

**CROSS-BORDER LABOUR MIGRATION BETWEEN
NEPAL AND INDIA: A COMPARATIVE STUDY**

A Dissertation

**Submitted to the Faculty of Humanities and Social Sciences of
Tribhuvan University in Fulfillment of the Requirements for the**

Degree of

DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY

in

RURAL DEVELOPMENT

By

DEEPAK CHANDRA BHATT

Ph.D. Reg. 41/ 2073 Shrawan

T.U Reg. No. 28792-95

Tribhuvan University

Kathmandu, Nepal

December 2022

LETTER OF RECOMMENDATION

We certify that this dissertation entitled “Cross-border Labour Migration between Nepal and India: A Comparative Study” is prepared by Deepak Chandra Bhatt under our guidance. We hereby recommend this dissertation for final examinations by the Research Committee of the Faculty of Humanities and Social Sciences, Tribhuvan University, in fulfillment of the requirements for the Degree of DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY in RURAL DEVELOPMENT.

Dissertation Committee

.....

Prof. Dr. Govind Subedi

Supervisor

.....

Dr. Laxman Singh Kunwar

Co-Supervisor

Date:

DECLARATION

I hereby declare that this Dissertation entitled “Cross-border Labour Migration between Nepal and India: A Comparative Study” is my own work and that it contains no materials previously published. I have not used its materials for the award of any kind or other degree. Where other authors' sources of information have been used, they have been acknowledged.

.....

Deepak Chandra Bhatt

T.U. Regd. No.: 41

Date: 27 December, 2022

DEDICATION

This study is dedicated to my late father, Basu Dev Bhatt, who taught me to do hard work with honesty and dedication both in my professional and academic life.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

I would like to express my deep sense of indebtedness and heartfelt gratitude to my supervisor, Prof. Dr. Govind Subedi, for his constant inspiration, suggestions, and guidance during the entire course of this research. Despite his busy schedule, he provided me with sufficient time to review, edit, and support me during the finalization of this thesis. Similarly, I extend my sincere thanks to my co-supervisor, Dr. Laxman Singh Kunwar, for providing me with learning resources, internal feedback, and scholarly guidance to accomplish my research work.

Similarly, I would like to thank Prof. Dr. Kusum Sakya (Dean) and Prof. Dr. Dubi Nand Dhakal (Asst. Dean), Faculty of Humanities and Social Sciences for approving my study. I further thank Associate Prof. Bishnu KC, Head of the Department of Rural Development, and Prof. Dr. Pushpa Kamal Subedi, Former Head of the Department of Rural Development, for their constructive feedback on this dissertation. I am equally indebted to Dr. Bhim Suwal (former Assistant Dean), Faculty of Humanities and Social Sciences for his continuous support, guidance, and encouragement as an internal evaluator. Likewise, I am indebted to Dr. Ratnmani Nepal and Dr. Dhanendra Veer Sakya for their support of my dissertation as the expert and internal evaluator, respectively. Similarly, I always remember Prof. Dr. Umakant Silwal, Prof. Dr. Bhawani Datt Joshi, Dr. Mahendra Sapkota, Dr. Puspa Raj Pant, Dr. B.P. Badal, Dr. Bharat Thapa and other colleagues of Tribhuvan University for their continuous support.

Furthermore, I am also indebted to the University Grants Commission (UGC) for providing a full fellowship to carry out this study. I would like to acknowledge Far Western University, the Office of the Dean, the Faculty of Humanities and Social Sciences, and the Department of Humanities and Social Sciences for granting study leave to complete this research work. Likewise, I am highly indebted to Prof. Dr. Bhim Subedi (Former Chairperson), University Grant Commission, for his encouragement and institutional support of my study. I would like to express my sincere thanks to the Director of the Research Division of UGC, Dr. Promod Poudel, and other associate staff members: Dinesh Prajapati and Devendra Rawal, for their tireless support in this research process.

I am highly thankful to all the respondents, including labour migrants, and key informants, without their participation this thesis was not possible. Likewise, I appreciate the support I received from Bhim Datt Municipality, Kanchanpur Chamber of Commerce, and other concerned agencies for providing me required data and information.

Furthermore, I am grateful to my respected mother Dropati Devi Bhatt for her unconditional love and blessings. Likewise, I always remember the support and motivation of my family members and relatives. I must thank my spouse, Chandani Pant, for her love, encouragement, and unflagging support throughout the research period. I am indebted to my children Upasana and Kashyap Chandra for the time they would want to spend with me. Finally, I owe my gratitude to the almighty god for blessings.

Deepak Chandra Bhatt

December 2022

ABSTRACT

This study aims to compare and contrast the characteristics of cross-border labour migration between Nepal and India with a particular focus on the Sudurpaschim Province of Nepal. In particular, this research focuses on the following four specific areas of comparison between Nepali labour migrants in India and Indian labour migrants in Nepal: (a) characteristics of labour migrants (b) causes and processes of labour migration, (c) Job nature and working conditions, and finally (d) collection of remittance and its uses. Embedded in the post-positivism paradigm (pragmatism), the study has adopted a mixed QUAN-qual research methodology, with a dominant focus on quantitative methods. For this research, Bhimdatt Municipality of Kanchanpur District was purposively selected as it offers a rich field for the comparative study of labour migration to and from India. While Bhimdatt Municipality has been a transit hub for Nepali labour migration to India for a long time it was until recently little known about the Indian labour migration to the town of Mahendranagar in search of better job opportunities. The quantitative research included a sample survey of 650 households of which 370 were Nepali labour migrants to India and 280 were Indian labour migrants to Nepal. The sample size was determined statistically, and samples in each stratum were drawn randomly. The quantitative data have been analyzed using descriptive statistics for both groups of migrants and compared using a t-test and chi-square test. The qualitative method included two focus group discussions (FGDs), field observation, four key informant interviews (KIIs), and five case studies.

The survey findings show a majority of migrants from both countries (75.1% Nepali and 64.6% Indian) were of very productive economic age (18 to 40 years). On average Indian migrants to Nepal were slightly older than Nepali labour migrants to India with 32.8 and 29.7 mean age respectively. This difference is due to the presence of a higher proportion of Indian migrants of older age (50-65) compared to Nepali migrants (13.6% and 6.7% respectively). Conversely, it reflects that a relatively larger proportion of Nepali youths migrate to India in search of job opportunities. The study showed that the lack of employment opportunities and the long-standing trend (culture) of working in India are driving factors of this massive youth migration from Nepal to India. It is well known that migrants from both countries are primarily male,

and often leave their families behind. 30.6 percent and 36.8 percent of females migrated with their husbands to their destination from Nepal and India, respectively. In the case of an Indian migrant's family, the majority of females are engaged as housewives, but the families engaged in the brick industry and agriculture work are involved to support their husbands in the economy. Nepali labour migrants can be found working in various cities throughout India (even in far fields such as Goa, Tamil Nadu, Andhra Pradesh, and Bangalore). However, Indian migrants on the study site were mostly from adjacent border areas of India. Due to the ease of access to the border area and the close proximity (89.9% of Indian labour migrants arrived at their destination within 3 hours) from their point of origin but Nepali labour migrants suffered long distances to reach their destination. At the destination, overall, migrants from both groups were living in substandard conditions in their respective destinations. It is due to the high cost of living, low salary, and the need to remit income in order to support large and impoverished families back home. They mostly rely on family social capital (network including friends, relatives, or colleagues) to share accommodation, and provide for each other in their time of need.

The nature of jobs and choosing destinations seems unstable in the case of Nepali labour migrants. It is evident that 41 percent of Nepali labour migrants frequently changed their destination while 43 percent changed their jobs at a similar destination. However, in almost all cases, Indian labour migrants continue to work at the same destination. The causes of changing jobs and destinations are different like hard and pressure of work, low income, misbehaving by employees, and insecurity of jobs. Most migrants worker who went to their destination without proper plans (mostly those working in hotels and restaurants, domestic workers) and are not satisfied changed their jobs and destination after getting new attractive or better jobs in a new destination through their social networks. Changing jobs and destinations as well as the skill level of labour migrants also affected the migrants' monthly income. There was a significant difference between the mean income of Nepali labour migrants to India (NRs. 19061.6) and Indian labour migrants to Nepal (NRs. 40635.5). This difference is because of the nature of their jobs, i.e. Indians have semi-skilled jobs in Nepal, but the majority of Nepali migrants were found to be working in hotels, private homes (as domestic workers), and holding lower positions in companies and business houses. According to the study's findings, the comparative

situation of cross-border migration between Nepal and India encourages the development of safer, more prestigious, and economically sound migration policies and practices for the benefit of migrants.

More importantly, it is also reflected as a discussion issue on the theoretical part. The propositions adhered to by Revenstein have not been truly followed in the context of Nepal-India labour migration. It is seen that there was no step-by-step migration in the case of Nepali migrants through comparative cases found in Indian cases. Female migrants (both Nepali and Indian) were found to prefer to select the destinations as followed by their husbands. It seems rational in the societies of Nepal, and India where social structure is based on patriarchy which is led by fathers or husbands in most cases. Moreover, the age factor hypothesis of Lee's theory cannot be truly implicated in the Nepal-India migration as there was frequent migration in different age groups. It has been further eased with open border access, wider social networks, and fewer administrative barriers. According to Kaldor-Hick's theory, wealth increases the happiness of people which is found in the context of cross-border labour migration between Nepal and India as well. People migrated across borders for wage differentials and employment opportunities as defined by neo-classical economic theory.

Keywords: Cross-border labour migration, Characteristics, Migration causes and processes, Nature of jobs and working conditions, Income and remittance.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

LETTER OF RECOMMENDATION	ii
APPROVAL LETTER.....	Error! Bookmark not defined.
DECLARATION	iii
DEDICATION	iv
ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS.....	v
ABSTRACT	vii
TABLE OF CONTENTS	x
LIST OF TABLES	xv
LIST OF FIGURES	xviii
LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS / ACRONYMS	xix
CHAPTER I.....	1
INTRODUCTION.....	1
Background.....	1
Problem Statement	3
Research Questions	5
Research Objectives	5
Limitations of the Study.....	6
Motivation to Researcher for the Study	7
Organization of the Dissertation.....	7
Chapter Summary	8
CHAPTER II	9
LITERATURE REVIEW	9
Conceptual and theoretical review	9
<i>Labour Migration: Definition and Concept</i>	9
<i>Theoretical debates on labour migration</i>	10
<i>The Key Three Theories Employed in the Present Study</i>	12

Empirical Review	15
<i>Historical Prospects of Foreign Migration</i>	15
<i>Global Cross-Border Labour Migration Scenario</i>	16
<i>Nepal-India Cross-Border Migration (History, Trends and Patterns)</i>	20
<i>The volume of Cross-Border Labour Migration between Nepal and India</i>	27
Policy Review	29
<i>About the Indo-Nepal Peace and Trade Treaty</i>	29
<i>Migration Policies and Legal Institutions in Nepal</i>	30
<i>Formal Entry-Exit Points between Nepal and India</i>	30
<i>Institutional Mechanisms of Labour Migration in India</i>	30
<i>Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs) and Migration</i>	31
<i>The Fifteenth Plan and Migration</i>	32
Key Research Gaps and Conceptual Framework	32
Chapter Summary	35
CHAPTER III	36
RESEARCH METHODOLOGY	36
Research Philosophy	36
General Description of the Study Area (Kanchanpur District)	37
<i>Bhimdatt Municipality</i>	40
Population, Sample Size, and Sampling Procedure	44
Source: Topographical Map (2001), Department of Survey, Nepal	45
<i>Sample Size for Nepali - labour Migrants to India</i>	45
<i>Sample Size for Indian-labour Migrants</i>	46
Stratification and Allocation of Sample.....	46
The Population of Nepali Migrants to Indian Cities	48
The Population of Indian Migrants to Mahendranagar (Bhimdatt Municipality)	49
Nature of Jobs	50
Migrants' Population	50
Research Design	51
<i>Explanatory Sequential Design</i>	51

Nature of Data and Tools and Techniques of Data Collection.....	52
Data Collection Procedure	53
Data Analysis and Interpretation	54
Inclusion and Exclusion Criteria	54
Reliability and Validity.....	55
Operational Terminology.....	56
Research Ethics	58
Methodological Reflection of the Researcher	58
Chapter Summary	59
CHAPTER IV.....	59
CHARACTERISTICS OF LABOUR MIGRANTS	60
Social and Demographic Characteristics: Migrants' Age Group.....	60
Religion of Migrants	62
Caste/Ethnicity of Labour migrants	62
Education Attainment of Labour Migrants between Nepal and India	65
Family Status of Labour Migrants (Family Structure and Size)	68
Marital Status of Labour Migrants	69
Schooling of Labour Migrants' Children.....	70
Accommodation Status for Labour Migrants and their Expenses on Rent.....	72
Status of Labour Migrants' Room Dwelling	75
Chapter Summary	77
CHAPTER V	78
PROCESS AND CAUSES OF LABOUR MIGRATION.....	78
Origin and Destinations of Migrants.....	78
Time of Migration	83
Reason for Selection of Particular Destination	84
Transport Cost and Financial Arrangement for Traveling to Destination	87

Traveling Hours and Means of Transportation, and Crossed the Border	88
Companion with (First Time Migration) and Getting Job at Destination.....	90
Frequency of Labour Migrants Returning at Origin	92
History of Migration (Generation)	92
Mode of Migration and Duration of Work at Destination	94
Causes of Migration	97
Status of Food Security at Origin	100
Relationship between Marital Status, Caste, and Mode of Migration	103
Chapter Summary	104
CHAPTER VI.....	105
NATURE OF JOBS AND WORKING CONDITIONS OF LABOUR MIGRANTS	105
Nature of Migrants' Jobs and their Income at Origin	105
Nature of Migrants' Jobs and their Skill Level at Destination.....	107
Working Conditions, Overtime Facilities, and Level of Satisfaction	112
Working Facilities (Provision of Leave and Mode of Transportation at Work Station)	115
Food and Accommodation Facilities for Migrants	116
Insurance Policy of Migrants and List of Physical Hazards and Facilities	117
The Trend of Changing Jobs and Destinations by Migrants Workers	118
Harassment Tolerance and Legal Process by Migrants	120
Impact of Covid-19 on Migrants' Livelihood and their Job Security	124
Relationship between the Nature of Jobs at Destination and Education	126
Relationship between the Nature of Jobs and Changing Destination	127
Age Group of Labour Migrants Changed the Works and Destination	128
Skill Levels by Age Groups.....	129
Chapter Summary	130

CHAPTER VII	132
INCOME, REMITTANCE, AND ITS USES	132
Monthly Income and Allowances.....	132
Status of Remittance Sent from Destination.....	136
Means of Sending Remittance and its Frequency	139
Use of Remittance at the Origin Place	140
Distribution of Remittance by Age group and Years of Experience	142
Distribution of Remittance by the Causes and Nature of Jobs of Migration.....	145
Chapter Summary	149
CHAPTER VIII.....	150
SUMMARY OF FINDINGS, DISCUSSION, AND CONCLUSION	150
<i>Objective 1: Comparison of the Characteristics of Labour Migrants</i>	150
<i>Objective 2: The Process, and Causes of Labour Migration</i>	152
<i>Objective 3: Explanation of the Nature of Jobs, and Working Conditions</i>	154
<i>Objective 4: Comparative Analysis of Income, Remittance, and its Use</i>	156
Discussion on the Findings	158
<i>Empirical discussion</i>	158
<i>Conceptual and theoretical discussion</i>	160
Conclusion	163
Contribution and Implications of Research	166
ANNEXCES	168-185
REFERENCES	186-200

LIST OF TABLES

Table 3.1: <i>Area of Kanchanpur District by Local Level</i>	38
Table 3.2: <i>Distribution of Ward Level Population by Number of Households, Sex, Literacy Rate and Family Size</i>	41
Table 3.3: <i>Distribution of Population by Language and Religious Composition</i>	42
Table 3.4: <i>Distribution of Population of the Study Area by Sex Composition</i>	43
Table 3.5: <i>Distribution of Population by Caste/Ethnic Group in the Study Area</i>	43
Table 3.6: <i>Distribution of Population by Religion in the Study Area (Bhimdatt)</i>	44
Table 3.7: <i>Distribution of Sample Allocation of Nepali Labour Migrants to India</i>	47
Table 3.8: <i>Sample Allocation of Indian Labour Migrants in Nepal</i>	48
Table 3.9: <i>Distribution of Migrants to India by Selected Characteristics</i>	49
Table 3.10: <i>Distribution of Indian Labour Migrants Enumerated in the Study Area (Bhimdatt Municipality) according to Nature of Job</i>	50
Table 4.1: <i>Distribution of Respondents by Age and Gender</i>	60
Table 4.2: <i>Distribution of Migrants according to their Religion</i>	62
Table 4.3: <i>Distribution of Labour Migrants by Caste/Ethnic Group</i>	63
Table 4.4: <i>Distribution of Labour Migrants by Education Attainment</i>	65
Table 4.5: <i>Distribution of Labour Migrants by Family Structure and Size</i>	68
Table 4.6: <i>Distribution of Labour Migrants by Marital Status and Number of Children</i>	69
Table 4.7: <i>Distribution of Labour Migrants according to Number of their School Going Children</i>	70
Table 4.8: <i>Distribution of Labour Migrants by Accommodation at Origin and Destination</i>	73
Table 4.9: <i>Distribution of Labour Migrants by Status of Room Dwelling</i>	76
Table 5.1: <i>Distribution of Labour Migrants by Origin and Destination in India</i>	78
Table 5.2: <i>Distribution of Labour Migrants by Time of Migration</i>	83
Table 5.3: <i>Distribution of Labour Migrants by Source of Information and Reason for Selecting the Destination</i>	84
Table 5.4: <i>Distribution of Labour Migrants according to Transportation Cost and its' Financial Arrangement for Travel</i>	87

Table 5.5: <i>Distribution of Labour Migrants by Travelling Hour and Means of Transportation to Reach Destinations</i>	89
Table 5.6: <i>Distribution of Labour Migrants by Migration Process and Getting Job at Destination</i>	90
Table 5.7: <i>Distribution of Labour Migrants by Frequency of Returning at Origin</i>	92
Table 5.8: <i>Distribution of Migration History (Generation) of Respondents</i>	93
Table 5.9: <i>Distribution of Labour Migrants by Duration of Work, Mode of Migration and Reason for Family Migration</i>	95
Table 5.10: <i>Distribution of Labour Migrants by Causes of Migration</i>	98
Table 5.11: <i>Distribution of Labour Migrants Reporting the Food Security Status at Origin Place</i>	101
Table 5.12: <i>Distribution of Migrants according to Comparison of Caste and Marital Status</i>	104
Table 6.1: <i>Distribution of Labour Migrants by Nature of Work, Income at Origin</i>	106
Table 6.2: <i>Distribution of Labour Migrants by Training Status at Origin</i>	107
Table 6.3: <i>Distribution of Migrants by Nature of Work and their Skill Levels at Destination</i>	108
Table 6.4: <i>Distribution of Labour Migrants by Working Hour, Overtime Facility and Satisfaction at Work</i>	113
Table 6.5: <i>Distribution of about Migrants by Mode of Payment</i>	114
Table 6.6: <i>Distribution of Labour Migrants according to Provision of Leave and Mode of Transportation at Workstation</i>	115
Table 6.7: <i>Distribution of Labour Migrants by Provision of Food and Accommodation Facilities</i>	116
Table 6.8: <i>Distribution of Labour Migrants by Status of Insurance Policy and Physical Hazards</i>	117
Table 6.9: <i>Distribution of Labour Migrants by Causes of Changing Jobs</i>	119
Table 6.10: <i>Distribution of Labour Migrants by Causes of Changing the Working Destination</i>	120
Table 6.11: <i>Distribution of Labour Migrants by Status of Harassment and Legal Process</i>	121
Table 6.12: <i>Distribution of Labour Migrants by the Impact of COVID-19</i>	124
Table 6.13: <i>Distribution of Labour Migrants by Nature of Jobs and their Education</i>	126

Table 6.14: <i>Distribution of Labour Migrants by Changing Work and Destination</i>	127
Table 6.15: <i>Distribution of Labour Migrants by Age Group and Changing Nature of Work and Destination</i>	129
Table 6.16: <i>Distribution of Labour Migrants by Level of Skill and Age Group</i>	129
Table 7.1: <i>Distribution of Labour mMigrants by Monthly Income (Basic) and Allowances</i>	133
Table 7.2: <i>Group Statistics for Monthly Income of Nepali and Indian Labour Migrants</i>	134
Table 7.3: <i>Distributions of Labour Migrants by Size of Remittance Sent to the Family</i>	136
Table 7.4: <i>Average Remittance of Nepali and Indian Labour Migrants</i>	137
Table 7.5: <i>Distribution of Labour Migrants through Sending Remittance and its Frequency</i>	139
Table 7.6: <i>Distribution of Labour Migrants by Utilization of Remittance at Origin</i>	141
Table 7.7: <i>Distribution of Labour Migrants by Size of Remittance Sent to Family according to Age Group</i>	142
Table 7.8: <i>Distribution of Labour Migrants by Size of Remittance according to Years of Working Experiences</i>	143
Table 7.9: <i>Distribution of Labour Migrants by Size of Remittance according to the Educational Background</i>	144
Table 7.10: <i>Distribution of Labour Migrants by Remittance and Causes of Migration</i>	145
Table 7.11: <i>Distribution of Labour Migrants Remittance and Nature of Jobs</i>	146
Table 7.12: <i>Distribution of Labour Migrants by Size of Remittance Collection and Destination</i>	148

LIST OF FIGURES

Figure 2.1: <i>Conceptual Framework of Labour Migration between Nepal and India</i>	34
Figure 3.1: <i>Map of Kanchanpur District/Sudurpaschim Province</i>	39
Figure 3.2: <i>Map of Bhimdatt Municipality with Wards</i>	45
Figure 3.3: <i>Explanatory Sequential Design</i>	51
Figure 4.1: <i>Distribution of Labour Migrants by Education Attainment and Age Group</i>	67
Figure 5.1: <i>Locations of Destination of Nepali Labour Migrants to India</i>	79
Figure 5.2: <i>Locations of Origin of Indian Labour Migrants to Nepal</i>	80
Figure 5.3: <i>Distribution of Indian Labour Migrants to Bhimdatt Municipality by Origin and Nepali Labour Migrants to India by Destination</i>	81

LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS / ACRONYMS

CBS	Central Bureau of Statistics
CDO	Chief District Officer
COVID-19	Corona Virus Disease, 2019
DOFE	Department of Foreign Employment
Ed.	Edition
Ed. (Eds.)	Editor (Editors)
etc.	et cetera
FEPB	Foreign Employment Promotion Board
FGD	Focus Group Discussion
GCC	Gulf Cooperation Council
HHs	Households
HDI	Human Development Index
IC	Indian Currency
ID	Identity Card
ILO	International Labour Organization
IOM	International Organization on Migration
KII	Key Informant Interview
MoLESS	Ministry of Labour, Employment and Social Security
MCC	Migration Counseling Center
MDGs	Millennium Development Goals
n.d.	No date
NIDS	National Institutes of Development Studies
NLEM	New Economy of Labour Migration
NLSS	Nepal Living Standard Survey
No.	Number
NPC	National Planning Commission
NRs.	Nepalese Rupees
p. (pp.)	page (pages)
OBC	Other Backward Caste
SAARC	South Asia Association for Regional Cooperation
SC	Scheduled Caste
SDGs	Sustainable Development Goals

SE	Standard Error
Sig.	Significance
S.N	Serial Number
SPSS	Statistical Package for the Social Science
ST	Schedule Tribes
UAE	United Arab Emirates
UN	United Nations
UN DESA	United Nation's Department of Economic & Social Security
UNDP	United Nations Development Program
UNHCR	United Nations High Commission on Refugees
USA	United States of America
Vol.	Volume
WB	World Bank

CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

This chapter introduces the research context in terms of labour migration between Nepal and India in detail. The chapter includes the study background and the problem statement of the study with major research questions. It further deals with the research objectives, significance, and limitations of the study and the chapter organization of the dissertation.

Background

Globally, cross-border migration has been a research agenda in migration studies. It articulates multiple concerns in the economics, social and cultural issues and livelihood of people both in place of origins and the destinations (Di Giovanni et al., 2015). Nepal-India cross border migration is not exceptional to this where many issues are overlapped and structured in a historical context (Kunwar, 2018). The entry point of the study has been rooted with the prevailing research gaps in particular analysis of characteristics of cross-border labour migration between Nepal and India with a particular focus on the Sudurpaschim Province of Nepal.

Moving from general issues of migration to the specific issues of cross-border migration is conceptually framed in this research whereby taking the empirical analysis of Nepal-India cross border migration. The International Organization for Migration (IOM, 2020) defines migration as the movement of individuals or a group across countries and within a single country. The movement can be temporary, seasonal, or permanent due to various reasons, including economic, environmental, family, and political. Emigrants are the people who leave a country, while immigrants are those who arrive in a country.

Likewise, the UN (2017) defines migration as crossing an administrative border, while the ILO (2015) describes international migrants who are currently employed, unemployed, or seeking employment in their present country of residence. Similarly, the UN Migrant Workers Convention (1990) defines a migrant worker as "a person who is to be engaged, is engaged, or has been engaged in a remunerated activity in a state of which he or she is not a national." Yet, the concept of cross-border migration is largely perceived in globalized context of political economy. For

example, different scholars, including Brettell (2018) and Waldinger (2017) have highlighted the political and economic perspectives of cross border migration making it inclined with assimilation theory, transnational theory, and alternative economic theory of migration. In this regard, the migration in border is politically debated and some scholars of political science have also opened up this issue. For example, to mention (Adesina, 2019):

Borders are multi-dimensional, complex, ambiguous and often contradictory. However, they are not just demarcations between two countries; rather they have implications for trade, population mobility, relationships and security (p. 203).

Evidence suggests that the global trend of labour migration is increasing day by day. According to IOM (2020), the number of migrants globally in 2002 was 150 million (2.8% of the world's population), but it increased to 271 million (3.5% of the world's population) in 2019). In the World Migration Report, it is mentioned that the majority of male migrants (52%) migrated internationally, and 74 percent of all international migrants were working ages 20–64 years. According to the same source, India remains the largest migrant sender (origin), with India alone sending 17.5 million migrants into the international labour market. Similarly, Mexico and China (11.8 million and 10.7 million, respectively) followed India as a country of origin. Likewise, the United States (US) is recognized as the top destination country, i.e., 50.7 million (IOM, 2020).

In Nepal's context, IOM (2020) further identified the five major destination countries of the Nepali migrant population, including India, Malaysia, Qatar, Saudi Arabia, and the United Arab Emirates (UAE). Migration to India and migration via India into third countries are undocumented. The Department of Foreign Employment (DOFE) only provides statistics on those workers who leave Nepal with a labour permit from the Nepalese government. Nepalese workers need to obtain work permits from the government of Nepal to legally migrate to any country other than India.

India is the main destination for labour migrants from Karnali and Sudurpaschim Province. The tradition of labour migration to India from Nepal has been continuing for generations. Migration in Sudurpaschim Province shows the

typical situation where people migrate to the Terai region as permanent migrants and go to India as seasonal migrants. The majority of Sudurpaschim Province residents migrate to India, but more resourceful residents migrate to Malaysia and Gulf countries in search of work. Easy access to lower-class jobs and lower migration costs than in the Gulf and other countries are the main causes of migration to India (Bhatt, 2015).

Problem Statement

Nepal and India have a long historical relationship along with geo-political and economic connectivity. Cross-border labour migration between these countries has long existed. The cross-border migration has been largely studied, though a comparative approach is rarely assessed. Both countries do not require a formal visa process or work permit systems. The lack of a database on migratory behavior and undocumented labour migrants who crossed the Nepal-India border are critical issues. The study therefore conceives the research problems of status of labors in either side of Nepal and India is less known. Moreover, working condition, skill, income and remittances of the migrants are less explored by the previous studies. The problem statement is further asserted as a research gap on comparative design whereby dominant research works on cross border migration in Sudurpaschim Province have not focused on the socio-demographic similarities and differences of the migrants both in Nepal and India.

Existing works of literature reveal that Nepali people have migrated to Indian cities, and Indian people come to Nepal to search for better opportunities. Sudurpaschim hill people are not able to select their right destination and suffer different kinds of troubles in their destination due to a lack of access to the right information about the nature of jobs and destinations, limited awareness levels, and illiteracy. They are not able to earn and save money as they desire and, hence, are not satisfied and return to their origins soon with empty hands (ICIMOD, 2010). Similarly, Bhatt (2016) added that Nepali labour migrants choose destinations based on traditional links than for economic gains. They generally select their destination based on their network (friends, relatives, and local contractors). He also mentioned that labour migrants have a limited amount of money with them, so they choose the

cheapest bus fares, network access, and whatever the team (group of friends) decides at transit points.

The majority of male labour migrants seem to migrate to India and females are left behind due to their social status (Lokshin & Glinskaya, 2008). Thieme and Muller (2010), on the other hand, highlighted the gender inequality aspects of India-migration, where women migrate with their husbands for medical reasons, and if they stay longer at the destination, they become accustomed to local socioeconomic characteristics. Therefore, the gender dimension is another problematic issue of labour migration study which this study has taken as a crucial research gap.

According to ILO (2015), the majorities of Nepalese male migrants are from the working age group and have a low level of education and skills. Industrialization in Nepal has grown gradually since the country's political transition in the 1990s. Indian citizens from Uttar Pradesh and other states come to Nepal as labourers. Previously, there was a lack of skilled manpower for machinery work in Nepal and Indian manpower to support development activities. However, the immigration of Indian labourers is now common in all of Nepal's cities. According to Gill (2003), 70 percent of households from Karnali and Sudurpaschim Provinces have at least one member that goes to India for work, and at the same time, Indians from Uttar Pradesh (UP) and Bihar come to the eastern Terai of Nepal to work in the agriculture sector as seasonal labour. Similarly, Thronton (2016) also described the migration process and causes of Indian labour migrants to Nepal. He further mentioned that a large portion of the Indian migrants in Nepal is from the lesser-developed Indian states, i.e., Uttar Pradesh and Bihar. A number of them migrate to Nepal due to the higher wage rate, the fact that no work permit is required, and the closer distances to travel. It is, therefore, the distribution of income and wages is another issue that could be assessed as a research problem.

Labour migration between Nepal and India is a less researched topic compared to labour migration to third countries. Though the studies discussed above on labour migration from Nepal to India have been carried out, there has been no comparative study between the two countries in the field of labour migration. This is also unique research because the migration process is two-direction: Nepali migrants go to India to find work, and Indians come to Nepal for the same, though the opportunities are

still available in their respective origins. Therefore, there is a need to analyze the situation of labour migration between Nepal and India. For this purpose, the following research questions have been formulated:

Research Questions

1. What are the characteristics of Nepali labour migrants to India and Indian labour migrants working in Nepal? How do the characteristics of these migrants differ from each other?
2. What are the causes and processes of labour migration between Nepal and India?
3. What are the similarities and differences in jobs and working conditions between Nepali and Indian migrant labourers?
4. What is the pattern of income and remittances? How does it differ between Nepali and Indian migrant labourers?

Research Objectives

The general objective of the study is to compare and contrast the situation of cross-border labour migration between Nepali labour migrants to India and Indian labour migrants to Nepal, with a particular focus on the Sudurpaschim Province of Nepal.

The specific objectives are as follows:

1. To examine and compare the characteristics of labour migrants between Nepal and India.
2. To describe the causes and process of labour migration between Nepalese and Indian labour migrants.
3. To explore the different nature of jobs and working conditions of Nepali labour migrants to India and Indian labour migrants to Nepal.
4. To compare the similarities and differences in income and remittances and their uses between Nepali labour migrants to India and Indian labour migrants to Nepal in the study area.

Significance of the Study

Present study is significantly important in academia due to its conceptual and empirical contributions in the study of cross border migration. This study is aimed at analyzing the characteristics and nature of labour migration between Nepal and India in a comparative and analytical research design. For a long time, people from both countries frequently migrated to each other's countries as seasonal and circular labour migrants. Few researchers have researched the issue of Nepalese migrants' labour

migration to India. Moreover, there are few formal studies or research projects on Indian labourers in Nepal. This research is a comparative study of the characteristics of labour migrants, their causes and processes of migration, the nature of jobs and working conditions, and their remittance pattern between Nepalese and Indian migrants. In this context, this study contributes to analyzing the relationship between Nepal-India migration and its role in the generation of remittances. The findings of this research would facilitate better relationships between the neighbouring countries by making safer, managed, and decent migration through informed policy recommendations that adhere to the findings. Finally, this study supports narrowing the gaps with a better understanding of the cross-border labour migration between the two countries.

Limitations of the Study

This study has only covered the destinations with a higher flow of labour migrants i.e. population of more than 20 in the same occupation. Most of the Nepali labour migrants from Sudurpaschim Province choose their destination in India, whereas the Indian labour migrants from different locations choose Sudurpaschim Province as their working destination. Mostly, Indian labourers choose to work at Mahendranagar (the adjacent border to Nepal).

In this context, this study has the following limitations:

- The study does not cover the migration issue in general; rather, it is mainly focused on cross-border labour migrants who work either in Nepal or India.
- Empirically, the study was conducted in Mahendranagar (Bhimdatt municipality) of Sudurpacchim province, taking the study universe of Indian labour migrants who work at Mahendranagar and Nepalese labour migrants to India from Bhimdatt municipality for at least six months.
- This study was limited to cross-border labour migrants who work as employees (on a salary, contract, or daily wage basis) in different sectors with countable volumes rather than as self-employed or in businesses.

Motivation to Researcher for the Study

I was born in the Baitadi district and grew up in Kanchanpur (Mahendranagar) of Sudurpaschim Province, which is considered a backward region. I have seen the miseries of labour workers and migrants who crossed the border for work. Mostly people from hilly areas of the region migrate to India for work for long. Anecdotally, people from more than 50 percent households of in this province depend on work in India to support their livelihood. This is being practiced for three generations but there are no visible improvements in their livelihoods. However, the flow of migration has not decreased. Whereas, the Indian migrants come to Nepal's towns for work and earn a good amount of money. They are mostly engaged in semi-skilled work which is easily available in Nepal's town areas. The trend of Indian migrants to Nepal is a relatively recent phenomenon that started with modernization and the development of towns. It was the main issue for research that came to my mind motivating me to understand the process and situation of labour migration between both countries.

Organization of the Dissertation

This dissertation is organized into eight chapters in total, along with relevant headings, sub-headings, chapter background, and chapter summaries. The first three are introductory chapters, while the later five have been developed as analytical chapters and conclusions. Chapter One introduces the dissertation along with the setting of the statement of the problem and research objectives. Chapter Two offers a detailed literature review of scientific publications in terms of empirical findings and conceptual/ theoretical issues ranging from a global migration perspective as well as Nepal-India cross-border labour migration. Chapter Three sets the research methodology along with the sampling design, study site description, and different tools of data collection/ analysis. Chapter Four explores the research findings about the characteristics of labour migrants between Nepal and India which is followed in Chapter five deals with the process and causes of labour migration. Chapter Six then presents the nature of jobs and working conditions of labour migrants while Chapter Seven is about the analysis of income, remittance, and its use. Chapter Eight concludes the dissertation which offers major findings, discussion, and research implications.

Chapter Summary

This chapter has introduced the major concepts of migration, approaches, and objectives of the research. This study focuses on labour migration between Nepal and India and compares the characteristics of labour migrants as well as the causes of migration and its process. Furthermore, the study discusses the nature of migrants' jobs and working conditions, as well as their remittances. The statement of the problem suggests that there is a research gap in understanding the labour migration situation between Nepal and India. In efforts to minimize the research gaps, independent variables that are supposedly the determinants of migrants' characteristics, the cause of migration, and its process, have been identified through different literature and examined, as has the remittance collection by both groups of migrants. In addition, some contextual variables have been identified to examine their relationships with labour migrants, their nature of jobs, and remittance.

CHAPTER II

LITERATURE REVIEW

This chapter provides a review of the literature, tracing scientific issues in the concepts, theories and empirical fields of migration studies in general and labour migration in particular. The chapter consists of three parts. The first part deals with the concepts and theories of labour migration. The second part is about the empirical review, which presents the global scenario of labour migration, the historical prospect of foreign migration, and the patterns of migration in the Nepal-India cross-border. Similarly, existing policies and institutional mechanisms related to labour migration management in Nepal and India are included in the third part.

Conceptual and theoretical review

Labour Migration: Definition and Concept

Many sociologists, economists, geographers, demographers, and other scholars have contributed a lot to the field of migration and developed different concepts, theories, and empirical models. In general, it is agreed that migration is the movement of people from one place (of origin) to another (of destination) in search of new opportunities (jobs) and better livelihoods. Migration is a multi-dimensional process, and it has positive and negative impacts on human lives due to factors such as increasing population, small land size, separation of families, a poor economic backdrop, environmental factors, and political factors (Basyal, 2014). There is diversity in the types of migrants, or groups of people having different socio-economic backgrounds (Adhikari & Gurung, 2009; Bhatt, 2015).

In general, "labour migration" refers to the movement of individuals or groups of individuals from their origin to their destination in search of work or services (economic and livelihood). The World Bank (2016) defines international labour migration as "the movement of people from one country to another for employment." However, the definition of labour migration is itself contested. The most debated issues in defining labour migration include the purpose of migration, the duration of migration, and the mode of migration.

According to the ILO (2015), labour migration is defined as "all international migrants who are currently employed or unemployed and seeking employment in their present country of residence." Further, it defines a migrant worker as a person who migrates (or has migrated) from one country to another intending to be employed on his account and includes any kind of migration relationship for employment. The United Nations Convention on the Protection of the Rights of all Migrant Workers and Members of their Families (1990) defines a migrant worker as a person who is to be engaged, is engaged, or has been engaged in a remunerated activity in a state of which he or she is not a citizen.

Theoretical debates on labour migration

International labour migration is a multi-disciplinary notion in terms of its discipline and process. As a result, it is difficult to develop a single, distinct theory on it. Many researchers and scholars have conducted studies on various labour migration prospects. The popular theories of migration include Ravenstein's theory of migration, Everett Lee's theory of the push-pull hypothesis, and O.D. Duncan's theory, Lewis's theory of social network theory, and Standing Guy's theory of materialism. The other corresponding theories are also contributing to the studies of migration, which include neoclassical economic theory, the dual labour market theory, the new economics of labour migration, the relative deprivation theory, and the world system theory. According to Piche (2013), the issue of migration is linked to a wide range of research works and prompts theoretical debates. He highlights the diversity of approaches applied to understanding migration, including the debates on countries of origin or destination; micro-, mezzo-, and macro-levels; individual behaviors, networks, and migration policies.

Various models have also been endorsed by different scholars in migration studies. Some important models can be listed as Zipf's inverse distance law; the gravity model of migration and the friction of distance; the radiation law of human mobility; the buffer theory; Stouffer's theory of intervening opportunities; Zelinsky's mobility transition model; and Bauder's regulation of labour markets theory. Each of the theories and models has its context, relevance, strengths, and criticisms. None of the existing theories and models of migration completely speak about the typical situation of India-Nepal labour migration. As a result, theoretical pluralism has guided

this Ph.D. research. The theorization of the present study is based on Revenstein's Laws of Migration, Lee's Theory of Migration, and the Social Network Theory of Migration because these theories are more applicable as compared to other theories. Migration models formalize the determinants that could affect migration decisions. The key parameters of all the migration models reveal that migration is shaped by economic, social, and cultural factors.

According to Dowlah (2020), the mainstream economic theories assume that migration is a voluntary decision of migrants or their families to work in another country for better opportunities and income. His assumption supports the world system theory that global interdependence is the vested interest of developed countries in keeping developing countries dependent on them. Similarly, Dowlah further described the Borjas model in his book chapter, which was developed by George Borjas of Harvard University (1980–90). According to that model, cross-border labour migration is mainly due to the wage differentials or the average return on labour and human capital in both the origin and destination countries. The volume of labour or migration is determined by their work skills and capacities, talents, education level, and other personal advantages. This model understands the flow of different types of labour workers between countries (Dowlah, 2020). Likewise, the Sjaastad model also suggested that the migration decision to cross borders is based on income benefits, better opportunities, job availabilities, and the potential of choosing better destinations.

Caf Dowlah highlights in his book that the majority of cross-border migration theories are based on economic benefits. According to mainstream economic theories, international migration primarily raises three questions: Who migrates? Why do they migrate? And what are the consequences of such migration for labour migrants, origin countries, and destination countries? Similarly, the Kaldor-Hicks cross-border theory proposed that migration raises wealth and happiness for people (Dowlah, 2020). Hence, Dowlah's theory is largely based on economic determinism, and he situates migration discourse on the liberal welfare/well-being economics which is still popular in the European context. Yet, the theory does not consider other factors of migration to be detrimental one (either as cause or consequences), including social, political, cultural, environmental, and psychological. Indeed, the social structure of Nepal and

India does not differ significantly; rather there are many similarities in socio-cultural, economic and livelihood strategies, whereby cross-border issue itself becomes a complex and multidimensional. These are also important determinants in the changing context of social mobility, particularly in cross-border migration and with open border systems as in Nepal and India.

The Key Three Theories Employed in the Present Study

The present study does not follow a particular theory of migration in a larger context as it follows a post-positivist approach of deductive logic. However, taking important insights for cross-border migration, classical theories are considered and thereby applied in the analysis of the findings along with a pragmatic worldview. Migration has been going on since the beginning of human history. The scientific literature available on migration studies reveals that Ernst Georg Ravenstein (1834–1913) is the pioneer scholar in the field of international migration who succeeds in establishing the laws of migration. However, several studies and scholarly descriptions might have been about social mobility and long-distance trade in ancient history. Ravenstein observed migration data between 1895 and 1889 and came to a conclusion that is called the "laws of migration." His conclusion was based on geographical factors such as reasons for migration, distance, migrant characteristics, and gender (Gurieva & Dzhioev, 2015).

According to theory, the major cause of migration is the economic factor, and it takes place in a stepwise process (i.e., rural-town-city-metropolitan city). The migrants are mainly traveling short distances (those going longer distances go for industry and commerce), where the distance between the origin and destination determines the volume of migration. Similarly, most migration takes place from agricultural and rural areas to industrial and urban areas. He believes that the large town grows more by migration than by natural population increases (birth rate), and migration increases along with the development of industry, commerce, and transport. Furthermore, he mentions that each migration stream produces a counter-stream where females are more migratory than males (at least over shorter distances) and males are a majority in international migration. The natives of towns are less migratory than those of rural areas, and migration is not only from a single direction; it may be bilateral and multilateral too.

Everett S. Lee 1966 reformulated Ravenstein's laws of migration and gave more emphasis on push-pull factors (Gurieva & Dzhioev, 2015). According to the model, the factors that determine the decision to migrate and the process of migration are into four categories i.e the area of origin, the area of destination, intervening obstacles, and personal factors. Lee described that many factors could motivate people to leave their place of origin for an outside area, i.e., push factors (factors associated with the area of origin). Similarly, there are very attractive forces in the area of a destination that lure people (pull factors) to the area. Such forces are often found in the metropolitan areas of a country (factors associated with the area of destination). According to Lee, push factors (e.g., poverty, political instability, religious intolerance, etc.) induce people to move out of their current location, and pull factors (e.g., democratic government, thriving economies, job opportunities, etc.) induce people to move to a new location. Furthermore, Lee (1966) has described the intervening obstacles like distance and transportation that increase migrants' selectivity of the area of destination in the migration process. However, these obstacles have been lessened in modern times with technological advances.

Lee (1966) also referred to the cost of movements, ethnic barriers, and personal factors as intervening obstacles. According to Lee, personal factors such as age, sex, race, and education along with the pull-push factors and intervening obstacles, would determine the migration. Further, there are sequential migrants, such as children and wives of migrants, who have little role in the decision to migrate. Lee has formulated three hypotheses, i.e. characteristics of migrants, the volume of migration, streams, and counter-streams of migration. Lee concluded that migration is always selective and is influenced by pull-push factors, where areas with plus factors (or pulling components) are first selected for migration.

There are various other theories on migration, though those theories are not completely applicable to the cross-border labour migration between Nepal and India. Weiner (1985) summarizes the four clusters of variables by explaining international migration. The first cluster is differential variables, which include wage and land prices. The second cluster includes spatial variables: distance and transportation costs. The third cluster of variables is religion, culture, language, and kinship network. Finally, the fourth cluster of variables is the access variables, which include the rules

for entry and exit. According to him, these four kinds of clusters of variables shape international labour migration and its process.

Migrant networks also play an important role in international labour migration. The process of migration is certainly facilitated by the information provided by relatives and friends and the inter linkages between sending and receiving countries. In the theory of migration systems, a social network between migrants and non-migrants is unquestionably a unit of analysis (Boyd, 1989). At a similar prospect, McKenzie and Rapoport (2007) discussed theoretical network-induced migration in the Mexican context, examining the implications of networks for lowering migration costs and expanding opportunities at the destination. This issue has been implied in the context of Nepal-India cross-border migration. The findings of the present study also replicate the similar causes of migration described in the analytical chapters.

Theories connect structures for the migrants with their relatives and friends at home who convey information about employment opportunities, support on financial backup, and accommodation facility at the destination. The networks like kinship, friendship, and shared community create contact between migrants and non-migrant families and finally contribute to enhancing opportunities for other migrants in their decision-making process, and supporting to reduce the risk, travelling, and accommodation cost (Massey et al., 1993).

