does not totally apply in labour migration. This may be involuntary due to different causes. Causes are involved in both origin and destination places. Why and how people are migrating? What types of variables force to migrate? These all types of answers can be given only one sentence that is positive and negative factors of destination and origin places. Besides that, labour migration is being due to the social and economic compulsion, self-motivation and individual decision. People have migrated foreign countries for employment temporarily and permanently, that is for short or long duration.

Personal network and linkages are another factor which makes to easy access to go to the foreign countries and to get employment in the destination. The number of Nepalese migrant workers seeking jobs in India has been growing for four main reasons. Firstly, Population has been growing in rapidly, thousands of people entered new job seekers annually but employment opportunity is decline in Nepal. Secondly, the agricultural sector providing employment to bulk of the population has not been able to grow and expand fast enough to absorb growing manpower. Thirdly, good employment opportunities, free boarder and low investment encourage people. And lastly, political reasons has played vital role to compel the people to migrate from their place of origin.

In the case of Gwadi VDC, poverty is the main cause of the labour migration but that is broad sense. So, I have divided in general a category, which has been traced out during the field survey. They are: (i) Factors associated with origin and (ii) Factors associated with destination based on Lee (1966).

6.4.1 Factors Associated with Origin

This topic deals about the push factors of origin places, which more or less compel people to leave the origin place. It may be geographical, socio-economic and political. According to the data and information obtained from the field survey, the main reasons of labour migration are: unemployment, low agricultural production, indebted ness, family pressure and current political situation.

Unemployment is the major reasons of emigration in this area. There are neither any industries nor secure investment area due to the remoteness area. So, there is no chance of job even in the agricultural sectors. People get seasonal jobs during the agricultural period but that is not sufficient to maintain the whole family. Like wise the most of the emigrated households in this area don't have sufficient agricultural land to fulfill their food demand. Most of the households cannot fulfill more than six

months for their own production. Food production is very low due to the unproductive & small land, lack of irrigation facilities, non-availability of high yielding seeds and traditional cultivation system in this area. Due to the shortage of the sufficient food, people should buy their foods as well as other requirements things which are not available in the village for that increased amount of cash is needed but income sources are very limited in the village and they barrow money from many lenders to fulfill their needs. This debt continues to be increased and people are compelled to emigrate in India for searching good sources of cash income. These are the socio-economic conditions of the villagers which make the people going to abroad. In general, these causes are called 'Poverty' by villagers. According to the field survey, some respondents have gone to the foreign countries by their family pressure that when they don't work in the house, left his education and involved bad activities and parents who have seen the good income of their sons' fellows in the neighbours from foreign employment compelled their family members to go foreign county. Now a day, due to the Maoist insurgency people are going to the foreign country to work and to be secure. Generally, the youths of rural area have been exposed as the target of the Maoist insurgents and government security forces. Since the incidents of violence and massacre started in the country, the proportion of foreign migrants has been increasing rapidly day by day. The study area has been badly affected by these activities. So, parents also forced to send their child to the foreign countries to save the Maoist involvement.

6.4.2 Factors Associated with Destination

Factors associated with destination refer to 'pull factors' of destination places, it is also responsible for emigration of people, which attract and encourage the people to migrate in these places. When people get different facilities e.g. employment opportunities, good security, and good infrastructure, they migrate. This case is applied in this study area due to the employment access and good facilities, people are attractive in India. Most of the labour migrants are working in the city area in India, like Delhi, Bombay, and Gujarat. Easy entry and easy availability of unskilled works are the main reason for choosing India as a destination for emigration. It can be said that whether they are skilled or not, any kind of works are easily available for them in India. In this way most of unskilled villagers are pulled. They go to there with their friends and relatives. According to the field survey, probability of getting foreign employment in India by friends and relatives is high and there is not any risk and possibilities of low investment. They provide any kind of linkage in obtaining shelter, food and other necessary things during unemployment periods in India. Demonstration effect is inspiring mostly the youngsters of village for foreign employment. They see the labour migrants healthy, smart and rich and listen about foreign environment and there facilities, this encourages to go to the foreign countries to younger.

In general, easy access to get job, good salary, presence of relatives and secure places of India are the pulling factors to the villagers

6.5 Means of Family Contacts

When a man goes as far away from his family and village his love towards his Family or village becomes as deeper. Moreover, where he has to do hard work by going in unknown places, he is bothered by home-sickness. For solving this problem, there are some mediums of communication i.e. telephone, e-mail & internet, fax, letter etc. In the comparison of other countries people may have a great chance to contact with their family members in India time to time directly. Especially, most of the people who have been in other countries for living write the letters for sending and receiving information, though it is not believable and reliable. It may be loose or being late. Because of the lack of other mediums of communication, they are compelled to use this same medium only. By using this medium, they can get information with each other only one time within 2/3 months. Only a few people contact by telephone. There is only one telephone in this VDC, but that is not reliable. People are unable to use this same telephone because of the technical and security problems. So, they have to walk for one and half hours to phone in the nearest market. Only a few people use this medium because of its expensiveness. But it has been so easy medium for transferring emergency news. Besides these mediums, people exchange the news by the friends and relatives- who come to their houses on holidays and return back. In this way, the medium of direct contact has been telephone. But being an expensive, most of the people have made a medium to the letter.

In summarize, most of the young people have been followed to the labour migration in this VDC. According to the data and information obtained from the field survey, the main reasons of labour migration are: unemployment, low agricultural production, indebted ness, family pressure and current political situation in the place of origin and employment opportunities, good security, and good infrastructure in the place of destination. The age group of 15 - 29 has the higher proportion (40.4%) of migrants in both communities. Then, the 30 - 44 age group has second higher proportion (34.8%). Likewise, the 45 - 60 age group has the lowest proportion of labour migrants having 24.7%. It shows that most of the young and adult people are migrated for their better livelihoods. They have reached different part of the India and involve in different jobs such as factory worker, hotel, home servant, security guard and army. Due to the lower education and unskilled, most of the emigrants have worked there in lower level of work only few people work in skilled work. In conclusion, labour migration has been main medium for the sustainable livelihood in this area. People take it as a traditional culture but that their obligation for their sustainable livelihood. So, at last we can say that there are more positive aspects of laobur migration than negatives. That's why; the flow of emigration is increasing day by day.

CHAPTER –SEVEN

LABOUR MIGRATION AND LIVELIHOOD

Labour migration plays the vital role on livelihood of the rural people in Nepal. Even though most of the rural households depend on agricultural an activity, that is not sufficient even for survival whole family. It is true that for many off-farm and non-farm income is critical in determining the overall livelihood strategies of the households. It is not new trend, people started to migrate in India for nearly two centuries ago and have sent/brought money back home to supplement their farm income and contribute to the livelihood of family (Subedi 2003). In this chapter describe about remittances, labour migration and its' impact on the people's livelihood.

7.1 Remittances and its use

Nepal is a benefited of remittance from emigration; remittances enter worth \$ 755 million per annum from the formal ways and in the same amount of remittance enter by the informal channels in Nepal (Saptahik, Magh 7, 2062). Approximately, more than six hundreds thousand Nepalese from abroad (except India) send nearly 8.5 trillions Nepalese currencies yearly in Nepal. Similarly, 2.5 millions Nepalese who are living in united and non-united regions of India send 2.3 trillion Nepalese currencies yearly. The national economy of Nepal now runs by the remittances sent by Nepalese from abroad (Gaule, et.al, 2003, quoted by Bhandary 2004).

7.1.1 Remittances – how much ?

The level of income depends upon the types of work and there facilities. Some of the Nepali migrants get the good job in the government sectors and reputed companies and receive good salaries with various facilities in India. Definitely they earn good but most of the Nepalese migrants are compelled to work in lower types of work without any facilities. As a result they earn very little amount which are shown in following table.

Table -17: Amount of Remittance of the Sample Households, 2005

Category	Magars		Non-Magars		Total	
	No.of households	Percent	No.of households	Percent	No.of households	Percent
< 25000	14	42.4	7	21.2	21	31.8
25-50000	9	27.3	15	45.5	24	36.4
50-75000	6	18.2	4	12.1	10	15.2
75-100000	0	0.0	1	3.0	1	1.5
>100000	4	12.1	6	18.2	10	15.2
Total	33 N=1448000	100.0	33 N=1753700	100.0	66 N=3201700	100.0

Source: Field Survey, 2005

Note: N= total amount of remittances which included both earning of current labour migrants and pension

Table 17 shows that there are ranges in remittance in this area. Nearly 200 rupees to more than two lakh Nepalese currency remittances is obtained by sample households yearly. The reason is that the number of migrant differs from household to household. From some households, there is only one member and from some households' more than one members have been migrating. Among them some households' members have gone to developed country and they get good salary there (destination country). In the study area, remittance includes money sent by the labour migrants and pension of the old labour migrants. Annually, out of the total households 31.8 percent households get less than 25 thousands and 15.2 percent households gets more than one lakh rupees.