From a different perspective, Laura et al. (2022) described a high-low-skilled migration dichotomy classified as construction, agriculture, prostitution (sex work) and domestic work are the low-skilled sectors where health and other technical professionals are high-skilled sectors. They further described the effect of mobility (brain drain/gain) as dependent on high-low skilled sectors. The lack of highly skilled labour migrants at the origin affects the development of the nation, which is taken as a brain drain for the origin.

As stated earlier, several scholars have explained the theories of migration. Understanding all the theories and views of different scholars and researchers would not completely saturate the analysis of the migration between Nepal and India. This study assumes that the Nepal-India migration cannot be well addressed by a single theory or model of migration. International migration in Nepal occurs differently;

however, parts of each theory might match somewhere. In my opinion, the push factor and the open border (access to easy entry and exit across the border) are the main causes of labour migration to India. People from Karnali and Sudurpaschhim Nepal migrated to India for their basic livelihood rather than for their better income. It is because regular jobs (labour works) are scarce in their home country of Nepal; they are forced to relocate to Indian destinations. At the same time, they can easily find work in Indian cities by utilizing their networks, although they encountered various problems and shortages in their destinations.

Similarly, the migration process of labour migrant workers from India to Nepal is different. Most Indian migrant labourers are skilled or semi-skilled in their profession of goods or services. They work in production, machinery, construction, handcrafts, and technical works, as well as in lower-level jobs like tailoring, barbering, washing machines, sweeping, mechanical labourers, hawking, retailing, and so on. However, as this study reveals, Nepalese people generally feel hesitation to involve themselves in different kinds of work, and they are more selective in choosing employment opportunities. Mainly, the pull factor is responsible for luring Indian labour migrants to Nepal. Due to the lack of skilled manpower in Nepal, having access to work, an open border, and high wages compared to their origin are pull factors. Finally, Indian migrants collected more remittances than Nepalese migrants.

Empirical Review

Historical Prospects of Foreign Migration

International migration began in the early 12th century. Mass migration happened during the "first wave of globalization" (1870–1913), when nearly 60 million people migrated from Europe to the "new world" of Australia, the United States, Brazil, Argentina, Canada, and New Zealand (Hatton & Williamson, 1992). Migration from Europe and Russia to the United States slowed during the 1930s for economic and political reasons. Several countries emerged as emigration countries after World War II. According to Solimano and Pollack (2004), Mediterranean countries started sending labourers to oil-rich Arab countries during the early 1970s, and the migrants from South Asia started to migrate to the Middle East, Malaysia, Singapore, and North America. Mexico and many African countries also started

migrating workers, mostly to North America. Latin America and many Caribbean English-speaking countries started sending labourers to Canada, the United States, Venezuela, Brazil, and Argentina. Cuba, Mexico, and the Dominican Republic were the major Latin American labour-sending countries to the United States during 1820–1998. Similarly, the USA is the main destination for major Asian countries like the Philippines, China, the Republic of Korea, and India, as well as some European countries, including the United Kingdom, Germany, Italy, and Ireland (Solimano & Pollack, 2004).

According to Hass (2005), the history of human migration is difficult to describe, but it is assumed that migration has been happening since the appearance of humans. People are moving from one place to another on the earth in search of food, shelter, and security, and this trend is continuing in the present world too. He claims that the proportion of international migrants in the global population increased in the 1990s, but that there were periods of drastic equal international migration in the nineteenth and twentieth centuries.

The International Migration 2019 report by UN DESA's Population Division examines the latest migration levels and trends by geographic, development, and income groupings, based on the 2019 revision of the International Migrant Stock, which found that the number of international migrants globally reached an estimated 272 million in 2019. That represents an increase of 51 million since 2010. It is also seen that the number of international migrants is estimated to be almost 272 million globally, with nearly two-thirds being labour migrants (UN DESA, 2019). This figure remains a very small percentage of the world's population (at 3.5%), meaning that the vast majority of people globally (96.5%) are estimated to be residing in the country in which they were born. In 2019, regionally, Europe hosts the largest number of international migrants (82 million), followed by North America (59 million), Northern Africa (49 million), and Western Asia (49 million).

Global Cross-Border Labour Migration Scenario

International labour migration can be observed in two aspects. In search of employment or better opportunities, labour migrants migrate to third countries, and at the same time, some of them just cross the border. That border can be legally open for

entry and exit with or without a visa or passport. According to Caf Dowlah (2020), cross-border labour mobility in Europe is guided by the Schengen Agreement (1985), where 26 countries from Europe and outside the EU follow open entry rules to travel within the zone without requiring a visa. Assuming that economic integration is possible through intra-European labour mobility, the number of signatory countries to the agreement has increased in recent days. Labour migrants from EU countries can work freely in each other's countries (in the Schengen area), like Nepal and India. But cross-border migration in EU countries is based on understanding the common objectives of labour mobility, i.e., to gain equal economic benefits in trade, skill transformation, and sharing labour potential.

Likewise, Heinz and Warmedinger (2006) also expressed that cross-border labour migration in the enlarged EU is more beneficial for each other's economic growth by bringing capital, skills, and new ideas from the destination. According to them, initially, it seems like the brain drains at its origin, but increasing migration adds more income to the country, which supports economic fluctuation. Adding to the above-mentioned statement, Kennam (2016) stated that the real wage effects are small and the gains from the Irish border in the EU are large. However, Parenti and Tealdi (2021) suggested that open border mobility in the EU supports the redistribution of benefits across European countries in the labour market, though some barriers should be reduced concurrently (Bartz & Fuchs-Schundeln, 2012). In the case of the Danish and German borders, the growth of labour mobility is caused by income disparities and specific features of jobs (Buch et al., 2009).

Paulo and Romano (2015) studied the differences between Mexican-born immigrants that live in the U.S. border region and Mexican-born cross-border workers that reside in Mexico but work in the United States. They divided the population into two groups for comparison in terms of their magnitude, socioeconomic characteristics, occupational structure, and earnings. The study showed that immigrants who live in the US border region get a better position than cross-border workers since they are on average younger, more educated, and have higher earnings. Furthermore, the wages and salary income of immigrants exceed those of cross-border workers by up to 85.9 percent among men and 83.7 percent among women (Paulo & Romano, 2015).

Similarly, Tellez and Mendoza (2011) found that the wage benefits for unskilled labour (illegal movement) for crossing the border are relatively smaller than the wage benefits of going from the interior of Mexico to the interior of the United States (even after controlling for transportation costs). On the other hand, emigration from Estonia to other cross-border countries such as Finland, Sweden, Latvia, or Russia appears to be the highest in the EU. This includes cross-border mobility to eastern neighboring countries like Latvia and Russia (east-east mobility) and western neighbors like Finland and Sweden (east-west mobility). Kaska and Paas (2013) focused their study on examining differences between East-East and East-West labour mobility by observing the main personal and job-related characteristics of Estonian people who have worked in neighboring countries. They have confirmed that workers with different personal and job-related characteristics are attracted to different destination regions, with the wealthier countries of Finland and Sweden on the one hand and the post-socialist countries of Latvia and Russia on the other.

But in Canada, the immigration policies are very friendly with the immigrants, which strengthen international ties by maintaining a humanitarian country. In the beginning, immigration to Canada was unrestricted and allowed everybody in. Canada's immigration policies do provide the best outcome where visas and careful selection before arrival protect the country from crime, disease, and economic decay. The already diverse population is very welcoming and ready to help integrate newcomers into Canadian culture and society (Sjoberg, 2017). According to her, Canada has always been known as a very welcoming country. In 1870, Canada had a population of 3.6 million people, over 146 years; statistics show the population grew to 36.3 million in 2017 (i.e., 35,151,728 in the 2016 Census).

The impact of international migration on the wage structure differs significantly across countries. It is analyzed in a comparative study by Aydemir and Borjas (2007). For example, international migration narrowed wage inequality in Canada, increased it in the United States, and reduced the relative wage of workers at the bottom of the skill distribution in Mexico. The economics of immigration concerns the impact of immigrants on the labour markets of sending and receiving countries. In Canada, international migration narrowed wage inequality because immigrants tend to be disproportionately highly skilled. International migration

increased wage inequality in the United States because immigrants were disproportionately low-skilled. In Mexico, however, emigration rates are highest in the middle of the skill distribution and lowest at the extremes. As a result, international migration has greatly increased relative wages in the middle of the Mexican skill distribution and lowered the relative wages at the extremes (Aydemir & Borjas, 2007).

People cross borders in large numbers, which appears to be relative to the overall population of many countries. A typical migrant moves from a low-labor-productivity country to a high-labor-productivity one. This has a direct impact on both the migrants and the remaining natives of the emigration countries through remittances. It is found that the long-run impact of observed levels of migration is large and positive for the remaining natives of both the main sending countries and the main receiving ones (Giovanni et al., 2012). They further added that in the countries with the highest immigration rates (e.g., Australia, New Zealand, and Canada), migration raised welfare through increased equilibrium variety. Because of remittances, natives in the countries with the highest emigration rates (El Salvador, Jamaica) had better opportunities. These forces are also at work for all other countries, but the relative strength of each varies substantially among them.

Eilenberg and Wadley (2009) have studied cross-border migration and found that cross-border ethnic relations are an important socio-economic strategy for the borderland between West Kalimantan, Indonesia, and Sarawak, Malaysia. The Iban populations of Kalimantan seeking more profitable wage work have long used their ethnic identity to facilitate circular labour migration across the international border into Sarawak, Malaysia, a strategy that has also compromised their claims to Indonesian citizenship. It is discovered that there are close connections between cross-border labour migration, ethnicity, identity, and citizenship, as well as how this relates to contemporary issues concerning Indonesian political and economic change. They argued that ethnic relations are a crucial component in cross-border labour migration among Iban border landers in West Kalimantan and illustrated how border landers are continually involved in practices that transcend the territorial line of the state, questioning its regulations through their maintenance of tight socio-economic relations with people on the other side of that line (Eilenberg & Wadley, 2009).

According to the 2011 Migration and Remittances Factbook, the major destination of migration from Asian countries is high-income non-OECD countries (31%), followed by high-income OECD countries (26%), within Asia (22%), and other developing countries (21%). Due to the emergence of other migration destinations following the second wave of work migration from Nepal to various global destinations such as the Gulf States and East Asia, migration to India continues to remain an important destination for poorer households in the middle hills (Donini et al., 2013).

Likewise in South Asia, Farhana (2018) examined the relationship among sexuality, migration, and citizenship in the context of cross-border and cross-region marriage migration in Kutch, Gujarat, to highlight women's mobility across borders between Bangladesh and India. The current cross-border marriage migration debates in Kutch help to understand the current concerns about citizenship and sexuality in the context of migration. These anxieties are brought to a head in the figure of the Bengali Muslim marriage migrant, and they are treated as illegal "infiltrators." Police admit that, even when suspects can show Indian identity documents, they are assumed to be false (Farhana, 2018).

Cross-border migration is both an opportunity and a challenge for individual migrants in North-East Asia as well (Akaha, 2006). According to him, the major cause of cross-border migration is economic; however, cultural and social issues and their networks play a vital role in migration. In North-East Asia, there are several examples of cross-border migration, like Mongolia to South Korea, China to the Russian Far East, Russia to China, Korea to Japan, and North Korea to China.

Nepal-India Cross-Border Migration (History, Trends and Patterns)

Nepal's Foreign Migration History. More than 200 years ago, international labour migration began in Nepal, particularly after World War I. Since the Treaty of Sugauli (1816) in the first quarter of the nineteenth century, Nepalese have been migrating. Nepalese migrants were also forced to recruit for the British army in colonial India and abroad (K.C., 1995). In a very comprehensive study, Kansakar (1982) showed the historical reasons for international migration between Nepal and India. After the war of 1814, the government of British India compelled the hill people of Nepal to join the Indian army based on the treaty and agreement prepared

between the representatives of British India and the government of Nepal in 1816. Around this time, people from the hills began to migrate out for foreign employment, initially for the army and police services, and later for other labour services. The study is limited to the Magars of Barse Panchayat in Gulmi District and the Gurungs of Panchamul Village Panchayat in Syangja District, who were recruited in the highest number in the foreign armies. The study is focused on the historical background of the recruitment of Nepalese in foreign armies and its implications. The British Company and later the British Government always recruited Nepali soldiers from certain ethnic groups, such as Gurung, Magar, Rai, and Limbu.

After two years, Kansakar (1984) further concluded the historical facts about Indo-Nepal migration in his paper, "Indo-Nepal Migration: Problems and Prospects." He highlighted three historical periods or regimes, i.e., i) before the British invasion of India, ii) during British colonial rule in India, and iii) the post-Rana rule in Nepal. The paper discussed the issue of Gurkha recruitment during the political changes in India and also presented the distribution of Indian immigrants in Nepal as reported in the 1971 census of Nepal and the distribution of Nepalese emigrants in India based on the censuses of India from 1891 to 1971.

Similarly, Gurung (1984) highlighted that Nepal has been a labour-sending country since the beginning of the nineteenth century. The population increases in the hills and moves to other areas within the country or outside the country to seek a better livelihood. The out-migration occurred with the recruitment of the British Indian Army, and mostly young men from tribes in the central and eastern hills were recruited. A large number of Indian soldiers (Gurkhas) returned home after the minimum service of 15 years; however, some of them were encouraged to settle in India. Thus, Gurkha colonies are created around the cantonment areas.

When the British received the Darjeeling Hills as a gift from a Sikkim ruler in 1835 and soon developed them as the center of the tea industry, the tea plantations recruited thousands of Nepalese workers from the eastern hills of Nepal. Many of these migrant workers have permanently settled in Darjeeling. The British rulers also encouraged Nepalese nationals to settle in Assam and northern Sikkim (Hutt, 1998). Kansakar (2001, 7) concludes, "It was almost impossible to control and regulate the movement of people along more than 1400 kilometers of the border." Moreover, the

British always wanted to keep the border open to recruit Nepalese youths into their army and facilitate the outmigration of Nepalese hill people to India (Kansakar, 2001). Similarly, Upreti (2008) claimed that Nepalese workers went to industrialized Indian cities, such as Delhi and Mumbai, only after 1950. The high volume of migration between Nepal and India was facilitated by the open border shared by these countries.

The international border of Nepal with India and China remained almost open for the movement of people from both of her neighbors. With China, it became closed after 1950, while it has remained open with India to date, with no restriction on the movement of people from both countries. Due to the open border, cultural similarities, and the lack of need for documentary evidence of migration to other countries, Nepal-India migration is prehistoric and even unaccounted for. Throughout the 19th century and well into the 20th, Nepalese men served in India, often accompanied by their wives and other family members. As the Gorkha settlements increased in number and size, they also attracted Nepali workers seeking civilian employment in India. The brothels developed in these new centers may well have included women from Nepal and the surrounding areas (Seddon et al., 2001).

The migration of Nepalese people to India occurs for other employment purposes, like working in the tea estates of Darjeeling and the forests of Assam, which began in the second half of the 19th century. Similarly, economic migration to the Middle East from South Asia and other parts of the world was encouraged by the oil boom in the early 1970s. International labour migration, mostly to the Gulf States, Malaysia, and other South East Asian countries, is a new phenomenon of migration in the Nepalese context with about a 30-year-long history (Aryal, 2006). He further observed that foreign labour migration has developed as a remittance-based economy rather than an agricultural-based economy. Likewise, Panthee (2012) concludes his view on the history of foreign employment in Nepal, which started in the early nineteenth century when Nepalese soldiers began to work for the British army. In the ensuing decades, hundreds of thousands of Nepalese have worked in the British and Indian armies. During his study period, he claimed that over 60 thousand Nepalese were working in the Indian Army and other government institutions in India.

Some scholars have coined the term "lahure" to refer to labour migrants. Generally, this terminology is used by Indian armies (Gorkha) as a "Paltanko Lahure." Nepal has a long history (over 200 years) of international labour migration. Nepalese youths have been moving to foreign countries for work and remitting money back to their homes. Some Nepalese men went to join the army of the Sikh ruler, Ranjit Singh, in Lahore (today's Pakistan), in the early nineteenth century, and the term "Lahore" has since then been used to refer to the returnees from Lahore as well as other migrant workers (Seddon et al., 2001; Thieme & Wyss, 2005; Seddon et al., 2002).

History of Foreign Migration in India and its Scenario. Davis (1951) made the first systematic study of population mobility in India. He concluded that the majority of Indians were immobile, though there was no restriction on internal movement in either the pre-colonial or post-colonial periods. According to him, the main reasons for immobility are the predominance of agriculture, the caste (jati) system, early marriage, joint family structures, and the barriers caused by the diversities of language and traditions and a lack of education. This truly implies the characteristics of Indian rural societies (cited in Bhagat, 2015).

India has a long history of migration. More than a century ago, large numbers of Indian migrants moved to Africa, the Caribbean, and the Indian subcontinent itself. Some of the top destinations for Indian migrants in more recent decades have included Persian Gulf countries, North America, and Europe. As of 2015, 15.6 million people born in India were living in other countries. India has been among the world's top origin countries for migrants since the United Nations started tracking migrant origins in 1990. Nearly half of India's migrants are in just three countries: the United Arab Emirates, Pakistan, and the United States. About 3.5 million Indians live in the UAE, the top destination country for Indian migrants. Over the past two decades, millions of Indians have migrated there to find employment as labourers. Pakistan has the second-largest number of migrants, with 2 million. Almost 2 million more live in the U.S., making up the country's third-largest immigrant group. Among Indian Americans, nearly nine-in-ten were born in India (Ministry of Finance/Government of India, 2017).

Seasonal labour migration from backward to developing regions is a livelihood strategy at the household level to cope with poverty in most developing countries. Children of those migrants are found in the worst conditions, whether they accompany their parents or are left behind in the village. Most of them are dropping out of school and are involved in supporting labour work with their parents (Roy et al., 2015). This study was conducted in Bihar and UP. Along the same lines, Mamgain (2016) concluded that the overall growth of Uttarakhand has been impressive since its separation from Uttar Pradesh. There are rare possibilities for productive employment and income opportunities in the hill region of Uttarakhand. It further limits job access in the public and private sectors. The lack of remunerative livelihoods eventually forces a large number of youths to migrate to cities in search of salaried jobs. Besides agriculture work, employment opportunities in construction work grew significantly, but local people are mostly unwilling to undertake manual work (Mamgain, 2016).

The high rate of rural-urban migration is driven by various push factors such as poor socio-economic conditions, climate, education, unemployment, and an overall lack of infrastructural facilities. Sati (2016) discovered that there is less out-migration (6%) in four districts in Uttarakhand (Udham Singh Nagar, Haridwar, Deharadun, and Nainital) that are fully and partially plain. However, 30 percent of in-migration has occurred in the area since the last decade. It is due to the availability of infrastructure facilities (roads, rails, and airways), industrial development, educational facilities, and the high output of agriculture. Simultaneously, highly educated people from the region migrated in search of better opportunities and living conditions (Sati, 2016).

According to the World Bank Report 2020, the top five remittance recipients in current US dollar terms were India (which received \$87 billion), China, Mexico, the Philippines, and the Arab Republic of Egypt, whereas the source country for remittances is the United States, followed by the United Arab Emirates, Saudi Arabia, and Switzerland. Similarly, in 2020, the top five recipient countries for remittances were India (83 billion), China (60 billion), Mexico (43 billion), the Philippines (35 billion), and Egypt (30 billion). India has been the largest recipient of remittances since 2008 (IOM, 2020).

The Economic Survey of India 2017 remarks that the magnitude of inter-state migration in India was close to 9 million annually between 2011 and 2016, while the census of 2011 showed the total number of internal migrants in the country at a staggering 139 million. Uttar Pradesh and Bihar are the two biggest source states, followed closely by Madhya Pradesh, Punjab, Rajasthan, Uttarakhand, Jammu and Kashmir, Kasmir, and West Bengal. The major destination states are Delhi, Maharashtra, Tamil Nadu, Gujarat, Andhra Pradesh, and Kerala. Furthermore, seasonal migrants dominate the low-paying, hazardous, and informal market jobs in key sectors in urban destinations, such as construction, hotel, textile, manufacturing, transportation, services, domestic work, etc. They have poor access to health services, which results in very poor occupational health since they cannot afford private hospitals; they often go back to their villages once they fall sick. This affects their employment opportunities as well as the loss of wages (Ministry of Finance/Government of India, 2017).

Since the colonial era, India has been a major source of human resources for many countries around the world. However, socio-economic migration to various destinations has been going on since the 19th century. India is not seen only as a country of origin but also catches up as a destination. A significant number of people from African countries and Asian countries (Sri Lanka, Bangladesh, and Nepal) come to India for education and work. Illegal migration is increasingly taking center stage in most migration debates. Not surprisingly, India is facing the problem of illegal migrants from Nepal and Bangladesh. Illegal migrants cause several kinds of problems in the local community and sometimes affect the socio-demographic profile of the region. They also affect employment opportunities for locals in the region by taking up jobs, sometimes at wage rates much below the prevalent wages (Khadria et al., 2011).

Problems and Issues of Cross-border Migration. India is the main destination for labour migrants from Karnali and Sudurpaschim Pradesh. The tradition of labour migration to India from Nepal has been continuing for generations. Migration in Sudurpaschim province shows the typical situation where people migrate to the Terai region as permanent migrants and go to India as seasonal migrants (Bhatt, 2015). Kansakar (1982) has indicated the historical relationship of cross-border migration between Nepal and India. After the Indo-Nepal War of 1814, British India and the government of Nepal signed a treaty. Based on that treaty, the hill people of Nepal can join the Indian army. Around this time, people from the hills began to migrate out for foreign employment, initially for the army and police services and later for other labour services. K.C. (1995) also expressed that the people of Nepal have been migrating since the Treaty of Sugauli (1816), and they were forced to recruit for the British army in colonial India and abroad. Due to open borders with cultural similarities, and the lack of need for documentary evidence for movement to other countries, Nepal-India migration is prehistoric and even unaccounted for (Seddon et al., 2001).

The report published by the National Planning Commission (NPC, 2020) describes the number of migrants from Karnali (3.2%) and Sudurpaschim (2.6%) to foreign countries, which is very low compared to other provinces of Nepal. But the volume of labour migration from Karnali and Sudurpaschim is high due to cultural affinity and easy access. Likewise, the government report shows that almost 366,153 Nepalese have returned from India during the period (22nd March 2020 to 25th July) which shows that the majority of migrants from this region go to India for work. This demonstrates that Indian migration is a significant source of income in the Sudurpaschim and Karnali provinces. Similarly, ICIMOD (2010) reports that the majority of migrants from western Nepal frequently visit destinations (India) due to low agricultural and livestock production in Nepal's hilly areas, resulting in food insecurity. They usually migrate to India for 4–6 months to sustain their livelihood.

Gurung (2012) described India as the preferred destination for migrants from western Nepal; however, the majority population, as a socially excluded group, was more likely to choose destinations with fewer opportunities. However, Khatri (2007) reveals that labour migration is both a challenge and an opportunity. At the individual

and household level, it provides a major livelihood strategy for many people who may not have found such an outlet domestically. The high level of labour migration has led to a modification in the structure of family life and has transferred the social and economic position of the family (Chand, 2013). According to CBS (2014), India was still the destination for 37.5 percent of emigrants in 2011, but the rate has been declining compared to 2001 (77.3%), 1991 (89.2%), and 1981 (93.1%).

The volume of Cross-Border Labour Migration between Nepal and India

The World Bank (2018) presented the data on international migration, where India is in the top position for labour-sending countries all over the world and has been in the 12th position among labour-accepting countries. According to the report, the total number of people from India who migrated to Nepal is 440,198, and to the world, it is 164,44,830 (top position), whereas Nepalese migration to India is 537,517, and to the world, it is 2,005,848.

The history of labour migration for foreign employment from Nepal is characterized by outflows to India until the end of the 19th century. Nepal and India share a long open border, and people do move to each other's countries without any restriction. The census showed that India received 93.1 percent of Nepali emigrants in 1981, which gradually declined to 89.2 percent in 1991, 77.3 percent in 2001, and 37.6 percent in 2011. India is the most popular destination for international migration from Nepal, but it has been decreasing with the rise of labour migration to other destination countries (like the GCC and Malaysia) in the last decade (Khatiwada, 2014). According to him, it is estimated that 5 million Nepalis are employed in foreign countries, of which around 40% left for India. Due to the outcome of the 1950 treaty signed between Nepal and India on peace and friendship, there are a large number of Nepalese in India who are almost undocumented. The India-Nepal Treaty (1950) of peace and friendship established a close and strategic relationship between the two neighboring countries. Due to the open border policy, there is no exact data on migrants crossing the borders. With a larger number of cross-border marriages, seasonal migration, and a long history of permanent settlement between the neighbors, it is difficult to measure the magnitudes of migration (Sharma & Thapa, 2013).

Srivastav (2011) has argued that migration rates are higher among those with higher educational attainment, social group status, and per capita consumption. There is no official data, but it is estimated that between 0.8 and 3 million Nepalese people work in India. Adhikari (2006) reported that about 50,000 Nepalese were still working in Indian armies and 5,000 in British armies. About 50–60 thousand Nepalese workers enter Darjeeling as seasonal agro-labourers. The mass cross-border movement of labourers between India and Nepal is contributing to the economic progress of the area (Bhardwaj, 2010).

A comparative study conducted by NIDS and the World Bank (2009) reveals that about 2.02 million Nepalis are working in other countries, including 8.36 percent women and 91.64 percent men. Of these, 0.88 million (43.74%) were working in India, and the rest (1.13 million, or 56.26%) were in other countries. According to Thieme et al. (2005), the total absent population of Nepal is 762,181, with 77.3 percent migrating to India, 14.5 percent migrating to Gulf countries, 4.9 percent migrating to other Asian countries, and 3.5 percent migrating to other countries. But Sharma and Sharma (2011) show the difference in the two censuses, indicating that many Nepalis are lost (missing) in India. Furthermore, the presence of a large number of Nepali women, girls, and children in Indian brothels, circuses, and mines might not be concluded in the Nepali census. Likewise, they noticed that the cross-border marriages result in many Nepali women setting up in India; seasonal labour migrants who travel frequently across the border; an improper definition of who Nepali migrants are and who Indian citizens of Nepali origin are; and the migration of whole families to India that do not get recorded in the Nepali census (Sharma & Sharma, 2011).

Although the majority of Nepalese continue to migrate to India for work, the proportion of Nepali migrant labourers to India has decreased over time, from 80% in 2000 to 41% in 2009 (World Bank, 2011). It is due to the emergence of other migrant destinations following the second wave of work migration from Nepal. Similarly, Kansakar (2001) has described the figure of India's migration as assumed to be out-migration, according to the absent population. The border between the two countries is an open one, which means the citizens of either country can move freely across the land without even being recorded. Hence, the actual number of Nepalis in India

remains unknown, and it is estimated to be between a few hundred thousand and a few million (Seddon et al., 2001).

Policy Review

About the Indo-Nepal Peace and Trade Treaty

The Treaty of Peace and Friendship between the Government of India and the Government of Nepal (the 1950 India-Nepal Treaty of Peace and Friendship) is a bilateral treaty between Nepal and India, held at Kathmandu on July 31, 1950. The treaty was signed by Mohan Shamsheer Jang Bahadur Rana, then Prime Minister of Nepal, and Chandreshwor Narayan Singh, Indian Ambassador to Nepal (then). The main goal of the treaty is to provide everlasting peace and friendship between the two countries.

The treaty has ten articles mentioning that the two governments agree mutually to acknowledge and respect the complete sovereignty, territorial integrity, and independence of each other, undertake to inform each other of any serious friction or misunderstanding with any neighboring states, agree to continue diplomatic relations with each other, and appoint representatives. Similarly, the government of Nepal shall be free to import from or through the territory of India the equipment necessary for the security of Nepal. Furthermore, each government should treat nationals concerning participation in both territories' industrial and economic development. The Governments of India and Nepal agree to grant, on a reciprocal basis, to the nationals of one country in the territories of the other, the same privileges in the matter of residence, ownership of property, participation in trade and commerce, movement, and other privileges of a similar nature (1950 India-Nepal Treaty of Peace and Friendship). However, the treaty has been contested in terms of its unequal diplomatic signatories, pro-Indian positions, and its endorsement of the Rana regime in Nepal at its terminating tenure.

According to Nayak (2010), the India-Nepal Bilateral Treaty is a matter of debate in Nepal, though Nepal has benefited much more from it than India. India has agreed to review, adjust, and update the treaty while giving due recognition to the special features of the bilateral relationship. He suggested that India–Nepal bilateral relations be modified into a strategic partnership that seeks to promote security, modernization, and prosperity. However, citizens of both countries traveling and

working freely across the borders are regarded as native citizens as the result of a bilateral friendship treaty signed between the two countries (Bhattarai, 2007).

Migration Policies and Legal Institutions in Nepal

According to the Ministry of Labour and Foreign Employment, the Government of Nepal (2016) has formulated different policies, laws, institutions, and programs for addressing and facilitating safer, more prestigious, and better-managed labour migration processes. The government has collaborated with the United Nations and other international agencies to develop policies and legal frameworks, establish structural mechanisms, and promote safe, dignified, and decent foreign employment for migrants. There are various institutes and policies to manage or guide immigration in Nepal, like those of the Ministry of Labour and Employment (MoLE), the Department of Foreign Employment (DofE), the Foreign Employment Promotion Board (FEPB), and the Foreign Employment Tribunal (FET).

Similarly, the government's first attempt at regulating foreign employment was issued in 1985 in the form of the Foreign Employment Act (the act was a response to the growing demand for labour in the global market and encouraged people to migrate to selected countries), The National Labour Policy, 1999 (which includes a few strategies emphasizing the importance of developing mechanisms and structures to facilitate foreign employment), and The Foreign Employment Act, 2007. Like Nepali citizens, Indian citizens in Nepal have "privileges of a similar nature," such as ownership of property and participation in trade and commerce.

Formal Entry-Exit Points between Nepal and India

There are 22 entry points (referred to as trade and transit points) along the India-Nepal border, among which six points are referred to as the immigration points for the nationals of any third country, i.e., Banbasa-Mahendranagar, Gourifanta-Dhangadi, Rupadiya-Nepalganj, Sunouli-Bhairawa, Raxoul-Birganj, and Naxalbari-Kakarbhitta. The main exit points lie in four states in India and ten zones in Nepal.

Institutional Mechanisms of Labour Migration in India

The government of India has established the Ministry of Labour and Employment to protect and safeguard the interests of workers who constitute the poor,

deprived, and disadvantaged sections of society. The ministry is also focused on the promotion of welfare and providing social security to the labour force. For this reason, the government of India has formulated various acts and policies that regulate the terms and conditions of service and employment of workers. The state governments are also competent to enact legislation, as labour is a subject on the concurrent list under the Constitution of India. At present, there are 44 labour-related statutes enacted by the Central Government of India dealing with minimum wages, accidental and social security benefits, occupational safety and health, conditions of employment, disciplinary action, the formation of trade unions, industrial relations, etc. (MoLE/GoI, 2020).

To bring transparency and accountability to the enforcement of labour laws and ease the complexity of compliance, the Ministry of Labour and Employment in the Government of India has four major organizations under the Ministry of Labour. i.e., the Office of the Chief Labour Commissioner (Central), the Directorate General of Mines Safety, the Employees' Provident Fund Organization, and the Employees' State Insurance Corporation. Although there are terms of employment defining the specific terms, the employees in the organized private sector are governed by various laws such as the Payments of Bonus Act, Equal Remuneration Act, Payment of Gratuity Act, Employees Provident Fund, and Miscellaneous Provisions Act, Employees' State Insurance Act, Maternity Benefit Act, etc. (MoLE/GoI, 2020).

Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs) and Migration

The 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development recognizes for the first time the contribution of migration to sustainable development (Suliman, 2017). Migration is a cross-cutting issue in the 2030 Agenda, relevant to all of the Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs). It was not the case with Millennium Development Goals (MDGs), however. Further, the SDG's motto to "leave no one behind" is a clear call for sustainable development to be inclusive, including for migrants. IOM has assessed that at least ten out of 17 goals contain targets and indicators that are directly relevant to migration or mobility (IOM, 2018). For example, the SDGs' central reference to migration is made in Target 10.7 to facilitate orderly, safe, regular and responsible migration and mobility of people, including through the implementation of planned and well-managed migration policies, which appear under Goal 10 to reduce

inequality within and among countries. Other targets also make direct connections to migration topics, including labour migration (8.7 and 8.8), international student mobility (4. b), human trafficking (5.2, 8.7 and 16.2), remittances (10. c), migration data (17.18) and more. A few studies have also assessed that the SDGs have opened up a new policy in the context of migration (Piper, 2017).

The Fifteenth Plan and Migration

Nepal's planned development was initiated in 1956 along with the formation of the National Planning Commission. The periodic plans of different eras have focused on the issue of internal migration rather than international migration. This is again replicated in the *Fifteenth Five-Year Plan (2019/20 – 2023/24)*. The migration issue has been discussed under a broader categorization of the social sector. The social sector covers 11 different issues and among them, migration and population are kept at the first issue. The long-term vision is set for developing productive population (demographic) resources while following the objective of proper management of population and migration (NPC, 2019, p. 171-172). However, no specific focus has been laid on international migration in general and labour migration in particular. India -Nepal labour migration has thus fallen into a shadowed side of policy and development interventions in Nepal.

Key Research Gaps and Conceptual Framework

According to Bhagat and Keshari (2020), Uttar Pradesh (UP) is the "state of labour migration in India." Similarly, Bala (2017) highlighted that the majority of Indian migrants from rural areas of India migrated to other cities for better opportunities, higher income, better wages, and other facilities. Brusle (2008) described how migration to India for work has been a common livelihood strategy for a large proportion of rural households in food-insecure areas of mid- and far-western Nepal for two or three generations. Furthermore, he added that Nepalese migrants choose Delhi for a long stay and Uttarakhand for a short stay. According to Basyal (2020), the larger number of Nepali migrants to Delhi is due to the open border, shorter distance, and social network, where the network plays a vital role in getting jobs, shelter, loans, and saving money. He also stated that Nepali labour migrants to India are there for survival rather than to improve their standard of living.

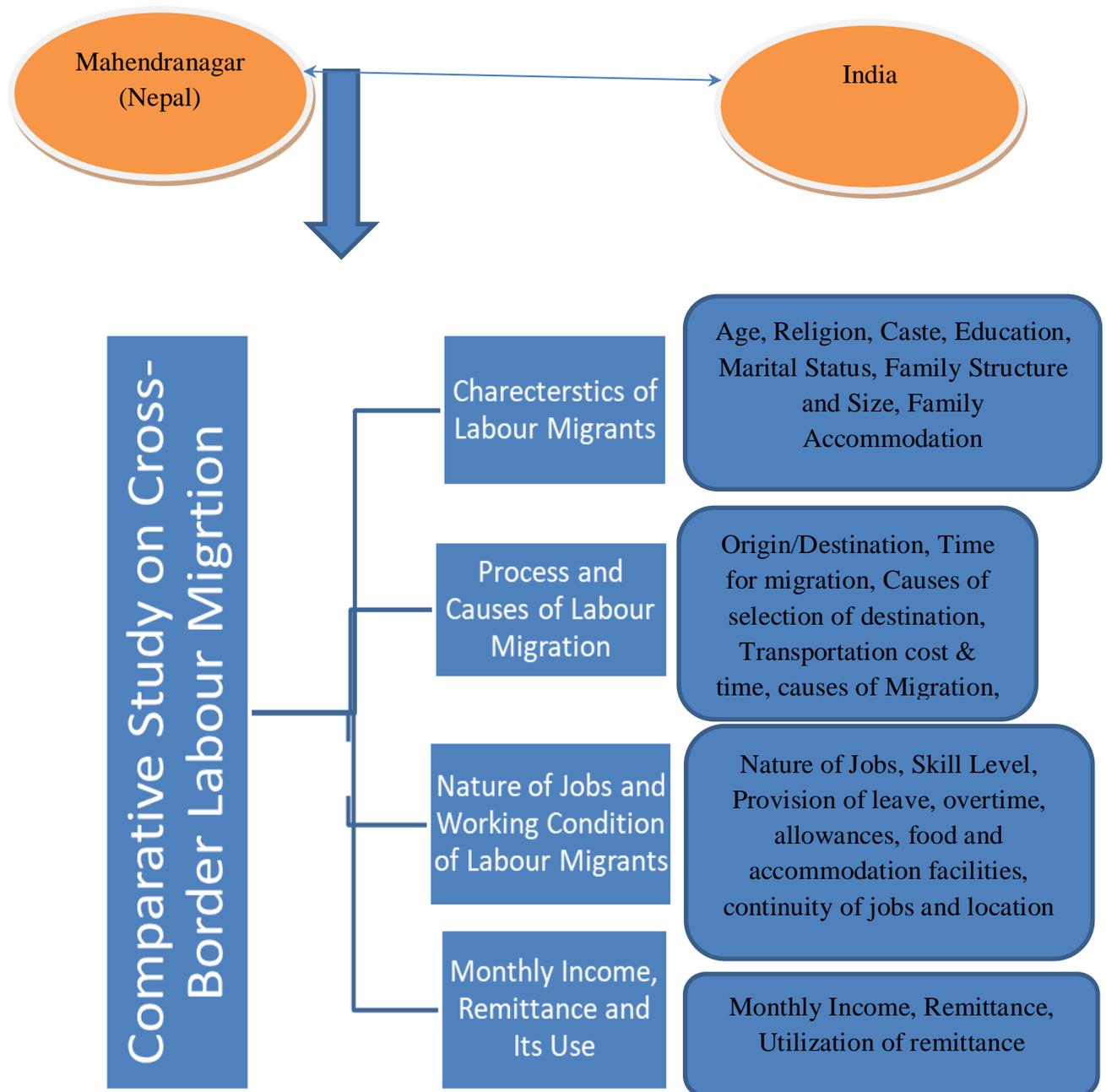
Due to poverty, unemployment, declining natural resources, and, lately, the Maoist insurgency, labour out-migration has become an increasingly important livelihood strategy in Nepal (Thieme, 2006). According to a report by Nepal Rastra Bank (2009), migrants were found to work as porters, security guards, workers in hotels and restaurants, construction workers, agriculture labourers, drivers, factory workers, and some working in offices. This was also documented earlier: Nepali migrants work in restaurants, factories, and premises as drivers, house servants, agriculture workers, porters, stone pullers, coal mine workers, rickshaw pullers, and employees of the Indian Government Service (Bhattra, 2007).

In the case of Indian workers, Karki (2018) mentioned that the Indian workers usually work on roads, hydroelectricity projects, and other construction projects, although hundreds of young Nepalese are still flocking abroad, taking out huge loans to work overseas. Similarly, Kunwar (2015) investigated the determinants and consequences of migration at the family level with migrants' and non-migrant households' well-being and livelihood status and discovered that migrants' families have a better livelihood status than others. According to ICIMOD (2010), unskilled workers from Nepal earned Nepali Rupees (NRs.) 7200 and skilled workers earned NRs. 9,600 per month. The remittance is mostly used for consumption, like food and clothes, but little for education (Adhikari, 2015). The study did not confirm their average monthly income.

Similarly, Nepal Rastra Bank 2009 reports that migration is a major source of livelihood that has been practiced for generations and receives the largest amount of remittances from India. Foreign employment in other countries supports growth in Nepal because of the unemployment situation and low personal development opportunities within Nepal (Nicander, 2015). Some other researchers and working papers (Chourasia, 1980; Kansakar, 1974; 2003; Basyal, 2014; Seddon, Adhikari, & Gurung, 2001; Subedi, 2003; Gill, 2003; Nepal Rastra Bank, 2009; Thieme & Muller, 2010; Brusle, 2006; Gautam, 2012; Bala, 2017) have studied the various issues of labour migration from Nepal to India. However, it is discovered that there is a research gap on the comparative perspective of labour migration between two countries, and need to search that why and how people work in each other country.

Figure 2.1

Conceptual Framework of Labour Migration between Nepal and India (employed in the present study)



Chapter Summary

Migration is a multi-dimensional process and it brings positive and negative impacts on human life. Migration is the movement of people from one place to another. Different organizations like ILO, UN agencies, and IOM describe migration and its process as well. There are different theories on migration however Ravenstein's theory of migration, Everett Lee's theory of push-pull hypothesis, Social Network theory, O.D. Duncan's theory, Caf Dowlah's cross-border theory, and Zelinsky's mobility transition model (1971) are most appropriate in labour migration between Nepal and India. International labour migration began especially after the First World War but in Nepal, it started around 200 years ago. People of Nepal have been migrating since the treaty of Sugauli (1816) in the first quarter of the 19th century. Kansakar (1982) shows the historical reasons for international migration between Nepal and India. Treaty of Peace and Friendship between the Government of India and The Government of Nepal (The 1950 India-Nepal Treaty of Peace and Friendship) is a bilateral treaty between Nepal and India held at Kathmandu on 31 July 1950. There are various institutes and policies to manage or guide immigration in Nepal such as the Ministry of Labour and Employment (MoLE), the Department of Foreign Employment (DoFE), the Foreign Employment Promotion Board (FEPB), and the Foreign Employment Tribunal (FET). There are 22 entry points (refer to trade and transit points) along the India-Nepal border, among them six points are referred to as the immigration points for the nationals of any third country.

CHAPTER III

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

This chapter deals with the methodological foundation of the present study; it begins with the philosophical considerations and research paradigm. It explains the study area, sample size calculation, sampling procedure, tools and techniques of qualitative and quantitative data collection and analysis, and operational definitions of variables, and then employed ethical and quality standards.

Research Philosophy

Philosophical considerations denote ontological, epistemological, and axiological assumptions. As this study was carried out using mixed method research design, it followed post-positivist philosophy i.e. pragmatism. It is considered as the multiple realities of this study seeking the comparative analysis of cross-country labour migration between Nepal and India. At the same time, it is also assumed that the reality of migration is single.

Ontology deals with the nature of being or what exists (Neuman, 2016). The ontological assumptions are the first sets of assumptions that deal with the nature of existence (Cohen, Manion, & Morrison, 2011). It is concerned with what we believe constitutes social reality (Guba, 1990). It focuses on reality and its essential categories. It is believed that reality is objective and common to all the migrant labourers of both countries. The reality is the product of the common concept of migrant labour. Ontologically, the researcher believes that the realities exist in the form of common and objective mental construction of the migrants. Researchers believe that there are some common causes of labour migration even though both countries have plenty of job opportunities then also people migrate from one to another county in search of a job. The ontological premise of this study is to explore the nature of the existing reality related to understanding the cross-border labour migration between Nepal and India.

Epistemology is concerned with the theory of knowledge; the logic of the methods, validation, and possible ways of gaining knowledge of social reality. In the other words, it is about how we come to know certain things about the world (Broom & Willis, 2007). The epistemological stance in this study is based on how and what the researcher knows to reach the valid truth. The researchers' epistemological assumptions are deep-rooted in ontological assumptions. To put it in other words,

every individual has the same perspectives and experiences in noticing and realizing the causes of migration. The focus of this study rests on common grounds of migrants' experience or understanding of why they migrate from one to another country. Almost all migrants have similar causes of migration irrespective of job opportunities available in their own country. The epistemological understanding was considered to be the main source of knowledge (Cohen et al., 2011) about the evaluation of the nature of jobs and conditions of migrants at their destination and their remittance pattern. Moreover, it is concerned with knowledge, the nature of knowledge, and its forms. So, my epistemological assumption is knowledge objective which can be generated from the common experiences of every individual migrant.

This study is built on the belief that the positivist approach of the research design is not enough to meet the objective of the research. This research recognizes that reality is better known by an open mind and exploratory character. As a post-positivist paradigm, this research realizes that "no matter how faithfully the scientist adheres to scientific method research, research outcomes are neither totally objective nor unquestionably certain" (Crotty, 2020, p. 40). With the post-positivist paradigm, this social research has designed a Quan-Qual methodology; where quantitative is the predominant methodology and qualitative methodology served as complementary to the quantitative. Mixing the method is expected to make the study stronger (Creswell & Tashakkori, 2007). The quantitative technique, the primary methodology, is designed to figure out the degree of relationship between the independent and dependent variables; and the qualitative technique, the second methodology is to explain the nature of the relationship.

This study believes that labour migration occurs between Nepal and India. This study aims to explore the causes of migration, its process, and its remittance pattern. The quantitative-qualitative methodology has been undertaken to test and explain the nature of the relationship. This research attempts to explain the migration situation and its impact on cross-border labour migration between Nepal and India.

General Description of the Study Area (Kanchanpur District)

Kanchanpur district is situated in the southwestern part of Sudurpaschim Province, Nepal. It is bordered by Dadeldhura in the north, Kailali in the east, and India in both the west and south direction. Before the reunification of Nepal by Gorkha king Prithivi Narayan Shah, the district was the part of Doti Kingdom. Nepal lost it to the East India Company after the Anglo-Nepalese War (1814-1816) which

terminated at the Sugouli treaty in 1816 held between the then kingdom of Nepal and East India Company. Later on, Nepal recovered the Kanchanpur district along with Banke, Bardiya, and Kailali (collectively known as *Nayaamuluk*) in 1860 with political goodwill from the British India Government to Nepal (CBS, 2012).