As a comparing the amount of remittance between Magar and Non-Magars, Non-Magars have got more remittance than Magars because of the higher number of migrants has in Non-Magars than Magars and other hand there other family members has gone to developed countries for the earning purpose. Any way talking about the higher proportion of households, the Magar households (42.4%) have got less than 25 thousands remittance annually but in Non-Magars households (45.5%) have got 25-50 thousands remittances annually. and 12.1 percent and 18.2 percent households have got more than 1 lakh remittances annually in Magars and Non-Magars respectively.

7.1.2 Form of Remittances

How much is sent by migrants, and how it is transferred depends on a variety of factors, particularly the economic and social conditions in both the home and destination countries. Most of the labour migrants either himself or relatives & friends bring/transfer cash as well as household goods i.e. cloths, sweets cosmetics and electronic goods. They also send letters and information back home through their relatives. So, large amount of remittances are not captured in official statistics from the India.

7.1.3 Channels for Sending Money

Labour migrants send their remittances back home through various channels. Due to the nearest country, open boarder, easy to access and presence of more relatives, friends and villagers, most of labour migrants send money through informal channel. Around 90 percent remittances are entered through migrants ownself and hand carry system. Only 10 percent remittances are entered through bank and post office.

Some migrants come home on leave one or two times per years during the agriculture period. At that time they bring themselves large amount of money which they have earned. Sometimes they send small amount of money and other goods through their friends or relatives who have come back to home for leave. It is easy means of sending money or other goods and information to the home. But, there is high risk of losing money or getting robbed during the returning time. However it is being most popular in this area.

Only few labour migrants (10%) send by formal channel i.e. by bank and post office. The majority of the labour migrants have no idea about bank system and they have not access to a bank account. So, they do not use bank to save or send their money. Few migrants -who are educated and who have more money- send money through bank and only 3 percent migrants - who are working Indian army-, send their money through post office by money order. These last two channels are safe to send money to home but it is expensive and difficulties than other two channels.

In conclusion, most of the labour migrants send remittances through informal channels with their relatives, friends and themselves. Only few labour migrants use formal channel i.e. bank and post office.

7.1.4 Use of Remittances

Data on the use of remittances is highly varied depending on the individual household, the structure of the local economy, and political stability among other factors. In this study area majority of remittances are used for consumption purpose with over 65 percent going on payment of foods, cloths, school fees, festivals, wage, health care and meeting other daily needs both in Magars and Non-Magars. In the context of households expenditure, there are not only include remittances but also include other income sources of the households because there are difficult to separate expenditure of remittances and other households income. The expenditure of the the Magars and Non-Magars households are shown following table:

Table -18: Household Expenditure in yearly (2005)

Fields	Magar		Non-Magar		Total	
	Rupees	Percent	Rupees	Percent	Rupees	Percent
Food	768000	49.0	728500	38.9	1496500	43.5
Education	197000	12.6	149000	8.0	346000	10.1
Festivals	101500	6.5	89000	4.8	190500	5.5
Wage	92700	5.9	111000	5.9	203700	5.9
Cloths	89500	5.7	91000	4.9	180500	5.3
Medicine	53700	3.4	74000	4.0	127700	3.7
Others	264100	16.9	629400	33.6	893500	26.0
Total	1566500	100.0	1871900	100.0	3438400	100.0

Source: Field Survey, 2005

Note: Others are: house repair and construction, buying land, paying loan, bus fare, telephone, *chanda* (money donation), *daijo* (gift for marriage ceremony), *pahur* (gift for relatives), Kami, Damai and Catwal bhag (fix wage for doing different work).

Table 18 shows that the remittances and other households income are predominantly used for consumption purpose. The largest amount (34.5%) is used for purchasing for foods, then education sectors comes in second position where 10.06 percent amounts are used and other sectors i.e. to buy cloths, festivals, wage for labour are used in same proportion. 26.0 percent of the total expenditure is spent on house repair and construction, buying land, paying loan, bus fare, telephone, *chanda* (money donation), *daijo* (gift for marriage ceremony), *pahur* (gift for relatives), Kami, Damai and Catwal bhag (fix wage for doing different work). The expenditure of households are not stable, which may be upper or lower according to the situation.