Table 3.1

Area of Kanchanpur District by Local Level

S. N.	Local levels	Number of HHs	Area in Sq. Km	Pop. Density	Population Size			Family size
					Male	Female	Total	
1	Betkot Municipality	9,219	159.9	309.4	23,492	25,987	49,479	5.4
2	Belouri Municipality	8,657	123.4	434.0	25,457	28,087	53,544	6.2
3	Beldandi Rural Municipality	3,760	36.7	598.1	10,240	11,709	21,949	5.8
4	Bhimdatt Municipality	20,684	171.8	608.8	51,087	53,512	104,599	5.1
5	Krishnapur Municipality	10,016	252.7	224.1	27,059	29,584	56,643	5.7
6	Laljhadi Rural Municipality	3,640	154.7	145.9	11,086	11,483	22,569	6.2
7	Mahakali Municipality	7,392	56.8	690.6	18,130	21,123	39,253	5.3
8	Punarbans Municipality	9,909	103.7	517.0	24,907	28,726	53,633	5.4
9	Suklafanta Municipality	8,838	162.6	287.7	21,898	24,878	46,776	5.3
		82,134	1222.3	366.9	213,383	235,120	448,503	5.5
Total						0	3	

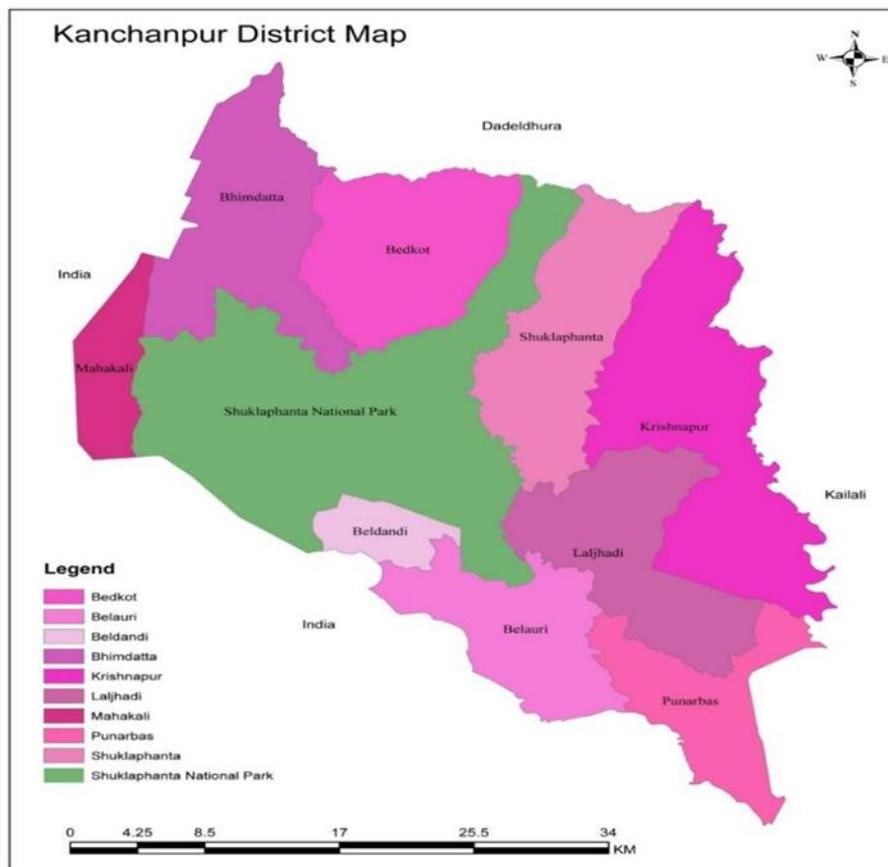
Source: CBS (2012).

Kanchanpur district covers 1,222.3 Sq. Km. and administratively it is distributed to seven municipalities and two rural municipalities. Mahendrangar is the headquarter of the district declared in 2019 B.S. According to CBS (2012), the district had 82,134 households (HHS) with a total population of 448,503 including male-213,383(47.6%) and female-235,120(52.4%), and the average family size of 5.5 as shown in Table 3.1.

The population of Kanchanpur district consists of different caste/ ethnic groups, including 28.93% Chhetri, 25.68% Tharu, 15.96% Brahmins, and 7.72% Dalit followed by others (CBS, 2012). The national sample census of agriculture (2011-12) shows that agriculture (including livestock and poultry), cottage industry, and trading are the main economic activities of the district. The majority of the people (i.e. 75.65% HHs) stated that agriculture forms their major source of income, the other sources being the service sector followed by the production (manufacturing) sector.

Figure 3.1

Map of Kanchanpur District/Sudurpaschim Province



Source: Topographical Map (2001), Department of Survey, Nepal

Bhimdatt Municipality

Bhimdatt municipality is situated in the Kanchanpur district of Sudurpashchim Province, Nepal. The municipality is named in the honor of the revolutionary leader and martyr Bhimdatt Pant (1926-1953) in 2008 A.D after Nepal became a republic. Before that, it was named Mahendranagar municipality, in the name of the late king Mahendra (1920-1972). The municipality is surrounded by Bedkot municipality in the east, Uttarakhand (India) in the west, Dadeldhura district in the north, and Suklaphanta National Park in the south. The majority of people have migrated to this district from the hilly districts of Baitadi, Darchula, and Dadeldhura. The indigenous people living here are the Rana-Tharus. There is a unique combination of ethnic groups and other castes having cultural diversity and heterogeneous structure in Bhimdatt municipality. The Bhimdatt Municipality, the study area covers an area of 171.63 square kilometers. The municipality is divided into 19 wards (CBS, 2012).

Population Composition of Study Area. According to CBS (2012), the population of this municipality is 104,599 (Male-51,087 and Female-53,512) with 20,684 households (Table 3.2). Likewise, on average 87.11 percent of males and 72.11 percent of females literacy rate is found in the municipality. Male literacy is found highest (93.4 percent) in ward number 4 as it is the town area of the municipality; however, female literacy is found at 73.1 percent only.

Table 3.2

Distribution of Ward Level Population by Number of Households, Sex, Literacy rate, and Family size

Wards	Households (HHs)	Population Size			Literacy Rate			Family Size
		Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total	
1	644	1484	1598	3082	86.9	74.1	76.6	4.8
2	1155	3297	3407	6704	88.9	70.2	77.9	5.8
3	1137	2783	2830	5613	88.7	70.2	77.9	4.9
4	1278	2907	2723	5630	93.4	73.1	85.8	4.4
5	679	2062	2002	4064	89.7	69.2	79.9	6.0
6	1936	4413	4560	8973	92.5	79.2	83.3	4.6
7	969	2356	2611	4967	86.7	75.9	76.2	5.1
8	897	2086	2404	4490	84.7	75.3	73.4	5.0
9	1259	3445	3602	7047	84.6	65.9	73.1	5.6
10	1777	4438	4945	9383	88.2	74.4	76.0	5.3
11	730	1850	2017	3867	83.1	68.8	72.3	5.3
12	537	1351	1560	2911	83.3	72.9	71.5	5.4
13	862	2197	2642	4839	84.3	74.8	71.2	5.6
14	564	1317	1662	2979	83.8	78.8	70.5	5.3
15	790	1863	2052	3915	91.6	83.1	82.0	5.0
16	581	1368	1533	2901	85.7	75.8	74.5	5.0
17	326	917	929	1846	87.5	72.9	78.9	5.7
18	3805	8877	8137	17014	87.7	66.3	80.1	4.5
19	758	2076	2298	4374	81.7	68.5	70.8	5.8
Total	20684	51087	53512	10459	87.6	72.1	77.3	5.0

9

Source: CBS (2012).

On Average, 51 percent of females and 49 percent of males are found of the total population in the municipality where 87.6 percent of males and 72.1 percent of females were found to be literate. According to CBS (2012), the national literacy rate of males is 71.6 percent and for females is 44.5 percent. In comparison to the national educational report, the literacy rate of the Bhimdatt Municipality is found quite high.

Composition of Population according to Religion and Mother Tongue.

Doteli is the mother tongue mostly spoken by Nepal residing in the hilly region of Sudurpaschim Province however; they have a different tongue in each district. The larger size of the population in Bhimdatt Municipality migrated from different hill districts of Sudurpaschim Province and hence there is an influence on language too. As presented in table 4.3, about 73 percent of the population speaks the Doteli language as their mother tongue. Similarly, 13.3 percent use the Nepali language and 8 percent speak the Tharu language (CBS, 2012).

Table 3.3

Distribution of Population by Language and Religious Composition

S.N.	Language	Population	Percentage	Religion	Population	Percentage
1	Doteli	61,270	58.6	Hindu	103,175	98.6
2	Nepali	13,888	13.3	Buddha	347	0.4
3	Baitadi	10,109	9.7	Islam	272	0.2
4	Tharu	8,362	8.0	Christian	469	0.5
5	Banjangi	4,283	4.1	Others	336	0.3
6	Others	6,687	6.4			
	Total	104,599	100.0		104,599	100.0

Source: CBS (2012).

Likewise in terms of religion, 98.6 percent of the population follows the Hindu religion whereas 0.5 percent is Christian, 0.3 percent is Buddha, 0.2 percent is Islam and the rest are others in Bhimdatt Municipality.

Composition of Population according to Age Group. As per the census 2011, the composition of the population under the age of 15 is 13 percent whereas 59 percent of people are between (15-59) years and only 8 percent of people are above 60 years (CBS, 2012). Furthermore, the population by sex is distributed differently based on their different age group. The population of a female with having age less than 15 years is 47 percent, the age between 15 years to 59 years is 53.3 percent and the age over 60 years is 52 percent. On average, the population distribution of females in Bhimdatt municipality is 51.2 percent. It shows that the size of the female population is found larger than males in the municipality (CBS, 2012).

Table 3.4*Distribution of Population of the Study Area by Sex Composition*

Age Group	Sex					
	Male		Female		Total	
	(N)	(%)	(N)	(%)	(N)	(%)
<15 Years (Child population)	18,089	35.4	16,055	30.0	34,144	32.7
(15-59) Working age population	29,012	56.8	33,143	61.9	62,155	59.4
60+ Elderly population	3,986	7.8	4,314	8.1	8,300	7.9
Total	51,087	100.0	53,512	100.0	104,599	100.0

Source: CBS (2012).

Caste/Ethnic Composition of Municipality. In the municipality, there is a diverse composition of caste/ethnicity. Comparatively the population belonging to Chhetri is the highest (36%) and Sanyasi (2%) is the lowest in the municipality. The population of Brahmin is 28 percent, Thakuri is 11 percent, Dalit is 20 percent and others are of 3 percent caste living in the municipality.

Table 3.5*Distribution of Population by Caste/Ethnic Group in the Study Area (Bhimdatt)*

Caste/Ethnic Group	Population (N)	Percent (%)
Hill Brahmin	26,480	25.3
Chhetri	33,902	32.4
Thakuri	10,014	9.6
Sanyasi	2,393	2.3
Dalit	18,565	17.7
Tharu/Janjati	10,023	9.6
Others	3,223	3.1
Total	104,599	100.0

Source: CBS (2012).

Table 3.6*Distribution of Population by Religion in the Study Area (Bhimdatt)*

Caste/Ethnic Group	Population (N)	Percent (%)
Hindu	103,175	98.6
Buddha	347	0.3
Christian	528	0.5
Muslim/Islam	213	0.2
Others	336	0.4
Total	104,599	100.0

Source: CBS (2012).

Similarly, 98.6 percent of the population belongs to the Hindu religion, whereas a small number (1.4%) of Christians, Buddhists, Muslims, and others.

Population, Sample Size, and Sampling Procedure

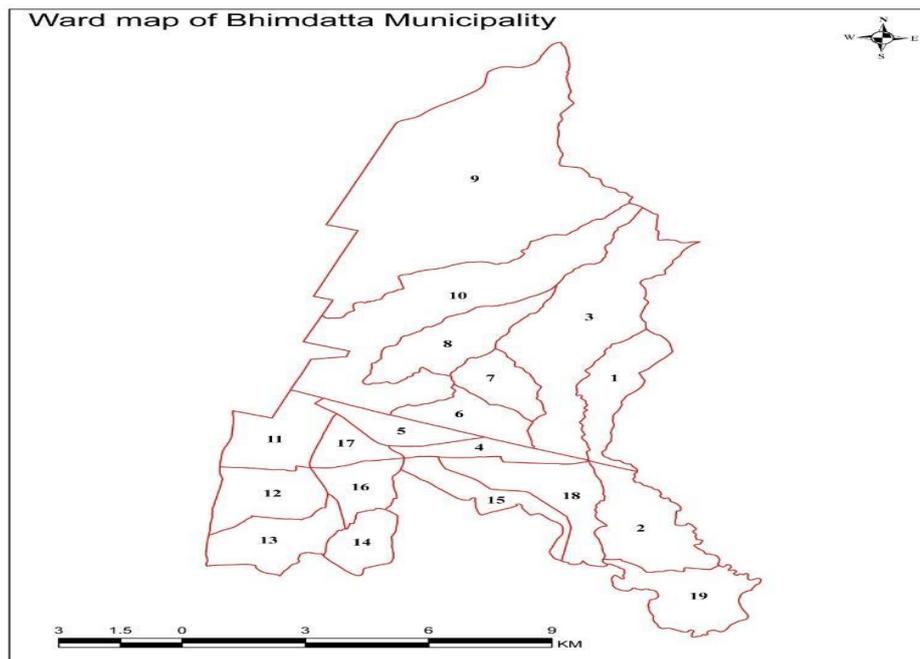
The population of this study comprised labour migrants from Nepal and India. This study is focused on the Bhimdatt Municipality of Kanchanpur district. The rationale for the selection of the study area was that the border area of India has easy access to entry where Indian labourers are doing their work for a long. Likewise, Nepali workers from Bhimdatt Municipality seem moving to India for work frequently. The movement of labour migrants can be noticed in every border area however in the context of Sudurpaschim province, Gaddachouki is one of the main borders for easy entry/exit of migrants and the big numbers of migrants cross through this border. Being a local citizen of the study area, it was easy to do coordination and work with respondents. Hence, Bhimdatt Municipality was taken as the study area.

The population of migrant labourers in both of the destinations was not exactly known. In the case of Nepali migrants to India, Bhimdatt Municipality collected data on labour migrants for the Municipality profile in 2020. According to the report, 4,865 people from different wards migrated to India for work. Likewise, there is a survey that identified the Indian labour migrants in Bhimdatt municipality (Mahendranagar). As their nature of jobs relates to the town area, it is observed that about 924 Indian labourers were working in Mahendranagar (Nepal). For determining the volume of Indian labour- migrants to Bhimdatt Municipality, the researcher himself carried out a household survey. To know the number of Indian labourers in

Mahendranagar, the researcher visited the office of the municipality and chamber of commerce from where he was informed about the nature of jobs of Indian labourers in the city. The survey was focused on four sectors (construction, manufacturing, agriculture, and service) to collect the volume of labour migrants who are staying at least six months in the Bhimdatt Municipality.

Figure 3.2

Map of Bhimdatt Municipality with Wards Boundary



Source: Topographical Map (2001), Department of Survey, Nepal

Sample Size for Nepali - labour Migrants to India

The sampling design in survey tool been suggested by various scholars in migration studies (Fawcett & Arnold, 1987; Jamshidi et al., 2013). As suggested by Bloemraad (2013) comparative migration studies use the full breadth of evidence commonly employed by academic researchers, from in-depth interview data to the mass survey where different sample sizes could also be taken and compared with scientific assessment. According to the municipality profile, from all 19 wards of the municipality, in total 4,865 labour migrants are working in India. The researcher followed the simplified formula for proportion (Yamane, 1967) to derive the sample size and determined the 370 Nepali migrants to India.

$$\text{Sample Size (n)} = N / [1 + N (e^2)]$$

Where,

n= required sample size, N= Total Nepali-labour migrants to India

e = Level of precision (5 percent)

$$\begin{aligned}\text{Sample Size} &= 4,865 / [1 + 4,865 (0.05 \times 0.05)] \\ &= 4,865 / 13.16 \\ &= 369.6 \\ &= 370\end{aligned}$$

Sample Size for Indian-labour Migrants

The survey for determining the population of Indian workers in Bhimdatt Municipality was carried out by the researcher himself. During the survey, there were 924 Indian labour- migrants working in Bhimdatt Municipality for more than six months in various sectors (service, manufacture, agriculture, and construction sectors), and with a similar formula of sampling, 280 samples have been calculated proportionately based on their involvement.

$$\begin{aligned}\text{Sample Size (n)} &= N / [1 + N (e^2)] \\ &= 924 / [1 + 924(0.05 \times 0.05)] \\ &= 924 / 3.31 \\ &= 279.2 \\ &= 280 \text{ required Minimum Sample size}\end{aligned}$$

Where,

n= required sample size, N= Total Indian - labour migrants to Nepal

e = Level of precision (5 percent)

Stratification and Allocation of Sample

Assigned sample sizes of respondents of labour migrants were selected by using a stratified proportional sampling method. It is a method of sampling that involves the division of a population into smaller subgroups or strata.

In the proportionate stratified method, the sample size of each stratum is proportional to the population size of the stratum. Stratified proportionate sampling represents proportionality to the relative size of the strata in the target population where each stratum has an equal sampling fraction (Suwal, 2021). For determining the sample of Nepalese migrants to India, a sampling frame of migrants' households for

each ward was obtained from the municipality's census conducted in 2019.

Accordingly, 19 wards are treated as strata.

After determining the sample size for each ward, a lottery method has been carried out for selecting the households of the labour migrants in each ward. In case of migrants remain absent at their home (origin), other households were selected further using the lottery method again.

Table 3.7

Distribution of Sample Allocation of Nepali Labour Migrants to India

Wards	Total number of labour migrants to India	Proportion	No. of Respondents (Sample)
1	215	0.045	16
2	388	0.079	30
3	243	0.049	18
4	76	0.016	6
5	325	0.066	25
6	407	0.084	31
7	216	0.045	17
8	312	0.064	24
9	305	0.063	23
10	547	0.112	42
11	175	0.035	13
12	229	0.047	18
13	334	0.068	25
14	275	0.056	21
15	106	0.022	8
16	149	0.032	11
17	66	0.014	5
18	295	0.061	22
19	202	0.042	15
Total	4865	1.000	370

Source: Bhimdatt Municipality (2019).

In the case of Indian labour migrants to Nepal, a pilot study conducted by the researcher found that there were mainly four sectors (construction, manufacture, agriculture, and service sectors) based on the nature of jobs engaged in Bhimdatt

Municipality. The sample strata were determined in each of the four sectors, the sample size for each stratum was calculated using the direct proportionate method, and respondents were selected for interviews using the lottery method (Table 3.8). In this study, the sampling frame was derived from migrant workers of Bhimdatt Municipality of Kanchanpur district. The information on the total number of migrant workers was taken from Bhimdatt Municipality i.e. origin for Nepali migrants and the destination for Indian migrants. As the population of migrant workers is large and scattered, the location of the study site was identified as a dense area like the municipality.

Table 3.8

Sample Allocation of Indian Labour Migrants in Nepal

Job sectors (strata)	Total number of labourers	Proportion	Sample size (respondent)
Construction Sector(<i>Meson: house construction, road construction, floor & tile setter/marbles</i>)	187	0.202	57
Manufacture sector (<i>carpenter, bricklayers,</i>)	381	0.412	115
Service Sector(<i>Hairdresser, Painter, Automobiles, Welders (Grill/steel)</i>)	300	0.325	91
Agriculture sector	56	0.061	17
Total	924	1.000	280

Source: Field Survey, 2019.

The Population of Nepali Migrants to Indian Cities

According to data provided by Bhimdatt municipality, 4865 people migrated to India. Among the total population, 16 percent of females migrated to India. Almost females seem migrated with their male partners. Along with them, 67 percent of the total migrant population is married, 32 percent unmarried and only one percent is found single or widow.

Table 3.9*Distribution of Migrants to India by Selected Characteristics*

Characteristics	Migrants' Population	
<i>Sex</i>	<i>(N)</i>	<i>(%)</i>
Male	4,073	83.7
Female	792	16.3
<i>Marital Status</i>		
Married	3,260	67.0
Unmarried	1,573	32.3
Single/Widow	32	0.7
<i>Caste/Ethnic Group</i>		
Hill Brahmin	812	16.7
Chhetri	1,628	33.5
Thakuri	319	6.4
Dalit	1,807	37.1
Sanyasi	92	1.9
Janjati/Tharu	199	4.1
Others	8	0.2
Total	4,865	100.0

Source: Bhimdatt Municipality (2019).

Among the total migrated population to India, the number of Dalit migrants is found highest (37.1%), though the size of the Dalit population is the lowest (7.7%) in the Kanchanpur district. Likewise, 33.5 percent and 16.7 percent of migrants to India are of Chhetri and Brahmin respectively.

The Population of Indian Migrants to Mahendranagar (Bhimdatt Municipality)

In the case of Indian migrants to Nepal, the survey was carried out based on the nature of jobs because the administrative data of Indian migrants are not found. The researcher decided to find information about the migrants from their households.

Table 3.10

Distribution of Indian Labour Migrants Enumerated in the Study Area (Bhimdatt Municipality) according to Nature of Job

Nature of Jobs	Migrants' Population	
	(N)	(%)
Hairdresser	122	13.2
Welders	78	8.4
Mason/ Road construction	32	3.5
Mason/Building Construction	120	13.0
Mason (Tayal/Marvel/Stone layers)	35	3.8
Bricklayers	226	24.4
Carpenter	155	16.8
Automobile	58	6.3
Painter	42	4.5
Agro farm	56	6.1
Total	924	100.0

Source: Field Survey, 2019.

These households were surveyed by giving priority to the selective (major jobs) having a larger size of the population working in the Mahendranagar. The research was carried out focusing on the major four sectors like Service, manufacturing, Construction, and Agriculture. It was calculated that 924 numbers of households are found working in selected four sectors. However, the size of Indian migrants is larger working in other sectors like business, entrepreneurship, self-employed, and other small businesses are excluded from the research. The migrants working in the brick industries come along with their family members as a worker but in this research, the family was taken as a single household. Due to the limitation of

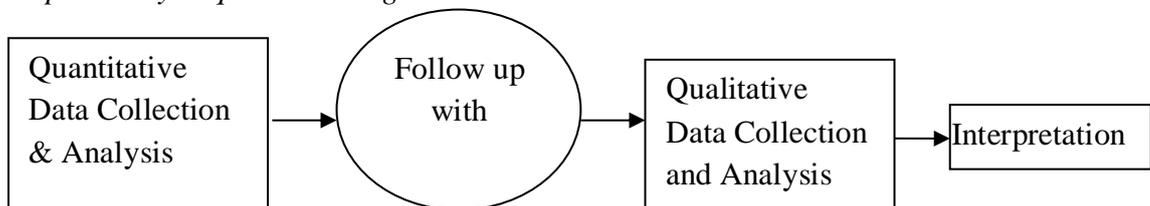
time and the need for research, the total population of Indian migrants is not determined.

Research Design

The design of research has come through the funnel model of literature review, as the literature review started with a broad perspective that was narrowed down based on the specific questions at hand. This research is focused on the labour migrants working in India and Nepal. Quantitative as well as qualitative (as per need) research was carried out during the research process. In general, quantitative data generalized information for a large group of people, but sometimes it fails to provide specific answers and then needs to collect qualitative data (Creswell & Tashakorri, 2007). The research was generally quantitative dominant to collect the information however, for getting more clarification and specifications, few qualitative data were also carried out. So this research seems a QUAN-Qual design following the deductive approach and explanatory sequential design.

Figure 3.3

Explanatory Sequential Design



As the main aim of the study was to understand the labour migration situation between Nepal and India, the characteristics of migrants, the causes and process of migration, and its remittance pattern was assessed through questionnaires. The researcher used simplified formula for proportion (Yamane, 1967) formula to derive the sample size, and used the proportionate stratified sampling technique for representativeness. As the research was conducted in a mixed-methods design, the data were both numeric and subjective. That is why both statistical operation and exploration were practiced.

In this study, the researcher stated the research questions to examine the cross-border labour migration between Nepal and India. At first, the research problem was described by analyzing the research questions. Secondly, the literature related to

labour migration in Nepal and India was mentioned correlating the research problem and research purposes. Thirdly, the research issues were funneled down in the form of research questions. Fourthly, the data were collected using the instrument in numeric form to measure and observe the different variables to understand the comparative situation of labour migration between both countries. Furthermore, as the fourth characteristic, the collected data were presented following descriptive and analytical methods. The results were compared among the different groups of migrated people characterized by gender, age, level of earning, education, skill and experiences, income, remittance, nature of jobs, and conditions. Similarly, their opinions were recorded in the form of interviews and then transcribed and given themes, so that rich and rigorous data could explore in depth. More importantly, the results so obtained were compared with the previous studies and theories. Before doing research, there is made inclusion and exclusion criteria for selecting the population.

Nature of Data and Tools and Techniques of Data Collection

Based on nature, both qualitative and quantitative data have been used. Both primary and secondary data have been collected during the entire research process. Primary data was collected by questionnaire survey. For getting the quantitative data, various kinds of literature are reviewed and prepared close-ended structured questionnaires. Respondents were asked to do questionnaires through the direct interview method. Quantitative data generalize the information for a larger size however, to make clear or specification of some research questions, qualitative data was also needed. For this, an explanatory sequential design has been carried out during the interpretation process of the research to explore the gaps and unknown information from quantitative data.

For getting qualitative data, two focus group discussions (one FGD in the Indian migrant community and one FGD in the Nepali labour migrant community) and four respondents were selected as the Key Informants Interviews (KII) with some open-ended questions. All respondents who had long experiences and observations on the migrants' community (two for Indian migrants and two for Nepali migrants) were selected as key informants. The respondents belonged to labour migrants having long experience, social leaders/ social campaigners of Indian migration, and head teachers of a school located in the higher migration area. The topics of discussion were listed

in the checklist before participating in KII. Likewise, including field observation, some case studies of Nepali and Indian migrants who migrated having comparatively more experience in the migration process of the region have been carried out to find the specification of situations of labour migrants between both countries which made clear the research questions.

The secondary source of information has been collected from the Central Bureau of Statistics, Local Government, Ministry of Health and Population, Ministry of Labour and Foreign Employment, International Labour Organization (ILO), International Organization for Migration (IOM), World Bank, Nepal Rastra Bank, Indian Census (2011) and other relevant institutions and related publication on migration in Nepal and India.

Data Collection Procedure

In course of data collection, the researcher consulted different local authorities and stakeholders to get information about the sample of the labour migrants and their nature of jobs. Field observation and personal communication with the labour-migrant community motivated the researcher to work on this topic. Before starting to collect data, the researcher prepared the required number of questionnaires. There were carried out pre-test of the questionnaires to make any revisions with the support of migrants' knowledge and field information. That practice was helpful for developing and correcting the questionnaires and their format. After the finalization of the questionnaire, it was translated into Hindi language for Indian labour migrants to Nepal and Nepali language for Nepali labour migrants to India. In the case of Nepali labour migrants, respondents were also asked about the nature of jobs in India to meet the inclusion and exclusion criteria for the study.

The researcher visited Tole Bikash Sanstha and met the respondents for interviews. Before starting each interview, the researcher obtained verbal consent for the interview and the utilization of data for the research work. The researcher introduced himself and requested to fill out the questionnaire. Similarly, the researcher also assured the participants that he would use their information only for this research and maintain confidentiality. Likewise, the researcher followed the best opportunities to meet the Nepali labour migrants in their origin during the late Covid-19 period. Indian migrants were mostly found at their destination (Bhimdatt

Municipality) and the interview was carried out at a convenient time. The field survey was carried out between 2020 and 2021.

Data Analysis and Interpretation

The analysis of the data consists of organizing, tabulating, and performing statistical analysis. Analytical and descriptive techniques have been used during the processing of data. The researcher developed the database with the help of Statistical Package for social science (SPSS). While developing the database, the researcher coded the entire data and categorized them. Then data were entered into SPSS for further descriptions. The researcher carried out both descriptive and inferential statistics for the analysis and interpretation of the data. The data were also analyzed descriptively using the facts and figures derived from SPSS. As descriptive statistics, the researcher used the percentage, mean, and median for describing the result. Likewise, for the validity of the result, different statistical test like the t-test and Chi-square test is used for analyzing the variances and relationship among the different variables. The t-test is used to find out the mean differences between two groups of migrants and it is used after testing the normal distribution and the variances of two group data to be equal. Where the Chi-square test is used to determine whether two variables are related or not? It showed the significant relationship between two different groups of migrants.

To analyze the data, the triangulation method is used to develop a comprehensive understanding of the phenomena. This is used to increase the validity and ensure the quality of the study. Basically, this study was triangulated on different methods and data analysis parts. Findings were presented in tables along with their analysis and interpretation.

Inclusion and Exclusion Criteria

Migrant workers from both groups who are staying at least six months at their destination and involving as labourers were included in the research process. Likewise, Indian labour migrants to Nepal who were involved in the construction sector (mason or labour worker in house construction, road construction, tiles/rock/marvel workers), manufacturing sector (workers engaged in industries i.e. brick industry and furniture industry (carpenters), agriculture sector (engaged on agro

farms and activities) and service sector (hairdresser, automobile (motorbike/van/truck service), welder (steel/iron/grill), painters) were included as the respondents.

Similarly, this research excluded the Indian migrants who are involved in their own business, self-employment, non-government, engaged traders/entrepreneurs (who invest in their business and expect profits/benefits e.g. push carts (*Thele*) or street snacks vendors (*chhole/samosa/chat/panipuri*), vegetable/fruits seller were excluded. Likewise, research excluded other traders who stayed in Nepal for a short period or just wait to collect profits during the limited periods e.g. shopkeepers in the festival, cooks/chefs (marriage and party), circus workers, magicians, hawkers (ice cream, flower seller, other vendors, garbage collector, bull/buffalo buyer/seller), transportation worker (hiring a vehicle for few days only) and other professional workers having a low population (goldsmith, washer man, plumber, electrician, sweeper, garments/tailoring). In the case of Nepali migrants, this study excluded those who work in the army, police, or other permanent jobs based on an Indian unique identification card (*Adhar Card*).

Reliability and Validity

Relativity and validity are useful to evaluate the quality of research where relativity measures consistency and validity measures the accuracy of the result. It is a method or technique or test to make a good research result. For the reliability of the study, under stable questionnaires (Hindi and Nepali as per need of respondents) was constructed. Questionnaires were tested within few respondents and retested before finalization. To triangulate the data, though the study is predominantly quantitative, the researcher has also used qualitative data and narrative analysis wherever possible and needed. For calculating the significance of data, some tests and observations have been carried out at the origin of Indian migrants and the destination of Nepalese migrants (where large size of migrants flow) labour migrants in both countries. Again, to verify the relationship among the different variables, t-test and chi-square test have been carried out. To maintain the study's reliability and validity, similar questionnaires (content) were administered to both migrant groups at the same time. To verify the quantitative results, some FGD and case studies were carried out to examine the reliability of results in both groups. Questionnaires were tested (pre-test) before going to the field for keeping the face and content validity of the study.

Similarly, experts' opinions were calculated for the validity of questionnaires including reviewing different literatures and secondary sources.

Operational Terminology

For the scientific assessment of both the national and international audiences of this study, the researcher has followed as standard operational definition/conceptualization of the key terms/ variables. The following are the operational definitions of important terms:

Gender: Three sexual categories: male, female and third sex; though the study could not assess the third sex.

Caste/ ethnicity: The study has followed a governmental approach of defining/ categorizing different castes. Ethnic groups including Dalits, Janajati and Musalman. Yet, the study site doesn't represent all these groups in equal proportion. For the ease of the data collection and quick understanding of the respondents, therefore, the questionnaire has simplified in individual caste/ groups, and then analyzed accordingly.

Education and literacy: the study has followed the educational attainments/ qualifications to ease the local practices what the respondents could easily understand as per recalling of their formal education system they followed. Doing this, the definition of literacy as adhered since 2001 census has followed (who can read and write with some arithmetic calculations).

Marital status: This study is aware of the changing meaning of marital status. For example, single is taken for three categories (widow/ divorce/ separated). Married is taken as ever married having cohabitation.

Youth and young: According to WHO, early adolescent (10-14), late adolescent (15-59), young and youth (15-24). This study has followed government of Nepal's policy to defined youth age 16-40. The economically active population has followed the labour force survey approach taking the age group of 15 and above.

Migration: The movement of people from Nepal to India and India to Nepal for searching better opportunities and fulfillment of their basic needs as their working destination.

Labour migration: The migration between Nepal and India for work at their destination or work as a labourer.

Labour migrants: Migrated people who engaged as a labourer at their destination. Indian migrants who are working and living at Bhimdatt Municipality are known as Indian migrants and those whose permanent origin is at Bhimdatt Municipality and working in different cities of India as labourers are called Nepali migrants.

Origin and destination: Bhimdatt Municipality is the origin for Nepali migrants to India and a destination for Indian migrants to Nepal whereas different cities or states of India are the origins for Indian labour migrants and destinations for Nepali migrants to India.

Employment: Different nature of jobs is taken as employment who is involved on daily wages, contract basis or salary basis. In the case of Indian migrants, mainly employed in the sector of agriculture, construction, manufacturing, and service are included as employment however different other working sectors are taken as employment sectors except for their government jobs, Indian securities forces, or self-employment for Nepali migrants.

Characteristics: The characteristics of labour migrants include Age, Sex, Caste, Ethnicity, Marital status, Occupation, Skills, Family size, Educational status, Social and Economic conditions.

Migration process: It is the entire process of labour workers starting from origin to destination. It further includes the decision of migration, participation in decision making, collection of information about working destination and nature of jobs, the job management of bus or train tickets and other expenses, selection of destination location and friends and networking, means of transportation, and others.

Remittance pattern: Income, Saving, Utilization of remittance, Channel of sending money.

Cross-border: Cross border means the labour migration between Nepal and India.

Working condition (Environment): Working environment refers to the nature of jobs of migrants at their destination and their working conditions with their facilities like leave, insurance, accommodation, food, etc.

Remittance pattern: Income, Remittance, means of sending remittance, frequency, saving, and its use in origin.

Research Ethics

As a researcher, the author has maintained the confidentiality of the study with its limitations. The research activities were conscious about not making any harm to the community and were mostly engaged in actions that is a supportive role in the betterment of their livelihood strategy. During the research period, respect for the migrant community and their family's dignity, integrity, and worth were maintained. The participation of people in the research activities was only been on a voluntary and informed basis. Accurate reporting was performed with the best honesty, objectivity, integrity, carefulness, openness, respect for intellectual property, confidentiality, non-discrimination, competence, legality, fairness, and mutual respect. The principle of academic professionalism, including non-plagiarism and avoid of data fabrication and falsification were followed in the study.

Methodological Reflection of the Researcher

Questionnaires were developed by following the different literature reviews and it was further corrected with field observation, personal communication with the labour migrants community, and other concerning stakeholders. Due to COVID-19 during the fieldwork period, some of the questionnaires related to COVID aspect were also included. Mostly COVID disturbed the schedule of interviews and other field studies. Over time, the situation of migrant workers was supposed to suppress more, and then adds some questionnaires related to COVID and its impact on migration. The questionnaire related to COVID adds a new perspective to the study; it described the contemporary situations of migration and its effects on the migration process and remittance pattern.

The researcher further faced some difficulties to meet the migrants during the situation. Some Nepali migrants crossed the border without legal information during the COVID period. If they were informed then they should stay in quarantine which was a difficult situation for them. At that time if anyone was introduced as a migrant worker in the community, neighbors kept their distance which becomes an embarrassing situation for migrants. In that difficult situation, the researcher visited

their homes with keeping a distance and following the code of conduct provided by the local administration.

Chapter Summary

With a paradigm of post-positivism, a mixed method (QUAN-qual) has been adopted for this study, where quantitative is the predominant methodology. The qualitative study aims to capture people's experiences and feelings. The quantitative method included a survey with a sample of 650 households and the qualitative method included Two FGDs, Four KII, and five case studies of labour migrants. The quantitative data were analyzed in SPSS version 20. T-test was used to examine the mean difference between Nepali labour -migrants to India and Indian labour migrants to Nepal. Similarly, the Pearson Chi-square test was used to determine the association between different variables.

CHAPTER IV CHARACTERISTICS OF LABOUR MIGRANTS

This chapter describes the comparative results of the social and economic characteristics of sample households (migrants) based on their working destination and origin. The characteristics of migrants included their age, religion, ethnicity, education, caste, marital status, family status, schooling of children, and overall living standard in both origin and destination.

Social and Demographic Characteristics: Migrants' Age Group

Social characteristics show the general social background of the migrants, which describes the status and position of migration. According to CBS (2012), the population of the Bhimdatt Municipality is 104,549 (male: 51,087 and female: 53,512) with 20,684 HHs (Table 3.2). Likewise, the composition of the population under the age of 15 is 32.7 percent, the working-age population (15–59) is 59.4 percent, and the elderly people ((60+) is 7.9 percent (Table-3.4).

Table 4.1

Distribution of Respondents by Age and Gender

Age groups of migrants in years	Nepali labour migrants to India		Indian labour migrants to Nepal		Both groups	
	N	%	N	%	N	%
Up to 19 years	52	14.1	32	11.4	84	12.9
20-29	148	40.0	91	32.5	239	36.8
30-39	91	24.6	69	24.6	160	24.6
40-49	54	14.6	50	17.8	104	16.0
50-65	25	6.7	38	13.6	63	9.7
Total	370	100.0	280	100.0	650	100.0
Mean age (in a year)		29.7		32.8		31.1
Median (in a year)		27.5		32		29.7
Less than 15 years	0	0	7	2.5	7	1.1
Children (<18 years)	29	7.8	17	6.1	46	7.1
Adults (18 -40 years)	278	75.1	181	64.6	459	70.6
Others(more than 40 years)	63	17.0	82	29.3	145	22.3
Working age (15-59 years)	370	100	273	97.5	643	98.9
Gender						
Migrants with spouse	113	30.6	103	36.8	216	33.2

Source: Field Survey, 2021.

Social characteristics show the general social background of the migrants, which describes the status and position of migration. Table 4.1 shows that the mean age of Nepali labour migrants is 28.9 years and that of Indian labour migrants to Nepal is 32.9 years; some differences of about 4 years. The age group 20–29 years has the highest number of migrants (36.6%) among labour migrants of both countries who crossed their border for work, including 40% of migrants from Nepal and 32.5 percent of migrants from India. The majority (75.1 % of Nepali and 64.6 % of Indian) of adult migrants between the ages of 18 and 40 years are found to migrate, this is due to the higher potentiality of migrants of this age group who bear age-specific physiological proximity as well as the potential of skill and labour for finding and performing the job in destination countries, whereas 7.8 percent of Nepali children and 6.1 percent of Indian children are found to cross their borders for work in destination countries.

Similarly, 6.7 percent of Nepali labour migrants and 13.6 percent of Indian labour migrants under the age group of 50–65 years crossed their border for work in each other country. It is also calculated that the age group of 60–65 years of Nepali migrants is not found working in India, but the same age group of Indian migrants is found working in Nepal. Because of the closer working destination (distance), the nature of the work, the lower physical burden, and their long experience in the same work, elderly Indian migrants continue to work. However, Brusle (2006) mentioned that many migrants start working in India at an early age and stop after 45 to 50 years or more, which is a different result from the present study.

According to the population monograph of Nepal, almost 40 percent of the population was under the age of 20 years, which indicates Nepal has a predominantly young population. The working-age population (15+ years) had a share of 71.5 percent (20.7 million) of the total population, of which 55.6 percent was female (CBS, 2012). Table 4.1 shows that 30.6 percent of females in Nepal and 36.8 percent of females in India migrated to their destinations with their husbands. Supporting the above statement, ICIMOD (2010) and Nandini (1999) state that the majority of the males generally migrated to India from Karnali and Sudurpaschim Province, but in the case of women, they were not found to migrate individually due to a lack of education and exposures, as well as the fact that they are involved in their households'

responsibilities and agricultural works. Along with this, they feel insecure about migrating alone due to increasing cases of trafficking and other violence in the destination. It is thus seen that migration is gender-sensitive, which truly implies even the open and comparatively accessible cross-border migration of women in Nepal-India (Shijapati et al., 2019).

Religion of Migrants

Religious beliefs on divine worship, morals, and ethical issues Caste systems are mostly justified within the higher ranks of the system. Religion is justified within scriptures that are regarded as holy or divine. In the studies of migration in the global context, it is observed that migration does have religious factors, though they are not deterministic in most cases (Bramanti et al., 2020).

Table 4.2

Distribution of Migrants according to their Religion

Religion	Country of Origin		Total
	Nepali labour migrants to India	Indian labour migrants to Nepal	
Hindu	370 (100.0%)	102 (36.4%)	472 (72.6%)
Islam	0(0.0%)	171(61.1%)	171(26.3%)
Sikh	0(0.0%)	7(2.5%)	7(0.1%)
Total	370 (100.0%)	280(100.0%)	650(100.0%)

Source: Field Survey, 2021.

According to the population monograph, CBS (2012), about 98.6 percent population belongs to Hindus, and 0.2 percent is Muslim, in Bhimdatt Municipality. From Table 5.2, it is clear that the total population of Nepali labour migrants in India belongs to the Hindu religion, but the majority (61.1%) of Indian labour migrants to Nepal belong to the Islam community, followed by others (36.4% Hindu and 2.5 % Sikh).

Caste/Ethnicity of Labour migrants

Caste or ethnicity has evolved into a distinct cultural identity for people, with migratory implications. The caste system deals with hierarchical issues, which are

mostly justified by the traditional system of social stratification in Nepal. The caste system both in Nepal and India broadly borrows the classical Hindu *Chaturvarna* model, consisting of four broad social classes: Brahmin, Kshatriya, Vaishya, and Sudra. The CBS of Nepal identified only 60 ethnic/caste groups in the 1991 Census; 100 ethnic/caste groups were further identified in the 2001 Census; and the list of ethnic/caste groups was 125 in the 2011 Census, which also includes 59 indigenous groups (ethnic nationalities). According to CBS (2012), the most populous Jats (ethnic groups) in Nepal are 17.0% Chhetri, 12.0% Brahmin-Hill, 7.0% Magar, 7.0% Tharu, 6.0% Tamang, 5.0% Newar, 5.0% Kami, 4.0% Musalman, 4.0% Yadav, 2.0% Rai, and 31.0% others; whereas the caste/ethnicity of India in political-administrative categorization describes the system as 22.8 percent.

Other Backward Class (OBC) is a collective term used by the government of India to classify castes that are educationally or socially disadvantaged. Likewise, "scheduled caste" (SC) is a term for sub-communities within the framework of the Hindu caste system that have historically faced deprivation, oppression, and extreme social isolation in India on account of their perceived "low status" (CBS, 2012).

Table 4.3

Distribution of Labour Migrants by Caste/Ethnic Group

Caste/Ethnicity	Nepali labour migrants to India		Indian labour migrants to Nepal	
	<i>N</i>	%	<i>N</i>	%
Brahmin	52	14.0	0	-
Thakuri	32	8.6	0	-
Chhetri	106	28.7	0	-
Dalit	136	36.8	0	-
Sanyasi/Dashnami	21	5.7	0	-
Tharu	23	6.2	0	-
General Caste	0	-	64	22.9
Schedule Caste(SC)	0	-	33	11.8
Schedule Tribes (ST)	0	-	12	4.3
Other Backward Castes (OBC)	0	-	171	61.0
Total	370	100.0	280	100.0

Source: Field Survey, 2021.

Table 4.3 shows that the majority (36.6%) of the population is from the Dalit community, followed by 28.7 percent of Chhetri, 14 percent of Brahmin, 8.6 percent of Thakuri, 5.7 percent of Sanyasi/Dasnami, and 6.2 percent of the Tharu community that migrated to India from the study area. In contrast, more than half of the population (61%) is from the Other Backward Caste and has come to Bhimdatt Municipality as labour migrants. Likewise, 22.9 percent of the general caste, 11.8 percent of the scheduled caste, and 4.3 percent of scheduled tribes are found to migrate to Nepal (the study area).

According to Bhardwaj (2010), the composition of caste and religious background is almost similar between Nepal and India, where the majority of Hindus are followed by Muslims and Buddhists. However, in this study, a different trend is seen as there was a mutual dependency for labour, market, social relationships, and services provided in the destination areas. Moreover, it is the reflection of people's religions at their origins that would have strengthened cross-border linkages among the societies in terms of culture. At the same time, Brusle (2006) focused on the circular migration of high-caste men from the Karnali and Sudurpaschim provinces. Likewise, McDougal (1968) mentioned that migration depends to some extent on the cultures of the ethnic groups. He reported that the greater number of migrants were lower caste people such as *Kamis*, *Sarkis*, and *Damais* from Sudurpaschim Provinces due to their poor economic backgrounds.

In this study, the Dalit community, which migrated to India from Nepal, accounts for 36.8 percent of the population, accounting for more than one-third of the population in this sample size. Similarly, 61 percent of other backward caste Indians migrated to Nepal for work. However, this study shows that the majority of the population from marginalized and socially backward communities migrates to neighbour countries for work. It might be due to their higher rate of poverty, low status of landholdings (even landlessness), lower educational performance, and the proximity of non-skilled labour. Indeed, the caste or ethnic structure in Nepal and India speaks of some socioeconomic characteristics that are closely related to migratory behaviour.

Education Attainment of Labour Migrants between Nepal and India

Education is the key indicator for Human Development Index (HDI). The country that has more HDI is taken as a comparatively rich country. According to the Global HDI report (UNDP, 2020), the HDI of Nepal is 0.602 (142nd rank) and India is 0.645(131st rank). In education, the average expected years of education in the South Asian Association of Regional Cooperation (SAARC) is 12.7 years where Nepal secures 5.0 years of education and India secures 6.5 years of education. It shows that Indian people have more experience in education. Most of the migrants, after a certain age, leave their homes and migrants to destinations in search of jobs or better options for livelihood. Hence, they have to drop out of school at that age.

Table 4.4

Distribution of Labour Migrants by Education Attainment

Level of Education	Nepali labour migrants to India		Indian labour migrants to Nepal		Both groups	
	(N)	%	(N)	%	(N)	%
No Education	32	8.6	100	35.7	132	20.3
Some Primary Education	58	15.7	155	55.4	213	32.8
Primary Education Completed	123	33.2	22	7.9	145	22.3
Some Secondary Education	131	35.4	3	1.0	134	20.6
Secondary Education Completed	26	7.1	0	0	26	4.0
Total	370	100.0	280	100.0	650	100.0
Pearson Chi-Square test	<i>Value</i>		<i>Df</i>		<i>Sig.</i>	
	290.941		4		0.000	

Source: Field Survey, 2021.

Data revealed that 8.6 percent of Nepali labour migrants and 35.7 percent of Indian labour migrants have no education. Similarly, 15.7 percent of Nepali and 55.4 percent of Indian labour migrants were enrolled in formal education but they didn't complete their primary education. Only 33.2 percent of Nepali labour migrants and 7.9 percent of Indian labour migrants have primary-level education. Likewise, 35.4 percent of Nepali labour migrants and 1 percent of Indian labour migrants have some secondary school education. Only 7.1 percent of Nepali labour migrants have

completed their secondary level education but there were not found of the respondents from Indian labour migrants have secondary level education.

To determine whether the level of educational attainment and country of migrants are associated, the Chi-square test of independence is used in Table 4.4. The result indicated that the lower p-value of the Chi-square test is evidence of the significant association between education and the country of origin of labour migrants. The frequency table indicates the higher education level of Nepali labour migrants to India in comparison to Indian labour migrants to Nepal. The majority of the Indian labour migrants have below primary education level while most of the Nepalese migrants have completed primary level education before leaving their origin. The main reason for the education of Indian labour migrants could be their religious beliefs about education as most of them go to Madrasa for religious education and their formal education attainment is discontinued and they are compelled to join work due to their poor family conditions.

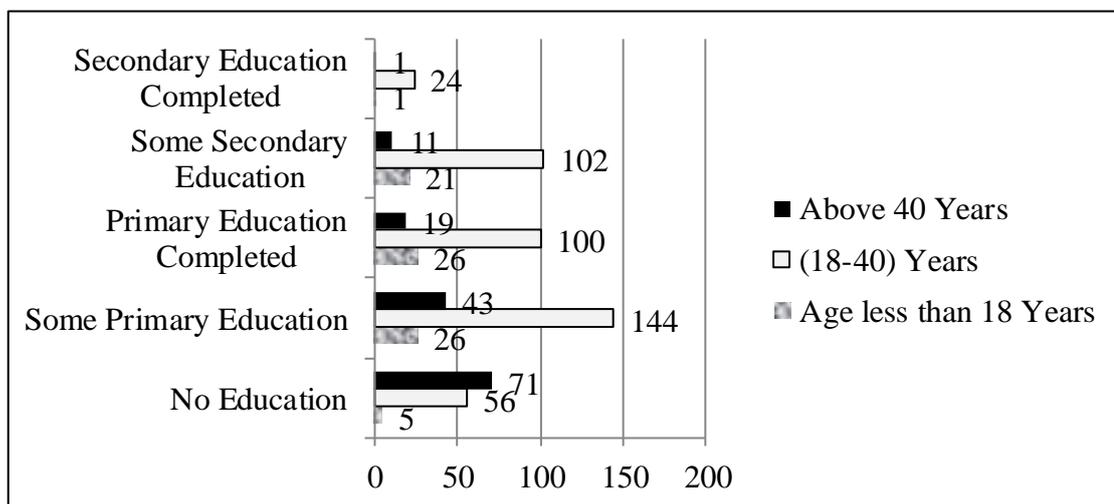
It is further analyzed that the majority of Nepali labour migrants have better educational attainment than that Indian labour migrants. The proportion of educational attainment of the labour migrants was around primary to secondary level education. GIZ/ILO (2015) also mentioned that the working age groups of labour migrants from Nepal have lower education and skill qualifications. The majority of Nepali labour migrants to India lack certified skills, making it difficult for them to reach formal jobs. The proportion of education attainment of Nepali labour migrants is found in increasing order till some secondary education, however, a large proportion of the Indian people don't have formal education, followed by some primary education and primary level education. The trend of migration in Nepal is found different than in India due to social and cultural background. In discussions with the Indian migrants' Muslim community, they prefer to go to *Madrasa* (school) rather than getting enrolled in schools for formal education because of their religious faith. Similarly, other Indian migrant communities in Nepal belong to poor and marginalized socio-economic backgrounds and are unable to join schools. But in the case of Nepal, It is studied that the majority of people prefer to migrate after completion of school education.

According to CBS (2012), the literacy rate of the population of age 5 years and above is 65.9 percent. The male literacy rate is 74.2 percent and the female literacy is 58.2 percent. The literacy rate has increased slightly from 2014/15, as in the previous year the rate for 5 years and above was 65.6 percent. The urban-rural

difference in 5 years and above literacy is found wide with 75.9 percent in urban and 59.7 percent in rural. From the above figure, it is calculated that 3.8 percent of migrants under the age of 18 years, 42.4 percent of migrants between the age of 18-40 years, and 53.8 percent of migrants above 40 years have no formal education. Likewise, (3.8%, 92.3%, and 3.8%) of migrants have only secondary-level education during the above-mentioned age groups. The data showed (in table 4.8) that the living condition of Nepali labour migrants is comparatively better than Indian labours, cent percent of labour migrants have their residence (private house) at their origin but it was not the case for Indian labour migrants to Nepal.

Figure 4.1

Distribution of Labour Migrants by Education Attainment and Age Group



In the focus group discussion, Indian labour migrants shared that they came to Nepal at an early age with their relatives. They mostly have a poor economic background and are hence compelled to do work at a younger age. They were involved in particular jobs and learned much to become skilled. Indian labour migrants belong to the Islam religion where they should have been involved in Madrasa rather than formal education, which may be the cause of their poor educational attainment. But in the case of Nepali labour migrants, the government has provided facilities for schooling in higher education. In comparison to Indian labour migrants, Nepali labour migrants have better education status because of their socio-cultural and economic situation at their origin.

Family Status of Labour Migrants (Family Structure and Size)

According to the 2011 Census of Nepal, the average size of the family in Nepal is 4.6 persons; which is 4.2 in urban and 4.8 in rural households. The percentage of nuclear households is 17.1 in Nepal. Nearly half (47.2%) of the household heads are in the age group 30 to 49 years and 25.9 percent of households are headed by female members which must be due to the high proportion of male labour migration. Among the respondents, about 51.1 percent of Nepali labour migrants and 32.5 percent of Indian labour migrants are found living with nuclear families whereas 48.9 percent of Nepali and 67.5 percent of Indian labour migrants are found living as a joint family.

Table 4.5

Distribution of Labour Migrants by Family Structure and Size

Family Status	Nepali labour migrants to India		Indian labour migrants to Nepal		Both groups	
	(N)	(%)	(N)	(%)	(N)	(%)
Structure of Family						
Nuclear family	189	51.1	91	32.5	280	43.1
Joint family	181	48.9	189	67.5	370	56.9
Pearson Chi-Square Test	Value		Df		Sig.	
	22.442		1		0.000	
Family Size of respondents						
Single	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0
2-5 members	154	41.6	83	29.6	237	36.5
6-10 members	202	54.6	165	58.9	367	56.5
>10 members	14	3.8	32	11.5	46	7.0
Total	370	100.0	280	100.0	650	100.0
Person's Chi-square Test	Value		Df		Sig.	
	19.965		2		0.000	

Source: Field Survey, 2021.

Note.>: More than.

In the case of Nepali labour migrants, the family size of migrants was 41.6 percent of 2-5 members, 54.6 percent of 6-10 members, and 3.8 percent of having more than 10 members in a family. Whereas 29.6 percent are of 2-5 members, 58.9 percent are of 6-10 members and 11.5 percent have more than 10 members in a family. In both, 7 percent of respondent families have more than 10 members. Being

the larger respondent (63.5%) having more than five members in a family, it is assumed that family size is one of the causes of migration. To determine whether the structure of migrants' families and family size is associated with their country of origin, the Pearson Chi-square test is used where the p-value (<0.001) is less than the level of significance (0.01). It indicates that there is a correlation between the size of the family and the structure of the family in the country of migrants. It is worthwhile to mention here that family structure and its' size can affect migration decisions (De Jong, & Gardner, 2013), though there is less research on this topic in the Nepal-India context.

Marital Status of Labour Migrants

In the global context, scholars are divided to characterize the nature of migration whether marital status could affect it and in what way. There are country-specific case studies as well as global assessments too (Castelli, 2018). In this particular study, as presented in Table 4.6 below, it is calculated that about 70.3 percent of Nepali and 71.8 percent of Indian labour migrants got married. Only 29.7 percent of Nepali and 28.2 percent of Indian labour migrants are found unmarried.

Table 4.6

Distribution of Labour Migrants by Marital Status and Number of Children

Marital Status	Nepali labour migrants to India		Indian labour migrants to Nepal		Total Population	
	(N)	(%)	(N)	(%)	(N)	(%)
Marital Status						
Unmarried	110	29.7	79	28.2	189	29.1
Married	260	70.3	201	71.8	461	70.9
Pearson Chi-Square Test	<i>Value</i>	<i>Df</i>	<i>Sig.</i>			
	0.177 ^a	1	0.674			
Number of Children in Respondent's Family						
Single child	43	16.5	10	5.0	53	11.6
2-4 Children	174	67.0	145	72.1	319	70.0
5-8 Children	0	0	40	19.9	40	8.8
Don't have children	43	16.5	6	3.0	44	9.6
Total	370	100.0	280	100.0	650	100.0

Source: Field Survey, 2021.

Out of those married respondents, 83.5 percent of Nepali labour migrants and 97.0 percent of Indian labour migrants have their children. It simply indicates that

Nepali labour migrants are newly married couples as compared to the Indian labour migrants who migrated to Nepal. In the case of Nepali labour migrants, 16.5 percent have a single child, and 67.0 percent have 2 to 4 children but the size of children in Indian respondents had different. About 5.0 percent have a single child, 72.1 percent have 2 to 4 children and 19.9 percent of the Indian labour migrants have more than 5 children in their family. Only 16.5 percent of Nepali labour migrants and 3.0 percent of Indian labour migrants have no children.

Table 4.6 shows that there is not any relationship between both variables. It indicates that people are migrated whether they are married or unmarried. The report shows that a larger size of respondents migrated to their destination for searching work after they got married. Thus, the decision to migrate could have been a collective decision with a consensus of husband and wife (or their children) for new livelihood alternatives or the meeting of challenges that could have aroused after they got married. The size of children among Indian labour migrants has more than Nepali labour migrants, though not significantly. Mostly, the community from Muslim in Indian labour migrants has a larger size of children in comparison to others. It could have been due to their cultural and religious value systems.

Schooling of Labour Migrants' Children

Almost all the children (school age) from Nepali labour migrants' families attended school but, about 42.6 percent of Indian children are not attaining school due to their culture and economic conditions. Some of the children are schooling at the destination where their parents are working.

Table 4.7

Distribution of Labour Migrants according to the Number of their School-going Children

Number of School Children	Nepali Labour migrants to India		Indian labour migrants to Nepal		Both groups	
	(N)	(%)	(N)	(%)	(N)	(%)
Categories of School						
Govt. School(Origin)	128	63.7	90	80.3	218	69.7
Private School (Origin)	61	30.3	0	0.0	61	19.4
Schooling at destination	12	6.0	22	19.7	34	10.9
Total	201	100.0	112	100.0	313	100.0

Source: Field Survey, 2021.

About 63.7 percent of Nepali children and 80.3 percent of Indian children are joining government schools at their origin whereas 30.3 percent of children of Nepalese labour migrants are schooling at private (boarding school) but Indians are not found studying in private schools. The causes of not studying in private school are due to weak economic status as well as most of them living in villages where government schools are only available. Meanwhile, it is found that the children from migrant families, both Nepalese, and Indians, join schools in their working destination. About 20 percent of Indian labour migrants' children study in schools of Bhimdatt Municipality (Nepal) whereas 6 percent of Nepali labour migrants' children study in Indian schools.

Case-1: Children are schooling at their destination (Nepal) for a long time

Sarvesh Sharma, age 40 years, belongs to a poor family in Pilibhit (India) and migrated to Mahendranagar at the age of 14 along with one of the carpenters in his community. He just had school education up to grade 5, which helps him to sign his name and do some reading. He left his school and decided to do some work to support his living. He struggled a lot to meet the demand of time and improve his work as a carpenter. Days were too tough for him then, however, at present he has established himself as a well-known carpenter in the Mahendranagar and there are more than fifty people who work for him. He earns a good sum of almost one lakh rupees a month and gives wages to his workers of almost one thousand a day. He became a good contractor and takes a contract of work almost two to three places a day and employs his people to work on daily wages. He is well established in Mahendranagar now and living with his family here. His children go to English medium schools here and he wants his children to work in the same field as his in the days to come.

According to him, he has bought a good piece of land and constructed a house in Pilibhit (India). His hard work and dedication to his work make him successful on his own. It has become a person who can create job opportunities for other people. He decides to live in Mahendranagar and follow the same profession. There are many people from Mahendranagar who go to different cities of India in search of jobs although people like Sarvesh are working in Mahendranagar and are willing to live here permanently. Thus, it reflects that a person with talent and skills can survive and create job opportunities for others as well.

To analyze the situation of Indian labour migrants, the case study mentioned above is the reflection of their livelihood strategy. Most of the Indian labour migrants continue their particular work for a long and they spent their livelihood in a better way. They give education to their children at the destination as well. But, Indian labour migrants working in brick industries in Nepal have similar answers about the schooling of their children. They don't have the schooling culture to date. They have a very traditional lifestyle at present as well. They are skilled in brick-making as their ancestors. Similarly, children from Muslim families also deny the concept of joining school due to their cultural practices and the importance of labour so that their children could do some work and earn money for them. Thus, they are compelled to work to sustain their life. Comparatively the size of schooling children in the case of Nepali labour migrants to India is less than Indian labour migrants to Nepal because of the job continuity at their particular destination.

Accommodation Status for Labour Migrants and their Expenses on Rent

Almost Nepali labour migrants have their own house at their origin. However, 2.5 percent of Indian labour migrants are staying on renting a house, 82.1 percent have their private home and 15.4 percent are living in temporary houses (plastic, grass coated, iron sheet or tent house, etc.) at their origin. About 42.9 percent of Indian labour migrants paid less than Rs. 2000 in Indian currency (IC) for rent at their origin and 57.1 percent paid between Rs. (2000-5000) IC. Similarly, 48.1 percent of Nepali labour migrants to India were found to stay on rent, 51.1 percent have provided residence facility by owner/employer and 0.8 percent have not any fixed location for their residence, they mostly stayed their nights at vehicles or hotels. In the case of Indian labour migrants working in Nepal, 58.6 percent were living in a rental house, 12.8 percent are given living facilities by their employers and the rest 29.3 percent have temporary houses at the destination. A few Nepali labour migrants (i.e.7.9%) were staying in rental rooms with good facilities at their destination and paid more than Rs. 5000 Indian Currency per month whereas 47.2 percent of Nepali labour migrants paid less than Rs.2000 IC for their residence in India.

In the field observation and interviews with respondents, this study found that almost of Nepali labour migrants have their own houses at their origin. The livelihood status of Nepali labour migrants seems better than Indian labour migrants because the

government of India has provided a subsidy of Rs. 250,000 (Indian Currency) per family belonging to scheduled castes for the construction of a concrete house with kitchen and bathrooms at their origin. Indian labour migrants to Nepal (almost working in brick layers) are found to stay at temporary shelters in both their origin and destination. During the rainy season (while the works of brick layers stopped) they mostly moved to their origin for (3-4) months and stayed within similar temporary shelters. Children stay behind at home and others migrate further to Jammu and Kashmir areas for working in apple plants (collection of apples). Temporary shelters are made of raw materials like raw breaks, wood, and iron sheets or just covered by plastic or grass where entire families adjusted themselves within congested rooms.

Table 4.8

Distribution of Labour Migrants by Accommodation at the Origin and Destination

Ownership of House	Nepali labour migrants to India		Indian labour migrants to Nepal		Both groups	
	(N)	%	(N)	%	(N)	%
At Origin						
Renting home	-	0.0	7	2.5	7	1.1
Private home	370	100.0	230	82.1	600	92.3
Temporary home	-	0.0	43	15.4	43	6.6
Total	370	100.0	280	100.0	650	100.0
Expenses on Rent per Month at origin (payment) in the respective currency in Rs.						
≤ 2000	-	0.0	3	42.9	3	42.9
2000-5000	-	0.0	4	57.1	4	57.1
Total	-	0.0	7	100.0	7	100.0
At Destination						
Renting Home	178	48.1	164	58.6	342	52.6
Employer-provided	189	51.1	34	12.1	223	34.3
Not fixed (hotel, van)	3	0.8	-	0.0	3	0.5
Temporary home	-	0.0	82	29.3	82	12.6
Total	370	100.0	280	100.0	650	100.0
Expenses on Rent per Month at destination (Payment) in the respective currency in Rs.						
≤ 2000	84	47.2	15	9.2	99	28.9
2000-5000	80	44.9	148	90.2	228	66.7
> 5000	14	7.9	1	0.6	15	4.4
Total	178	100.0	164	100.0	342	100.0

Source: Field Survey, 2021. Note. Temporary shelter: shelter prepared with plastic and grass.

In rural areas, poor people are temporally more mobile as compared to people belonging to higher income groups but it is the opposite for urban areas. It shows a positive association between income and temporary migration in urban areas. Temporary and seasonal migration is highest in rural areas among illiterates and that kind of mobility declines with increasing education. (Bhagat and Keshari, 2010) showed in their study that seasonal migration is highest in Uttar Pradesh (before the separation of Uttarakhand) followed by Madhya Pradesh, Maharashtra, Andhra Pradesh, and Bihar.

Case Study-2: Truck as a shelter for 20 years

Ramesh Luhar (36 years and resident of Bhimdatt Municipality-13, Baijnath Tole) working as a Driver in India for 20 years. He migrated to India at the age of 12 and he spent his 2 years in a hotel as a cleaner and waiter. During his job in a hotel, he met a customer who worked as a driver in a truck. That driver offered him to work as a helper in the truck. He decided to join him and spent 2 years as his helper. During that time, he used to drive occasionally. This way he learned to drive and started driving the truck of another businessman. He has been driving the same truck for the last 20 years. It's so surprising to hear that the truck is a shelter for him since he started working. He always eats outside in the hotel during his journey. He started working in a truck with Rs 5,000 IC per month and now earns Rs 32,000 IC per month. His family members (6 people) in Nepal almost depend on him for their livelihood. He used to come to Nepal occasionally for visiting his family but at the time of COVID-19 days, he returned to Nepal for good.

During the field observation of the Indian labour migrants' residence in Bhimdatt Municipality, children were found to be sleeping on the cold ground. Most of the children did not have clothes for wearing in bed. They had poor health, mostly affected by cold and cough but they looked happy with two times food. Due to poor economic conditions, they were compelled to adjust themselves within the small rooms. Moreover, staying on the destination was based on the nature of the work where the migrants got involved, and the network of their family and relatives to share their rental cost and space.

Status of Labour Migrants' Room Dwelling

At their destination in India, about 86.6 percent of Nepali labour migrants were found to be living in single rooms whereas 12 percent rented two rooms and only 1.4 percent was staying at flats. Similarly, 84.2 percent of Indian labour migrants used single rooms, 15.4 percent adjusted on two rooms and only 0.4 percent was staying at the flats. From table 4.9, it is observed that most of the labour migrants were staying in poor conditions. They mostly live with their partners (friends, relatives, colleagues) for reducing their living costs. 66.8 percent of Nepali labour migrants and 63.2 percent of Indian labour migrants resided with their friends or colleagues 30.8 percent of Nepali labour migrants and 36.8 percent of Indian labour migrants lived with their family at the destination. Only 2.4 percent of Nepali labour migrants lived with a single with some facilities at their destination. Using the Chi-square test for analysis of the association between many partners (accommodated in a room) and their country of origin, the p-value is 0.012 which is (≥ 0.01 level of significance and ≤ 0.05 level of significance). It indicates that there is no association between the number of partners in a room and to country of origin. Both groups of migrants were found living together with their room partners because of their same economic status. It means that migrants stay in a single room with their friends and it depends on their personal needs and situation.

In the case of Indian labour migrants, 32.5 percent of them were staying with more than five members in a room but 3.9 percent of Nepali labour migrants used the same practice. Most migrants (47.2%, on average) used to stay combined in a room with (3-5 people) and 36.4 percent migrants lived with 2 persons in a room. In the case of both groups (Nepali labour migrants and Indian labour migrants), it is also observed that most labour migrants were staying in poor conditions at their respective destinations. They mostly were living with their partners (friends, relatives, colleagues) for reducing their living costs.

Table 4.9*Distribution of Labour Migrants by Status of Room Dwelling*

Status of Room	Nepali labour migrants to India		Indian labour migrants to Nepal		Both groups	
	(N)	%	(N)	%	(N)	%
At destination						
Single room	318	86.6	236	84.2	554	85.6
Two rooms	44	12.0	43	15.4	87	13.5
Flat/home	5	1.4	1	0.4	6	0.9
Accompany of room at Destination						
Combined with Others	245	66.8	177	63.2	422	65.2
Combined with Family	113	30.8	103	36.8	216	33.4
Single	9	2.4	0	0	9	1.4
Total	367	0.0	280	100.0	647	100.0
Pearson Chi-Square Test	<i>Value</i>		<i>DF</i>		<i>Sig.</i>	
	8.882		2		0.012	
Room Partner						
2 person	154	43.0	78	27.9	232	36.4
(3-5) person	190	53.1	111	39.6	301	47.2
>5 person	14	3.9	91	32.5	105	16.4
Total	358	100.0	280	100.0	638	100.0
Pearson Chi-Square Test	<i>Value</i>		<i>Df</i>		<i>Sig.</i>	
	115.864		8		0.000	

Source: Field Survey, 2021.

The main cause for living with their friends is to minimize the expenses at the destination. According to the views of migrants, the savings were later used as food and rental cost and sometimes increased secure conditions (and feelings) too. Labour migrants living on the first floor had some better facilities than migrants living on the ground floor at the destination. In general, the houses having stories with better facilities were found to have higher rent as compared to the ground floor houses. Nepali labour migrants have better facilities of kitchens, sources of drinking water, sanitation, electricity, and communication as compared to Indian labour migrants. Firewood is still a major source of cooking fuel in Nepal. Besides this, Nepali

migrants' families use *Gobar gas* (bio-gas) and LPG as energy for cooking while Indian labour migrants mostly used LPG at their origin because the government of India granted the facility of energy (LPG) within minimum cost as a subsidy.

Chapter Summary

This chapter includes the characteristics of migrants and their families. The mean age of Nepali labour migrants is less than Indian though there is not a significant difference. The majority of migrants were found under the age of 30 years however some migrants were found around 65 years. Females migrated with their husbands to support in household work. Likewise, some of them visited for short time for medical treatment and the rest are working at their destination in support of their husbands. The total population of Nepali labour migrants in India belongs to the Hindu religion whereas the Indian labour migrants to Nepal are found distributed as Hindu, Muslim, and Sikh, however, the population of Muslims was higher. Likewise, the majority of the population from marginalized and socially backward communities migrate to neighbour countries for searching work. Nepali labour migrants have better educational attainment than Indian labour migrants. Some of the migrants' children are found to join their school at their destination too. Almost Nepali labour migrants have their own house at their origin and have better household facilities than Indian labour migrants; however, both groups of migrants are found staying in rental houses in their destination with limited facilities.

CHAPTER V

PROCESS AND CAUSES OF LABOUR MIGRATION

This chapter deals with the causes of cross-border labour migration between Nepal and India. Furthermore, it shows migrants' household conditions, sources of income before leaving their origin, causes of leaving the origin, and food status at home. In addition, the chapter also refers to the process of migration on how the decision to migrate was made. It further shows the migrants' attitude, the selection of destination, the mode of migration, and the travel distance including the means of transportation and travel cost. Likewise, this chapter also shows the process of getting jobs at the destination and the frequency of returning to the origin.

Origin and Destinations of Migrants

The migration between Nepal and India is running for a long. Nepali labour migrants choose different cities of India for working destinations and Indians choose mostly the nearer distance. However, the destination does not seem a significant factor; rather socioeconomic causes seem the prominent one (as discussed in a later section).

Table 5.1

Distribution of Labour Migrants by Origin and Destination States in India

Origin and destination states of migrants in India	Nepali labour migrants to India (Destination)		Indian labour migrants to Nepal (Origin)	
	Number (N)	Percent (%)	Number(N)	Percent (%)
Uttar Pradesh	9	2.3	227	81.1
Uttarakhand	27	7.2	38	13.6
West Bengal	-	-	9	3.2
Bihar	-	-	6	2.1
Delhi	111	30.0	-	-
Karnataka	59	16.0	-	-
Punjab	42	11.4	-	-
Maharashtra	39	10.6	-	-
Haryana	24	6.5	-	-
Gujarat	21	5.7	-	-
Himanchal Pradesh	17	4.6	-	-
Goa	12	3.2	-	-
Tamil Nadu	6	1.6	-	-
Madhya Pradesh	1	0.3	-	-
Andhra Pradesh	1	0.3	-	-
Rajasthan	1	0.3	-	-
Total	370	100	280	100

Source: Field Survey, 2021.

Graphically, the movement of migrants is shown in the map below (Figure 5.1). This map shows that Nepali labour migrants from Bhimdatt Municipality move to different big cities of India, i.e. Uttar Pradesh, Uttarakhand, Rajasthan, Madhya Pradesh, Himanchal Pradesh, Gujarat, Maharashtra, Goa, Tamil Nadu, Karnataka, Haryana, Delhi, Andhra Pradesh, and Punjab. Likewise, Indian labour migrants from Uttarakhand, Uttar Pradesh, Bihar, and West Bengal migrated to Bhimdatt Municipality for work.

Figure 5.1

Locations of Destination of Nepali Labour Migrants to India from the Study Area



Figure 5.2

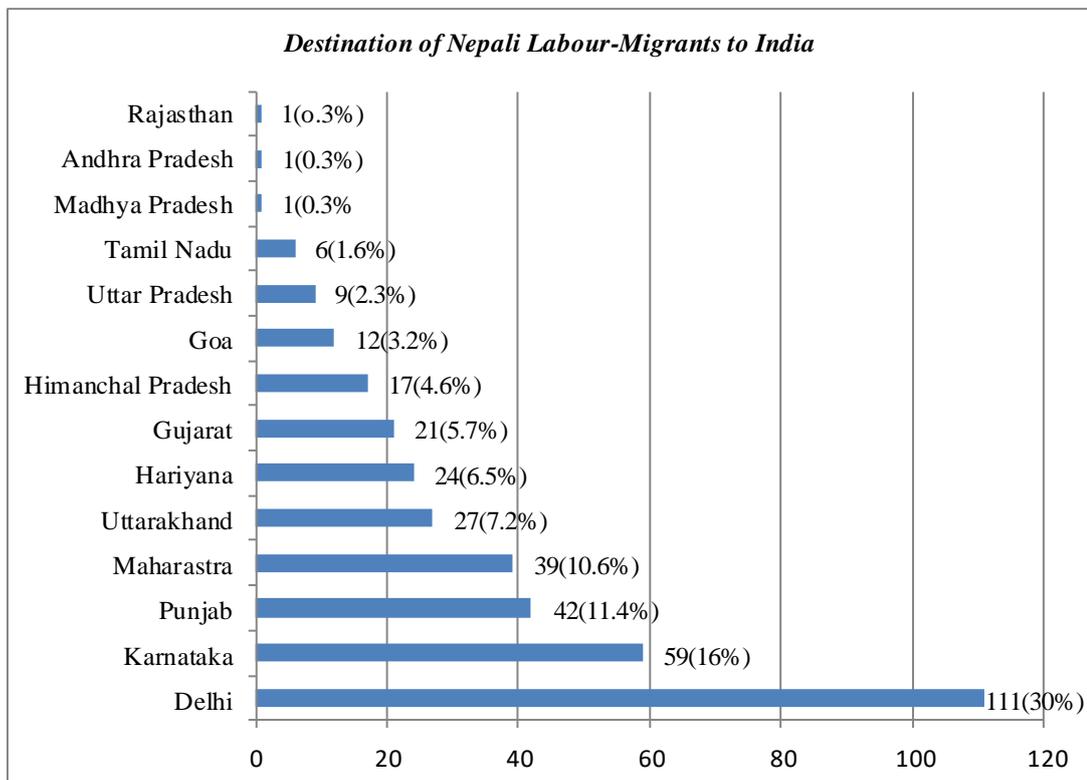
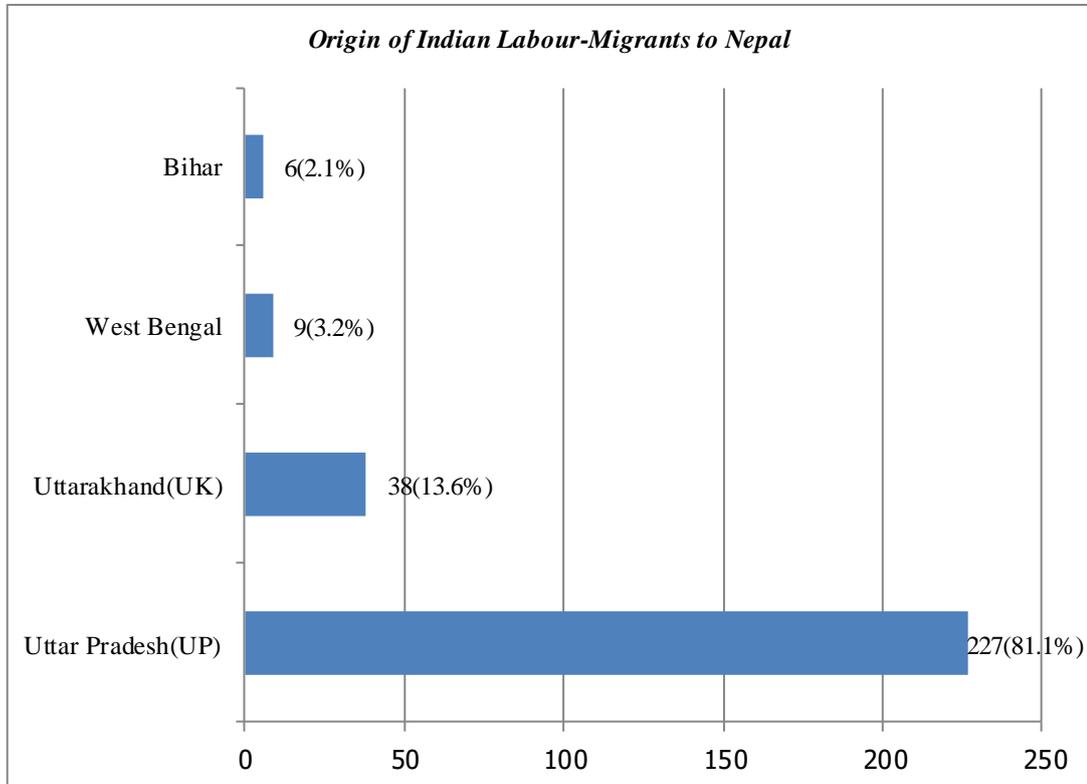
Locations of Origin of Indian Labour Migrants to Nepal from India



From Figure 5.3, it is evident that about 81.1 percent from Uttar Pradesh, 13.6 percent from Uttarakhand, 3.2 percent from West Bengal, and 2.1 percent from Bihar labours migrated to Bhimdatt Municipality.

Figure 5.3

Distribution of Indian Labour Migrants to Bhimdatt Municipality by Origin and Nepali Labour Migrants to India by Destination



The above data shows that about 30 percent of people from Bhimdatt Municipality migrate to the capital city Delhi. Similarly, 16 percent to Karnataka, 11.4 percent to Punjab, 10.6 percent to Maharashtra, 7.2 percent to Uttarakhand, 6 percent to Haryana, and others move to Gujarat, Himachal Pradesh, Goa, Uttar Pradesh, Tamil Nadu, Madhya Pradesh, Andhra Pradesh, and Rajasthan. This finding challenges Revenstein's theory of migration in which the distance between the origins determines the volume of migration between the place of origin and destination i.e. higher the distance, the lower the volume of migration and vice versa (Revenstein, 1885). Moreover, another important thing is that there are some common cities in India (including Uttar Pradesh and Uttarakhand) that seem to be both origin (Indian labour migrants to Nepal) and destination (Nepali labour migrants to India) as well.

The Nepali labour migrants from Bhimdatt Municipality move to different big cities in India. Likewise, Indian labour migrants from Uttarakhand, Uttar Pradesh, Bihar, and West Bengal migrated to Bhimdatt Municipality for work. The majority of people from Uttar Pradesh (India) migrate to BhimDatt Municipality (Nepal) for work. On the other hand, the larger size of the population from Bhimdatt Municipality moves to Delhi for searching work. Higher the rate of migration from Uttar Pradesh to Nepal reflects a correlation with the nearby distance, open-Nepal border, and chances of employment in all kinds of seasons in Nepal. Likewise, the different sizes of the population from Bhimdatt Municipality migrate to other different cities of India as destinations. The study shows that about 30 percent of people from Bhimdatt Municipality migrate to the capital city New Delhi. Probably, it is due to the higher chances of job availability.

Basyal (2014) has also carried out a study about the main destinations of Nepali labour migrants in India are Delhi, Mumbai, Gujarat, Bangalore, Kerala, Pune, Ludhiana, Amritsar, and the hill towns of Almora, Nainital, Shimla and Pithoragarh whereas Seddon and Gurung (2001) mentioned that people from central Nepal moved to Indian cities like Mumbai, Delhi, Kolkata, Varanasi, Agra, Lucknow, Kanpur, Chennai, and Bangalore. Likewise, Bhagat and Keshari (2010) showed that seasonal migration from Nepal to India is highest in Uttar Pradesh (before the restructuring of Uttar Pradesh in the birth of Uttarakhand) followed by Madhya Pradesh, Maharashtra, Andhra Pradesh, and Bihar.

Time of Migration

Seasonality has different issues coupled with not merely a climatic or environmental issue of adaptation and suitability. Rather, it is also associated with different kinds of socio-cultural, economic, and political causes. In this particular study, the timing of migration seems to be more regular (i.e. 64.1%, and thus less seasonal) both for the Nepali and Indian labour migrants, 54.6 percent and 76.8 percent, respectively.

Table 5.2

Distribution of Labour Migrants by Time of Migration

Time to migration towards destination	Nepali labour migrants to India		Indian labour migrants to Nepal		Both groups	
	(N)	(%)	(N)	(%)	(N)	(%)
After harvesting agriculture	66	17.8	-	-	66	10.2
During vacation	32	8.7	-	-	32	4.9
At the time of being unemployed	67	18.1	65	23.2	132	20.3
Continuity of work since migrated	202	54.6	215	76.8	417	64.1
No fixed	3	0.8	-	-	3	0.5
Total	370	100.0	280	100.0	650	100.0

Source: Field Survey, 2021.

Timing and seasonality are important dimensions of migration. In the international discourse of migration, various scholars empirically show that seasonality has dual characteristics being a pull factor as well as a push factor in the migration process (Crawford, & Campbell, 2012). According to Brusle (2008), the availability of work, networks, and distance are the factors to influence the choice of a destination made by migrants. In discussion with migrants, they mostly go to their destination after harvesting their agricultural works in origin however they continue their work at their destination.

Seasonality has different issues coupled with not merely a climatic or environmental issue of adaptation and suitability. Rather, it is also associated with different kinds of socio-cultural, economic, and political causes. In this particular study, the timing of migration seems to be more regular (i.e. 64.1%, and thus less

seasonal) both for the Nepali and Indian labour migrants. Comparatively, the Indian labour migrants to Nepal have more inclination for regular work which might be due to the frequent availability of jobs at the destinations, i.e. Bhimdatt Municipality. Migrations in agriculture season and during vacation are also seen for the Nepali labour migrants to India, while it is not reflected for the Indian labour migrants. Migration behaviour while the time of being unemployed seems to be second most followed both by the Nepali and Indian labour migrants. Around one-fifth of the total labour, migrants are following this type of migratory move. It means they could have multiple livelihood strategies as well irrespective of what they would have done in their destinations.

Reason for Selection of Particular Destination

India is the preferred destination for western mountain/hills migrants of Nepal but the choices of migration vary with the forms of social exclusion and inclusion as represented by the socio-economic status of the households. In the same prospect, Czaika and Reinprecht (2022) explained that of 9 dimensions (Demographic, Economic, Environmental, Human Development, Individual, Politico-Institutional, Security, Socio-cultural, and Supranational) and 24 different driving factors are the causes of labour migration however they agreed that socio-cultural dimension is still dominant which statement is exactly matched with cross-border labour migration between Nepal and India too.

Table 5.3

Distribution of Labour Migrants by Source of Information and Reason for Selecting the Destination

Source of Information	Nepali labour migrants to India		Indian labour migrants to Nepal		Both groups	
	(N)	(%)	(N)	(%)	(N)	(%)
Relatives/friends	204	55.1	127	45.3	331	50.9
Family	125	33.8	29	10.4	154	23.7
Contractor/employer	41	11.1	124	44.3	165	25.4
Pearson Chi-Square Test	<i>Value</i>		<i>Df</i>		<i>Sig.</i>	
	109.139		2		0.000	
Reason for Choosing Destination						
Easy availability/Entry-exit	51	13.8	151	53.9	202	31.1
Parents/Social relationship	209	56.5	-	-	209	32.1
Higher wage rate	110	29.7	129	46.1	239	36.8
Total	370	100.0	280	100.0	650	100.0
Pearson Chi-Square Test	<i>Value</i>		<i>Df</i>		<i>Sig.</i>	
	252.393		2		0.000	

Source: Field Survey, 2021.

Table 5.3 describes some interesting facts that are the sources of information for migration. The main source of information seems to be generated with relatives and friends (50.9%) for both migrants. It is followed by the sources of information related to the contractor and employer (25.4%), though it seems more significant to the Indian labour migrants as compared to the Nepali labour migrants. The family-related source of information holds also an important role in migration as evidenced by the Nepali labour migrants to India (33.8%), and less by the Indian labour migrants to Nepal (10.4%). Moreover, the reason for choosing a destination due to parents/social relationship seems to be more important for Nepali labour migrants (56.5%), which does not stand anymore with the case of the Indian labour migrants. The table shows more than half (i.e. 53.9%) of the total Indian labour migrants took a migratory move to Nepal because of easy availability/easy entry exit. To determine the relationship between the source of information and country of origin, the Pearson Chi-square test was carried out where the p-value was found less than its level of significance (0.01) which indicates that there is a statistical association between these two variables. Likewise, it was also seen that the relationship between the reason for choosing a particular destination and their country of origin.

India is the preferred destination for western mountain/hills migrants of Nepal but the choices of migration vary with the forms of social exclusion and inclusion as represented by the socio-economic status of the households. The choice of rich people seems to migrate to third countries (other than India) as their destination but the choice of poor migrant families is to take migration to India in most cases. It is primarily due to family obligations as well as due to a large number of expenses to go to foreign employment outside India. At the same time, social networks play a vital role in migration and the choice of destination too (Gurung, 2012).

Similarly, Lamechhane (2018) described that social networks reduce the migration cost in destination and it affects the migration decision. He further explained that the vulnerability of jobs due to slower economic growth in comparison with the increasing labour force entering the labour market and the differences in wages/income between Nepal and other labour-welcoming countries are key factors that could affect the migration decision. Similarly, Bhardwaj (2010) described the open border between Nepal and India as a viable bond of a mutual relationship between the two societies and it is a matter of trust between the two governments. In terms of migration, the open border system has created a kind of homogeneity of emotions, social and cultural bonding, economic interdependence, and survival of

people living with multiple livelihood strategies. The main source of information seems to be generated with relatives and friends (50.9%) for both migrants. It might be due to the nature of work at the destinations as most of the Indian labour migrants work in industries while the Nepali labour migrants in India work in industries as well as individual houses and other single businesses.

According to Thieme (2006), the migration between Nepal and India is due to the strong bonding of social capital though there is limited access to jobs, shelter, and physical infrastructure. They can find jobs, shelter, loans, and other information through their social networks. Family and kinship are the most important coping mechanism. However, the social networks among migrants are not the same for everyone. Likewise, Subedi (1991) further described that the extension of the Indian railway network up to the border of Nepal raised migration between both countries. He further stated that a large number of Nepalis and Indians are Hindus and have common festivals and faiths, as well as the majority people of the Terai, are similar in their physical appearance, language, and social behaviours to the Indian people including kinship after marriage in cross border districts.

In support of this study, K.C. (1998) and Basyal (2020) concluded that emigration from Nepal to India has been influenced by employment in unskilled jobs, income, and unrestricted rules of entry and exit. Indian immigration to Nepal is influenced by the differential opportunity for employment, demand for skilled and semi-skilled manpower, small distance, low cost of transportation, unrestricted entry and exit, and closer affinity in religion, culture, language, and family ties. In addition, Basyal (2020) added that social networks support getting jobs, shelter, loans, and saving money. According to him, Nepali migrants in Delhi are working for survival rather than higher income. This study shows the causes of choosing a destination seem not to be significantly different. However, the cause of the higher wage rate seems to be more followed in aggregate but mostly followed by Indian labour migrants (46.1%) as compared to the Nepali labour migrants (29.7%). It reflects that Indian labour migrants to Nepal are economically deterministic and they could take decisions as per the economic cost-benefit analysis, including the income, savings, and wages they would get. Moreover, the cause of choosing a destination due to Ancestors/Parents/Social relationship seems to be more important for Nepali labour migrants (56.5%), which do not stand anymore with the case of the Indian labour migrants. This simply implies that Nepali labour migrants took migration decisions as per the cultural and social schooling where family and social relations are more

important. So, they are less economically deterministic, rather are culturally motivated.

Transport Cost and Financial Arrangement for Traveling to Destination

The cause of labour migration between two countries is due to easy availability/easy entry exit. It could be due to the open Nepal-India border and the larger potentiality of availability of jobs in nearby the border area (from Uttarakhand and Uttar Pradesh in particular) that would ease their travel and save the cost by reducing other formalities and difficulties in the adjacent Nepali destinations like Bhimdatt Municipality as described by Ravenstein theory (migrants move to near distance or step by step). In the case of Indian labour migrants, they follow step migration or they mostly come from the nearby borders but Nepali migrants choose big cities of India for work by following their networks though, the travel cost in the Indian roadways bus is comparatively cheaper than that in Nepal. In this context, it is interesting to compare the findings of other research works as well.

Table 5.4

Distribution of Labour Migrants according to Transportation Costs and Financial Arrangements for Travel

Transport cost in Rs. (Indian Currency)	Nepali labour migrants to India		Indian labour migrants to Nepal		Both groups	
	(N)	(%)	(N)	(%)	(N)	(%)
Below 500	14	3.8	262	93.6	276	42.5
500-1,500	167	45.1	11	3.9	178	27.4
1,500-3,000	66	17.8	7	2.5	73	11.2
3,000-5,000	122	33.0	-	-	122	18.8
Above 5,000	1	0.3	-	-	1	0.1
Arrangement of money during travel						
Loan from cooperatives	1	0.3	-	-	1	0.1
Credit from neighbours/ relatives	109	29.4	-	-	109	16.8
Cash (Self-at home)	260	70.3	280	100	540	83.1
Total	370	100.0	280	100.0	650	100.0

Source: Field Survey, 2021.

Table 5.4 shows that the volume of cross-border labour migration between Nepal and India is high because of the low transport cost. Most (93.6%) Indians come to Mahendranagar (Nepal) from near borders and are paid less than Rs. 500 in Indian Currency while Nepali labour migrants are paid comparatively higher than Indian labour migrants to reach their destination. Similarly, almost all the Indian labour migrants arranged cash (i.e. home) for travel; however, in the case of Nepali, the majority of them (i.e. 70.3%) arranged by themselves, 29.4 percent by taking credit from neighbours/relatives and 0.3 percent by taking credit from cooperatives. In a study of labour migration from Nepal to India, Devkota (2016) describes that the Nepali people from poor family migrated to India; it is because both the cost of migration and wage rate is lowest in the India.

Traveling Hours and Means of Transportation, and Crossed the Border

There are 22 official entry points to cross the border between Nepal and India where six extra points are referred to as the immigration points for the nationals of any third country, i.e. Banbasa-Mahendranagar, Gourifanta-Dhangadi, Rupadiya-Nepalganj, Sunouli-Bhairawa, Raxoul-Birganj and Naxalbari-Kakarbhitta (Ministry of Commerce and Industry/ GoI, 1991).

Table 5.5 shows that most of the migrants from both countries (i.e. approximately 94.9% of Nepali labour migrants and 96.8% of Indian labour migrants) crossed their border through the Gaddachouki border. Likewise, 6.5 percent Nepali labour migrants and 3.7 percent crossed the border through Brahmddev while a few only (i.e.1.4% and 1.8 %) Indian labour migrants who preferably belong to Uttar Pradesh, Bihar, and West Bengal) crossed the border through the corridors of Gourifanta and Sunouli respectively.