If the migrant manage to send a more significant amount of money, it is then spent on repaying loans, house repairs or for constructions a new house. However very few migrants actually succeed in constructing a house and to buy land. In most cases they can send enough money for household repair, such as the roof but the large majorities of remittances are used to pay for food. Some households invest remittances into input for interest and some are kept on bank balance.

Comparing Magar and Non-Magar households' expenditure. Large amount of households income are sue for to meet basic needs in both groups. Out of the total incomes, more than 50 percent are spend for food and festivals in Magars where as only 43 percent are expense by Non-Magars or we can say that Magars expense more money in foods and festivals than Non-Magars. It is caused by; they are liberal and spend lots of money to eat and entertainment. A recent retired Magar army man (48 years) expressed that- "*Lets eat, getting fit, setting heat and being cheat, there is no more than that on the life*". It shows that they are not serious in future. Most of the Magar households, they don't use their remittances in productive purpose than Non-Magars. Especially Brahmin and chhetri utilize the remittance in proper way either invest on land or give money for interest in the village.

Figure -14: Remittances and their investment

	Magars Households	Non-Magars Households
Percentage of migrant households receiving remittances	96	100
Range of yearly money sent to their household (in NRS)	2000-216000	6000-216000
Average of yearly money sent to their household (in NRS)	31969	47081
Regularity of sending		

remittances to migration households	1-2 times per year	1-2 times per year
Purpose of remittances (in order of importance)	* food, education, clothes, medical expenses, wage, Feasts & festivals * repaying debts House repairs or construction * furniture, electronic appliances * agriculture investment	*food, education, clothes, wage, festivals health expenses * agricultural inputs Household repairs or construction *furniture, electronic appliances * buying new land

7.2 Changing Role of Women in Decision Making at Home and Society

Socio-economic condition of the households and political situation (Maoist insurgence) of Nepal, especially young people are compelled to move to foreign countries leaving their families behind in the village. So, International labour migration has brought several changes inside or outside home regarding the role of women. In the past females were limited within the surrounding of the household works but after migrating the husband, they have to play the role of the household head and they have to involve in social and income generating activities as well. The situation is being critical to some extent in a single/nuclear family. Following figure shows the changing role of the women in the absence of her husband.

The responsibilities of women begin after migration of their husband. They play active role of the household head and they have to manage all types of work in the household and community level. In the household level they have to look after their parents, children and their education and health care. Besides that they have to manage money and wage labour to drive household behaviour properly and they arrange children's marriage with the help of father-in-law. Some women have been starting small business. In this context one Magar women (35 years) -whose husband have gone to India for work- express that - *"I have started small business -to prepare home made wine and selling this - after migrating my husband. I earn more money than my husband, which I use to buy necessary things, foods, cloths, jewellery and children's education. So, I am not depend on husband's earning. I don't know how much he earns. He hasn't sent money till now"*. Like that other dalit woman (39 years) expressed that- *"My husband hasn't sent any money after going to India for six months. He has low salary which is only enough to survive himself. Here I and my daughter go to the daily wage labour. It comes 50 rupees per day in per person"*

that is enough to live. But when we become sick at that time it is quite difficult and we fulfill by borrowing money from neighbour".

But in the village, who have not got permission to go to the wage labour by their husband, they go to make parma (to exchange their work) that makes easy in her work load again.

In the community level work, women participate in the social works such as go to the Jhara (to involve in common social work), attend at meetings and so on. Women have formed Aama Samuha -a social organization in every ward. They collect money by doing different activities and utilize into the different social works. During the study, I found quite different in decision making between ethnic groups and caste groups. Most of the ethnic groups' women have involved on income generating activities (wage labour, small business) but in the caste groups women (Brahmin & chhetri), they don't involve these activities due to the afraid of moral down and feel hesitate that what other people said ? So, they are totally dependent on their husband.

In general, a conclusion draws by Kaspar (2005) the study in Kalabang, Kaski - during the migration women take on responsibility for operational decisions where as strategic decisions are further on made by both spouses jointly or by the husband alone. This division can mostly be ascribed to hampered communication: only the most important decisions are discussed together, others are decided by the wife alone or by the wife and her parent-in-law or by in-laws only- is totally match also in this area but it is applied only single/nuclear family but in joint family there are the main role of old parents.