As evident in Table 5.5, the majority of the Indian labour migrants (i.e. 83.9%) arrived at Mahendranagar (destination) below 3 hours due to the short distance and only 2.5 percent migrants belonging to West Bengal takes more than 12 hours to arrive at their destination, while 47.8 percent takes (8-12 hours) and 48.9 percent of Nepali labour migrants takes more than 12 hours for travel to reach their destination due to selection of long distances. Only 4.1 percent of Nepali labour migrants take (3-8 hours) to reach their destination while 9.7 percent of Indian labour migrants expending a similar time traveling.

Table 5.5

Distribution of Labour Migrants by Travelling Hours and Means of Transportation to Reach the Destinations

Time for travel	Nepali labour migrants to India		Indian labour migrants to Nepal		Both groups	
	(N)	(%)	(N)	(%)	(N)	(%)
< 3 hours	-	-	235	83.9	235	36.1
3-8 hours	15	4.1	27	9.7	42	6.5
8-12 hours	174	47.0	11	3.9	185	28.5
12+ hours	181	48.9	7	2.5	188	28.9
Means of Transport						
Bus	245	66.2	243	86.8	488	75.1
Train/Rail	-	-	25	8.9	25	3.8
Plane	1	0.3	-	-	1	0.2
Bus and Train	114	30.8	-	-	114	17.5
As necessary	10	2.7	-	-	10	1.5
Horse/Tanga	-	-	12	5.3	12	1.9
Entry Border Points						
Bramhdev/Tanakpur	24	6.5	-	-	24	3.7
Gaddachouki/Banbasa	346	93.5	271	96.8	617	94.9
Dhangadi/Gouriphanta	-	-	4	1.4	4	0.6
Bhairahawa/Sunouli	-	-	5	1.8	5	0.8
Total	370	100.0	280	100.0	650	100.0

Source: Field Survey, 2021.

Most of the migrants traveled by bus (66.2 % Nepali labour migrants and 86.8% Indian labour migrants), following the traveling trend by both bus and train (30.8% Nepali labour migrants), train (8.9% Indian labour migrants) and 0.3 percent Nepali labour migrants use plane to travel at the destination. Likewise, 5.3 percent of Indian labour migrants use horse/*Tanga* for traveling to their destination. This issue has been highlighted by many scholars, including Alerstam et al. (2003) and Malmberg (2021). The means of transportation seem to be not vital and expensive too. Most of the migrants are traveled by bus and horse cart (*Tanga*) at the border area.

Companion with (First Time Migration) and Getting Job at Destination

Social networks based on kinship, friendship, and community ties are central components in migration systems analysis. From Table 5.6, it is clear that the majority of Nepali labour migrants (52.2%) migrated to their destination with their relatives/friends, 20.8 percent with family members, 13.2 percent moved with contractors and 13.8 percent are found to be self-migrated. At the same time in the case of Indian labour migrants, (36.1%) migrated with their family members, 25.7 percent with relatives/friends, 32.5 percent with contractors, and 5.7 percent are found migrated by themselves.

Table 5.6

Distribution of Labour Migrants by Migration Process and Getting Jobs at Destination

A companion while migrating the first time	Nepali labour migrants to India		Indian labour migrants to Nepal		Both groups	
	(N)	(%)	(N)	(%)	(N)	(%)
Family members	77	20.8	101	36.1	178	27.4
Relatives/friends	193	52.2	72	25.7	265	40.8
Contractor	49	13.2	91	32.5	140	21.5
Self	51	13.8	16	5.7	67	10.3
Supports for getting a job						
By paying money	20	5.4	-	-	20	3.1
Friend/Relative Recommendation	186	50.3	69	24.6	255	39.2
Self-effort	135	36.5	52	18.6	187	28.8
Contractor/Employer supports	29	7.8	159	56.8	188	28.9
Total	370	100.0	280	100.0	650	100.0
Position of Bribery						
Contractor/Manpower Company/Agent	17	85.0	-	-	17	85
Relatives/Friends	3	15.0	-	-	3	15
Amount of Bribery						
25,000-50,000	3	0.8	-	-	3	0.5
50,001-150,000	11	3.0	-	-	11	1.7
150,000-250,000	6	1.6	-	-	6	0.9
Total	20	100.0	-	-	20	100.0

Source: Field Survey, 2021.

Table 5.6 also reveals that 5.4 percent of Nepali labour migrants got a job at their destination by giving money (bribery) to others, brokers or friends, though it is not the most occurring case. Almost half of the migrants (i.e. 50.3%) got a job on the recommendation of their friends/relatives, followed by 36.5 percent by their efforts and 7.8 percent got a job in support of contractors. At the same time, 24.6 percent of Indian labour migrants got a job at a destination on the recommendation of their relatives/friends, 18.6 percent deserved their work by themselves and the rest 56.8 percent got jobs with the support of contractors.

Social networks based on kinship, friendship, and community ties are central components in migration systems analysis. It is largely discussed in the international context of migration studies (Shah, & Menon, 1999; Bilecen et al., 2018). These components link sending and receiving countries and mediate between individual actors to larger structural forces which continue the migration long after the original impact of migration has ended. Kinship ties are major sources of personal networks in migration and it reveals the importance of social relations in migrating behaviour as well as provides insight into the origins, composition, direction, and persistence of migration flows (Boyd, 1989). This study reveals that more than half of Nepali labour migrants migrated with their relatives/friends; however, the majority of Indian labour migrants got a job in support of contractors because most of them worked as masons and did other semi-skilled work in Mahendranagar. They feel easy to work with their contractors so they can save money. They generally used a shared kitchen and room for sleeping which would reduce living costs and increase the savings to form the remittance.

It is found that local labour contractors actively recruit seasonal labourers to work in road and house construction in Uttarakhand and Himanchal, where many Nepalese also get involved. Mainly, Indian migration is organized and supported by kinship networks. Over the years, the cause of migration is social networks and kinship. When they (labour migrants) come to visit their family in Nepal during festivals, they take one or more of their relatives or neighbours with them to India (Donini, et al., 2013).

Frequency of Labour Migrants Returning at Origin

Labour migration usually doesn't happen for permanent shifting of residence or locality. The majority (51.9%) of Nepali labour migrants used to return to their origin once a year while 31.9 percent return within 6 months, 6.8 percent during festivals or as per need. But, 27.5 percent of Indian labour migrants returned to their origin monthly; it's because of the closer distance. They mostly stayed their home for at least a day and then returned to their destination. Only 7.5 percent of Indian labour migrants returned within the year while 21.4 percent returned as and when needed.

Table 5.7

Distribution of Labour Migrants by Frequency of Returning at Origin

Frequency of returning at origin	Nepali labour migrants to India		Indian labour migrants to Nepal		Both group	
	(N)	(%)	(N)	(%)	(N)	(%)
	At monthly	2	0.5	77	27.5	79
At half yearly	118	31.9	27	9.6	145	22.3
One time in a year	192	51.9	21	7.5	213	32.8
During festivals/As per need	25	6.8	60	21.4	85	13.1
During vacation/holidays	33	8.9	27	9.6	60	9.2
During Rainy season	-	-	68	24.2	68	10.5
Total	370	100.0	280	100.0	650	100.0

Source: Field Survey, 2021.

It is analyzed that the distance for migration plays a vital role in the frequency of migrants returning to their origin. Migrants having shorter distances usually return to their origin monthly while long-distance migrants return annually. In the case of Indian labour migrants who work in bricklayers industries usually return to India during monsoon season (the brick factories remain closed). During the season, they return to India with family and get engaged in picking apples at Shimla.

History of Migration (Generation)

Migration to India has been one of the key livelihood strategies amongst marginal households in the middle hills of western and far-western Nepal (Seddon et al., 2001; Thieme, 2006).

From Table 5.8, it is clear that 40.3 percent of Nepali labour migrants migrated to India from their generation, 48.1 percent migrated since their father's generation and the rest 11.6 percent migrated since their grandfather. Similarly, in the case of Indian labour migrants, 65.7 percent migrated from their generation (first generation) and the rest 34.3 percent migrated from their fathers' generation. The majority of the migrants (30%) migrants having step origin at Baitadi and others are (15% Darchula, 15 % Dadeldhura, 13 % Achham, 10% Bajura, and 9 % Bajhang). It is due to the larger population in Bhimdatt Municipality migrating from the Baitadi district than other hilly districts. Migration to India has been one of the key livelihood strategies amongst marginal households in the middle hills of western and far-western Nepal (Seddon et al., 2001; Thieme, 2006). Thieme (2006) carried out a study on social networks and migration of far-western labour migration in Delhi. His study contributes to an understanding of the process of migration and its contribution to the livelihoods of people from rural areas in Nepal. Similarly, Thapa and Yadav (2015) suggested that the push factors in the hill have been much more influential than the pull factors of the plains in determining migratory trends and patterns.

Table 5.8

Distribution of Migration History (Generation) of Respondents

Generation of migration	Nepali labour migrants to India		Indian labour migrants to Nepal		Both groups	
	(N)	(%)	(N)	(%)	(N)	(%)
From current generation	149	40.3	184	65.7	333	51.2
From the time of father	178	48.1	96	34.3	274	42.2
From the time of grandfather	43	11.6	-	-	43	6.6
Total	370	100.0	280	100.0	650	100.0
Migration History (Districts of Migrants' Ancestors)						
Achham	48	13.0				
Baitadi	112	30.3				
Bajhang	34	9.2				
Bajura	38	10.3				
Dadeldhura	53	14.3				
Darchula	56	15.1				
Doti	4	1.1				
Kanchanpur	23	6.2				
Pyuthan	2	0.5				

Source: Field Survey, 2021.

As per reviewing the above-mentioned studies, the volume of migration towards India from hill areas of Sudurpaschim Province is high. Most of the migrants from Bhimdatt Municipality belong to different hill districts of the province i.e. first the family migrated to the Terai area from hill stations and then again migrated to Indian cities as per their generation followed earlier. Thieme et al. (2005) describe that migration has been practiced for generations and migration networks have been developed. This study shows that most of the households belonging to the hilly region saw higher migration than the ethnic residents of the Kanchanpur district saw lower migration to India. Labour migration from Nepal to India continues for generations.

Mode of Migration and Duration of Work at Destination

Labour migration from Nepal to India continues for generations. Table 5.9 presents years of migration, mode of migration, and causes of family-related issues in the migration. It is calculated that 30.5 percent of Nepali labour migrants went along with their wives to India from which 4.4 percent migrated for medical purposes, 12.4 percent for supporting the household activities of their husbands, and most of them (i.e. 83.2%) started their journey for economic purposes. Most of them used to work as domestic workers in India. In the case of Indian labour migrants, 36.8 percent of females migrated with their husbands to Nepal.

Among them, 17.5 percent visited to support their husband in household services at their destination and the rest 82.5 percent do work for economic purposes. Most of the female migrants engaged in work in brick factories and agriculture work (described in chapter 6 in detail). Similarly, Table 5.9 portrays information about the experience of the migrants.

The findings reveal that nearly half i.e. 49.5 percent of Nepali labour migrants have less than 5 years of experience at their destination, while 22.2 percent have 5-10 years, 17.5 percent have 11-20 years and 10.8 percent have 21-30 years of experience in different sectors in India. However, 14.3 percent of Indian labour migrants have less than 5 years, 34.3 percent have 5-10 years, 33.2 percent have 11-20 years and the remaining 18.2 percent have more than 20 years of work experience in Nepal.

To determine the relationship between the duration of migration, mode of migration, and reason for family migration to the country of their (migrants) origin, the Pearson Chi-square test was carried out and found the result different. Table 5.9

shows that there is a significant statistical association between the duration of migration and migrants' origin but not found a significant relationship between the mode of migration and migrants' country of migration. It means there is no association of migration with the process of migration i.e. individual or family migration. Likewise, statistical tests accepted (≥ 0.01 or 0.05 level of significance) which indicates that there was no relationship between the reasons for migration (with family) to their country of migration (i.e. origin of migrants). It shows that there could be different reasons for their migration (family).

Table 5.9

Distribution of Labour Migrants by Duration of Work, Mode of Migration and Reason for Family Migration

Duration of migration	Nepali labour migrants to India		Indian labour migrants to Nepal		Both groups	
	(N)	(%)	(N)	(%)	(N)	(%)
< 5 years	183	49.5	40	14.3	223	34.3
5-10 years	82	22.2	96	34.3	178	27.4
11-20 years	65	17.5	93	33.2	158	24.3
21-30 years	40	10.8	51	18.2	91	14.0
Pearson Chi-Square Test	<i>Value</i>		<i>Df</i>		<i>Sig.</i>	
	88.324		3		0.000	
Mode of Migration						
Individual	257	64.5	177	63.2	434	66.8
With family(wife)	113	30.5	103	36.8	216	33.2
Total	370	100.0	280	100.0	650	100.0
Pearson Chi-Square Test	<i>Value</i>		<i>Df</i>		<i>Sig.</i>	
	2.802		1		0.094	
Reason for Family Migration						
Medical treatment	5	4.4	-	-	5	2.3
Housewife	14	12.4	18	17.5	32	14.8
Economic purposes	94	83.2	85	82.5	179	82.9
Total	113	100.0	103	100.0	216	100.0
Pearson Chi-Square Test	<i>Value</i>		<i>Df</i>		<i>Sig.</i>	
	5.501		2		0.064	

Source: Field Survey, 2021.

In another study, Thieme and Muller (2010) analyzed that gender inequality is magnified for the majority of women who remain in Sudurpaschim Province in Nepal

but are challenged by women who live in Delhi for longer. Women of Sudurpaschim Nepal do not gain more independence or bargaining power within the household. Most of them are dependent on their husbands and have a maximum workload in their houses. Women who come to Delhi for a medical purpose (even for the first time) or even simply stay for a short time find as if their awareness level is changed. Similarly, women who stay for a longer time, they are seemed to completely change to a new dimension of life in terms of modern lifestyles. They showed the change in their living standard i.e. education of the children, better medical treatment, financial activities, changes in traditional thoughts, etc. (Thieme & Muller, 2010). Similarly, Lokshin and Glinkskaya (2008) highlighted that the effect of male migration on the work pattern of women left behind has important implications for social status.

Case Study-3: "I spent my 50 years of working age in India (Mumbai) for employment as a labour worker"- Bharmal Sunar.

Bharmal Sunar, age 70, migrated from Achham to the Kanchanpur district in his childhood. When he became 10 years old, he went to India to work with his relatives. He spent 50 years of his young energetic age working in hotels and as a watchman. In his early days in India, he searched for jobs in several hotels and started working for survival. He was not able to continue his job longer period of time in any of the hotels because he was too young to serve and do cleanings properly so he was fired from several hotels. But, he continued searching for jobs just for survival for the first two years. Despite his hard work, he used to get food only two times a day. He used to sleep by arranging the benches and tables inside the hotel. He suffered from several problems like a shortage of proper bedding and sleep during both summer and winter seasons. He was not excused by owners even at the time of fever, cold and other sufferings. After having such experiences, he started selecting jobs with a proper salary and minor facilities. Having several ups and downs in India, he spent almost 25 years of his valuable time, working in hotels and another 25 years as a watchman there. He returned to Nepal only after 4 years and got married. Then after two months, he went to India along with his wife. He settled with his wife in a rented room and His wife also started working as a domestic worker. After some years, he left the hotel job and started to work as a watchman. Furthermore, he used to do some domestic work as his wife and at night used to work as a watchman. Both of them supported economically, raised their two children, and educated them somehow there.

Now at present, he lives in Nepal with his wife but his children are working in companies in India. His children also got married from Nepal and live in India with their families. Their children are getting an education from Indian schools. It sounds like they have temporarily become residents of India. They come to Nepal during festivals and other necessary occasions. According to Vermal Sunar, his ancestors used to work in India, he and his wife spent 50 years there, and now his third generation is living in India. Feeling annoyed, he expressed that they have been surviving in India for their livelihood for generations but they are the citizens of Nepal.

To analyze the above case study, Nepali migrants have been spending their entire life in India for their survival only. Some of the migrants are staying in India since the third generation however they get back to their origin to celebrate their social faiths and cultures. It shows the real panic situation and poverty of Nepali rural citizens however Indian migration is the livelihood strategy for many of the people at the present as well. According to a study, it is found that almost 40 families from the Dalit communities depend on India for their survival.

Causes of Migration

There are certain undesirable push factors in the place of origin that compel or push the individual at the same time; some factors attract the migrants as pull factors to the destination (Revenstein, 1895 cited in John, 2005). According to Caf Dowlah (2020), the causes of cross-border labour migration are economic i.e. 85% of immigrants in the temporary world whether they are legal or illegal or any political refuses.

Table 5.10 shows that 36.8 percent of Nepali and 18.9 percent of Indian labour migrants have their self-decision for migration while the majority of Nepali labour migrants, i.e. 63.2 percent, and the Indian labour migrants, i.e. 81.1 percent have decided for migration with their families (Family decision as per their need). As testing the result by observing the association between different variables i.e. causes of migration, major causes of economic migration, and decision for migration with their country of origin, the p values for each test were found less than 0.01 level of significance and hence null hypothesis was rejected. It indicates that there was a statistical significance association between these all variables.

There are certain undesirable push factors in the place of origin that compel or push the individual at the same time; some factors attract the migrants as pull factors to the destination (Revenstein, 1895). Most of the researcher shows the causes of migration is related to social and economic factors. Bala (2017) described that the cause of labour migration in rural areas of India includes fewer employment opportunities, low wages, drought, lack of basic amenities, landlessness, social and cultural factors, etc. They can get more employment opportunities, higher income, better wages, and better facilities where they migrate. Similarly, the increasing number of construction projects and shortage of labour in Nepal is the main cause to

receive seasonal Indian workers in groups as demand in hill and mountainous areas of Nepal. Favourable climate/weather in the hilly region of eastern Nepal lures Indian labours, especially from Bihar and Himachal Pradesh (Karki, 2018).

Table 5.10

Distribution of Labour Migrants by Causes of Migration

Causes of migration	Nepali labour migrants to India		Indian labour migrants to Nepal		Both groups	
	(N)	(%)	(N)	(%)	(N)	(%)
Economic causes	344	93.0	280	100	624	96.0
Political (Conflict/Instability)	26	7.0	-	-	26	4.0
Environmental(Natural)	-	-	-	-	-	-
Total	370	100.0	280	100.0	650	100.0
Pearson Chi-Square Test	<i>Value</i>		<i>Df</i>		<i>Sig.</i>	
	20.495		1		0.000	
Main Causes of Economic Migration						
For getting better opportunity/Income	56	15.2	111	39.6	167	25.7
For getting basic needs (Poverty)	97	26.2	30	10.7	127	19.5
For getting employment	191	51.6	139	49.7	330	50.8
Total	344	100.0	280	100.0	624	100.0
Pearson Chi-Square Test	<i>Value</i>		<i>Df</i>		<i>Sig.</i>	
	55.676		2		0.000	
Decision for Migration						
Self-decision	136	36.8	53	18.9	189	29.1
Family decision(Agreed)	234	63.2	227	81.1	461	70.9
Total	370	100.0	280	100.0	650	100.0
Pearson Chi-Square Test	<i>Value</i>		<i>Df</i>		<i>Sig.</i>	
	24.565		1		0.000	

Source: Field Survey, 2021.

The major causes of labour migration in Nepal are poverty and unemployment. Piya and Joshi (2016) explained the major causes of labour migration are the existing policies, political transformation and instability, agriculture trends, and political environment in Nepal i.e. Labour Act of 1985, re-establishment of

democracy in 1990, liberalization in 1993, decentralization of the authority to issue passports in all districts and political conflict (Maoist insurgency in 1996-2006), decreasing agriculture productivity and unsuitable environment for new investment are the push factor and the differences in wage in the international market is a pull factor. Likewise, Samuels et al. (2011) argued that employment opportunities and higher wages were the driving forces for migration from Nepal to India. The main pull factors for migration were economic opportunities in India.

On the other hand, Gautam (2012) explained that the majority of male migrants go to India at their working age and it becomes a negative impact on rural areas i.e. shortage of human resources at the origin. According to him, unemployment, food deficiency, increased expenditure and interest in being economically prosperous, population pressure, and conflict are the push factors while easy availability of work for unskilled labours, cash payment, and other benefits are the pull factors for the Nepal-India migration.

Food insecurity (due to the small size of land, less productive, fragmentation of land, and little cultivated land), unemployment, political conflict, poverty, and lack of opportunities are the main factors of migration. Due to poverty, unemployment, declining natural resources, impoverishment, indebtedness, social discrimination, lack of infrastructure, and the Maoist insurgency, etc. are the major causes of migration from Nepal to India (Thieme, 2006; Gill, 2003). At the same time, ICIMOD (2010) explained that Indian migration is the livelihood strategy for Nepali migrants because there is not enough food in rural areas and hence they are compelled to migrate to India. Where Gill (2003) urged that seasonal labour migration in Nepal occurs both from push factors (high-level poverty and food insecurity) and pull factors (seasonal employment opportunities elsewhere). Wage rates in India are significantly higher than in Nepal (especially in non-agriculture sectors). The wage differential is the cause of seasonal migration. Wage rates are higher in India and the non-farm sector than in the agriculture sector. In addition to this, Kansakar (2001) has discussed the issue of the immigration of Indians in Nepal due to various development activities done in the Terai belt of Nepal.

In this study, about 93.0 percent of Nepali labour migrants and 100 percent of Indian labour migrants migrated due to economic causes (i.e. lack of better opportunities, unemployment, poverty low income) while 7 percent of Nepali labour migrants are found to migrate due to political conflict in Nepal. Among this population, they didn't have a job at their origin though they are not poor (having

access to food and other basic needs, but not engaged in any employment at origin). Thus, it can be concluded that the Indian labour migrants are searching for better opportunities/income as compared to Nepali labour migrants. In Nepal, as discussed earlier, Indian labour migrants can earn much more than in their origin.

In general, large family size is a cause of migration, as it could be poverty and food insecurity, while also creating room for a large number of human resources, i.e. the labour force at the home. However, migration decisions could be easy and fast in the case of small families. On the other hand, the nature of caste/ethnicity also affects the decision to migrate. Brusle (2006) focused his study on high-caste men from mid and far-western regions, the respondent who spent their life coming and going (temporarily). Similarly, in terms of caste/ ethnic structure, the findings show that there are no significant caste/ ethnic characteristics of migration. Rather, it could be more economic.

Likewise, the reason for female migration with their husband is for medical treatment and household support rather than economic benefits however few females are working at their destination in support of their husbands. Similarly, Lokshin and Glinkskaya (2008); Thieme and Muller (2010) highlighted the gender issues in migration that the work pattern of women left behind due to social status (dependent on their husbands) and lesser bargaining power on household activities.

Status of Food Security at Origin

Migration to India is the livelihood strategy for the Karnali and Sudurpaschim hills of Nepal. It is because of the lack of food security in terms of production. Migration to India is a long-established practice due to the nearby distance from the cheapest destination (Nepal Rastra Bank, 2009).

In this study, it is found that a few i.e. 1.4 percent of Nepali labour migrants and 18.9 percent of Indian labour migrants are landless. The landlessness in rural social structure is itself an indicator of poverty and dependency. Similarly, 20.5, 29.4, 26.8, and 21.9 percent Nepali labour migrants and 16.1, 37.5, 25.4, and 2.1 percent Indian labour migrants have food sufficiency for less than 3 months, 3-6 months, 6-9 months and more than 9 months, respectively. Thus, food insecurity seems to be one of the push factors for both the migrants at their origin. This study reveals that 24.6 percent of Nepali labour migrants seek debt for managing their food, 19.4 percent borrow food, and 17.0 percent manage food through labour work. However, 24.8

percent of Indian labour migrants managed their food by labour work at their origin and most of the migrants (i.e. 69.8%) have food provided by the government.

Likewise, the sources of income for the family of migrants are found to be diverse. Most of the (i.e. 43.5%) have the main source of income at their origin as remittance based on foreign employment. It is followed by 29.8 percent of migrants' income based on both labour work and remittance where 22.2 percent have got income from agriculture production and labour works. Statistically, there is a significant association between the status of food security and their country of origin (as the p-value is less than the level of significance).

Table 5.11

Distribution of Labour Migrants Reporting the Food Security Status at Origin Place

Status of food security	Nepali labour migrants to India		Indian labour migrants to Nepal		Both groups	
	(N)	(%)	(N)	(%)	(N)	(%)
Landless	5	1.4	53	18.9	58	8.9
Less than 3 months	76	20.5	45	16.1	121	18.6
3-6 months	109	29.4	105	37.5	214	32.9
6-9 months	99	26.8	71	25.4	170	26.2
More than 9 months	81	21.9	6	2.1	87	13.4
Pearson Chi-Square Test	<i>Value</i> 106.590		<i>Df</i> 4		<i>Sig.</i> 0.000	
Management of Food during Shortage/Deficit						
Seeking debt (loan)	91	24.6	-	-	82	12.6
Borrow food or material	72	19.4	-	-	72	11.1
Selling of land/ornaments	1	0.3	-	-	1	0.1
Wage labour	63	17.0	68	24.3	131	20.2
Selling agro/livestock	6	1.6	18	6.4	24	3.7
Half sharing/ <i>Adhiya</i>	62	16.8	-	-	62	9.6
Independent on food	75	20.3	-	-	75	11.5
Government provided	-	-	194	69.3	203	31.2
Main Source of Income						
Agriculture/Livestock	16	4.3	-	-	16	2.5
Non-agro/Self-employment	9	2.4	-	-	9	1.4
Regular job/salary	4	1.1	-	-	4	0.6
Remittance (Foreign Job)	215	58.1	68	24.3	283	43.5
Agro and Foreign Employment	126	34.1	18	6.4	144	22.2
Remittance and labour work	-	-	194	69.3	194	29.8
Total	370	100.0	280	100.0	650	100.0

Source: Field Survey, 2021.

Food insecurity seems to be one of the push factors for the migrants at their origin in both cases (Nepal Rastra Bank, 2009), where the causes of migration to India is due to lack of food security in terms of production. Migration to India is a long-established practice due to the nearby distance with the cheapest destination. Similarly, Brusle' (2008) described that migration to India for work purposes has been a common livelihood strategy for a large part of rural households for two or three generations in food insecurity areas of mid and far-western Nepal. In Brusle's other study in 2006, he described migration as a household supporting factor to have access to basic needs in particular by paying back loans taken out in the village. A strategy for the management of food security is one of the important livelihood outcomes both for migrants and non-migrants.

In this context, Crush (2013) argues that the issue of food security is strikingly absent from current debates about the relationship between migration and development. Nepali labour migrants manage their food by taking borrowing/debt, engaging in labour work, and practicing half-sharing in agriculture productions. Including this, there is the provision of food provided to Indian poor families by the government. Every member of a family gets 5 kg of food (wheat or rice or including both as per their choice) per month. Likewise, the sources of income for the family of migrants are found to be diverse. Most of the (i.e.43.5%) have the main source of income at their origin is remittance based on foreign employment.

The Push-Pull analysis of migration needs the analysis of the previous status (including working conditions, income, security, dependency, etc.) of migrants at their origin before they took their decision to migrate. Most migrants are found engaged in agricultural labour at their origin. Self-employment involves their engagement in their work/ entrepreneurs as well as trade and business work but their income was low. Hence the major cause of leaving their origin is an irregularity in getting employment opportunities at their origin. Job insecurity seems one of the pushing factors at both destinations.

Case study-4: Migration for Happiness

Ram Singh, 45 years old living in Bhimdutt-12, migrated when he was 22 years old. He had 2 Kathha land including his home. He did not have land for production, hence used to do farm work with half sharing practice (Adhiya) with his neighbour. He didn't have enough food or other needful desires. Even he didn't have money for buying medicine if needed. He worked as a labourer (house construction, agriculture) at his origin but didn't have regular jobs for 30 days. He was called by his neighbour or the contractor near him for limited work. His income per month was just about 5 thousand, which was hard to manage food and other needful materials at home. Hence he selected to way to migrate to India. Now he has been working in a hotel in Delhi since then and earned NRs. 20,000.00 per month. It is quite supportive for home expenditure for this time and he feels very happy.

The case study mentioned above is an example of the happiness of labour migrants. Most of the labour migrants don't have any opportunities at their origin and hence they have alternatives to cross their border for their livelihood. According to them, lower levels of jobs are easily available at their destination which supports their livelihood. The case study implies that the labour migrants from both groups seem happy with their jobs in their destination.

Relationship between Marital Status, Caste, and Mode of Migration

In general, large family size is a cause of migration, as it could breed poverty and food insecurity, while also creating room for a large number of human resources, i.e. the labour force at the home. However, migration decisions could be easy and fast in the case of small families. On the other hand, the nature of caste/ethnicity also affects the decision to migrate.

From Table 5.12, it is calculated that among the married migrants, 53.1 percent migrated individually and 46.9 percent migrated with family to their destination. Similarly, 43.6 percent of unmarried migrants are found to migrate individually to their destination. Similarly, in terms of caste/ ethnic structure, the findings show that there are no significant caste/ ethnic characteristics of migration. Rather, It could be more economic. Chhetri (19.4%), Dalit (14.7%), and Brahmin (10.1%) of Nepali seem to have migrated. In India, other back warded castes (26.7%), and General Caste (9.5%) from Indian labour migrants is found to be migrated much more than other castes. It also shows the political and economic implications of migration.

Table 5.12*Distribution of Migrants according to Comparison of Caste and Marital Status*

Marital status	Mode of Migration				Both groups	
	Individual		Family			
	(N)	(%)	(N)	(%)	(N)	(%)
Married	245	53.1	216	46.9	461	70.9
Unmarried	189	43.6	-	-	189	29.1
Caste						
Brahmin	44	10.1	8	3.7	52	8.0
Thakuri	24	5.5	8	3.7	32	4.9
Chhetri	84	19.4	22	10.2	106	16.3
Dalit	64	14.7	72	33.3	136	20.9
Sanyasi, Dashnami	18	4.2	3	1.4	21	3.2
Tharu	23	5.3	-	-	23	3.5
General Cast	41	9.5	23	10.6	64	9.9
Schedule Caste(SC)	8	1.8	25	11.6	33	5.1
Schedule Tribes(ST)	12	2.8	-	-	12	1.9
Other Back warded Caste(OBC)	116	26.7	55	25.5	171	26.3
Total	434	100.0	216	100.0	650	100.0

Source: Field Survey, 2021.

Chapter Summary

This chapter has dealt with the causes of migration in terms of pull and push factors. The findings discussed in the earlier headings and sub-headings reveal that the major factors of migration include wage differences, job availability, food security, open border corridors, and the networks of family and relatives. The economic causes of migration were dominant for both the migrants from Nepal and India. There is a relationship between marital status, caste, and mode of migration, as most of the migrants were married, though there was not such a caste-deterministic trend observed during the study. It is also evident that the majority of migrants (65.4% of Nepalis and 49.6% of Indians) did not have any work (i.e., they remain unemployed) at their place of origin before migration.

CHAPTER VI

NATURE OF JOBS AND WORKING CONDITIONS OF LABOUR MIGRANTS

This chapter shows the result of the nature of jobs and their working conditions at the origin and destination for both groups of migrants in Nepal and India. It deals with the level of skills and training, their income at the origin and destination, overtime work facilities, provisions of leave and salary increment, and insurance policies provided to migrants at the destination. Furthermore, this chapter also evaluates the food and accommodation facilities of migrants at working stations and describes the causes of changing their jobs and destination. At the end of this chapter, it reflects on the impact of Covid-19 on their livelihoods.

Nature of Migrants' Jobs and their Income at Origin

The nature of jobs and income level are the two most important factors that affect the living conditions and livelihood making of the migrants. It is heavily discussed in international studies of migration including the context of rural-urban migration, labour migration, and gender perspective of migration. The push-pull analysis of migration needs the analysis of the previous status (including working conditions, income, security, dependency, etc.) of migrants at their origin before they took their decision to migrate. In this study, as reflected in Table 6.1, the majority (65.4% of Nepali and 49.6% of Indian) migrants did not have any work (i.e. they remain unemployed) at their origin before migration whereas 17.0 percent of Nepali labour migrants and 37.2 percent of Indian labour migrants worked as agriculture labour or other unskilled work. But, the nature of jobs at the destination is found to change. It means migrants who are involved in different works at their origin used to work with their skills or learning by doing. The working skills might have also been transferred by their parents or caste-based occupational engagement or with indigenous customary practices. Similarly, 11.9 percent of Nepali and 13.2 percent of Indian labour migrants engaged in their private business at origin whereas about 5.7 percent of Nepal migrants worked on other than labour work or services in Nepal (i.e. office, company, security force, and driver) and then free after leaving the job.

Among the migrants, the majority of Nepali labour migrants (i.e. 73.8%) and almost half (i.e. 49.7%) of Indian labour migrants did not engage in any work.

According to data, it is calculated that about 9.4 percent of Nepali labour migrants and 8.9 percent of Indian labour migrants earned NRs. 8,001-10,000 per month. However, 16.8 percent of Nepali and 34.9 percent of Indian labour migrants earned between NRs. 10,001-20,000 per month. To determine the statistical significance test, there is an association ($p\text{-value} \leq 0.01$) with the nature of work at origin, their income, and the cause of living work at origin to their country of origin.

Table 6.1

Distribution of Labour Migrants by Nature of Work, Income at Origin

Nature of work at origin	Nepali labour migrants to India		Indian labour migrants to Nepal		Total migrants	
	(N)	(%)	(N)	(%)	(N)	(%)
No work/Free	242	65.4	139	49.6	381	58.6
Agri/Unskilled work	63	17.0	104	37.2	167	25.7
Self-employment (Business)	44	11.9	37	13.2	81	12.5
Involved in another job (office, company, security, driver, etc.)	21	5.7	-	-	21	3.2
Pearson Chi-Square Test	<i>Value</i>		<i>Df</i>		<i>Sig.</i>	
	34.778		3		0.000	
Income at Origin						
No work at the origin	273	73.8	139	49.7	412	63.4
8,000-10,000	35	9.4	25	8.9	60	9.2
10,001-20,000	62	16.8	96	34.3	158	24.3
20,001-25,600	-	-	20	7.1	20	3.1
Pearson Chi-Square Test	<i>Value</i>		<i>Df</i>		<i>Sig.</i>	
	61.279		3		.000	
Causes of Leaving Work at Origin						
Not Feel Easy	32	8.7	12	4.2	44	6.8
Less Opportunity	80	21.6	24	8.6	104	16.0
Low Income	67	18.1	90	32.2	157	24.2
Irregularities of work	191	51.6	154	55.0	345	53.0
Total	370	100.0	280	100.0	650	100.0
Pearson Chi-Square Test	<i>Value</i>		<i>Df</i>		<i>Sig.</i>	
	34.788		3		0.000	

Source: Field Survey, 2021.

However, 7.1 percent of Indian labour migrants (and not any Nepali migrants) earned NRs. (20001-25600) per month at their origin in India. Among these migrants, the majority of them, i.e. 88.1 percent of Nepali and 70.7 percent of Indians did not get any kind of training (business and entrepreneurship related) at their origin (see Table-6.2). Some of them are trained i.e. 13.7 percent of Nepali labour migrants were trained by government agencies and 38.6 percent by a private organization. However, 47.7 percent of Nepali labour migrants (who engaged as a security force, drivers, and other officials at origin) have their own experiences of work, and other 82 Indian labour migrants having trained (100%) are also found to learn or getting experience by themselves at their origin.

Table 6.2

Distribution of Labour Migrants by Training Status at Origin

Status of training at origin	Nepali Labour-Migrants to India		Indian labour migrants to Nepal		Both groups	
	(N)	(%)	(N)	%	(N)	%
Trained at origin	44	11.9	82	29.3	126	19.4
No any training	326	88.1	198	70.7	524	80.6
Total	370	100.0	280	100.0	650	100.0
Training provider institution						
Government agencies	6	13.7	-	-	6	4.8
Private institutions	17	38.6	-	-	17	13.5
Self-experienced at origin	21	47.7	82	100.0	103	81.7
Total	44	100.0	82	100.0	126	100.0

Source: Field Survey, 2021.

Nature of Migrants' Jobs and their Skill Level at Destination

The nature of jobs and migrants' working skills at their destination are different. From Table 6.3, it is calculated that most of the Nepali labour migrants(i.e. 91.4%) and less than half, i.e. 43.6 percent of Indian labour migrants have skill level-1 (all the physical or labour works: meson, carpenter, agriculture labourer, transportation labourer, security guard, watchman, domestic workers, hotel boys, cleaners), only a few, i.e. 7.3 percent of Nepali and more than half, i.e. 56.4 percent of Indian labour migrants have skill level-2 (operating machinery & electronic equipment, driving vehicles, mechanical and electrical repairs, clerks, hairdresser, sales assistant) and only a few, i.e. 1.3 percent of Nepali labour migrants have skill

level-3 (Complex technical and practical task with specialization of experiences like manager level). It is clear that most of the Indian labour migrants are found under the group of skill level 2 and hence they can have better incomes. It is analyzed that the Indian labour migrants to Nepal have comparatively more skilled than Nepali migrants. Among migrants, 8.6 percent of Nepali labor migrants received training from a company or employer at their destination; however, the majority of Nepali labor migrants (91.4%) and all Indian labor migrants (100%) are working with their learning and experience at their destinations.

Table 6.3

Distribution of Migrants by Nature of Work and their Skill Levels at Destination

Status of training at destination	Nepali labour migrants to India		Indian labour migrants to Nepal		Both groups	
	(N)	(%)	(N)	%	(N)	%
Company/Employer trained	32	8.6	-	-	32	4.9
Experience by Learning	338	91.4	280	100	618	95.1
Status of Labour						
Skill Level-1	338	91.4	122	43.6	460	70.8
Skill Level-2	27	7.3	158	56.4	185	28.4
Skill Level-3	5	1.3	-	-	5	0.8
Pearson Chi-Square Test	<i>Value</i>		<i>Df</i>		<i>Sig.</i>	
	190.377		2		0.000	
Nature of work at the destination						
Manager	4	1.1	-	-	4	0.6
Clerical Support Workers	5	1.3	-	-	5	0.8
Services and Sales Workers	152	41.1	40	14.3	192	29.6
Crafts/Trades Workers	67	18.1	177	63.2	244	37.5
Plant and Machine Operators	15	4.1	-	-	15	2.3
Elementary Occupations	127	34.3	63	22.5	190	29.2
Total	370	100.0	280	100.0	650	100.0
Pearson Chi-Square Test	<i>Value</i>		<i>Df</i>		<i>Sig.</i>	
	150.913		5		0.000	
Nature of Jobs at Destination (Spouse at Destination)						
Services/Sales Workers	10	10.7	-	-	10	5.6
Crafts/Trades Workers	2	2.1	68	80.0	70	39.1
Elementary Occupations	82	87.2	17	20.0	99	55.3
Total Female with Job	94	100.0	85	100.0	179	100.0
Female without Work	19	16.8	18	17.5	37	17.1

Source: Field Survey, 2021.

Table 6.3 further shows that the migrants and their families from Nepal and India found a different nature of jobs. The nature of jobs is diverse. In the case of Nepali migrants, most of them (i.e. 41.1%) worked in services and sales works while others 34.3 percent got involved in elementary occupations followed by 18.1 crafts and related trades workers. Only a few were involved as managers, clerical supports, and plant and machine operators and assemblers. On the other hand, Indian labour migrants are found to involve in the following jobs, including a majority, i.e. 63.2 percent in crafts and related trades works; followed by 22.5 percent in elementary occupations, and 14.3 percent in services and sales workers. Similarly, Nepali females, i.e. family of migrant workers (87.2% elementary occupation, followed by 10.7% service and sale workers, 2.1% crafts and related trades workers)) and Indian females (80% crafts and related trades workers and 20% elementary occupations) are found working at their destination with their husbands for economic purposes. By Pearson Chi-square test, it is found that there was an association between the status of labour works, the nature of the job at the destination with the country of origin.

This finding is comparable to Devkota (2016). He argues that most migrants were engaged in the agriculture sector or were students in Nepal, but they worked in the manufacturing, construction, and hotel-restaurant sectors abroad. According to him, the majority of international migrants in Nepal are engaged in skilled and semi-skilled work in trade and services. Many of them also work as vender, plumbers, electricians, carpenters, tailors, and barbers. But most of the labours from Nepal are working in India as *chowkidar* (security guards), pottering, domestic helpers, and general unskilled labour workers. These days, unfortunately, is that *chowkidar* is replaced due to 'group 4' Security Company. The young Nepali labour migrants to India prefer to work as porters to earn more money in a short time (Adhikari, 2015). Similarly, Sharma and Thapa (2013) found that Nepali labour migrant works in the Indian states as both parts of *Gorkha* regiments and the civil services. They further explained that Nepalese work as a security guard, in private sectors, as a domestic worker, labour in mines, tea estates, and dairy farms. According to the report of Nepal Rastra Bank (2009), migrants are found to work as porters, and security guards, in hotels and restaurants, in construction work, in agriculture labour, driving, factory work, and even at official work.

From the analysis of the nature of jobs, the researcher further finds that there is a diverse set of work and services. The particular natures of the job on both sides are found as follows:

Box 6.1

Similarities and Dissimilarities of Occupations of Labour migrants at Destination

<i>Common jobs/ services performed by Nepali labour migrants in India and Indian labour migrants in Nepal</i>	<i>Agriculture Labourer, Construction labourers</i>
<i>Specific jobs/ services performed by Nepali labour migrants in India</i>	<i>Garden Labour (apple plants), Agriculture Labourer (vegetables), Manufacturing Labourer, Transport and Storage Labourer Mining and construction labour, Hotel/Casino Manager, Casino Service Manager, Stock Clerk (Casino), Cook and waiters (Hotel/Restaurant), Bakers-pastry cooks, Dairy product maker, Food Processing Worker, Cleaner and Helper(Domestic/Hotel/Office), Domestic work (Home servant), House Keeping Supervisor, Watchman, the Security guard(Company), Garments and related worker, Car/Heavy Truck Driver, Machinery Mechanics and Repairs, Machine Operator(Paper), Machine Operator(Vehicle), Machinery mechanism and repairs.</i>
<i>Specific jobs/ services performed by Indian labour migrants in Nepal</i>	<i>Agriculture Labourer, (Vegetable), Bricklayers and Related Works, Floor Layers and Tile Setter, Hairdresser, Painters, Machinery Mechanics and Repairs, Machinery mechanism and repairs, Meson(Black Road Construction), Carpenter, Meson(Building Constriction), Welders and related workers, Motor Vehicle Mechanics.</i>

Migrants' occupation varies from skilled to less-skilled jobs depending on the demand from the destination country. In the context of Nepal-India migration, as the study of Samuels et al. (2011) reflects, most of the male Nepali labour migrants in India were employed as restaurant/bar workers followed by watchmen and factory workers. However, the female migrants were mainly house servants followed by, housewives or factory workers. Furthermore, most of the migrants perceived migration to India as beneficial for their families, resulting in remittance flows for families at source destinations. Meanwhile, according to Subedi (1991), the lack of required skilled and semi-skilled labour manpower for industries in Terai provided employment opportunities to migrants from North India. On the other hand, for Nepali non-agricultural emigrants, the availability of low-level jobs such as hotel boys, Durban (work in seaport), and watchmen, in the Indian towns provided employment opportunities there. In the case of Indian workers in Nepal, Karki (2018) mentions that the Indian workers usually work on the road, hydroelectric, and other construction projects even though hundreds of young Nepalese are still flocking abroad taking out huge loans to work overseas

According to GIZ/ILO (2015), labour migrants from Nepal are males from working age groups having low levels and education and skill qualifications. The majority of Nepali labour migrants to India lack certified skills, making it difficult for them to reach formal jobs. This is also seen in the migration context of Sudurpaschim province.

It is worthwhile to mention here that International Labour Organization, ILO (2012) described the four major levels of the International standard classification of occupations ISCO-08 where skill level 4 is very professional with a decision-making level, skill level 3 belongs to complex technical and practical task with specialization of experiences (e.g. manager level), skill level-2 concerns with operating machinery and electronic equipment, driving vehicles, mechanical and electrical repairs, clerks, hairdresser, sales assistant, whereas skill level-1 belongs to all the physical or labour works.

The specific jobs/services performed by Nepali labour migrants to India are Garden Labour (apple plants), Agriculture Labourer (vegetables), Manufacturing Labourer, Transport and Storage Labourer Mining and construction labour, Hotel/Casino Manager, Casino Service Manager, Stock Clerk (Casino), Cook and waiters (Hotel/Restaurant), Bakers-pastry cooks, Dairy product maker, Food Processing Worker, Cleaner and Helper(Domestic/Hotel/Office), Domestic work (Home servant), House Keeping Supervisor, Watchman, the Security

guard(Company), Garments and related worker, Car/Heavy Truck Driver, Machinery Mechanics and Repairs, Machine Operator(Paper), Machine Operator(Vehicle), Machinery mechanism and repairs. Similarly, Indian labour migrants performed the jobs like Agriculture Labourer, (Vegetable), Bricklayers and Related Works, Floor Layers and Tile Setter, Hairdressers, Painters, Machinery Mechanics and Repairs, Machinery mechanism and repairs, Meson (Black Road Construction), Carpenter, Meson (Building Constriction), Welders and related workers, Motor Vehicle Mechanics. However, Agriculture labourers and construction labourers are the common jobs/services performed by Nepali labour migrants and Indian labour migrants at their destination.

It is analyzed that the nature of jobs in Nepal and India are different and hence they migrated to each other countries for searching opportunities. It is worthwhile to compare the findings of other studies as well. According to Bhattarai, (2007), Nepali labour migrants are involved in 11 different jobs (i.e. restaurant worker either big or roadside '*Dhaba*', factory worker, watchman, driver, house servant, agriculture, porter, stone puller, coal mine worker, a rickshaw puller and Indian government service). The majority of men work as watchmen and car cleaners whereas women engage in housekeeping if they live long in Delhi. The job market is highly organized since jobs are handed over and sold within the networks (Thieme, 2006). Thus, the network seems to be an important determinant to fix and engage the migrants at their destinations. The findings of this dissertation also support this fact and have been analyzed as well.

On the other hand, KC (2004) has indicated that the majority of international migrants in Nepal from India are engaged in skilled and semi-skilled work in trade and services; strongly hold in the field of the commercial and industrial sector due to their better networking and investment. According to him, large numbers of Indian labour migrants work as vendors, plumbers, electricians, carpenters, tailors, and barbers in the urban areas however; Nepalese in India do not have the same advantage and similar type of working culture. Indian labour migrants stay for a long time in a similar job in Nepal and get more experience as compared to Nepali workers.

Working Conditions, Overtime Facilities, and Level of Satisfaction

According to ILO hours of work convention No.1 of 1919, the standard time for work is 48 hours per week or 8 hours per day as an international norm. This study has also followed the same norm as adhered to by the Government of Nepal as well.

Table 6.4 thus presents the status of the working hour, overtime facility, and satisfaction of migrants at work.

Table 6.4 shows that about 22.7 percent of Nepali and 41.1 percent of Indian labour migrants expend their 8 hours for work whereas the majority of Nepali i.e. 65.7 percent and more than half, i.e. 52.8 percent of Indian labour migrants work (1-12) hours and rest 11.6 percent of Nepali labour migrants work more than 12 hours per day. Likewise, 6.1 percent of Indian labour migrants don't have a fixed time for work; it is because they mostly work on a contract basis rather than a salary basis. Statistically, there was a relationship between working hours at the destination and their (migrants') country of origin (null hypothesis rejected). By this migration, most of the Nepali labour migrants i.e. 90.6 percent just satisfied followed by 6.7 percent are not found happy and 2.7 percent much happy. On the other hand, most of the Indian labour migrants, i.e. 95.1 percent feel satisfied with their jobs and only 4.9 are not found to be happy.

Table 6.4

Distribution of Labour Migrants by Working Hour, Overtime Facility and Satisfaction at Work

Working hours/level of satisfaction	Nepali labour migrants to India		Indian labour migrants to Nepal		Both groups	
	(N)	(%)	(N)	%	(N)	%
8 hours	84	22.7	115	41.1	199	30.6
8-12 hours	243	65.7	148	52.8	391	60.2
More than 12 hours	43	11.6	-	-	43	6.6
Not fixed(depend as need)	-	-	17	6.1	17	2.6
Total	370	100.0	280	100.0	650	100.0
Pearson Chi-Square Test	Value		Df		Sig.	
	76.924		3		0.000	
Having overtime facility						
Yes	223	60.3	142	50.7	365	56.2
No	147	39.7	138	49.3	285	43.8
Respondents' Satisfaction Level on Overtime Facilities						
Very happy	6	2.7	-	-	6	1.6
Happy (satisfactory)	202	90.6	135	95.1	337	92.3
Not happy	15	6.7	7	4.9	22	6.1
Total	223	100.0	142	100.0	365	100.0

Source: Field Survey, 2021.

At the same time, this study also evaluates the provision of salary and its increment process. Table 6.5 shows that there is 43.2 percent of Indian labour migrants based on work (according to quantity/volume) followed by 41.1 percent working daily, 9.6 percent every month, and 6.1 percent of migrants do not have any fixed provision for salary/wage. However, there is a provision of getting a salary/wage of (73.0%, 22.4%, and 4.6%) Nepali labour migrants have a monthly basis, contract basis, and work volume basis respectively. Since the p-value is less than 0.01, hence it is observed that there was a relationship between the mode of payment and the country of origin.

According to the ILO Hours of work convention (No.1) of 1919, the standard time for work is 48 hours per week or 8 hours per day as an international norm. This study has also followed the same norm as adhered to by the Government of Nepal as well. Most of the migrants felt happy with their jobs at their destination. The happiness at the destination has been characterized as a pull factor while the distress and dissatisfaction at the origin are described as the pushing factor. In a study, Grimes and Wesselbaum (2019) highlighted that happiness affects migration flows over and above the effects of mean country happiness.

Table 6.5

Distribution of Labour Migrants by Mode of Payment

Mode of payment	Nepali labour migrants to India		Indian labour migrants to Nepal		Both groups	
	(N)	(%)	(N)	%	(N)	%
Daily basis	-	-	115	41.1	115	17.7
Monthly basis	270	73.0	27	9.6	297	45.7
Contract basis	83	22.4	-	-	83	12.8
Work basis (Volume)	17	4.6	121	43.2	138	21.2
Not fixed	-	-	17	6.1	17	2.6
Total	370	100	280	100	650	100
Pearson Chi-Square Test	<i>Value</i>		<i>Df</i>		<i>Sig.</i>	
	489.110		4		0.000	
Provision of Salary Increment						
Yes	296	80.0	223	79.7	519	79.9
No	74	20.0	57	20.3	131	20.1
Provision of Wage/Salary Increment						
As Per Company/employer Rule	197	66.6	142	63.7	339	65.3
As Per the Contract/agreement	99	33.4	81	36.3	180	34.7
Total	296	100.0	223	100.0	519	100.0

Source: Field Survey, 2021.

In the study, it is also evident that most of the migrants (i.e. 80% of Nepali and 79.7% of Indian) have the provision of salary increment as per company/employer rule (65.3%) and as per contract/agreement (34.7%). At the same time, this study also evaluates the provision of salary and its increment process. In general, labours are defined as daily wage labour, contract base labour, salary base labour, and work (volume) base labour. The majority of Nepali labour migrants are found working salary based but Indian migrants are engaged in contract and volume-based jobs. Mostly the worker in the brick industry and hairdresser collected their wage on a volume base work basis (i.e. they have to pay according to the volume of work as what they completed per person or production). Similarly, construction work, carpentry, and agriculture works have the provision of a contract base while other service sector works are taken daily. According to Bhattra (2007), there are about (15-20) thousands of such watchmen who are estimated to be working in Delhi alone. They are not covered under any of the Indian labour laws because they do not have a formal contract for their job and employ-to-employer relationship. These cheap Nepali labour migrants provide security to the Indian society the whole night carrying only a whistle and a bamboo stick in the name of security equipment. They collected (5-10) thousand per month.

Working Facilities (Provision of Leave and Mode of Transportation at Work Station)

Table 6.6

Distribution of Labour Migrants according to Provision of Leave and Mode of Transportation at Work Station

Provision of leave	Nepali labour migrants to India		Indian labour migrants to Nepal		Both groups	
	(N)	(%)	(N)	%	(N)	%
Having to leave the facility	360	97.3	280	100	640	98.5
Don't have the facility	10	2.7	-	-	10	1.5
Total	370	100.0	280	100.0	650	100.0
Leave (according to rules of company/employer)	110	30.5	27	9.7	137	21.4
Self-depends (as per need)	108	30.0	138	49.2	246	38.4
Leave (in festivals/urgent works/others)	142	39.5	115	41.1	257	40.2
Mode of Transportation (At Work Station)						
Cycle/ rickshaw	75	20.3	112	40.0	187	28.8
Bus fair	6	1.6	-	-	6	0.9
Motorbike	1	0.2	-	-	1	0.1
By foot	288	77.9	168	60.0	456	70.2
Total	370	100.0	280	100.0	650	100.0

Source: Field Survey, 2021.

Table 6.6 shows that most of the Nepali migrants, i.e. 97.3 percent have the provision of leave whereas almost all (i.e. 100%) of Indian labour migrants have that facility. The provision of leave facility is under the rule of the company/employer (i.e. 30.5% for Nepali and 9.7% for Indian labour-migrants). Likewise, 38.4 percent of migrants have left the facility as per their needs and 40.2 percent take leave during festivals /urgent work only.

The findings reveal that most of the migrants (i.e. 77.9% of Nepali and 60% of Indian) use to go their office/work station on foot from their residence where 28.8 percent use cycle/rickshaw, 0.9 percent by bus fair and 0.2 percent by a motorbike while going to the working station at their destination.

Food and Accommodation Facilities for Migrants

From Table 6.7, it is seen that less than half, i.e. 40.8 percent of Nepali labour migrants, and a few, i.e. 8.2 percent of Indian labour migrants are provided food and accommodation facility by companies/contractors. On the other hand 43.5 percent of Nepali and the majority, i.e. 91.8 percent of Indian labour migrants are managing food and accommodation by themselves.

Table 6.7

Distribution of Labour Migrants by Provision of Food and Accommodation Facilities

Provision of food and accommodation at work place	Nepali labour migrants to India		Indian labour migrants to Nepal		Both groups	
	(N)	(%)	(N)	%	(N)	%
	Food and accommodation by company/contractor	151	40.8	23	8.2	174
Self (food and accommodation)	161	43.5	257	91.8	418	64.3
Food by company/contractor	9	2.4	-	-	9	1.4
Accommodation by company	49	13.3	-	-	49	7.5
Total	370	100.0	280	100.0	650	100.0
Pearson Chi-Square Test	Value		Df		Sig.	
	164.909		3		0.000	

Source: Field Survey, 2021.

Similarly, 2.4 percent of Nepali labour migrants have been provided food by their company/employer and the rest 13.3 percent of Nepali labour migrants have been provided the facility of accommodation only. It is seen that the food and accommodation are managed by most of the migrants themselves (i.e. 64.3% in aggregate) indicating their independency on that. Statistically, there was an association between the provision of food and accommodation at work place in the country of origin. Gurieva and Dzhioev (2015) also agreed that the labour migration increases with the favorable migration policies and working conditions of the receiving countries.

Insurance Policy of Migrants and List of Physical Hazards and Facilities

In general understanding, the availability of insurance schemes at the destination could be a pull factor while the chances or incidents of physical hazards could be perceived as a pushing factor of the migration.

Table 6.8

Distribution of Labour Migrants by Status of Insurance Policy and Physical Hazards

Insurance policy and hazards cases	Nepali labour migrants to India		Indian labour migrants to Nepal		Both groups	
	(N)	(%)	(N)	%	(N)	%
Provision of life insurance						
Yes	38	10.3	-	-	38	5.8
No	332	89.7	280	100.0	612	94.2
Cases of physical hazards attempted by respondents						
Yes	59	15.9	35	12.5	94	14.5
No	311	84.1	245	87.5	556	85.5
Responsibility of care in case of physical hazards						
The company/contractor provides	92	24.9	-	-	92	14.1
Self-responsibilities for safety	278	75.1	280	100	558	85.9
Total	370	100.0	280	100.0	650	100.0

Source: Field Survey, 2021.

From Table 6.8, the findings about insurance policy, physical hazards, and allocated responsibilities have been presented. This study reveals that a few (i.e.

10.3%) of Nepali labour migrants have the provision of life insurance by their employer in India. It is also calculated that 15.9 percent of Nepali labour migrants encountered different kinds of physical hazards cases during their work from which 24.9 percent of Nepali labour migrants have been provided treatment facilities by Indian companies. Contrary to this, as 12.5 percent of Indian labour migrants have faced cases of physical hazards at their work, none of them got any kind of support from the vendors or contractors in Nepal. Thus, most of the Nepali labour migrants (i.e. 75.1%) and the entire Indian labour migrants (i.e. 100%) community have taken self-responsibility for their safety at the time of hazards.

The Trend of Changing Jobs and Destinations by Migrants Workers

Most Nepali labour migrants do not stay at a particular destination and work in similar nature of jobs at their destination however; Indian labour migrants do not follow it. From Table 6.9, it is clear that the majority of the Nepali labour migrants (i.e. 57%) are found continuing their jobs while less than half, i.e. 43 percent changed their job at their destination. However, Indian labour migrants are continuing their job in the same nature in almost all cases. Among the Nepali labour migrants who frequently changed their job, it is found that the majority of them (i.e. 40.3%) changed their job due to their low income followed by 19.5 percent migrants who changed their job due to facing rude behavior from their employers, 13.8 percent due to lack of work guarantee, 13.8 percent due to pressure job/hard job. Similarly, insecurity feeling on their jobs, long distances, difficulties with food and accommodation, and after retirement (2.5%, 3.2%, 4.4%, and 2.5%) respectively are the other causes of job change by Nepali labour migrants working in different cities of India.

The majority of the Nepali labour migrants (i.e. 57%) are found continuing their jobs while less than half, i.e. 43 percent changed their job at their destination. However, Indian labour migrants are continuing their job in the same nature in almost all cases (i.e. by 100%). Mainly the cause of changing jobs is due to low income or it is assumed that Nepali labour migrants are not feeling happy with their jobs, immediately most of them tended to search for easy jobs like hotel work, cleaners, and other domestic works by getting support from networks and friends. Among the Nepali labour migrants who frequently changed their job, it is found that the majority of them (i.e. 64%) changed their job due to their low income. The other causes of the

job change and changing destination by Nepali labour migrants are found facing rude behavior from their employers, lack of work guarantee, pressure job/hard job, insecurity feeling on their jobs, long distance, difficulties of food and accommodation, and some of them changed their job after retirement from their first job.

Table 6.9

Distribution of Labour Migrants by Causes of Changing Jobs

Whether change job at the similar destination	Nepali labour migrants to India		Indian labour migrants to Nepal		Both groups	
	(N)	(%)	(N)	%	(N)	%
Yes	159	43.0	-	-	159	24.5
No	211	57.0	280	100.0	491	75.6
Total	370	100.0	280	100.0	650	100.0
Causes of Changing the Nature of Job						
Hard work/Pressure of work	22	13.8	-	-	22	13.8
Low income	64	40.3	-	-	64	40.3
Misbehave by employer	31	19.5	-	-	31	19.5
Lack of work guarantee	22	13.8	-	-	22	13.8
Insecurity feeling	4	2.5	-	-	4	2.5
Long distance/feeling lonely	5	3.2	-	-	5	3.2
Difficulties in Logistics	7	4.4	-	-	7	4.4
After Retirement/Transfer	4	2.5	-	-	4	2.5
Total	159	100	-	-	159	100.0

Source: Field Survey, 2021.

According to Adhikari, (2015), about 57 percent of total migrants to India were found to be based on agriculture in origin (Nepal) but they have changed occupation in their destination (India) such as 28 percent of factories and industries, 16 percent of construction and 15.6 percent hospitality industry. The experiences of a few skilled and educated migrant workers are different from the majority of unskilled workers. The salary, working conditions, health coverage, and security are far better for the skilled and educated person. Similarly, Brusle' (2008) also shared that working as a porter is easy job than the construction works because there is easy access to

search porter job and has no a restriction for leave but working as a road worker (construction) is more restricting due to the longer-term contract between the migrants and contractor.

Table 6.10

Distribution of Labour Migrants by Causes of Changing the Working Destination

Changing the status of working destination	Nepali labour migrants to India		Indian labour migrants to Nepal		Both groups	
	(N)	(%)	(N)	%	(N)	%
Yes, I Changed the Destination	152	41.1	-	-	152	23.4
Not Changed Destination	218	58.9	280	100.0	498	76.6
Total	370	100.0	280	100.0	650	100.0
Causes of changing the Destination						
Social relationship	30	19.7	-	-	30	19.7
Not Suitable Climate	6	4.0	-	-	6	3.9
Expensive city	24	15.8	-	-	24	15.8
Lack of work guarantee	11	7.2	-	-	11	7.2
Insecurity feeling	8	5.3	-	-	8	5.3
Long distance	4	2.6	-	-	4	2.6
Handsome salary/job (new)	61	40.1	-	-	61	40.2
After Retirement/Transfer	8	5.3	-	-	8	5.3
Total	152	100.0	-	-	152	100.0

Source: Field Survey, 2021.

It is found that Nepali labour migrants (41.1%) changed their destination but Indians are staying at the same destination. About 40.1 percent of Nepali labour migrants changed their destination due to get a handsome salary or a new attractive job at other locations, 19.7 percent of Nepali labour migrants changed their destination due to social relationships/network to new locations, 15.8 percent due to difficulties to manage their stay at the expensive city and other different causes.

Harassment Tolerance and Legal Process by Migrants

Despite the provisions of the open border between the two countries according to the Treaty of Peace and Friendship (1950) between the Government of India and

the Government of Nepal, it is not seen as completely beneficial for migrants. Against this backdrop, the present study also engages with the analysis of the status of harassment, the location of the cases and how is there following of legal process.

Table 6.11

Distribution of Labour Migrants by Status of Harassment and Legal Process

Whether harassment (Respondents)	Nepali labour migrants to India		Indian labour migrants to Nepal		Both groups	
	(N)	(%)	(N)	%	(N)	%
Being harassed	56	15.1	9	3.2	65	10.0
Not being harassed	314	84.9	271	96.8	585	90.0
Total	370	100.0	280	100.0	650	100.0
Place of Harassment						
At working station	44	78.6	6	66.7	50	76.9
At travel	6	10.7	-	-	6	9.2
At transit points	6	10.7	3	33.3	9	13.9
Abusers						
Police	1	1.8	-	-	1	1.5
Border security	6	10.7	3	33.3	9	13.9
Employer	36	64.2	6	66.7	42	64.6
Traveler	3	5.4	-	-	3	4.6
Transportation agents	2	3.6	-	-	2	3.1
Hotels	2	3.6	-	-	2	3.1
Friends	6	10.7	-	-	6	9.2
Total	56	100.0	9	100.0	65	100.0
Feeling the complains						
Yes	-	-	-	-	-	-
No	56	100.0	9	100.0	65	100.0
Causes of not filing the complains						
Just formality feeling	9	16.1	-	-	9	13.9
Security problem	43	76.8	9	100	52	80.0
No Idea	4	7.1	-	-	4	6.1
Knowledge about the labour rights/Involvement in any trade union at work place						
Have Idea	34	9.2	-	-	34	5.2
No Idea	336	90.8	280	100.0	616	94.8
Total	370	100.0	280	100.0	650	100.0

Source: Field Survey, 2021.

From Table 6.11, 15.1 percent of Nepali and 3.2 percent of Indian labour migrants reflect that they feel any kind of harassment in their migratory life. Among these, most of them, i.e. 78.6 percent of Nepali and 66.7 percent of Indian labour migrants feel harassed at their working station, while 10.7 percent of Nepali labour migrants are found to be harassed at travel and the same percent at their transit points (i.e. borders). Accordingly, 64.6 percent of migrants are harassed by their employers, 13.9 percent by the border security force, and 9.2 percent by their friends. Though there are many kinds of harassment they encountered with, no victims are involved to proceed any legal cases. It is because most of them, i.e. 80 percent feel security problems (at such a new place of destination), followed by 16.1 percent thought it was just a formality (where no one can get justice, and 6.1 percent of migrants don't have any idea about the legal process. Likewise, 94.8 percent of migrants in aggregate don't have any idea or knowledge about labour rights and don't involve in any trade unions. It is interesting to note that despite a few Nepali labour migrants (i.e. 9.2%) having such knowledge of labour rights, no any Indian labour migrants working in Nepal revealed that they had the idea of such rights.

Despite the provisions of the open border between the two countries according to the Treaty of Peace and Friendship 1950 between the Government of India and the Government of Nepal, it is not seen as completely beneficial for migrants. It is not quite open when seen from the perspective of labour migrants who cross into India. Migrants are cheated and face misbehaviors and threats from border security forces (unnecessary touchier in checking) and they are also cheated by transporters and traders who often physically force them to travel in specific transport and cheat them on the prices. Furthermore, migrants who cross the border, although initially excited, are disciplined and humiliated by both formal and informal gatekeepers as a way of producing low-wage earners in India. Although the unique arrangement between Nepal and India allows Nepali labour migrants to travel across the border into India (and vice versa) and earn their livelihoods without having to produce any documentary evidence, it also means that a Nepali migrant in India is in an ambiguous category, neither native nor an alien (Donini et al., 2013).

Similarly, Subba (2003) showed the working condition or the situation of Nepali speakers in India that how they are harassed and humiliated in some parts of India, and how they are evicted from their homes and health, especially in North East India. Most of the Nepali speakers in India are found hiding their identity due to humiliation feeling and they are usually harassed. The exact number of Nepali in

India is still not known, but it is estimated over six million. They are spread over the territory of India including states such as Nagaland, Manipur, Mizoram, Arunachal Pradesh, etc. Some of them have immobile property in India and they sometimes come back to Nepal to meet their relatives (Subba, 2003).

Mostly, Nepali labour migrants are found cheated or they felt harassed at their destination. Some of them cheated at travel and borders too. Mainly, security forces at transits and employers at working destinations are found to be responsible for harassment but they didn't get involved in any legal process due to a lack of security and knowledge. Almost all migrants don't have any idea or knowledge about labour right and don't involve in any trade unions. These findings reveal that in what awareness level the migrants are compelled to work in their respective destinations, and it is questionable whether it is promoting a sustainable livelihood or not in a right-based approach.

To support the findings of this study, the researcher gathered further evidence from other studies as well. Nepalese migrant workers have experienced discrimination at work and in their place of destination (GIZ/ILO, 2015). Migrant workers are exploited and face human right abuse both during the migration process and after reaching their destination countries. It is equally needed to effectively tackle the situation of exploitation and human right abuse by the government and concerning stakeholders (Recruitment agencies and brokers) in both origin and destination countries (Amnesty International, 2011). According to IOM (2010), the labour recruiters, and the human trafficking network – all play quite a significant role, in the migration of disadvantaged sections of society like poor, landless unskilled, scheduled caste, scheduled tribes, other backward communities, women, and adolescent groups.

In another context, Bhattarai (2007) reflects a tragic situation that many of these Nepali watchmen are losing their lives in an accident while they are doing their duty. Due to a lack of basic knowledge of the law and the system, they are not able to file compensation cases. The migrants from far western have very low socio-economic status and work as unskilled and informal workers like watchmen and car cleaners. They are staying in poor facilities and sometimes used to take alcohol, gamble, and have multiple sex partners. Some women do domestic work.

Impact of Covid-19 on Migrants' Livelihood and their Job Security

It is found that only a few, i.e. 6.4 percent of Nepali and the majority of the Indian labour-migrants, i.e. 94.9 percent returned home before the lockdown during the first wave break of the pandemic (March-August, 2020). However, a majority i.e. 86.5 percent Nepali, and only a few, i.e., 5.1 percent, returned during the lockdown, and the remaining 7.1 percent of Nepali labours, our migrants returned after the lockdown (it is because of the nature of their jobs and the shutting down of travel modes due to the lockdown both at Nepal and India).

Table 6.12

Distribution of Labour Migrants by the Impact of COVID-19

Respondents' situations during COVID-19	Nepali labour migrants to India		Indian labour migrants to Nepal		Both groups	
	(N)	(%)	(N)	%	(N)	%
Staying at origin	74	20.0	0	0	74	11.4
Staying at destination	296	80.0	280	100	576	88.6
Total	370	100.0	280	100.0	650	100.0
Return home during COVID-19	296	100	195	69.6	491	85.2
Not returned to the home	-	-	85	30.4	85	14.8
Timing for Return Home during Covid-19						
Before lockdown	19	6.4	185	94.9	204	41.5
During lockdown	256	86.5	10	5.1	266	54.2
After lockdown	21	7.1	-	-	21	4.3
Total	296	100.0	195	100.0	491	100.0
Position of Respondents While returning during Lockdown						
Staying quarantine (Border)	19	7.4	-	-	19	7.1
Staying in the local area	193	75.4	-	-	193	72.6
Return with hide and seek	44	17.2	10	100.0	54	20.3
Total	256	100.0	10	100.0	266	100.0
Staying in Quarantine during their return						
14 days	207	97.6	-	-	207	97.6
30 days(one month)	5	2.3	-	-	5	2.4
Total	212	100.0	-	-	212	100.0
Facing Challenges during lockdown						
No problem at all	206	74.4	142	100.0	348	83.0
Faced food problem	56	20.2	-	-	56	13.4
Faced health problem	15	5.4	-	-	15	3.6
Total	277	100.0	142	100.0	419	100.0
Effect on Health due to Covid						
Admitting hospital for long	25	29.4	7	38.9	32	31.1
Staying Isolation at home	60	70.6	11	61.1	71	68.9
Feel Effect on Job	118	31.9	12	4.3	200	30.8
Satisfaction with their job	287	77.6	271	96.8	588	90.5
Plan of staying at destination (Covid case)						
Don't like to return to the destination	53	14.3	-	-	53	8.2
Can't say	75	20.3	-	-	75	11.5
Total	370	100.0	280	100.0	650	100.0

Source: Field Survey, 2021.

In Nepal, the migrants who returned during the lockdown stayed in quarantine for at least 14 days (as per the government's health protocol) and some of them stayed 30 days too (due to contract tracing and other formalities). During the period, 20 percent faced food problems, and 5.4 percent of Nepali labour migrants faced health problems during the period. About 31.1 percent of migrants were affected by COVID-19 and therefore stayed at the hospital for a long period and 68.9 percent stayed in isolation centers and then got recovery fully. From the Table, it is clear that 31.9 percent of Nepali and 4.3 percent of Indian labour migrants feel that the effect of COVID-19 impacts their job security. Among the returned migrants, most of the (i.e. 65.4%) Nepali plan to back return, 20.3 percent don't have any answer whether they returned or stay in Nepal to India where almost all, i.e. 100 percent Indian labour migrants want to stay in Nepal after the situation of COVID-19. Nepali labour migrants (77.6%) and Indian labour migrants (96.8%) seem satisfied with their jobs at their destination.

In the global context, it is less analyzed theoretically the nexus of this pandemic with the mobility and migration of people; though some empirical studies have been explored increasingly. But, this time migrants have faced different troubles during the COVID-19 period. During the Covid-19 period, almost labour migrants returned to their origin. Nepali labour migrants felt the struggle to return due to the long distance and got notice of immediate lockdown, however, Indian labour migrants immediately crossed the border and arrived at their origin due to the near distance. Though the impacts of COVID-19 on the migration sector were not included as the objective of this dissertation, it would require some further studies to analyze the impacts in the depth. Particularly, the migrants working in informal economies either in Nepal or India have been affected much by this pandemic which requires a long-term study.

Case-5: *Kripa Nath age 45 years from Bhimdatt Municipality-09 Bramdev. He returned to his origin due to the pandemic situation of COVID-19. He used to work in the printing press as an operator. He has been working there for 18 years. At first, the company trained him to operate machines, and then prepared him as an expert. But his expertise is not useful in Nepal due to the unavailability of such machinery printing press. He didn't want to return and want to work in Nepal. He used to earn 36000 I.C. per month from that job and utilized that remittance on household activities like house construction, buying land, and children's education. Now, he was planning to start a new business at his origin.*

Relationship between the Nature of Jobs at Destination and Education

Mostly labour migrants are getting jobs/services concerning with level of education. In general, migrants having a low level of education get a low level of work too. Nepali labour migrants to India having the position of manager in Indian hotels have completed secondary level education. Similarly, the majority of the labour migrants having less than primary education are engaged in Crafts and Related Trades Workers, and half of the migrants are engaged in elementary occupations. To determine whether the degree of education and nature of jobs done by migrants are independent or not, Chi-square test statistics are used. Table 6.13 shows that the value of Pearson Chi-square is 167.280 at 20 degrees of freedom i.e. p-value (0.000 is less than the level of significance (0.01). It means that the nature of jobs and degree of education are dependent. This is also depicted by the above cross-tabulation where it is clear that the migrants having higher degrees comparatively engaged in higher positions.

Table 6.13

Distribution of Labour Migrants by Nature of Jobs and their Education

Nature of work at the destination	Education of respondent/migrant										Total
	No Education		Some Primary Education		Primary Level Complete		Some Secondary Level		Secondary Level completed		
	(N)	(%)	(N)	(%)	(N)	(%)	(N)	(%)	(N)	(%)	
	-	-	-	-	-	-	1	25.0	3	75.0	4
Manager	-	-	-	-	1	20.0	4	80.0	-	-	5
Clerical Support Workers Services and Sales Workers	17	8.9	39	20.2	69	35.9	58	30.2	9	4.7	192
Crafts and Trades Workers Machine Operators/ Assemblers	77	31.5	101	41.4	29	11.9	30	12.3	7	2.9	244
Elementary Occupations	-	-	2	13.3	6	40.0	7	46.7	-	-	15
	38	20.0	71	37.4	40	21.1	34	17.9	7	3.7	190
Total	132		213		145		134		26		650
Pearson Chi-Square	<i>Value</i>				<i>Df</i>		<i>Sig. (2-sided)</i>				
	167.280				20		.000				

Source: Field Survey, 2021

Relationship between the Nature of Jobs and Changing Destination

Indeed, in any kind of migration behaviour we cannot deny the relationship between the nature of jobs and changing destinations. From Table 6.14, it is clear that 25 percent of managers (1 out of 4 respondents) changed their job, and half of them, 2 managers changed their destination. The 40 percent of respondents who engaged in clerical support found their nature of jobs and 80 percent of this category changed the destination. Likewise, 41.2 percent of workers (services and sales worker) changed their job and 40.1 percent of them changed destination. However, the migrants (6.7%) who worked in crafts and related trade workers service & sales workers changed the nature of their job and 2.9 percent changed their destination.

Table 6.14

Distribution of Labour Migrants by Changing the Work and Destination

Nature of job	Total	Changed nature of job		Destination changed	
		(N)	%	(N)	%
Manager	4	1	25.0	2	50.0
Clerical support	5	2	40.0	4	80.0
Services & sales worker	192	79	41.2	77	40.1
Crafts and Related Trade Workers	244	18	7.4	7	2.9
Plant and Machine Operators & Assemblers	15	1	6.7	9	60.0
Elementary occupations	190	58	30.5	53	27.9
Total	650	159	24.5	152	23.4
Pearson Chi-Square test for		<i>Value</i>		<i>Df</i>	<i>Sig.</i>
i. Changed nature of jobs		74.474		5	0.000
ii. Destination changed		111.188		5	0.000

Source: Field Survey, 2021.

Out of 15 migrants who worked as plant and machine operators and assemblers, only one worker (6.7%) changed jobs but 60 percent of such workers changed their destination. Similarly, 30.5 migrants who worked in elementary occupations changed the nature of their jobs and 27.9 percent changed their destination. The trend of changing the job seems very often in Services & Sales Workers (41.2%) followed by Clerical Supporters (40%) and managers (25%). On the

other hand, the changing of destination seems more frequent among the Clerical Supporters (80%) followed by Plant and Machine Operators and Assemblers (60%) and the managers (50%). Statistically, there was an association between the frequency of changing the nature of jobs and changing their destination to their nature of jobs at the destination. It indicates that migrants changed their job nature of destination according to the easiness or hardness of the existing nature of jobs.

Following the ISCO 08/ILO (2012), the researcher has classified the job as follows:

Box 6.2: List of Occupations Categorized by ISCO 08/ILO (2012)

Manager- *Hotel and restaurant manager, Retail & wholesale trade manager and other service manager*

Clerical Support Workers- *General office clerk, other clerical officer support workers, production and transport clerks*

Service and Sales Workers- *Cooks, Waiters, Hairdresser, Building & housekeeping supervisors, Sales workers, Security guards, Choukidar*

Craft and Related Trades Workers- *Sheet and structural metal workers, Molders and Welders and related workers, Machinery mechanics and repairs, carpenters, floor layers and tiles setters, painters, brick layers & related workers, welders and flame cutters, , handicrafts and printing workers, food processing and related trade workers, garment and related trade workers*

Plant and Machine Operators and Assemblers- *Rubber, plastic & paper products machine operators, textile, Fur and Leather machine operator, Food and related product machine operators, Car, Van, Motorcycle Drivers, Heavy Truck and Bus Drivers,*

Elementary Occupations- *Cleaners & Helpers (Domestic/Hotel/Office), Agricultural, Forestry and Fishing labours, Mining & Construction labours, Manufacturing labours, Transport and Storage labours*

Age Group of Labour Migrants Changed the Works and Destination

The population of migrants and their age is quite relevant in the analysis of changing nature of jobs and/ or destinations. From Table 6.15, it is calculated that of the migrant workers less than the age of 18 years, 69.9 percent changed their job and 65.5 percent changed their destination where it is found that 36.3 percent changed jobs and 36.0 percent changed their destination between the age (of 18-40) years of migrants. Similarly, 60.3 percent of migrants having more than 40 years changed their job and 52.4 percent changed their destination.

Table 6.15

Distribution of Labour Migrants by Age Group and Changing Nature of Work and Destination (Nepali Labour Migrants only)

Nature of works /Age group	Total	Changed job		Changed destination	
		(N)	%	(N)	%
Less than 18 Years	29	20	68.9	19	65.5
(18-40) Years	278	101	36.3	100	36.0
More than 40 Years	63	38	60.3	33	52.4
Total	370	159	43.0	152	41.1
Pearson Chi-Square test		Value		Df	Sig.
i.	Changing the nature of the job	0.401		2	0.818
ii.	Changing destination	0.053		2	0.974

Source: Field Survey, 2021.

However, using the Pearson Chi-square test, it was found that there was no association between the age group and the condition of changing nature of jobs or changed destination (p-value is greater than 0.05 level of significance).

Skill Levels by Age Groups

Based on age group, migrants having less than 18 years have skill level 1 (82.3%), and skill level 2 (17.7%) percent but under the age (of 18-40) years, (68.3%) are found to have skill level 1, 30.5 percent have skill level-2 and 1.2 percent have found skill level-3. Likewise, the migrants who had more than 40 years of (17.7% and 28.3%) are found skill level 1 and skill level 2 respectively.

Table 6.16

Distribution of Labour Migrants by Level of Skill and Age Group

Nature of works /Age group	Total	Skill Level-1		Skill Level-2		Skill Level-3	
		(N)	%	(N)	%	(N)	%
Less than 18 Years	79	65	82.3	14	17.7	-	-
(18-40) Years	426	291	68.3	130	30.5	5	1.2
More than 40 Years	145	104	71.7	41	28.3	-	-
Total	650	460	70.8	185	28.4	5	0.8
Pearson Chi-Square Test		Value		Df		Sig.	
		8.326		4		0.080	

Source: Field Survey, 2021.

Thus, it is evident that skill level 1 is dominated by the age group less than 18 (by 82.3%), while skill level 2 is by the age group 18-40 years and skill level 3 is by the age group 18-40. By using the Pearson Chi-square test, there was not any relationship between the age group and their level of skills (since, the p-value is greater than, the 0.05 level of significance).

Box 7.3: Level of Skills *Skill Level-4=0 as per the definition of level (ISCO-08.)

Skill Level-4: very professional with decision-making level

Skill level 3: Complex technical and practical tasks with specialization of experiences (e.g. manager level)

Skill level 2: Operating machinery & electronic equipment, driving vehicles, mechanical and electrical repairs, clerks, hairdresser, sales assistant

Skill level-1: All the physical or labour work.

Source: Classification of occupations ISCO-08/ILO 2012:

Chapter Summary

Migrants from both countries have different jobs at their origin and destination. On average, half of the labour migrants from both countries had no work at their origin. Some of them engaged in agriculture work and private business at their origin and earned few amounts. Most migrants are not found trained at their origin, they are found to learn or get experiences by themselves at their origin. The nature of jobs and migrants' working skills at their destination is different. Most of the Nepali labour migrants have skill level 1 and Indian labour migrants have skill level 2. The common jobs/service between Both groups is agriculture labourer and construction labourers at their respective destination. The specific jobs performed by Nepali labour migrants in India are garden labour (apple plants), agriculture labourer (vegetables), manufacturing, transport and storage, mining and construction, hotel-casino, bakery, dairy, domestic work, watchman, housekeeping, security guard, garment, driving and other machinery work. Similarly, Indian labour migrants in Nepal are involved in agriculture (vegetable) work, bricklayers' works, floor layers, tile setting, hairdresser, painting, mechanical works, road construction, carpenter, meson, welding, and motor vehicle machinery works. They mostly work about 8 hours per day and some of them

get extra income in case of overtime work. Mostly Indian labour migrants are involved in contract and volume base jobs while Nepali migrants have every month.

In the case of Nepali labour migrants who work in hotels and restaurants have the facility of accommodation and food by the owner/employer but some migrants get the facility of food or accommodation only as per their agreement with employers. Most of the Indian labour migrants who are involved in the meson are getting the facility of food and accommodation from their *Mate* or contractors. In case of physical hazard, the company or employers manage the general treatments but not the facility of other health insurance. The trend of changing jobs and destinations is another problem in the case of Nepali labour migrants; they mostly change their jobs and sometimes destinations too as per their convenience but Indian labour migrants usually continue on similar jobs and destinations. During the period of Covid-19, Nepali labour migrants faced troubles in lockdown while returning, but Indians crossed the border safely due to the near distance.

CHAPTER VII

INCOME, REMITTANCE, AND ITS USES

This chapter shows the monthly income, over time allowances of migrant workers at their destination, comparative remittance collected by migrants and their families, the means of sending remittance, and its frequency. Again, it attempts to illustrate the list of goods carried from destinations and the utilization of remittance at the origin. Finally, the chapter analyzes the relationship among the age groups, education status, nature of jobs and skills, and place of destination with remittance collection.

Monthly Income and Allowances

Remittance plays a vital role in the economic development of Nepal by strengthening the balance of payment however it should be encouraged to send through banking channels (Pant, B., n.d.). He believed that remittance generates positive associations in the community as well as for the nation. It creates employment opportunities and supports social and economic infrastructure and services. Remittance is the major source of collecting foreign currency for many developing countries in recent years. Nepal is the fourth highest remittance recipient, as a share of GDP, among all countries and the top recipient among the South Asian Association for Regional Cooperation (SAARC) countries (World Bank, 2017). As a percentage share of GDP, there was an increase from 21.2% in FY 2008/09 to 26.9% in FY 2016/17 (MoF, 2017) i.e. Nepal received 209.7 billion NRs in remittance in 2008/09, which increased to 693 billion NRs in 2016/17. Piya and Joshi (2016) analyzed the growing importance of remittance in the national economy as well as in the household economy and socio-economic issues related to migration. Labour market maximizes the economic benefits which help to improve the experiences of migrants in the region. The majority of Nepali migrants working in factories receive minimum wage (118 rupees in Bihar & 185 rupees in Haryana) and it can vary from the workplace, position, and experience. Nepalese migrant workers have experienced discrimination at work and in their place of destination (GIZ/ILO, 2015).

More than half of the poverty in Nepal is reduced over the past two decades due to remittance income. (Johnes' & Basnet, 2013). Similarly, Brusle' (2008) described that migration to India for work purposes has been a common livelihood strategy for a large part of rural households for two or three generations in food

insecurity areas of mid and far-western Nepal where Thapa and Yadav (2015) expressed that the labour migration is an important feature in the development process in India. The average monthly saving for foreign migrants was found to be between (12000-30000) IC per month, considerably higher than those of domestic migrants. Rural-Urban migration appears to be the predominant form of migration in Uttarakhand with only a small proportion of the total number of migrating to other countries (ICIMOD, 2010). At the same time, WFP (2008) reported that the average remittance sent by migrants from India is the lowest (NRs 9800) followed by those sent from Nepal (NRs 14830).

In the context of this study, the monthly income of Nepali labour migrants is found comparatively less than Indian labour migrants. From Table 7.1, it is observed that 54.3 percent of Nepali labour migrants have a salary between NRs. 12,800 to 16,000, which is just 2.1 percent of Indian labour migrants in Nepal.

Table 7.1

Distribution of Labour Migrants by Monthly Income (Basic) and Allowances

Monthly basic Income in NRs.	Nepali labour migrants to India		Indian labour migrants to Nepal		Both Population	
	(N)	(%)	(N)	(%)	(N)	(%)
12,800-16,000	201	54.3	6	2.1	207	31.8
16,001-32,000	160	43.2	81	29.0	241	37.1
32,001-48,000	7	1.9	119	42.5	126	19.4
48,001-65,000	2	0.6	74	26.4	76	11.7
Total	370	100.0	280	100.0	650	100.0
Mean Income	19,061.6		40,635.5		28,355.1	
Median Income	16,000.0		40,000.0			
Provision of Allowances at Destination (currency in NRs)						
Don't have allowances	125	33.8	138	49.3	263	40.5
2,000-5,000	150	40.5	77	27.5	227	34.9
5,001-10,000	88	23.8	65	23.2	153	23.5
10,001-16,000	7	1.9	0	0	7	1.1
Total	370	100.0	280	100.0	650	100.0
Mean Allowances	5,711.0		5,707.7		5,709.8	
Median Allowances	4,800.0		5,000.0			

Source: Field Survey, 2021.

Comparatively, the size of the monthly income of Indian labour migrants seems larger than Nepalese migrants. Almost 97.5 percent of Nepali labour migrants

to India earn NRs. 12,800-32,000 per month, while only 2.5 percent get more than NRs. 32,000 whereas, the 68.9 percent of Indians in Nepal earn more than NRs. 32,000 and 29 percent earn between NRs. 16,001-32,000 per month. In the case of Nepali labor migrants to India, approximately 54.3 percent earned (NRs. 12,800-16,000), 43.2 percent earned (NRs. 16,001-32,000), 1.9 percent earned (NRs. 32,001-48,000), and only 0.6 percent earned (NRs. 48,001-65,000) remittance from their destination, compared to the (2.1%, 29%, 42.5%, and 26.4%) remittance collected by Indian destinations about migrants to Nepal.

Table 7.2

Group Statistics for Monthly Income of Nepali and Indian Labour Migrants

	Origin of Country	<i>N</i>	<i>Mean</i>	<i>Std. Deviation</i>	<i>Std. Error Mean</i>
Monthly Income in NRS	Nepali Migrants to India	370	19,061.62	6,501.489	337.996
	Indian Migrants to Nepal	280	40,635.71	12,905.619	771.258
t-test for equality of means					
	<i>F</i>	<i>Sig.</i>	<i>T</i>	<i>DF</i>	<i>Sig.(2-tailed)</i>
Equal variances	149.45	.000	-27.83	648	.000
Assumed equal variances			-25.62	385.7	.000

There was a difference between the mean income of Nepali labour migrants to India (NRs. 19,061.6) and Indian labour migrants. In the case of Nepali labor migrants to India, approximately 54.3 percent earned (NRs. 12,800-16,000), 43.2 percent earned (NRs. 16,001-32,000), 1.9 percent earned (NRs. 32,001-48,000), and only 0.6 percent earned (NRs. 48,001-65,000) remittance from their destination, compared to the (2.1%, 29%, 42.5%, and 26.4%) remittance collected by Indian destinations about migrants to Nepal. to Nepal (NRs. 40,635.5). Migration and allowance are two interconnected issues, though the allowance is analyzed in terms of

remittance in the migration studies. In this study context, almost half of the Indian labour migrants (i.e. 49.3%) did not have any kind of allowances, though nearly 34 percent of Nepali labour migrants to India used to get allowances. Following this, migrants from both countries had very less amount of allowances, followed by 34.9 percent sending the allowances between NRs. 2000-5,000 and further with 23.5 percent who used to send allowances between the ranges of NRs. 5,001-10,000. Table 7.1 shows that the median of Nepali labour migrants to India is NRs. 16,000 per month and Indian labour migrants to Nepal are found NRs. 40,000 per month. It indicates that half of the Nepali migrants earn NRs. 16,000 per month while Indians earn NRs. 40,000 per month.

An independent-sample t-test was conducted at the 5% level of significance to compare the mean monthly income of Nepali labour migrants to India (1) and Indian labour migrants to Nepal (2). The output is given below:

Table 7.2 shows that the sample mean of the monthly income of 370 Nepali labour migrants to India is found to be NRs. 19,061.62 and the sample mean of 280 Indian labour migrants to Nepal is found to be 40,635.71. Thus, the mean difference is -21,574.093. To test whether this difference is significant or not the first step is to test for the equality of variances. Regarding Leven's test for equality of variances, the probability value is found to be .000 which is less than 0.05 (level of significance), therefore it can be concluded that the variances of Nepali labour migrants to India and Indian labour migrants to Nepal are significantly different. Hence, the equal variances not assumed row is chosen to test the mean difference. The two-tailed tests provided 0.000 as a p-value at 385.701 degrees of freedom, which is less than the level of significance of 0.05. It can be concluded that there is a statistically significant difference between the mean monthly income of Nepali labour migrants to Nepal and the mean monthly income of Indian labour migrants to Nepal. Since the difference is negative, it can be concluded that the mean monthly income of Nepali labour migrants is significantly less than the monthly income of Indian labour migrants to Nepal.

Table 7.2 further shows that the standard deviation of monthly income for Nepali labour migrants to India is NRs 6,501.489 however for Indian labour migrants to Nepal is NRs. 12,905.619 but the difference is significant at the 0.05 level of significance. It indicates that there is a much variability of income in Indian labour

migrants to Nepal. There is more homogeneity in monthly income for Nepali labour migrants to India than the Indian labour migrants to Nepal.

Status of Remittance Sent from Destination

Nepal is out of the poorest but top remittance recipient countries in the world. Remittances play a key factor in reducing poverty and improving human capital and financial impacts (Sharma, 2017). Before that, Loxsin et al. (2007) showed that work-related migration reduces 20 percent of poverty in Nepal between 1995 and 2004. Where the consequences of foreign currency support improvements to the well-being of migrants and their families and consequently, it reduces the poverty by increasing local savings and investment, and alleviation of unemployment and underemployment pressures (Aslan, 2008).