In summarize, there are ranges in remittance in this area. Nearly 200 rupees to more than two lakh Nepalese currency remittances is obtained by sample households yearly. As a comparing the amount of remittance between Magar and Non-Magars, Non-Magars have got more remittance (NRs 1753700) than Magars (NRs 1448000) because of the higher number of migrants has in Non-Magars than Magars. Most of the labour migrants send their remittances back home through various channels such as friends, relatives, band, post office and ownself. Around 90 percent remittances are entered through migrants ownself and hand carry system. Only 10 percent remittances are entered through bank and post office. Remittances and other household incomes are predominantly used for consumption purpose. The largest amount (34.5%) is used for purchasing for foods, then education sectors comes in second position where 10.06 percent amounts are used and other sectors i.e. to buy cloths, festivals, wage for labour are used in same proportion. 26.0 percent of the total expenditure is spent on house repair and construction, buying land, paying loan, bus fare, telephone, *chanda* (money donation), *daijo* (gift for marriage ceremony), *pahur* (gift for relatives), Kami, Damai and Catwal bhag (fix wage for doing different work). The expenditure of households are not stable, which may be upper or lower according to the situation

Labour migration has brought several changes inside or outside home regarding the role of women. In the past females were limited within the surrounding of

the household works but after migrating the husband, they have to play the role of the household head and they have to involve in social and income generating activities as well and they become forward and active in different works.

7.3 Impact of Labour Migration on Household Assets

Man has many more needs, desires and dreams but every one cannot fulfill such types of own desire due to the economic condition of the households. And they have to migrate to different other places where he gets better opportunities than his origin place. At that time some institutions facilitate, others constrain the possibility to use their assets and reach their goal. This happens within a vulnerability context. Therefore labour migration has changed individual, households and whole community assets. At that time migrant worker not only bring financial capital but also new social and human capital which figure as new resources for the household and might lead to new livelihood strategies. Here, I have analyzed the effects of labour migration in households and individual assets.

Change in Financial Capital

The primary incentive for labour migration is undoubtedly the hope to increase income. Whether or not this goal is achieved, it depends on many factors. These factors include education and proper skills of the labour migrants, types of work and costs of living in destination places. These above factors derive diversities on the salary of labour migrants. However remittances have been playing vital role in this area (see table 13). More than 90 percent household incomes covered by remittances. The household incomes, which have to be generated either directly through labour migration, pension or indirectly through the agriculture production and sale of goods and wage labour.

Despite all the difficulties, international migration usually leads to an increase in financial capital and it is being a one of the main income sources in this area. From child to old people have gone to India for seeking way of livelihood and they have brought more or less remittance to home. This may be just enough to ensure the existing standard of living or may raise it.

Change in Physical Capital

Labour migration has brought some changes on physical capital of this area. Although, most of the remittances used in household consumption purpose. Only few amounts are invested to construction new house, repairing houses and buying different electronic goods or it may be saved for other purposes (see table 18). Labour migration has increased standard life style. Every household have a radio. The increase in financial and physical capital opens new options for a household. Few households now have the possibility to extend loans and live from the interest.

Change in Natural Capital

International labour migration has hardly influenced on natural capital of households in Gwadi VDC. Due to the absence of active male manpower in the households, some agriculture lands have changed into bare land. Besides that only few households sell and purchase land in order to finance migration. The purchase of land especially in Terai area from labour migration is an important goal in this area. Sloppy areas, unproductive land are the main cause to change their origin in this area. Other natural resources have rarely changed.

Change in Human Capital

International labour migration has many unintended effects on the human capital of the migrant. First, the migrant worker gains job related knowledge and skills. The migrant of this area who have gone to India, they involve in different sectors such as cook, driver, army, industrial labour etc. (see table 16) and they have taken more or less experience in this field. It is an interesting question, whether a migrant worker can use his new knowledge and skills once back in Nepal. But, most of the cases in this area they don't apply their skill and knowledge in own country because in Nepal neither lots of employment opportunities nor secure to open own business. However, this does not seem to be the case. As a result, they try to go to advance countries in same job from where they can get good income and low risk. Another thing is that the returnees have gained a lot of migration specific knowledge. They know more about the procedures, dangers and what awaits them foreign country. This may be a big advantage for the next migration. So, migration specific knowledge may lower the risk of the next migration.

Change in Social Capital

Migration expands social networks because migrants spend time both abroad and at home and they interact with different types of people in both places. Through these networks, migrants have got knowledge about different places, culture, language, own works, situation of wages, employment opportunities and many more in both places. That makes to people active and aware towards whole world. So that, they can take own decisions about further employment and destination places.