Table 7.3

Distributions of Labour Migrants by Size of Remittance Sent to the Family

Monthly remittance In NRs.	Nepali labour migrants to India		Indian labour migrants to Nepal		Both population	
	(N)	(%)	(N)	(%)	(N)	(%)
Less than NRs. 9600	17	4.6	-	-	17	2.6
9,600-16,000	114	30.8	2	0.7	116	17.9
16,001-32,000	206	55.7	137	48.9	343	52.8
32,001-48,000	31	8.4	141	50.4	172	26.5
48,001-60,800	2	0.5	-	-	2	0.3
Total	370	100.0	280	100.0	650	100.0
Pearson Chi-square test	<i>Value</i> 83.163		<i>Df</i> 3		<i>Sig.</i> 0.000	
Remittance Collection by Respondents' Family(Wife) at Destination(India) in NRs. per month						
9,600-10,000	28	29.8	-	-	28	29.8
10,001-15,000	51	54.2	-	-	51	54.2
15,001-19,200	15	16.0	-	-	15	16.0
Total	94	100.0	-	100.0	94	100.0
Pearson Chi-Square Test	<i>Value</i> 83.162		<i>Df</i> 3		<i>Sig.</i> 0.000	

Source: Field Survey, 2021.

Remittance is the most popular word in foreign employment. In the case of Nepal, remittance raises the GDP of the country. In this particular study, Table 7.3 illustrates how and to what extent the remittance is collected from the Nepali labour migrants to India and the Indian labour migrants to Nepal. About 4.6 percent of Nepali labour migrants to India send less than NRs. 9,600 remittances to their origin. Similarly, about 30.8 percent of Nepali labour migrants send NRs. (9,600-16,000) as for the remittance from India however, the number of Indian labour migrants from Nepal sent 0.7 percent only. Likewise, 55.7 percent of Nepali labour migrants and 48.9 percent of Indian labour migrants send less than NRs. 32,000 remittances to their countries. Similarly, 8.4 percent of Nepali labour migrants and almost half (i.e. 50.4%) of the Indian labour migrants collect NRs. 32,001-48,000 as the remittance. Only 0.5 percent of Nepali labour migrants, mostly working in casinos collected remittances more than NRs. 48,000.

Of the total of 370 respondents (Nepali labour migrants), only 113 females (30.5%) are found to be migrated with their husbands (Table 4.1). Out of these, the majority of them (i.e. 83.2%) are involved in collecting remittances. In the case of Nepali female migrants, most of them are involved in domestic work and collect remittances separately. About 29.8 percent collected less than NRs. 10,000, 54.2 percent collected NRs. (10,000-15,000) and only a few (i.e. 16%) females collected NRs. (15,001-19,200) per month from India. However, Indian females are not involved in separate work; they are involved in collaborated work or contractual service engaging with their family, i.e. Break Industry and Vegetable farms. In the case of Indian labour migrants to Nepal, 103 respondents (36.8%) come with their families whereas the majority (i.e. 82.5%) of females are found to support remittance collection.

An independent-sample t-test was conducted at the 5% level of significance to compare the mean scores of females (1) and males (2). The output is given below:

Table 7.4

Average Remittance of Nepali and Indian Labour Migrants

Total remittance	<i>N</i>	<i>Mean</i>	<i>Std. deviation</i>	<i>Std. error mean</i>
Nepali Migrants to India	370	20,032.43	8,201.304	426.365
Indian Migrants to Nepal	280	33,767.86	7,515.315	449.126
T-test for equality of mean				
	<i>F</i>	<i>Sig.</i>	<i>T</i>	<i>Sig.(2-tailed)</i>
Equal variance assumed	1.18	.27	-21.91	.000
Equal variance not assumed			-22.18	.000

The sample mean of 370 Nepali labour migrants to India is found to be 20,032.43 and the sample mean of 270 Indian labour migrants to Nepal is found to be 33,767.86. Thus, the mean difference is -13,735.42. To test whether this difference is significant or not the first step is to test for the equality of variances. Regarding Leven's test for equality of variances, the probability value is found to be 0.27 which is not less than 0.05 (level of significance), therefore we can conclude that the variances of remittance of Nepali labour migrants to India and that of Indian labour migrants to Nepal are equal. Hence, the equal variances assumed row is chosen to test the mean difference. The two-tailed tests provided 0.000 as a p-value at 648 (370+280-2) degrees of freedom which is greater than the level of significance. It can be concluded that there is no statistically significant difference between the mean remittance of Nepali labour migrants to India and the mean remittance of Indian labour migrants to Nepal.

The findings of different scholars: Adam and Page (2005); Walmsley et al. (2017) and Nicander (2015) also supported the above calculated findings that there is significant role of migration and remittance in reducing poverty in developing world which ultimately support to the positive impact of remittance in both labour sending and receiving countries in terms of real GDP or income. The migration industry provides Nepal with decreased unemployment foreign exchange, social security, decreased poverty and increased education. There is no brain drain in Nepal, but it support to gain to Nepal because of unemployment situation and low personal development opportunities within Nepal (Nicander, 2015).

In rural areas, poor people are temporally more mobile compare to people belonging to higher income groups but it is opposite for urban areas. It shows positive association between income and temporary migration in urban areas (Kunal and Bhagat, 2010). In other study carried out by Devkota (2016), there is not the direct contribution of remittance to entrepreneurship in Nepal. Both the cost of migration and wage rate is lowest in the India, moderate for the Gulf States and high in developed countries. Most migrants were engaged in the agriculture sector or were students in Nepal, but they worked in the manufacturing, construction and hotel-restaurant sectors abroad (Devkota, 2016).

Means of Sending Remittance and its Frequency

Table 7.5 illustrates the means of sending remittance and its frequency, the frequency of remittance collection by the respondents, and the means of sending remittance from the destination. Remittance of Nepali labour migrants who work in India is generally (i.e. 100%) collected by family members in Nepal. However, 23.6 percent of Indian labour migrants carry their income with them when they get returned.

About more than half (i.e. 51.4%) of Nepali labour migrants send their remittance to their origin as per the need of family 27.8 percent send within three months and 10.3 percent send by monthly. However, 55.7 percent of Indian labour migrants send their remittance monthly to their destination and 30.4 percent by year.

Table 7.5

Distribution of Labour Migrants using Sending Remittance and its Frequency

Remittance pattern	Nepali labour migrants to India		Indian labour migrants to Nepal		Both population	
	(N)	(%)	(N)	(%)	(N)	(%)
The receiver of Remittance at Origin						
Family members	370	100	214	76.4	584	89.8
Keep themselves	-	-	66	23.6	66	10.2
Total	370	-	280	-	650	-
Frequency of Remittance Sending						
Every Month	38	10.3	156	55.7	194	29.8
Within Three Months	103	27.8	7	2.5	110	16.9
Two Times a Year	34	9.2	30	10.7	64	9.9
Once a Year	5	1.3	85	30.4	90	13.9
As Per Need	190	51.4	2	0.7	192	29.5
Total	370	100.0	280	100.0	650	100.0
Means of Sending Remittance from Destination						
Self	51	13.8	205	73.2	256	39.4
Finance Institutions	134	36.2	-	-	134	20.6
Friends/Relatives	78	21.1	37	13.2	115	17.7
ATM	14	3.8	-	-	14	2.2
Self, Bank, and Friends	93	25.1	38	13.6	131	20.1
Total	370	100.0	280	100.0	650	100.0

Source: Field Survey, 2021.

From Table 7.5, 73.2 percent of Indian labour migrants carry remittance with them when they leave their destination. It is because most of the migrants are from near border areas and generally they use to visit their origin in months or as per their needs. But, 13.8 percent of Nepali labour migrants carry remittances with them, 36.2 percent send through bank/financial institutions, 21.1 percent send through friends/relatives and only 3.8 percent send by ATM service.

Use of Remittance at the Origin Place

India migration and its remittance is livelihood strategy for the people of sudurpaschim province though it is not used productive way (Bhatt,2016), it is used in unproductive things like food, clothes and little on education (Adhikari, 2015). At the same time, Shrestha (2017) described that the largest share of remittances is expended on food followed by schooling children while it is used for education, clothing and food; and one fifth of households, remittance were also used for repayment of loans to local money lenders (WFP, 2008).

Similarly, Shahi (2005) has summarized in his thesis that the income from labour migration to India play a significant role in village economy and foreign labour migration has been an important economic option to maintain their livelihood. According to him, remittance contributes to fulfill their immediate food and family requirement. According to Muller-Boker and Thieme (2004), labour migrants are getting some opportunities like income, remittance collection, and investment in village, utilization of health and education for children and overcoming traditional rules.

In this study, Table 7.6 illustrates the utilization of remittances at origin both for Nepali labour migrants as well as Indian labour migrants. Mostly, remittance is expensed on the fulfillment of basic needs in the family. It seems rational as of the economic characteristics of societies both in Nepal and India where the basic needs, including (food, cloth, education, and health) matter for the survival of livelihood. About 37.5 percent of Nepali labour migrants and 51.1 percent of Indian labour migrants utilize remittance as an expense for their basic needs. Similarly, 44.6 percent of Nepali labour migrants and 33.6 percent of Indian labour migrants use their remittance on general household expenses and utilization in house construction/maintenance. Only 0.3 percent of Nepali labour migrants use remittance

on luxury materials like mobile and TV but the Indians do not prefer such luxurious use by remittances. However, it is depressing fact that there is no saving or immediate use of the remittances for a few migrants from both Nepal (17.6%) and India (15.3%).

Table 7.6

Distribution of Labour Migrants by Utilization of Remittance at Origin

Utilization of remittance	Nepali labour		Indian labour		Both	
	migrants to India		migrants to Nepal		population	
	(N)	(%)	(N)	(%)	(N)	(%)
Basic needs	139	37.5	143	51.1	282	43.4
Luxury materials	1	0.3	-	-	1	0.2
Utilization in house						
General households expenses	165	44.6	94	33.6	259	39.8
No use/no saving	65	17.6	43	15.3	108	16.6
Total	370	100.0	280	100.0	650	100.0
Lists of Goods/Luggage Carrying while Returning from Destination						
Goods/Luggage/Utensil	109	29.5	60	21.4	169	26.0
Ornaments	56	15.1	-	-	56	8.6
TV/Mobile/Electronics	8	2.2	-	-	8	1.2
Food/needful materials	133	35.9	20	7.2	153	23.6
Nothing except money	64	17.3	200	71.4	264	40.6
Total	370	100.0	280	100.0	650	100.0

Source: Field Survey, 2021.

In the case of Nepali labour migrants, they mostly expensed their remittance at their destination for different purposes. Table 7.6, it is seen that 29.5 percent carry goods/luggage and utensil, 15.1 percent ornaments, 2.2 percent TV/mobile, and electronic materials, and 35.9 percent carry food and other needful materials from India while they return home. But in the case of Indian labour migrants, they just carry money with them rather than any expense in Nepal. Most of the Indian labour migrants (i.e. 71.4%) Indians carry money, while only 7.2 percent of them carry food and other needful materials when they returned from Mahendranagar (Nepal). About 21.4 percent of Indians (especially those who work in brick industries in Nepal) carry goods and luggage (mostly carrying their used clothes, utensil, or goods).

Distribution of Remittance by Age group and Years of Experience

As discussed in chapter 4, age is discussed one of the significant determinants in the migratory process. This is thus reflected in Table 7.7 as how age affects the distribution of remittance. The most productive age is found between the ages of (18-40) it is because 70.6 percent of migrants aged between (18-40 years) are involved to collect remittances in destinations. Indeed, 18-40 years is the most productive age of economic activity (due to physical fitness and psychological motivation) as compared to the other age groups (including children as well as old age).

Table 7.7

Distribution of Labour Migrants by Size of Remittance Sent to Family according to Age Group

Remittance status (In NRs.)	Age groups of labour migrants(Years)								Total
	< 15		15-17		18-40		41-59		
	(N)	(%)	(N)	(%)	(N)	(%)	(N)	(%)	
	-	-	4	1.1	8	1.7	5	3.4	17
< 9,600	-	-	11	28.3	90	19.7	15	10.3	116
9,600-16,000									
16,001-32,000	7	100.0	22	56.5	243	52.9	71	49.0	343
32,001-48,000									
48,001-60,800	-	-	2	5.1	116	25.3	54	37.2	172
	-	-	-	-	2	0.4	-	-	2
Total	7	1.1	39	6.0	459	70.6	145	22.3	650
Pearson Chi-Square test	<i>Value</i>		<i>Df</i>		<i>Sig.(2 tailed)</i>				
	39.037		12		.000				

Source: Field Survey, 2021.

Out of the total remittance generation, the younger age group (i.e. 18-40 years) is dominant as compared to the other age groups, i.e.52.9 percent collect (16,001-32,000 NRs), 25.3 percent migrants collect(32,001-48,000 NRs), followed by 19.7 percent collect (9,600-16,000 NRs),1.7 percentage collect less than NRs. 9600 and 0.4 percent collect (48,001-60,800 NRs). Similarly, 1.1 percent of total migrants collect

remittances under the age of fewer than 15 years, 6.0 percent under (15-17), 70.6 percent under (18-40 years), and 22.3 percent under (41-59) in total. Age does not affect the collection of remittances mostly, more than half of the migrants collected remittances between (16,001-32,000 NRs.).

To determine whether the size of remittance and age group of labour migrants are independent or Not, Chi-square test statistics are used. Table 7.7 shows that the value of Pearson Chi-square is 39.037 at 20 degrees of freedom. It means that the size of remittance and age group of labour migrants are dependent. From this test, it is clear that the size of remittance is described in table 8.9 having different age groups of labour migrants. As reflected in Table 7.8, it is evident that a longer period of experience does not guarantee an increase in remittance. Rather, there is a mixed type of correlation. For all the experiencing groups, the remittance collection of NRs.16,001-32,000 is dominant as followed by 52.8 percent of the total migrants. About 3.1 percent of migrants having less than five years of experience in their destination collected less than NRs. 9,600, 29.1percent collected remittance NRs. (9,600-16,000), 58.3 percent collected NRs. (16,001-32,000), 8.6 percent collected NRs. (32,001-48,000) and 0.9 percent collected NRs. (48,001-60,800). However, 2.2 percent have more than 20 years of experience collected less than NRs. 9,600, 9.9 percent collected NRs. (9,600-16,000), 48.4 percent collected NRs. (16,001-32,000), and 39.6 percent collected NRs. (32,001-48,000).

Table 7.8

Distribution of Labour Migrants by Size of Remittance according to Years of Working Experiences

Remittance status (In NRs.)	Years of working experiences of labour migrants								Total	
	< 5 Yrs.		(5-10) Yrs.		(11-20) Yrs.		(21-30) Yrs.			
	<i>N</i>	%	<i>N</i>	%	<i>N</i>	%	<i>N</i>	%	<i>N</i>	%
<9,600	7	3.1	4	2.2	4	2.5	2	2.2	17	2.6
9,600-16,000	65	29.1	28	15.7	14	8.9	9	9.9	116	17.8
16,001-32,000	130	58.3	94	52.8	75	47.5	44	48.4	343	52.8
32,001-48,000	19	8.6	52	29.2	65	41.1	36	39.6	170	26.2
48,001-60,800	2	0.9	-	-	-	-	-	-	4	0.6
Total	223	100.0	178	100.0	158	100.0	91	100.0	650	100.0
Pearson Chi-Square Test			<i>Value</i>				<i>Df</i>		<i>Sig.</i>	
			79.873				12		0.000	

Sources: Field Survey, 2021.

Table 7.9 illustrates, there is a different type of educational attainment of the migrants and it has slightly affected their collection of remittances. Migrants having comparatively higher education (secondary level completed) get more remittance as compared to others i.e. 7.7 the percent of total migrants having secondary school completed education receiving NRs 48,001-60,800. However, migrants with no education also collected a middle range of the remittance, i.e. 50.4 percent of migrants receiving NRs 32,001-48,000. Statistically, there was no relationship between the status of remittance and their years of experience (p-value is less than 0.01).

In aggregate, the generation of remittance is mostly seen with the migrants having some primary education (32.8%), followed by the migrants who completed primary level (22.3%), having some secondary level (20.6%), and the migrants who did not have any formal educational attainment (i.e. 20.3%). About 42.3 percentage migrants having secondary school education completed receiving NRs. (9,600-16,000), 34.6 percent collected NRs. (16,001-32,000), 15.4 percent collected NRs. (32,001-48,000) and 7.7 percent collected NRs. (48,001-60,800) remittance from their destination. Similarly, 1.5 percent of labour migrants having no education collected remittance less than NRs. 9,600 per month, 9.8 percent collected NRs. (9,600-16,000), 37.9 percent collected NRs. (16,001-32,000) and the rest of the 50.8 percent collected NRs. (32,001-48,000).

Table 7.9

Distribution of Labour Migrants by Size of Remittance according to the Educational Background

Remittance status (In NRs.)	Educational level of labour migrants									
	No Education		Some Primary		Primary Completed		Some Secondary		Secondary Completed	
	<i>N</i>	%	<i>N</i>	%	<i>N</i>	%	<i>N</i>	%	<i>N</i>	%
<9600	2	1.5	6	2.8	7	4.8	2	1.5	-	-
9,600-16,000	13	9.8	18	8.4	36	24.8	38	28.4	11	42.3
16,001-32,000	50	37.9	109	51.2	96	66.3	79	58.9	9	34.6
32,001-48,000	67	50.8	80	37.6	6	4.1	15	11.2	4	15.4
48,001-60,800	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	2	7.7
Total	132	100.0	213	100.0	145	100.0	134	100.0	26	100.0
Pearson chi-square	<i>Value</i>				<i>Df</i>		<i>Sig. (2-sided)</i>			
	181.807				16		.000			

Source: Field Survey, 2021

To determine whether the size of remittance and education attainment of labour migrants are independent or Not, Chi-square test statistics are used. Table 7.9 shows that the value of Pearson Chi-square is 181.807 at 20 degrees of freedom i.e. p-value (of 0.000 is less than the level of significance (0.01 or 0.05). It means that the size of remittance and educational attainment of labour migrants is dependent. From this test, it is clear that the size of remittance increases as per their education level.

Distribution of Remittance by the Causes and Nature of Jobs of Migration

The causes of migration and the nature of migration are inherent components of remittance. From Table 7.10, it is clear that most (52.6%) of the migrants collected remittance under NRs (16,001-32,000) from which 59.3 percent represent getting better opportunities/income, 57.5 percent migrated for getting basic needs (poverty) and 47.3 percent migrated for getting job opportunities at the destination. Among the three causes (economic, political, and environmental), the economic cause seems to be the most prominent (in 96% of cases), which is followed by the political cause (4%). However, the environmental cause is not evident.

Table 7.10

Distribution of Labour Migrants by Remittance and Causes of Migration

Main causes of migration	Remittance collected by respondents										
	<9,600		9,600-16,000		16,001-32,000		32,001-48,000		48,001-60,800		Total
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N
Economic Cause	15	2.4	109	17.5	328	52.6	170	27.2	2	0.3	624
Political Cause	2	7.7	7	26.9	15	57.7	2	7.7	-	-	26
Total	17	2.6	116	17.8	343	52.8	172	24.5	2	0.3	650
Part of the Economic Cause											
Better opportunity	0	0.0	7	4.2	99	59.3	59	35.3	2	1.2	167
Basic needs	2	1.6	33	26.0	73	57.5	19	15.0	-	-	127
Unemployment	13	3.9	69	20.9	156	47.3	92	27.9	-	-	330
Total	15	2.4	109	17.5	328	52.6	170	27.2	2	0.3	624

Source: Field Survey, 2021.

Likewise, migrants who migrated for getting better opportunities or income collected remittance NRs (9,600-16,000) by 4.2 percent, NRs (16,001-32,000) by

59.3 percent, NRs (32,001-48,000) NRs by 34.1 percent and NRs. (48,001-60,800) by 2.4 percent. However, 1.6 percentage migrants who migrated for getting basic needs (having poverty in their origin) collected remittance less than NRs.9600 per month, and others (26%, 57.5%, 15.0%, and 0 %) and those who migrated (3.9%) for getting job opportunities (unemployment at their origin) collected less than NRs.9,600 and others (24.8%, 47.3%, 27.9%, and 0%) respectively collected remittance NRs. (9,600-16,000, 16,001-32,000, 32,001-48,000, and 48,001-60,800) respectively. To analyze the cause-effect in this finding, it is reflective to share the findings of other studies too.

Table 7.11

Distribution of Labour Migrants Remittance and Nature of Jobs

Nature of job	Remittance collected by respondents (In NRs.)											
	Less than 9600		9600-16000		16001-32000		32001-48000		48001-60800		Total	
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
Manager	-	-	-	-	-	-	3	75	1	25.0	4	0.6
Clerical Support	-	-	2	40	1	20	2	40	-	-	5	0.8
Services and Sales	7	3.6	45	23.4	132	68.8	7	3.6	1	0.5	192	29.5
Crafts and Trades	-	-	30	12.3	85	34.8	129	52.9	-	-	244	37.5
Machine Operators	2	13.3	-	-	10	66.7	3	20.0	-	-	15	2.3
Elementary	8	4.2	39	20.5	115	60.5	28	14.7	-	-	190	29.3
Total	17		116		343		172		2		650	
Pearson Chi-Square Test			<i>Value</i>				<i>Df</i>		<i>Sig.</i>			
			255.477				20		0.000			
Skill Level-1	15	3.2	111	24.1	254	55.2	80	17.4	-	-	460	70.8
Skill Level-2	2	1.1	5	2.7	89	48.1	89	48.1	-	-	185	28.5
Skill Level-3	-	-	-	-	-	-	3	60.0	2	40.0	5	0.7
Pearson Chi-Square Test			<i>Value</i>				<i>Df</i>		<i>Sig.</i>			
			348.482				8		0.000			

Source: Field Survey, 2021.

In addition, this study further analyzes that remittance is influenced by the nature of jobs and their skills. From Table 7.11, it is clear that the migrants having the position of manager (0.6%) get more remittance (Out of 4 positions 3 (75%) collected NRs (32,001-48,000) and 1(25%) collected NRs. (48,001-60,800). Similarly, Out of 5 (0.8%), migrants secured clerical support workers, 40 percent collected NRs. (9,600-16,000), 40 percent NRs. (32,001-48,000) and 40 percent collected NRs. (16,001-32,000). The findings further show that the average remittance of migrants is NRs (16,001-32,000) whatever they have positions.

Likewise, 3.2 percent of migrants having skill level-1 and 1.1 percent of migrants having skill level-2 earned similar percent of remittance (i.e. less than NRs. 9,600), 24.1 percent of skill level-1, and 2.7 percent of skill level-2 earned NRs. (9,600-16,000), 55.2 percent of migrants having skill level-1, 48.1 percent of skill level-2 earned remittance NRs. (16,001-32,000). Similarly, 17.4 percent of migrants having skill level 1, 48.1 having skill level 2, and 60 percent having skill level 3 earned NRs. (32,001-48,000). However, only 40 percent of migrants having the skill level 3 (2 out of 650) earned NRs (48,001-60,800) remittance per month from their destination. By using the Pearson Chi-square test, it was found that there was no relationship between these variables (skill level and remittance status; and nature of jobs and remittance collected by migrants).

Table 7.12 describes that 30 percent of remittance is collected from Delhi followed by Karnataka (15.9%), Punjab (11.3%), Maharashtra (10.5%), Uttarakhand (7.3 %), and Haryana (6.5%) and so on as seen in the table. From Mahendranagar (Nepal), Indian labour migrants (0.7% collected NRs. 9600-16000, 48.9% collected NRs. (16,001-32,000), 50.4 percent collected NRs. (32,001-48,000) per month.

The difference of percent of remittance collection between Nepal and India has been also summarized in the Table above. It seems nearly half (i.e. 50.4%) in Nepal but only 8.4 percent in India with the earnings of NRs. 32,001-48,000. This is then followed by 48.9 percent in Nepal and more than half, i.e. 55.7 percent in India who earned NRs. 16,001-32,000. Despite this, the distribution of remittance for the earnings of NRs. 9,600-16,000 seems very nominal in Nepal (0.7%) as compared to a higher sharing (i.e. 30.8%) of Indian labour migrants for a similar amount of remittance. Likewise, (4.6% and 0.5%) of Nepali labour migrants earned less than NRs. 9,600 and NRs. (48,000-60,800) per month from India.

Table 7.12*Distribution of Labour Migrants by Size of Remittance Collection and Destination*

Destination	Remittance collected by respondents											
	Less than 9600		9600-16000		16001-32000		32001-48000		48001-60800		Total	
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
UK	-	-	15	55.6	11	40.7	1	3.7	-	-	27	7.3
UP	-	-	1	11.1	6	66.7	2	22.2	-	-	9	2.4
HP	-	-	-	-	7	41.2	10	47.1	-	11.8	17	4.6
MP	-	-	-	-	1	100.0	-	-	-	-	1	0.3
AP	-	-	1	100.0	-	-	-	-	-	-	1	0.3
Delhi	3	2.7	39	35.1	64	57.7	5	4.5	-	-	11	30.0
Maharashtra	11	28.2	7	17.9	19	48.7	2	5.1	-	-	39	10.5
Haryana	2	8.3	11	45.8	11	45.8	-	0.0	-	-	24	6.5
Gujarat	-	-	-	-	21	100.0	-	0.0	-	-	21	5.7
Goa	-	-	3	25.0	2	16.7	5	41.7	2	16.6	12	3.2
Karnataka	1	1.7	13	22.0	42	71.2	3	5.1	-	-	59	15.9
Tamil Nadu	-	-	5	83.3	-	0.0	1	16.7	-	-	6	1.6
Panjab	-	-	18	42.8	22	52.4	2	4.8	-	-	42	11.3
Rajasthan	-	-	1	100.0	-	-	-	-	-	-	1	0.3
Total (India)	17	4.6	11	30.8	206	55.7	31	8.4	2	0.5	37	0
Mahendranagar	-	-	2	0.7	137	48.9	141	50.4	-	-	28	0

Note. UK: Uttarakhand, UP: Uttar Pradesh, HP: Himanchal Pradesh, MP: Madhya Pradesh, AP: Andhra Pradesh.

Chapter Summary

The chapter concludes that, comparatively, the size of a monthly income of Indian labour migrants seems larger than Nepalese migrants. Migration is a decision that affects the welfare of the household and community. In this study context, 55.7 percent of Nepali labour migrants and 48.9 percent of Indian labour migrants send less than NRs. 32,000 remittances to their countries. Of the total of 370 respondents (Nepali labour migrants), only 113 females (30.5%) are found to be migrated with their husbands. Out of these, the majority of them (i.e. 83.2%) are involved in collecting remittances. In the case of Nepali female migrants, most of them are involved in domestic work and collect remittances separately.

Remittance of Nepali labour migrants who work in India is generally (i.e. 100%) collected by family members in Nepal. However, 23.6 percent of Indian labour migrants carry their income with them when they get returned. About more than half (i.e. 51.4%) of Nepali labour migrants send their remittance to their origin as per the need of family; However, 55.7 percent of Indian labour migrants send their remittance monthly to their destination, and 30.4 percent per year. About 37.5 percent of Nepali labour migrants and 51.1 percent of Indian labour migrants utilize remittance as an expense for their basic needs. Similarly, 44.6 percent of Nepali labour migrants and 33.6 percent of Indian labour migrants use their remittance on general household expenses and utilization in house construction/maintenance. Most of the Indian labour migrants (i.e. 71.4%) Indians carry money, while only 7.2 percent of them carry food and other needful materials when they returned from Mahendranagar (Nepal).

About 65.5 percent of migrants aged between (18-40 years) are involved to collect remittances in destinations. Indeed, 18-40 years is the most productive age of economic activity (due to physical fitness and psychological motivation) as compared to the other age groups (including children as well as old age). Most (52.6%) of the migrants are found to collect remittances under NRs. (16,001-32,000). Among the three causes (economic, political, and environmental), the economic cause seems to be the most prominent (in 96% of cases), which is followed by the political cause (4%). However, the environmental cause is not evident.

CHAPTER VIII

SUMMARY OF FINDINGS, DISCUSSION, AND CONCLUSION

This chapter describes the summary of the findings as per the objectives of the study in three sections. Furthermore, it concludes the discussion, conclusion part, and implications of this study.

Summary of the Findings

The cross-border labour migration between Nepal and India exists for centuries. The migration between both countries is a kind of livelihood strategy for migrants' families, especially those from poor, marginalized, and socially backward communities. However, some migrants from Nepal and India migrate to get better job opportunities and businesses in each other's countries. The open border between both countries encouraged people to migrate and earn a better livelihood. Most people from Sudurpaschim Province choose India in search of employment as their destination. Similarly, Indian people also prefer the nearest Nepali border areas in search of better employment opportunities in Nepal.

Objective 1: Comparison of the Characteristics of Labour Migrants

This study shows that the mean age of Nepali labour migrants was 28.9 years and that for the Indians was 32.9 years; on average, Nepali migrants are 4 years younger than their Indian counterparts. The majority (75.1 percent of Nepali, and 64.6 percent of Indian) youth migrants between the age of 18 and 40 years are found to be the migrants, this is due to the higher earning potential of this age group migrants who bear age-specific physiological proximity as well as the possess better skills and strength needed to perform the jobs at the destinations. However, 6.7 percent of Nepali labour migrants and 13.6 percent of Indian labour migrants under the age group 50-65 years crossed their border for work in each other country. Indian labour migrants over age are comparatively more than Nepalese. It is due to the nature of work including, learning, and experiences that add to their needs in work. Moreover, some labour works (e.g., mason, carpenter, construction workers, etc.) need comparatively less physical work and semi-skilled work which Indian adults and elderly people are usually found to engage with. The migration of people having different age groups showed the need for migration to each other countries.

The study further shows that about 30.6 percent of females in Nepal and 36.8 percent of females in India migrated to their destinations with their husbands. Single females are not found as a migrant in this study. Most females migrated to support their husbands in household work. Likewise, some of them visited for short time for medical treatment, and the rest are working at their destination in support of their husbands. Considering the connection between religion, and migrant families seems quite arduous in the highly secularized society, where migratory behaviour plays an important role in the theological and spiritual societies as with families', and individuals' belief systems. This could be even applicable to Nepal-India migration as well. The total populations of Nepali labour migrants in India belong to the Hindu religion but the larger size (61.1 percent) of Indian labour migrants to Nepal belong to the Muslim community.

In this study, 36.8 percent belong to the Dalit community migrated to India from Nepal which is more than one-third population of this sample size. Similarly, 61 percent from Other Backward Caste of Indian people migrate to Nepal for work. However, this study shows that the majority of the populations from marginalized and socially backward communities migrate to neighbouring countries for searching work. It might be due to their higher rate of poverty, low status of landholdings (even the landless), lower educational performance, and the proximity of non-skilled labour. Indeed, the caste/ ethnic structure in Nepal and India speaks of some socioeconomic characteristics, which are closely related to migratory behaviour.

Similarly, the study shows that the majority of Nepali labour migrants have better educational attainment than those Indian labour migrants. The proportion of educational attainment of the labour migrants was around primary to secondary level education. The proportion of education attainment of Nepali labour migrants is found in increasing order till some secondary education; however, a large proportion of the Indian people don't have formal education, followed by some primary education, and primary level education. According to GIZ/ILO (2015), the labour migrants from Nepal are males from working age groups with low levels of education and skill qualifications.

The size of children among Indian labour migrants has more than Nepali labour migrants. Mostly, the community from Muslim in Indian labour migrants has a larger size of children in comparison to others. It could have been due to their

cultural and religious value systems. Out of these children, most of all the children (school age) from Nepali labour migrant families attained school but, about 42.6 percent of Indian children are not attaining school due to their culture, and economic conditions. Some of the children are schooling at the destination where their parents are working. In the case of both groups (Nepali labour migrants, and Indian labour migrants), it is also observed that most labour migrants were staying in poor conditions at their respective destinations. They mostly were living with their partners (friends, relatives, colleagues) for saving their living costs. The main cause for living with their friends is due to minimize the expenses at the destination.

Objective 2: The Process, and Causes of Labour Migration

The history of labour migration between Nepal, and India is running for a long. Nepali labour migrants choose different cities of India as working destinations, and Indians choose mostly the nearer distance. This finding challenges Revenstein's theory of migration in which the distance between the origins determines the volume of migration between the place of origin, and destination i.e. the higher the distance, the lower the volume of migration, and vice versa (Revenstein, 1885). Moreover, another important thing is that there are some common cities in India (including Uttar Pradesh, and Uttarakhand) that seem to be both origins (Indian labour migrants to Nepal), and destinations (Nepali labour migrants to India) as well. The Nepali labour migrants from Bhimdatt Municipality move to different big cities of India, i.e., Uttar Pradesh, Uttarakhand, Rajasthan, Madhya Pradesh, Himanchal Pradesh, Gujarat, Maharashtra, Goa, Tamil Nadu, Karnataka, Haryana, Delhi, Andhra Pradesh, and Punjab. Likewise, Indian labour migrants from Uttarakhand, Uttar Pradesh, Bihar, and West Bengal migrated to Bhimdatt Municipality for work. The majority of people from Uttar Pradesh (India) migrate to Bhimdatt Municipality (Nepal) for work.

On the other hand, the larger size of population from Bhimdatt Municipality moves to Delhi for searching work. Higher the rate of migration from Uttar Pradesh to Nepal reflects a correlation with the nearby distance, open-Nepal border, and chances of employment in all kinds of seasons in Nepal. Likewise, the different sizes of the population from Bhimdatt Municipality migrate to other different cities of India as destinations. The study shows that about 30 percent of people from Bhimdatt Municipality migrate to the capital city Delhi. Probably, it is due to the higher chances of job availability.

In this particular study, the timing of migration seems to be more regular (i.e., 64.1 percent, and thus less seasonal) both for the Nepali and Indian labour migrants. Comparatively, the Indian labour migrants to Nepal have more inclination for regular work which might be due to the frequent availability of jobs at the destinations, i.e., Bhimdatt Municipality. Migrations in agriculture season and during vacation are also seen for the Nepali labour migrants to India, while it is not reflected for the Indian labour migrants. Migration behaviour while the time of being unemployed seems to be second most followed by both the Nepali, and Indian labour migrants. Around one-fifth of the total labour, migrants are following this type of migratory move. It means they could have multiple livelihood strategies as well irrespective of what they would have done in their destinations. The main source of information seems to be generated with relatives, and friends (50.9 percent) for both the migrants. It might be due to the nature of work at the destinations as most of the Indian labour migrants work in industries while the Nepali labour migrants in India work in industries as well as individual houses, and other single businesses.

This study shows the causes of choosing a destination seem not to be significantly different. The cause of the higher wage rate seems to be more followed in aggregate, however, mostly followed by Indian labour migrants (46.1 percent) as compared to the Nepali labour migrants (29.7 percent). It reflects that Indian labour migrants to Nepal are economically deterministic, and they could take a decision as per the economic cost-benefit analysis, including the income, savings, and wages they would get. Moreover, the cause of choosing a destination due to Ancestors/Parents/Social relationships seems to be more important for Nepali labour migrants (56.5 percent), which do not stand anymore with the case of the Indian labour migrants. This simply implies that Nepali labour migrants took migration decisions as per the cultural and social schooling where family and social relations are more important. So, they are less economically deterministic, rather are culturally motivated. The cause of labour migration between two countries is due to easy availability/easy entry exit. It could be due to the open Nepal-India border, and the larger potential of availability of jobs in nearby the border area (from Uttarakhand, and Uttar Pradesh in particular) that would ease their travel and save the cost by reducing other formalities.

Objective 3: Explanation of the Nature of Jobs, and Working Conditions

The nature of jobs and income level are the two most important factors that affect the living conditions and livelihood making of the migrants. The study shows that the majority of Nepali labour migrants (i.e., 65.4 percent), and nearly half of the Indian labour migrants (i.e., 49.7 percent) didn't have any work, however, 17 percent of Nepali, and 37.1 percent of Indian labour migrants engaged in agriculture works at their origin. But the nature of jobs at their destination is found to change. It means migrants who are involved in different works at their origin used to work with their skills or learning by doing. The working skills might have also been transferred by their parents or caste-based occupational engagement or with Indigenous customary practices. This study shows 91.4 percent of Nepali labour migrants, and 43.6 percent of Indian labour migrants have skill level 1 (all the physical or labour works: mason, carpenter, agriculture labourer, transportation labourer, security guard, watchman, domestic workers, hotel boys, cleaners, etc.) while 7.3 percent of Nepali migrants and 54.3 percent of Indian migrants have skill level-2 (operating machinery & electronic equipment, driving vehicles, mechanical, and electrical repairs, clerks, hairdresser, sales assistant). Only 1.3 percent of Nepali labour migrants have skill level 3 (Complex technical and practical tasks with specialization of experiences like manager level). It analyzes that the Indian labour migrants to Nepal have comparatively more skilled than Nepali migrants.

The specific jobs/services performed by Nepali labour migrants to India are Garden Labour (apple orchards), Agriculture Labourer (vegetables), Manufacturing Labourer, Transport, and Storage Labourer Mining, and construction labour, Hotel/Casino Manager, Casino Service Manager, Stock Clerk (Casino), Cook, and waiters (Hotel/Restaurant), Bakers-pastry chefs, Dairy product maker, Food Processing Worker, Cleaner, and Helper (Domestic/Hotel/Office), Domestic work (housemaids), House Keeping Supervisor, Watchman, a Security guard (Company), Garments, and related worker, Car/Heavy Truck Driver, Machinery Mechanics, and Repairs, Machine Operator (Paper), Machine Operator (Vehicle), Machinery mechanism, and repairs. Similarly, Indian labour migrants performed the jobs like Agriculture Labourer, (Vegetable), Bricklayers, and Related Works, Floor Layers, and Tile Setter, Hairdresser, Painters, Machinery Mechanics, Repairs, Machinery mechanisms, and repairs, Mason (Road Construction), Carpenter, Mason (Building

Constriction), Welders, and related workers, Motor Vehicle Mechanics. However, Agriculture labourers and construction labourers are the common jobs/services performed by Nepali labour migrants and Indian labour migrants at their destination. It is analyzed that the nature of jobs in Nepal, and India are different, and hence they migrated to each other countries for searching opportunities. It is worthwhile to compare the findings of other studies as well.

At the same time, this study also evaluates the provision of salary and its increment process. In general, labour is defined as daily wage labour, contract base labour, salary base labour, and work (volume) base labour. The majority of Nepali labour migrants are found to be working on a salary basis, but Indian migrants are engaged in contract and volume-based jobs. Mostly the worker in the brick industries and hairdressers collected their wages on a volume-based work basis (i.e., they have to pay according to their volume of work as what they completed per person or production). Similarly, construction work, carpentry, and agriculture work have the provision of a contract base while other service sector jobs are taken daily. According to Bhattraï (2007), there are about 15 to 20 thousand such security guards who are estimated to be working in the Delhi area alone. They are not covered under any of the Indian labour laws because they do not have a formal contract for their job and employ-to-employer relationship. These cheap Nepali labour migrants provide security to the Indian society the whole night carrying only a whistle and a bamboo stick in the name of security equipment. They collected Rupees 5 to 10 thousand per month.

The majority of the Nepali labour migrants (i.e., 57 percent) are found continuing their jobs while less than half, i.e., 43 percent changed their job at their destination. However, Indian labour migrants are continuing their job in the same nature in almost all cases (i.e., by 100 percent). Mainly the cause of changing the job is due to low income or it is assumed that Nepali labour migrants are not feeling happy with their jobs, immediately most of them tended to search for easy jobs like hotel work, cleaners, and other domestic works by getting support from networks, and friends. Among the Nepali labour migrants who frequently changed their job, it is found that the majority of them (i.e., 64 percent) changed their job due to their low income. The other causes of job changes and changing destinations by Nepali labour migrants are found facing rude behaviour from their employers, lack of work

guarantee, pressure job/hard job, insecurity feeling on their jobs, long distance, difficulties of food, and accommodation, and some of them changed their job after retirement from their first job.

In a global context, it is less analyzed theoretically the nexus of this pandemic with the mobility, and migration of people, though some empirical studies have been explored increasingly. But this time migrants have faced different troubles during the COVID-19 period. During the Covid-19 period, almost labour migrants returned to their origin. Nepali labour migrants felt the struggle to return due to the long distance and got news of immediate lockdown, however, Indian labour migrants immediately crossed the border, and arrived at their homes because they were from a near distance. Though the impacts of COVID-19 on the migration sector were not included as the objective of this dissertation, it would require several further studies to analyze the impacts in depth. Particularly, the migrants working in informal economies either in Nepal or India have been affected much by this pandemic which requires a long-term study.

Objective 4: Comparative Analysis of Income, Remittance, and its Use

The monthly income of Nepali labour migrants is comparatively less than Indian labour migrants. It is because of the nature of jobs i.e., Indians have semi-skilled jobs in Nepal, but majorities of Nepalese migrants are working in different hotels, individual houses (domestic workers), and in the lower positions of different companies, and business houses. About 54.3 percent of Nepali labour migrants have a salary between NRs. 12800 to 16000, which is just 2.1 percent of Indian labour migrants in Nepal. Comparatively, the size of the monthly income of Indian labour migrants seems larger than Nepalese migrants. This is primarily due to the different kinds of skilled jobs (including carpentry, construction works, automobiles, barber, etc.), and other wage labour works available in the Nepali market where most of the Indian labour migrants used to involve. Another important thing is that there has been a regular job market in Nepal, so there would have less chance of unemployed for Indian labour migrants in Nepal. There was a significant difference between the mean income of Nepali labour migrants to India (NRs. 19061.6), and Indian labour migrants to Nepal (NRs. 40635.5).

Out of the total remittance generation, the younger age group (i.e., 18-40 years) is dominant as compared to the other age groups. More than half of the labour migrants (52.9 percent) collect (16001-32000 NRs) per month. The longer period of experience does not guarantee an increase in remittance. Rather, there is a mixed type of correlation. Globally the migration study is much engaged with the relationship between educational entitlement, and the remittance of migrants (Yang, 2011). In many studies, it seems a direct association between the extent of remittance the migrants generated with the educational attainment they had, but it depends upon the nature of work, and services in the destinations.

Likewise, there is a different type of educational attainment of the migrants, and it has slightly affected their collection of remittances. Migrants having comparatively higher education (secondary level completed) get more remittance as compared to others. However, there is not such a significant difference in this generation of remittance due to the educational attainment of the migrants. It is primarily due to the nature of work the migrants used to involve in both countries. Their jobs and services are more labour-intensive, and semi-skilled (even non-skilled in many forms) rather than capital-intensive, quality work, and white colour services. In addition, this study further analyzes that remittance is influenced by the nature of jobs, and their skills. Labour migrants having skilled levels earned higher the size of remittance from destinations.

Nepali labour migrants generally carry utensils, electronic materials, and other luggage from India while returning but Indian labour migrants just return with cash. It shows that Nepali migrants utilized/expensed some of the collected income at their destination, but Indians did not. About more than half (i.e., 51.4 percent) of Nepali labour migrants send their remittance to their origin as per the need of family 27.8 percent send within three months, and 10.3 percent send monthly. However, 55.7 percent of Indian labour migrants send their remittance monthly to their destination, and 30.4 percent by year. From the above table, it is clear that 73.2 percent of Indian labour migrants carry remittance with them when they leave their destination. It is because most of the migrants are from near border areas, and generally, they use to visit their origin in months or as per their need. But 13.8 percent of Nepali labour migrants carry remittances with them, 36.2 percent send through bank/financial institutions, 21.1 percent send through friends/relatives, and only 3.8 percent send by

ATM service. Migrants who have Adhar cards in India or have a bank account in India or Nepal mostly collect money at their local banks, and then use ATMs when they (their family) need money at the origin.

Discussion on the Findings

This discussion section is based on the research findings, and their implications in national, and international context. For this, the research objectives, and conceptual framework have been revisited, and issues of dissuasion are set further. As the conceptual framework set in this study (see Chapter 2, Section 2.4) reveals, there are several studies have been done on the different issues of labour migration from Nepal to India. However, it was a crucial research gap, particularly on the comparative perspective of labour migration between two countries, and the need to search why, and how people work in each other's countries. With the findings that have been discussed in chapters 4, 5, 6, and 7, it is well-articulated that the research objectives and the questions are interwoven with each other. It reflects a proven relationship among the three factors: characteristics of labour migrants, movement of labour migration, and the causes, and process of migration.

Empirical discussion

Characteristics of Labour Migrants. The mean age of Nepali migrants was 29 years while 32 years for the Indian migrants. The child population was also observed as migrants from India to Nepal. Indian labour migrants seem working till their older age. They engaged in similar work/semi-skilled jobs for a long time. They are found to be well experienced and high-skilled as compared to Nepali migrants. In terms of caste/ethnicity, the people belonging to disadvantaged/ marginalized groups of society dominantly engaged in work including the Dalits (of Nepal) and Muslims (of India). Nepali labour has more education than Indians. It is because of the religion of Indian Muslims who usually did not go to school and thus educated at the Madrassa as informal education. The Indian migrants often moved to search for jobs at an early age due to their poverty and food insecurity.

Contrary to this, Nepali migrants have easy access to school, offered free by the government. Nevertheless, they could not complete higher education due to household burdens and they also lacked working skills professionally. Therefore, they were denied skilled jobs in Indian destinations. It is interesting to note that 6 percent of Nepali children and 19.7 of Indian children who came with their parents were

enrolled for basic education at their destination. The accommodation status of both groups at their destination is similar. Most of them are staying in a group even in single rooms or flats with minor facilities and a combined kitchen. It is because of the low affordability of the migrants so as to make fewer expenses for daily survival. However, in the case of Nepali labour migrants at their origin, they have better accommodation (livelihood) as compared to the Indians.