Network theory assets that when migration networks are well developed, foreign jobs are “within easy reach of most community members” (Massey et al. 1993). In the case of this study area, most of the migrants have gone to India with their returnee relatives and friends. These findings are in accordance with the assumptions of network theory, stating that migrant networks lower the costs and risks of migration and increase its expected net. Social networks only increase the propensity to migrate of members of households which are part of them. Therefore it is not the existence of but access to migrant networks that influences the likelihood of migration of an

individual. Especially when an individual wants to migrate and none of the household member has ever migrated, or when he wants to migrate to a country where no household member went before, he may only have access to small migrant networks or social networks which are of limited help for migration (Wyss 2004). There is no change in religious faith, social culture and ritual practices in the society as well as labour migrants.

Finally, labour migration has brought positive changes not only individual but also households and whole community's assets in this area. This makes the secure and sustainable livelihood of the emigrants' household. As a result, from labour migration has brought positive livelihood outcomes of the sample households such as - more income, increased well-being, reduced vulnerability, improved food security and more sustainable use of natural resources-base.

In summarize, labour migration has brought positive changes not only individual but also households and whole community's assets in this area. This makes the secure and sustainable livelihood of the emigrants' household. As a result, from labour migration has brought positive livelihood outcomes of the sample households such as - more income, increased well-being, reduced vulnerability, improved food security and more sustainable use of natural resources-base.

CHAPTER - EIGHT

SUMMARY AND CONCLUSION

8.1 Summary

Gwadi VDC lies in the middle hilly part of Nepal. The total population of Gwadi VDC is 2860 in which 1193 persons are male and 1636 persons are female. The total households of this VDC are 600. The average household consists of 4.8 members, and the population density is 220 persons per square kilometer. Literacy rate of this VDCs' are 74.3 percent, in which 88.0 percent are males and 64.0 percent are females. Agriculture is the main occupation with largely supplementary by animal husbandry of this VDC. But that is not sufficient to sustain whole family. So, most of the people follow the labour migration to support their livelihood and It has been becoming traditional culture since very beginning. The flow of labour migration has been spreading different countries of the world since last decade in this area. However, more than 80 percent people have gone to India.

The total respondent households' are 401, where 202 are males and 199 are females. The dependent population comprised of 40.4 percent. Economically active populations are 59.6 percent. Where, the populations of Magars are quite higher than Non-magars. Comparatively in Magar child dependency is seen high and old age dependency is high in Non-Magar. Average household size of sampled population is 6.1 where as national average is 5.5 populations per household. It seems that population growth rate is very high in this area.

Out of the total population of emigrant's family, only 15.1 percent populations are illiterate whereas other remaining percentages are literate. The more population (39.7%) has got primary education but higher educated populations are very few (3.7%). It seems that there are reverse -increasing the level of education, decreasing the proportion. It is caused by poverty; drop out system and the tendency of going to abroad. Comparison between Magar and Non-Magar's education, illiterate percentage is more in Magars than Non-Magars. There are more proportion in primary level in both groups i.e. 42.3 percent and 37.2 percent respectively. Magar proportion has more in Lower Secondary level but in higher education and above, Non-Magar's proportion are high than Magars.

Talking about the land holding size of sample households, there are only few irrigated and cultivated land with both magars and non-magars as compare unproduced land in this area. In terms of agricultural land, bari has highest (221 and 210 ropani) with Magar and Non-magars respectively. But khet are almost same proportion in both groups. It seems that agriculture land of this area is very low and unproductive land. The main food crop is maize in this area. In total, 357 and 305 muri maize in produced by Magar and Non-Magars

respectively. Like wise 38 & 54.9 muri paddy, 62 & 88 muri wheat, 23.9 & 35.6 muri mustard (oilseed) are produced by Magar and Non-Magars respectively. Where Non-Magars have produced more than Magars except maize. So, food productions are very low in this area and the Majority of the farmers in the village have no food security in the whole year. To compare the food sufficiency between Magar and Non-Magar households, there is more food sufficient in Non-Magar households than Magars. 39.4 & 30.3 percent households have a food sufficiency for less than 3 months in Magars and Non-Magars respectively. Likewise 6.1 percent and 15.2 percent households have food sufficiency for more than nine months. The agriculture land and food production are more in Magar households but food sufficiency is low than Non-Magars. Its cause -according to the respondent- in Magar communities they use to more food in domestic consumption- to make alcoholic beverage for daily use or for the festivals and ceremonial occasion. Though, in Non-Magars - kunwar and dalit also use to make this thing but they are very few.

The household economy in the village comprises the diverse sources of income. The village economy not only relies on agriculture, but it is highly supported by remittances. The yearly total income of the studied households is 34, 38,400 rupees and the average household income is 52,096 rupees by yearly. Out of the total yearly income of the sample households, 93.2 percent are covered by remittance (foreign job and pension), where as other sectors have low contribution. Agriculture provides cash income for 0.6 percent. The income from agriculture is included only selling product of the household's not self production and consumption within the households. Besides that agriculture product, small business, selling livestock, poultry, ghee and wood are the other income sources. Comparing the Magar and Non-Magars, Non-Magars have the higher income than Magars. The contribution of remittances is more than 90 percent in both groups. The income from the agriculture is relatively high in Non-Magars but the income from other sources is high in Magars. Only few households have involved in these activities. These observations suggest that labour migration has become a main means of earning for people's survival (livelihoods) in this area.

Most of the young and adult people have followed to the labour migration in this VDC. According to the data and information obtained from the field survey, the main reasons of labour migration are: unemployment, low agricultural production, indebted ness, family pressure and current political situation in the place of origin and employment opportunities, good security, and good infrastructure in the place of destination. The age group of 15 - 29 has the higher proportion (40.4%) of migrants in both communities. Then, the 30 - 44 age groups have second higher proportion (34.8%). Likewise, the 45 - 60 age groups have the lowest proportion of labour migrants having 24.7%. It shows that most of the young and adult people are migrated for their better livelihoods. They have reached different part of the India and involve in different jobs such as factory worker, hotel, home servant, security guard and army. Due to the lower education and unskilled, most of the emigrants have

worked there in lower level of work. Only few people work in skilled work. Since last decade, the trend of labour migration has been spreading in different advance countries of the world and the flow of emigration is increasing day by day.

There are ranges in remittance in this area. Nearly 200 rupees to more than two lakhs Nepalese currency remittances is obtained by sample households yearly. The reason is that the number of migrant differs from household to household. From some households, there is only one member and from some households' more than one members have been migrating. Among them some households' members have gone to developed country and they get good salary there (destination country). Annually, out of the total households 31.8 percent households get less than 25 thousands and 15.2 percent households gets more than one lakh rupees. As a comparing the amount of remittance between Magar and Non-Magars, Non-Magars have got more remittance (NRs 1753700) than Magars (NRs 1448000) because of the higher number of migrants has in Non-Magars than Magars and other hand there other family members has gone to developed countries for the earning purpose. Any way talking about the higher proportion of households, the Magar households (42.4%) have got less than 25 thousands remittance annually but in Non-Magars households (45.5%) have got 25-50 thousands remittances annually. and 12.1 percent and 18.2 percent households have got more than 1 lakh remittances annually in Magars and Non-Magars respectively. Most of the labour migrants either himself or relatives & friends bring/transfer cash as well as household goods i.e. cloths, sweets cosmetics and electronic goods. Labour migrants send their remittances back home through various channels such as friends, relatives, band, and post office and own self. Around 90 percent remittances are entered through migrants own self and hand carry system. Only 10 percent remittances are entered through bank and post office.

Remittances and other household incomes are predominantly used for consumption purpose. The largest amount (34.5%) is used for purchasing for foods, then education sectors comes in second position where 10.06 percent amounts are used and other sectors i.e. to buy cloths, festivals, wage for labour are used in same proportion. 26.0 percent of the total expenditure is spent on house repair and construction, buying land, paying loan, bus fare, telephone, *chanda* (money donation), *daijo* (gift for marriage ceremony), *pahur* (gift for relatives), Kami, Damai and Catwal bhag (fix wage for doing different work). The expenditure of households are not stable, which may be upper or lower according to the situation

Labour migration has brought several changes inside or outside home regarding the role of women. In the past females were limited within the surrounding of the household works but after migrating the husband, they have to play the role of the household head and they have to involve in social and income generating activities as well and they become forward and active in different works.

Finally, labour migration has brought positive changes not only individual but also households and whole community's assets in this area. This makes the secure and sustainable livelihood of the emigrants' household. As a result, from labour migration has brought positive livelihood outcomes of the sample households such as - more income, increased well-being, reduced vulnerability, improved food security and more sustainable use of natural resources-base.

8.2 Conclusion

Labour migration to India is an essential component of this study area. The people of this area are socialized to be familiar with labour migration to India in the name of *Lahur jane* culture. The income from labour migration to India is an undeniably significant component of this village economy. Majority of the households in the village have no food security due to the small landholding size and shortfall in domestic production and they are not satisfied with their local needs because of unemployment problems and other difficulties.

Labour migration has been an important economic option to maintain sustenance. Remittance contributes to fulfill basic needs of family and it is being as a supplement of farm income in the village. Hence, it provides a base for their livelihoods.

Labour migration has brought some changes in the study area. It may be negative or positive. There is shortage of labour force, as a result people are careless about agriculture and livestock keeping and there is decreased in active male population and increased dependency ratio. On the other hand, labour migration has contributed to increase the access to other livelihood assets and it brings awareness towards education, sanitation and other development works. Labour migration also have changed inside or outside home regarding the role of women, in the past, females were limited within the surrounding of the household works but after migrating the husband, they have to play the role of the household head and they have to involve social and income generating activities as well. In this respect, the people of this area are accustomed to labour migration to India.

In general, the impact on livelihood of labour migration has not so differences between Magar and Non-Magar communities. It has been a survival strategy among the contemporary inhabitants of Gwadi VDC.

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APPENDIX – I

LABOUR MIGRATION TO INDIA

Questionnaire for Household Survey (Gwadi VDC, Gulmi)

2005

House No.

Interview Date

1. General Information

Name of Respondent.....

Caste/Ethnicity.....

Ward No..... Village..... Religion.....

Total No. of Family members..... Male.....

Female.....

2. Family Background

S.N.	Relation	Sex	Age	Merital Status	Edu.	Occu.	Mig. where	Mig. when	Mig. With	Live With	Types Of Work	Income/ Month
1												
2												

3												
4												
5												
6												
7												
8												
9												

3. What are the main causes to go to abroad?

4. What is the main occupation of the family?

- a) Agriculture b) Business c) Labour Migration d) Agriculture &
Job e) Others

5. What is the means of receiving money?

- a) Bank b) Post Office c) Friends/Relatives
d) Ownself

6. Who receive the remittances?

- a) b) c) d)

7. Who has the main role to spend remittances?

- a) b) c)

8. Household Economy (Land Holding/Agriculture Production & Livestock)

S.N.	Muri / kg.	Paddy /Rice	Maize	Wheat	Millet	Oilseed	Barley	Cereal crops	Other	Land	Ropani
1	Production-									9	Khet

	own in muri									10	Bari	
2	Production rent-in muri									11	Kharbari	
										12	Jungle	
3	Buy (quintal)									13	Others	
4	Buy (which month)									Livestock		No.
										14	Buff.	
5	Buy (Rs.)									15	Cows	
6	Sell (Quintal)									16	Ox	
7	Sell (which months)									17	Goat	
										18	Poultry	
8	Sell (Rs)									19	Pig	
										20	Others	

9. How many months does it sufficient by own production?

a) whole yearly b) 8 months c) 6months d) less than 3 months

10. How much money do you spend at home per month?

Rs.....

11. In which works do you spend remittances in orderly?

b) c) d)

12. What types of effect do you have at home after migrating family member?

b) c) d)

13. Especially, in which work do you use wage labour?

a) to cultivate b) to household works c) others

19. What is the role of wife of emigrant in decision making?

Before migrated.....

After migrated.....

20. What types of effect does on children education after migration?

21. Facilities of Different Goods

S.N.	Types of Goods	Number
1	Radio	
2	T.V.	
3	Solar	
4	Furniture	
5	Water Tap	
6	Toilet	
7	Others	

APPENDIX - II

LABOUR MIGRATION TO INDIA

Questionnaire for Migrants who are on home-leave (Gwadi VDC, Gulmi)

2005

1. History of Migration

S.N.	Description	1 st depature	Now	Remarks
1.	Where			
2.	When			
3.	Why			
4.	Access who			
5.	Live with whom			
6.	Types of work			
7.	Average work hour			
8.	Minimum income/month			
9.	Maximum income/month			
10.	Save/month			
11.	Expenditure/month			
12.	Means of sending money			
13.	Facilities			

2. How did you get information about the destination ?

18. What types of suggestion do you give for coming generation ?