Causes of Labour migration and its process. Indian migrants used to come to Nepal from the nearer border, mostly from UP (along with low travel cost and easy access) and a few from Bihar (though it's a far distance and higher travel cost to Mahendranagar). Mass poverty in these states of India could have created pressure on social mobility. However, Nepali migrants used to select destinations of big and developed cities of India ranging from nearer to longer distances. It is because of their social network and better opportunities. As this study reveals, the major causes of migration in the case of Nepali workers include lack of continuity of work opportunities and unemployment at the origin. Some of them migrated after harvesting agriculture, which developed as a culture for their generation and followed for a long.

In the case of Indian migrants, few of them used to engage in agricultural activities or different kinds of semi-skilled work at their origin. Therefore, they could have a better experience from an early age from which they could take much advantage at the destination. The reason for selecting a particular destination is a network in the case of both groups. Indians come to Mahendranagar due to the near border, low transportation cost, short distance, easy entry-exit, and higher wages in Mahendranagar, but in the case of Nepali, they select their destination following network rather than wage differentials. Hence, the study concludes that the main cause of migration is economic.

Nature of jobs, working conditions and the income variation. Regarding the nature of jobs and working conditions, there are some interesting findings. The majority, i.e. 91.4 percent of Nepali labour migrants are under skill labor-1 (unskilled) whereas 43.6 percent of Indians belong to this category. Moreover, 56.4 percent of Indians are under skill level 2 (semi-skilled) while 7.3 percent of Nepali have such skill assessments. Most Nepali people engaged in hotels as they feel secure and have easy access to their job despite having a low salary. The Nepali migrants in India expressed their experience that they immediately could get jobs in hotels along with

food and accommodation. The other sector of male migrant engagements include washing vehicles, and working as a watchman. Some of them are engaged in good jobs in companies having some facilities too. This is the case for males. Most of the women migrants used to work in domestic work (e.g. cleaning pots, houses, and washing clothes, and caring for children and senior citizens).

On the other hand, Indian migrants engaged in semi-skilled work as they have good experiences prior to coming to their destination. They could search for jobs in Nepal by themselves and could easily get jobs due to the scarcity of skilled labour in Nepal such as carpenters, meson, welders, brick kliner, agricultural workers, etc. They often worked on a contract basis which was more beneficial for them. There was less pressure on work and less harassment whereby they can leave themselves after completing the contractual job and collecting the remittances at once. Whereas most Indian migrants Indians follow similar jobs and similar destinations, Nepali migrants frequently changed their jobs and destination.

Regarding the monthly Income and Remittance, the study findings confirm that Nepali migrants earn less than Indian migrants, averaging NRs. 19061 for Nepali and NRs. 40635 for Indians. It is due to the work status of their engagement in the skilled and unskilled job market. It is because of the nature of jobs i.e., Indians have semi-skilled jobs in Nepal but majorities of Nepalese migrants are engaged in unskilled labour works. Some of the Nepali labour migrants change their jobs/services, and destinations as well. Mostly migrants, who worked in hotels, generally change their destinations. Most of the available jobs in the Indian market are not permanent. The easy access to get a job in hotels, and hence people can join or leave according to their situation. Those who work in companies, and semi-skilled-type jobs, continue their jobs, and destinations but others usually changed. However, Indian labour migrants mostly continue their jobs and the same destinations. The use of remittance by Indian migrants is limited to their basic needs at their destination, and preferably sending their money to their families at the origin. However, in the case of Nepali migrants, they are found to do the excess use of their income in buying goods at their destination, and the remaining remittance is used mostly for their household purposes at the origin.

Conceptual and theoretical discussion

Age is the main factor for working capacity. The larger size of cross-border labour migrants between Nepal and India seems between (18-40) years however it is

also found that some of the migrants are working till 65 years. The cause of continuing their work by elderly migrants based on the nature of work, near distance, less physical work burden, and their long experiences in the same work where Brusle'(2006) mentioned that many migrants start working in India at an early age and stop yet 45-50 years or more. According to ICIMOD (2010); Thieme and Muller (2010) and Nandini (1999), males are more migratory in the case of Sudurpashim and Karnali province but Shijapati et al., 2019 expressed cross-border migration of women is sensitive between Nepal and India. In this study, females are not found to migrate individually rather they migrated to their destination with their husbands. It is because of their burden toward their household responsibilities and culture.

According to Bhardwaj (2010), the composition of caste and religious background is almost similar between Nepal and India however based on this study, the number of Indian Muslim migrants to Nepal is high but in the case of Nepali labour migrants from Sudurpaschim province belong to Hindu religion. Supportive to the findings as discussed in earlier sections, Brusle'(2006), and McDougal (1968) mentioned that the larger size of the lower caste people from Karnali, and Surpaschim provinces generally migrated to India for work. According to them, migration depends to some extent on the culture of the ethnic groups. Moreover, different scholars like Basyal (2014); Seddon, and Gurung (2001); Bhagat, and Keshari (2010), and Brusle (2008) have mentioned that the main destinations of Nepali labour migrants in India are generally big cities like Delhi, Mumbai, Gujarat, Bangalore, Kerala, Pune, Ludhiyana, Amritsar, and the hill towns of Almora, Nanital, Shimla, Pithouragrah Kolkata, Varanasi, Agra, Lucknow, Kanpur, Chennai, Madhyapradesh, and Bangalore.

Economic factors are found to be deterministic in the migration process both at the place of origin, and destination. According to Caf Dowlah (2020), the cause of cross-border labour migration is economic. In the case of Nepal-India migration, the causes of migration are poor economic background, landlessness, lower education status, unemployment at their origins, and lack of their skills however Brusle (2008), Basyal (2020), KC (1998) and Gurung (2012) mentioned that the availability of work, networks, distance are the factors to influence the choice of a destination made by migrants. Social networks reduce migration costs (Lamechhane, 2018; Basyal (2020) and migrants share their food and dwelling for saving their income. India migration is the key livelihood strategy amongst marginal households in the middle hills of western and far-western Nepal (Seddon et al. 2001, Thieme, 2006). Due to poverty,

unemployment, declining natural resources, impoverishment, indebtedness, social discrimination, lack of infrastructure, and the Maoist insurgency, etc. are the major causes of migration from Nepal to India (Thieme, 2006; Gill, 2003). On the other hand, Gautam (2012) explained that the majority of male migrants go to India at their working age and it becomes a negative impact on rural areas i.e. shortage of human resources at the origin.

Similarly, the findings also reflected that there are socio-political factors that have affected the labour mobility, and livelihood of the migrants. The intervening factors were found more significant to affect the labour migration for both countries. Such types of factors include distance, transportation cost, access (easy/difficult), and social relationship. Meanwhile, personal factors (demographic and psychological) also affected the mobility of migrants, including their choices, and limitations. Such factors include the migrant's age, sex, education, caste/ethnicity, marital status, family size, and his/ her interest or motivation. Meanwhile, some pull factors are attracting migrants from both countries. These include high wage rate/high income; availability of jobs/better opportunities; good working environment; easy entry/exit/open border; social, and cultural similarities; social networking/ relationship; and city life/facilities. Thus, labour migration in Nepal-India could not be explained just with the factors of the push and pull hypothesis. Gurieva and Dzhioev (2015) also believe that the labour migration depends on migration policies and working conditions of the destinations. This study, therefore, is both empirically, and theoretically rational to extend and re-structure the conventional 'Push-Pull Hypothesis' in the context of Nepal-India labour migration.

It is worthwhile to mention here that International Labour Organization, ILO(2012) described the four major levels of the International standard classification of occupations ISCO-08 where skill level 4 is very professional with a decision-making level, skill level 3 belongs to complex technical, and practical task with specialization of experiences (e.g. manager level), skill level-2 concerns with operating machinery, and electronic equipment, driving vehicles, mechanical, and electrical repairs, clerks, hairdresser, sales assistant, whereas skill level-1, belongs to all the physical or labour works.

Migration and allowance are two interconnected issues, though the allowance is analyzed in terms of remittance in the migration studies. This seems more popular in the European context, and most of the high-income countries, and thus requires a

new methodological approach too (Levy et al., 2020). There is more homogeneity in monthly income for Nepali labour migrants to India than the Indian labour migrants to Nepal. Remittance is the most popular word in foreign employment. In the case of Nepal, remittance raises the GDP of the country. The Sudurpaschim, and Karnali provinces, where migration is a major source of livelihood that has been practiced for generations, received the largest number of remittances from India (Nepal Rastra Bank, 2009).

More importantly, it is also reflected as a discussion issue on the theoretical part. The propositions adhered to by Revenstein have not been truly followed in the context of Nepal-India labour migration. It is seen that there was no step-by-step migration in the case of Nepali migrants through comparative cases found in Indian cases. Female migrants (both Nepali and Indian) were found to prefer to select the destinations as followed by their husbands. It seems rational in the societies of Nepal, and India where social structure is based on patriarchy which is led by fathers or husbands in most cases. Moreover, the age factor hypothesis of Lee's theory cannot be truly implicated in the Nepal-India migration as there was frequent migration in different age groups. It has been further eased with open border access, wider social networks, and fewer administrative barriers.

According to Kaldor-Hick's theory, wealth increases the happiness of people (Dowlah, 2020) which is found in the context of cross-border labour migration between Nepal and India as well. Both migrant groups are found happy with their jobs and incomes however in some cases, they do not seem satisfied. People migrated across borders for wage differentials and employment opportunities as defined by neo-classical economic theory.

Conclusion

In the history of migration, Nepali people are generally found migrating to India for job opportunities for a long. Similarly, the Indian people are also observed to migrate to Nepal for work. The migration between Nepal and India is assumed as circular migration. The majority of a male having an age interval of 15-65 years are observed to migrate to each other countries however the larger population of migrants are of age between 18 and 40 years. Only a few percent of females migrated with their husbands to support household work in both cases. But, in the case of Nepali migrants, mostly female migrants engaged in domestic work for economic purposes, and some of them go for medical treatment. On the other hand, in the case of Indian

labour migrants to Nepal with their entire families (female, and children) get involved in bricklayer work, and work as agricultural labourers.

Almost Nepali labour migrants to India belong to the Hindu religion however the larger size of Indian labour migrants belong to the Muslim community followed by Hindus, and Sikhs. Comparatively, the family size of Indian labour-migrant especially in the Muslim community is larger than others. One of the crucial causes of migration in Muslim communities is their larger family size and high poverty. The majority of the population of both countries from marginalized and socially backward communities is found to migrate to the neighbouring countries in search of job opportunities. According to the study, education attainment is found higher in Nepali migrants than in Indian migrants. Some of the migrants' children join the schools in their parent's working destination. Almost all Nepali migrants have their own house at origin and have better household facilities than Indian migrants. However, both groups of migrants are found residing in rental houses at their destination with minimum facilities. In the case of Indian labour migrants, almost all the families work in brick layers and live in temporary houses (plastic, grass coated, or ten houses) at their origin and destination as well.

The volume of migration towards India from hilly areas of Sudurpaschim Province is higher. The process of migration takes place first from different hilly regions to the Terai region (Bhimdatt Municipality), and then some of them migrate to India afterward following the trend of their earlier generations. Nepali labour migrants, in general, choose a longer distance for migration by following their network chain in big cities in India while Indian labour migrants prefer to choose their destination nearby their border areas. Nepali labour migrants choose destinations based on their relationships and networks rather than analyzing economic benefits. Indian migrants to Nepal are economically deterministic, and they could decide as per the economic cost-benefit analysis, including the income, savings, and wages they would get.

Another cause of labour migration between Nepal, and India is the open border and availability of easy entry/exit. Along with this, Nepali labour migrants choose India for work because of the cultural similarities, cheaper travel cost, understandable language, relationships, and networking, any-time job opportunities, especially in the hotel, and domestic work can leave their job anytime needed, no restriction to return home, easily available residence with relatives, and friends. The

easy availability of jobs in a hotel in the initial days helps them sustain themselves, and then they choose better opportunities in other places.

The other cause of migration is poverty in society. Mostly people having poor status, are landless, or have small land are found to migrate for a long. Thus, food insecurity seems to be one of the push factors for both groups of migrants at their origin. Likewise, the lack of opportunities for jobs, low income, not getting continuity of work, and lack of other sources of income at the origin of migrants are the major causes of migration. Similarly, the pull factors for Indian labour migrants to Nepal are the lack of semi-skilled labour in the Nepali market, the opportunity for high income, easy access, and shorter distance. Likewise, the availability of immediate jobs in hotels/restaurants, domestic work, cleaning, and easy accessibility to other lower-skilled occupations is the pull factors for Nepali labour migrants to Indian cities. The living standard of Indian labour migrants to Nepal is comparatively poor than Nepali migrants. Due to poor economic conditions, both migrant groups are compelled to adjust themselves within the small room at their destination. They mostly live with their partners (friends, relatives, colleagues) for reducing their expenses (food, and accommodation).

Nepali labour migrants to India are generally involved in skill level-1 jobs like labour works in agriculture (apple plants, vegetables), manufacturing, transport, and storage, mining, and construction, domestic work, cleaner, helping in household matters, watchman, housekeeping, hotel helpers. Likewise, they have also been involved in skill level-2 works like cooking, waiters in the hotel, security guards (agencies), garments, dairy product making, food processing, bakers-pastry cooks, car/heavy truck driving, machinery mechanism, and repairing, machine operator, and few migrants have skill level-3 like hotel/casino manager, casino service manager, stock clerk. However, Indian labour migrants are mostly involved in the construction sectors (mason), service sectors (painters, hairdressers), manufacturing sectors (bricklayers, carpenters, welders), and agriculture sectors (vegetables). Nepali migrants prefer to work on salary-based jobs, but Indian migrants are engaged in volume/contract-based jobs. Mostly the workers in the brick industries and hairdressers collected their wages as volume-based work (i.e., they have to pay according to their volume of work as what they completed per person or production). Similarly, construction work, carpentry, and agriculture work have the provision of a contract base while other service sector works are taken daily. In some cases, Nepali labour migrants who work in hotels/restaurants, and other production

companies/Industries have provided the facility of food, and accommodation but others manage themselves.

Contribution and Implications of Research

Reflecting on the findings of this study, this section offers implications of the study that are important for the policies, practices, theories, and important themes of future research.

Policy-level contribution: This study supports the government to develop strategic plans and policies for achieving the needs of labour market. To reduce rapid labor migration and enable migrant workers to reap additional benefits from their migration to India, the government and other stakeholders should fund necessary training based on aspirant migrants' experiences in existing labor markets, raise awareness levels, and associate labor migration with safe, economic, and prestigious jobs.

Theoretical contribution: The findings of this study contribute to theories of migration as well. In general, mostly classical and neo-classical theories are practiced and implemented however the cross-border labour migration between Nepal and India seems different or no theories are implied properly. The migration between two countries is measured as a socio-economic or the migration for their livelihood strategies hence needs to be theories differently.

Methodological contribution: This research offers a methodological contribution as it has followed a comparative approach and mix-method design which is less common in migration studies. It is a new methodological intervention to study labour migrants from both countries- Nepal and India.

Livelihood-level implications: This study understands the situation of the cross-border labour market in Nepal and India. It further explores the nature and working conditions of jobs and opportunities in Nepali and Indian markets. Livelihood is itself the basic need for rural development in any country. Labour migrants from both groups (Nepali and Indian) are found happy with their work and income moreover it is the basic livelihood strategy for them. In this situation, the opportunities for work in each other countries should make more economic, safer, and prestigious and transformation of skill and knowledge as well which ultimately support on rural development of the regions. This study shows that cross-border labour migration somewhere fulfills the requirements of the labour market in both countries. In this condition, it is necessary to manage the labour migration between both countries.

1. To that end, the government (particularly the provinces) and other stakeholders should provide orientation and training to potential labor migrants about job opportunities in their destination, as well as the criteria for receiving them, so that they can take advantage of them. Literacy training for the labour migrants should be conducted including keeping documentation, working age, job criteria, health, and security, insurance services, harassment, and legal process, different skill-based pieces of training, sending remittance process, utilization of remittance, and sharing different other useful information.
2. Government should publish IEC materials and distribute them to the public for better information on job employment, and media mobilizing and sharing informative videos via Social Media.
3. Local government should prepare policies, and guidelines for making safer, and more prestigious foreign employment, and mitigate human trafficking cases.
4. The provincial government and/or Local level government of Nepal should develop a policy to enhance the skill of their citizens (migrants) so that they become skilled to replace the Indian labour migrants which can support reducing the outflow of Nepali currency.

Further research work in this area could be as follows:

1. Longitudinal studies on labour migration covering the place of origin and destination of both Nepali and Indian labour migrants.
2. This study is limited to Bhimdatt Municipality as a study area. Therefore, if the study covers at least one border area of each province of Nepal would be more representative.
3. The study would be much more effective if it had covered the entire Sudurpaschim Province as a study area which would be supportive to develop new policies and strategies on cross-border migration by the Sudurpaschim Provincial Government.

Annex 1

Check List for Focus Group Discussion (Indian and Nepalese labour migrants)

- Family and historical background, practice, and trends of migration (working destination: Nepal and India)
- Migrants' characteristics (age, education, caste, marital status, working nature in origin/destination, the general status of origin (facilities, living standard: food, shelter, school, health, entertainment, cooking arrangement, electricity, internet, mobile, drinking water and sanitation, human right, participation on public institutions/governance, family size, social harassment, geographical and natural constraints, land status, bank account and loan, number of family members in foreign employment,.....)
- Causes of Migration of the study area
- Main time/season of joining to work in India, the average duration of stay at working places
- Migration process: From origin to destination (Decision making, planning to foreign job, arrangement, choosing the destination, facing problems and happiness on travel, means of transportation, selection of a job in destination, ...)
- Income and saving, main areas of expenditures, utilization of remittance,
- Social, economic, and political involvement and background of migrants at the place of origin and destination
- The working environment of working place, behavior, food, shelter, drinking water, sanitation, entertainment, human right, leave, salary in time, allowances, other benefits and facilities, mode of payment, management of food and shelter at the destination
- Knowledge of Migrants' rights and the Nepal-India friendship treaty of 1950
- The main advantages and disadvantages of cross-border migration
- Role of political parties and government to manage the cross-border migration process
- Suggestions for beneficial, safer, and managed migration process

Annex 2
Questionnaire For KII (Key Informant Interview)

1. Name:.....
...Destination.....
2. Nature of job at destination.....Working
Experience:.....
3. Do you have information about the characteristics of labour migrants
(Age/Sex/Education/Religion/Caste/Working experiences/Living
Standard).....
4. Can you imagine the number of migrants (per day) crossing the borders and
their different proposes?.....
5. Which is the best season for migration (on both sides/high and low
movements?.....
6. In your opinion, what are the main causes of cross-border migration between
these two countries?
7. What do you think about the benefits of cross-border migrants?
.....
8. How do migrants use their remittance at the origin?.....
9. Why do some of the migrants in India hide their identity while working?
10. In your opinion, what sorts of work (occupations) do Nepalese/Indian
migrants (Nature of works) do at the destination?.....
11. Why do migrants change their occupations and destination?.....
12. Why do Nepalese return to India even in the Covid-19 period?.....
13. In your opinion, what kinds of positive and negative impacts of Indian
migration are on the migrants' families?.....

Annex 3
Field Questionnaire

Cross-border Labour Migration between Nepal and India: A Comparative Study

(Questionnaires are asked to the respondents (Nepali labour -migrants to India and Indian labour migrants to Nepal)

My name is Deepak Chandra Bhatt. I am working with Far-western University, Faculty of Humanities and Social Sciences as an Asst. Professor. Now, I am conducting research on labour migration between Nepal and India as a student Ph.D. enrolled at Tribhuvan University, Nepal. The information I collect will help answer some of my research questions and finally supportive to the government of both countries for its effective and safer migration. Your household was selected for the survey. The questions usually take about 30 minutes. All of the answers you give will be confidential and will not be shared with anyone other than my institution and supervisors. I am hopeful that you will agree to answer the questions since your views are important.

Do you have any questions? May I begin the interview now?

Name of labour migrant/Sex:.....

Origin of Migrant (Municipality ward/City/State):

Working Destination (City/State):

Q.N	Question	Options	Skip
Section- 1: Socio-economic Status and Characteristics of Migrants			
1.	How old are you?		Years
2.	What is your religion?	Hindu.....1 Muslim.....2 Christian.....3 Buddha.....4 Sikhha.....5	2→4
3.	Which caste/ethnicity do you belong to?	Brahmin.....1 Thakuri.....2 Rajput/ Chhettri.....3 Dalit.....4 Sanyasi/Dasnami.....5 Janjati..... 6 Tharu.....7 Muslim.....8 Sikkha.....9	

4.	What was your educational qualification at the time of your first labour migration?	No Education1 Some Primary Education.....2 Primary Level Completed.....3 Secondary Level.....4 Undergraduate Level.....5 Graduate Level.....6	
5.	What type of family do you live in origin?	Nuclear family.....1 Joint family.....2	
6.	How many members are there in your family?	Single.....1 (2-5) members.....2 (6-10) members.....3 More than 10 members.....4	
7.	What is your marital status?	Married.....1 Unmarried.....2 Divorced/Separated.....3 Widowed.....4	2→12
8.	Do you have children?	Have children.....1 Don't have children.....2	
9.	If, yes how many children do you have?	(Number of total children).....	
10.	Among them how many are studying at school/college?	(Number of schooling children)	
11.	In which institutions do your children study?	Community School/College.....1 Private School/College.....2 Schooling at Destination.....3	
12.	What is the condition of your shelter (residence)?	❖ Mention the case of Origin and Destination	
12(a)	What kind of ownership of a home? ❖ Origin ❖ Destination	Rented.....1 Own House.....2 Company/Employer.....3 Not Special(Van or Hotel).....4 Temporary Home (Tant, Plastic).....5	2→12(d)
12(b)	If rented, How much do you pay for rent? (IC/NC) ❖ Origin ❖ Destination	Below 2000.....1 (2-5) thousand.....2 More than 5 thousand.....3	
12(c)	How many rooms are at the destination?	Single room.....1 Two rooms.....2 Complete flat/home.....3	

12(d)	How do you stay in the room at your destination/working place?	Combined stay with others.....1 Combined stay with family.....2 Separate (Single) Stay.....3	3→12(f)
12(e)	If you stay in a combined room, how many people (partners) are you staying in a room?	Two people.....1 (3-5) people.....2 (6-10) people.....3	
12(f)	What is the status of the stories of the house? ❖ Origin ❖ Destination	Ground floor.....1 Two stories.....2 More stories.....3	
12(g)	What is the status of the roof of your house? ❖ Origin ❖ Destination	Cemented (furnished).....1 Cemented(Not furnished).....2 Cemented &Roof with Tin3 cemented & Roof with Tayal.....4 Wooden & Roof Tin/Tayal.....5 Straw House.....6 If others	
12(h)	What is the status of your kitchen? ❖ Origin ❖ Destination	Furnished Kitchen(Separate).....1 Separate not furnished.....2 Combined (Sharing).....3 Kitchen in same room.....4 Outdoor (open sky).....5 If others.....	
13.	What are the facilities in your house?	Mention @ both origin and destination	
13(a)	What is the main source of light? ❖ Origin ❖ Destination	Electricity.....1 Bio-Gas.....2 Solar light.....3 If others, (specify).....	
13(b)	What is the main source of fuel for (cooking)? ❖ Origin ❖ Destination	Wood.....1 Bio Gas.....2 Electricity.....3 Lp Gas.....4 Solar5 Wood+ Bio-Gas.....6 Wood+Bio-Gas+Lp Gas.....7 Electricity + Lp Gas.....8 Food in Hotel.....9 Others.....	

13(c)	<p>What is the main source of drinking water?</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ❖ Origin ❖ Destination 	<p>Public well/Tap.....1 Supply water.....2 Hand Pump/Boring/Tube well...3 If other, (specify).....</p>	
13(d)	<p>What is the status of sanitation (Toilet/Bathroom)?</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ❖ Origin ❖ Destination 	<p>Public toilet.....1 Personal toilet (attached).....2 Combined (within Family/Floor)..3 Temporary (Sack/wood).....4 Open (open fields)5</p>	
13(e)	<p>What are the means of communication?</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ❖ Origin ❖ Destination 	<p>TV.....1 Phone/Mobile...2 Internet...3 TV+ Mobile...4 All of the above.....5 Not any.....6</p>	
14.	<p>What is the position of food security (agriculture production) at the origin?</p>	<p>Landless.....1 Less than 3 Months.....2 (3-6) Months.....3 (6-9) Months.....4 More than 9 Months.....5</p>	
15.	<p>How do you manage food deficit at a time of shortage?</p>	<p>Seeking debt (loan).....1 Borrow food.....2 Selling land/ Ornaments.....3 Wage labour.....4 Selling agro/ livestock.....5 Half sharing (Adhiya).....6 Independent on Food.....7 Government Support.....8</p>	
16.	<p>What are the main sources of income in your family?</p>	<p>Agriculture/Livestock.....1 Non-agro (self-employment)....2 Regular salary(Job).....3 Foreign employment4 Agriculture + Foreign Employment.....5 If others (specify).....</p>	

Section 2: Causes and Migration Process of Migrants			
17.	What did you use to do at your origin (nature of work done previously?)	Free (No work).....1 Agro/labour/Unskilled work....2 Self Employment (Business)....3 Engaged in other regular jobs (semi/permanent-Security, company, office.....4	1→19
18.	How much did you use to earn from your previous jobs at origin (per month-IC/NC)?		
19.	Why do/didn't you get involved in work in your origin?	Don't like such work.....1 Less opportunity.....2 Low income.....3 Irregularities of job/work ...4	
20.	What is the main cause of your migration?	Social Causes(Social discrimination.....1 Economic Causes.....2 Political Causes(conflict).....3 Natural Causes4	
21.	If the economic cause, what kind of economic causes do you have?	Searching better opportunity/Income.....1 Unemployment at origin..... 2 Poverty (Lack of basic needs)..3	
22.	Who has decided on your migration?	Self-decision.....1 Family decision(agreed)..... 2 Family pressure.....3	
23.	Mainly in which season do you or your family members join the work in Nepal/origin?	Agricultural off-season1 During vacation.....2 Time of being unemployed.....3 Regularities in work4 Not fixed.....5	
24.	How do/did you get the information about the job opportunities in a particular destination/working place?	Media(Social, Print, TV, Radio).....1 Relatives/Friends.....2 Family3 Contractor.....4	
25.	Why do/did you choose the particular working destination for work?	Easy availability/Easy entry exit.....1 Ancestors/Parents/Social relationship.....2 Higher wage rate.....3 If other, (specify).....	

26.	How do/did you arrange money for departure (first-time migration)?	The loan from finance /banks.....1 The loan from cooperatives.....2 Credit from neighbor/ relatives.....3 Cash (Self-at home).....4 Selling agro-livestock products.....5	
27.	How much money do you spend (ticket) to reach the destination? (IC)	Less than 500.....1 (500-1500).....2 (1501-3000).....3 (3001-5000).....4 Above 5000.....5	
28.	How much time does it take to reach the destination from the origin?	Less than 3 hr.....1 (3-8) hr.....2 (8-12) hr.....3 More than 12 hr.....4	
29.	Which means of transportation do/did you use to travel?	Bus.....1 Train.....2 Plane.....3 Bus+ Train.....4 As availability/need.....5	
30.	Which specific border do you follow to cross generally?	Bramdev/Tanakpur.....1 Banbasa/Gaddachouki.....2 Gourifanta.....3 Rupadiya.....4 Sunouli.....5 If others (specify).....	
31.	With whom did you migrate at the time of your first labour migration?	With family members.....1 Relatives/ Friends.....2 Contractor.....3 Single(self).....4	
32.	How did you get a job in the destination?	Bribery (by giving money)....1 With the recommendation of friends/relatives.....2 Self-effort.....3 In support of Contractor.....4	2,3→35
33.	If you give money, to whom did you give it?	Contractor/Manpower/Agent...1 Relatives/Friends.....2 Manager/Employer.....3	

34.	How much money did you pay? Rs. (IC/NC).	
35.	How often do/did you return to your origin from a working destination?	Monthly.....1 Half yearly(6 months).....2 Once within a year.....3 During festivals/As per need...4 During vacation/holidays.....5 If other, (specify).....	
36.	How many years have you got experience in labour migration in India?		...years
37.	From which generation your family has joined this type of migration?	From me/current generation....1 From the time of father.....2 From the time of grandfather....3 From the time of forefather....4 Other (specify)	
38.	From where your forefather migrated to present origin (if step migration occurs).....City/District		
Section –3: Nature of Work and Working Conditions of Migrants			
39.	Have you ever taken any skill-based training before migration (at origin)?	Yes.....1 No.....2	2→41
40.	Who provides skills/training?	Government.....1 NGOs.....2 Employment company/ Private Institutions.....3 Cooperatives.....4 Self Experiences.....5	
41.	Do you get any opportunity of receiving new skills/training at the working station?	Yes (company/employer provides).....1 Yes (N/GOs agency provides)..2 Learning and getting experienced.....3	
42.	What kinds of skills do you have?	Skilled labour.....1 Semi-skilled.....2 Unskilled labour.....3	
43.	What are you doing at work at the destination? (Nature of work) <u>According to the International Standard Classification of occupations 2008 (ICSO- 08)/ILO</u>	(Government Jobs like Army, Police, Railway and others... and, Self employment is excluded).....	

44.	How /Did you migrate?	Individual.....1 With family.....2	
45.	Why do you migrate with your family? (Causes of family migration)	Medical treatment.....1 Housewife.....2 Economic Purpose.....3 Lack of guardianship at origin...4	
46.	Do your family members work with you at the destination?	Yes.....1 No.....2	2→48
47.	If Yes, describe the nature of jobs. (<u>According to International Standard Classification of occupations 2008 (ICSO- 08)/ILO</u>)	(Government Jobs like Army, Police, Railway and others... and, Self employment is excluded).....	
48.	How many hours do you work per day?	Less than 8 hrs.....1 8 hrs per day.....2 12 hrs per day.....3 More than 12hrs per day.....4	
49.	Do you get overtime facilities?	Yes.....1 No.....2	2→51
50.	Are you satisfied with your overtime facility?	Much Happy.....1 Satisfactory.....2 Not happy.....3	
51.	How do you collect your wage/salary in time	Daily basis.....1 Monthly.....2 Contract basis.....3 Not fixed.....4	
52.	Is there a provision for wage increments at your working pace?	Yes.....1 No.....2	2→54
53.	What is the provision for salary increments?	As per government policy/rule.....1 As per company/employer rule.....2 As per contract/agreement.....3 Other (specify).....	
54.	Do you have any provisions for leave at your working place?	Yes.....1 No.....2	2→56
55.	If yes, what are the provisions?	As the rules of company/employer.....1 Self depend(as per need).....2 Festivals/Urgent works.....3	
56.	Which means of transportation do you use to your destination? (while going to work)	Cycle/ Rickshaw.....1 Bus fair.....2 Motorbike.....3 By foot.....4	

57.	Who provides you with food and accommodation at your destination?	Both by company/contractor.....1 Both myself.....2 Food by company/contractor.....3 Accommodation by company.....4 If others (specify).....	
58.	Do you have a life/health insurance policy at your work?	Yes.....1 No.....2	2→60
59.	Who bears of insurance installment?	Company/Employer.....1 Self policy.....2	
60.	Does your work involve physical hazards?	Yes.....1 No.....2	2→62
61.	Who is responsible for work hazardous cases and safety measures?	Company/Contractor Provide...1 Self responsibilities of safety...2 If others (specify).....	
62.	Have you ever changed your job (nature of work) at your destination?	Yes.....1 No.....2	2→64
63.	If yes, Why did you change the job?	Hard /Pressure of work/, unlike work.....1 Low income.....2 Misbehave by employer.....3 Lack of work guarantee.....4 Insecurity feeling/personal security.....5 Long distance/feeling lonely.....6 Difficulties in food and accommodation...7 After Retirement/Transfer.8 Others, (specify).....	
64.	Have you ever changed your destination?	Yes.....1 No.....2	2→66
65.	If yes, Why did you change your destination?	Social relationship/Friends/kinship.....1 Unsuitable climate.....2 Expensive Location.....3 Lack of work guarantee.....4 Insecurity feeling/personal security.....5 Long distance/feeling lonely.....6 Getting better income/ easy job.....7 After Retirement/Transfer..8	
66.	Did you feel any kind of harassment on your job?	Yes.....1 No.....2	2→72
67.	Where did you feel being of harassment?	At working station.....1 At travel.....2 At transit points.....3	

68.	Who was responsible for the harassment?	Police.....1 Border security.....2 Employer.....3 Traveler.....4 Transportation.....5 Hotels.....6 Friends.....7	
69.	Have you ever gotten involved in any legal process after being deceived/ mislead/harassed?	Yes.....1 No.....2	2→71
70.	Did you get justice or solve your case?	Yes.....1 No.....2	
71.	Why did you not involve in the legal process after being deceived?	Feel, It's just a formality.....1 Security problem.....2 Not getting time.....3 Don't have any idea.....4	
72.	Do you have knowledge or rights of labour/trade unions?	Yes.....1 No.....2	
73.	Do you involve in an organization/trade union at the destination?	Yes.....1 No.....2	
74.	Where were you during Covid-19?	At Origin1 At Working destination2	2→80
75.	Did you return home during Covid-19?	Yes.....1 No.....2	2→79
76.	If you return, then when?	Before Lockdown.....1 During Lockdown.....2 After Lockdown.....3	1→80 3→79
77.	If you returned during the lockdown, How many days did you stay in quarantine?	Staying Quarantine (Border....1 Staying Quarantine (Local area).....2 Quarantine (Both places).....3 Returned (with hide and seek)..4	4→ 79
78.	How many days did you stay in quarantine?	Less than two weeks.....1 About month.....2 More than a month.....3	
79.	During the lockdown period, what kinds of challenges did you face in the workplace?	No problem at all.....1 Faced food problem.....2 Faced harassment from security forces.....3 Faced health problems.....4	

80.	Did you feel any effect on your health due to Covid-19?	Yes.....1 No.....2	2→82
81.	If you feel the problem, then how did you recover?	Admitting hospital for long...1 Staying Isolation at home.....2 Still not getting well3	
82.	Is there any effect on your job due to Covid-19?	Yes.....1 No.....2	
83.	Do you have plans to return to your destination again?	Yes, will return1 Not return.....2 Can't Say now.....3	
84.	Are you satisfied with your job?	Yes.....1 No.....2	
85.	How do you work in India (with hiding or open with your nationality)?	With hiding their national Identity.....1 With their national Identity....2	
Section –4: Remittance Pattern and its Utilization			
86.	How much is your monthly income at the working destination? (IC/NC).....		
87.	Is there any provision for overtime income/allowances at your working place?	Yes.....1 No.....2	1→89
88.	If yes, how much do you earn by overtime work /allowances (In month)?.....		
89.	Do any other members of your family work/be placed abroad?	Yes.....1 No.....2	2→92
90.	Where do they work/be placed?	India/Nepal.....1 Malaysia2 Gulf countries3 Other countries.....4	1→91 & others →92
91.	What is the figure for total remittance in your house per month? (From destination-1)?.....		NRs.
92.	What is the figure of remittance in your house per month? (From other countries, if)		NRs.
93.	What is the frequency of sending remittances within a year?	Every month.....1 Three months.....2 Six months.....3 Every year.....4 As per need.....5	

94.	What is the meaning of sending a remittance?	Hundi.....1 Self caring.....2 Through banks/finance institutions..... 3 Through friends/Relatives.....4 Having ATM Service at origin/family.....5 Self caring+ bank /finance +Friends.....6
95.	Who is the receiver of the remittance at the origin?	Family members.....1 Relatives/Friends.....2 Other (Merchant/ Bank).....3
96.	How do/did you utilize your remittance?	New House construction/Maintenance....1 Basic Needs (food, cloth, education, health, debit/loan).....2 Luxury things (mobile, TV,.....3 Property (Land, Gold, silver).....4 House construction+ Basic needs.....5 No use/no saving.....6
97.	What are you taking while returning?	Goods/Luggage/utensil.....1 TV/Mobile/electronics.....2 Ornaments.....3 As needed.....4 Nothing to caring.....5

Annex-4

List of Key Informants Interview

S.N	Name of Respondents with full of introduction	Age (years)	Address	Time for Interview
1.	Bhalmar Sunar (<i>Having long experienced in India as a labour</i>)	85	Bhimdatt-1	August, 2021
2.	Rabindra Kunwar (<i>Social Campaigner in the field of India migration/Social Leader</i>)	48	Bhimdatt-7	August 2021
3.	Sarvesh Sharma (<i>Contractor and Meson, working in Nepal since 20 years</i>)	42	Bhimdatt-18	August 2021
4.	Bir Ram SK (<i>Head teacher of school, the area of high migration</i>)	46	Bhimdatt-14	August, 2021

Annex-5**List of Participants in FGD among Nepali Labour Migrants Community***Venue/Date: 9 No. Ward Office, Bramdev (2021 July, 21)*

S.N	Name	Ward No. (Origin)
1	Apsara Dhama	Bhimdatt-9, Bramdev
2	Puskar Datt Joshi	Bhimdatt-9, Bramdev
3	Kripa Nath	Bhimdatt-9, Bramdev
4	Padam S. Dhama	Bhimdatt-9, Bramdev
5	Karan Bist	Bhimdatt-9, Bramdev
6	Suraj Bhul	Bhimdatt-9, Bramdev
7	Goma Bhul	Bhimdatt-9, Bramdev
8	Arjun Karki	Bhimdatt-9, Bramdev
9	Padam Saud	Bhimdatt-9, Bramdev
10	Santosh Labad	Bhimdatt-9, Bramdev
11	Bishnu Nath	Bhimdatt-9, Bramdev
12	Harina Nath	Bhimdatt-9, Bramdev
13	Harish Bk	Bhimdatt-9, Bramdev
14	Shiv Nath	Bhimdatt-9, Bramdev
15	Shankar Pujara	Bhimdatt-9, Bramdev
16	Ram Nath	Chairperson, Ward No. 9
17	Deepak Chandra Bhatt	Researcher

Annex-6**List of Participants in FGD among Indian Labour Migrants Community***Venue/Date: Bhimdatt-6, Shantiniketan Chowk (2021 July, 24)*

S.N	Name	Origin
1	Ishak Ali	Barelli, India
2	Akram Istiyak	Pilibhit, India
3	Hasheem Ansari	Pilibhit, India
4	Riyaz Khan	Pilibhit, India
5	Irfan Ali	Barelli, India
6	Miya Ali	Barelli, India
7	Salmi Ahmad	Pilibhit, India
8	Rizwan Ansari	Pilibhit, India
9	Mohamad Aftab	Pilibhit, India
10	Asalam Mohamad	Pilibhit, India
11	Mumtaz Khan	Pilibhit, India
12	Sultan Miya	Pilibhit, India
13	Deepak Chandra Bhatt	Researcher

Annex 7

List of Nepali Labour Migrants to India from Bhimdatt Municipality

Wards	Nepalis in India (population size)	Proportion(%) of the population	Stratified sample size	Total sample size
1	215	4.419321686	16.35149024	16
2	388	7.975334018	29.50873587	30
3	243	4.994861254	18.48098664	18
4	76	1.562178828	5.780061665	6
5	325	6.68036999	24.71736896	25
6	407	8.365878726	30.95375128	31
7	216	4.43987667	16.42754368	17
8	312	6.41315519	23.7286742	24
9	305	6.269270298	23.1963001	23
10	547	11.24357657	41.6012333	42
11	175	3.597122302	13.30935252	13
12	229	4.70709147	17.41623844	18
13	334	6.865364851	25.40184995	25
14	275	5.652620761	20.91469681	21
15	106	2.178828366	8.061664954	8
16	149	3.062692703	11.331963	11
17	66	1.356628983	5.019527235	5
18	295	6.063720452	22.43576567	22
19	202	4.152106886	15.36279548	15
Total	4865	100	370	370

Annex 8
List of Indian Labour Migrantsto Bhimdatt Municipality, Mahendranagar

S.N.	Nature of Works	Population	Proportion population %	Stratified Sample	Sample
1	Barber	122	13.20	36.96	40
2	Welding/Iron/Steel	78	8.44	23.63636	23
3	Automobile/Motorbike/Van	58	6.28	17.57576	17
4	Meson/House Construction	120	12.99	36.36364	36
5	Tayal /Marble Meson	35	3.79	10.60606	10
6	Brick Industry Worker	226	24.46	68.48485	68
7	Carpenter/Wooden Work/Furniture	155	16.77	46.9697	47
8	Black Road/Construction	32	3.46	9.69697	10
9	Painter/House	42	4.55	12.72727	12
10	Agro Farmer	56	6.06	16.9697	17
Total Number of Indian Labour Workers		924	100.00	279.9903	280
Sectors	Occupation	Population size	Proportion (%)of the population	Stratified sample size	Total sample size
Construction Sector	Meson (House construction), Black road, Tayal/Marbles	187	20.23809524	56.66666667	57
Manufacture Sector	Carpenter, Brick industry,	381	41.23376623	115.4545455	115
Service Sector	Barber, Painter, Automobiles, welding(Grill/steel)	300	32.46753247	90.90909091	91
Agriculture Sector	Works as agriculture	56	6.060606061	16.96969697	17
Total		924	100	280	280

Annex 9

Distribution of Nepalese Migrants to India with their Population, Sex, Marital Status, and Caste/Ethnicity

Ward No	Population			Marital Status			Caste/Ethnicity						
	Total	Male	Female	Married	Unmarried	Singe/ Widow	Brahmin	Chhetri	Thakuri	Dalit	Sanyasi	Janjati	Others
1	215	172	43	137	77	1	10	83	6	101	3	12	0
2	388	321	67	272	107	9	115	145	43	75	1	8	1
3	243	190	53	153	89	1	47	88	13	86	0	9	0
4	76	68	8	54	22	0	7	32	7	28	1	1	0
5	325	257	68	183	140	2	21	75	36	192	0	1	0
6	407	321	86	254	148	5	91	103	51	157	3	2	0
7	216	185	31	153	62	1	41	118	19	26	6	6	0
8	312	256	56	222	89	1	57	109	12	128	0	5	1
9	305	268	37	204	101	0	50	121	12	89	29	3	1
10	547	500	47	374	171	2	98	195	31	189	32	2	0
11	175	161	14	136	39	0	31	40	2	91	3	8	0
12	229	216	13	154	71	4	66	69	5	57	1	27	4
13	334	265	69	230	102	2	10	79	15	223	0	7	0
14	275	216	59	203	69	3	35	143	2	72	2	21	0
15	106	92	14	82	24	0	28	47	9	12	7	3	0
16	149	133	16	94	55	0	15	70	2	26	2	34	0
17	66	60	6	44	22	0	15	20	9	22	0	0	0
18	295	236	59	177	118	0	46	38	33	161	2	14	1
19	202	156	46	134	67	1	29	53	12	72	0	36	0
Total	4865	4073	792	3260	1573	32	812	1628	319	1807	92	199	8

Source: Excell Sheet, Profile of Bhimdatt Municipality, 2076

REFERENCES

- Adams, R.H., & Page, J. (2005). Do international migration and remittances reduce poverty in developing countries? *World Development*, 33(10), 1645-1669.
<https://doi.org/10.1016/j.worlddev.2005.05.004>
- Adhikari, J. (2015). *Impact of national and international labour migration: Country study Nepal*. Refugee and Migratory Movements Research Unit (RMMRU).
<http://www.rmmru.org/newsite/wp-content/uploads/2013/08/workingpaper22.pdf>
- Adhikari, J. (2006). *Migration between Nepal and India*. Refugee and Migratory Movements Research Unit (RMMRU) monograph.
- Adhikari, J. & Gurung, G. (2009). *Migration, security, and livelihoods: A case study of migration between Nepal and India*. Nepal Institute of Development Studies (NIDS).
<https://searchworks.stanford.edu/view/8883112>
- Akaha, T. (2006). Cross-border migration in North-East Asia: Implications for Mongolia. *The Mongolian Journal of International Affairs* (13), 42-59.
<https://doi.org/10.5564/mjia.v0i13.7>
- Alerstam, T., Hedenström, A., & Åkesson, S. (2003). Long-distance migration: evolution and determinants. *Oikos*, 103(2), 247-260. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1034/j.1600-0706.2003.12559.x>
- Amnesty International (2011). *Amnesty international report: The state of the world's human rights*. Amnesty International. <https://reliefweb.int/report/world/amnesty-international-report-20152016-state-worlds-human-rights-enar?gclid>
- Aryal, R.P. (2016). Migration and HIV in Nepal. *Janpriya Journal of Interdisciplinary Studies*, 5, 102-113. <https://doi.org?103126/jjis.v5i0.17843>
- Aydemir, A. & Borjas, G. J. (2007). Cross-country variation in the impact of international migration: Canada, Mexico, and the United State. *Journal of the European Economic Association*, 5(4), 663–708.
<https://econpapers.repec.org/RePEc:tpr:jeurec:v:5:y:2007:i:4:p:663-708>
- Bala, A. (2017). Migration in India: Causes and consequences. *International Journal of Advanced Educational Research*, 2(4), 54-56.
<http://www.educationjournal.org/archives/2017/vol2/issue4/2-4-63>
- Basyal, K. (2020). A survey of Nepali migrants in India: An emperical study. *The Geographic Base*, 7, 54-64. <https://doi.org/10.3126/tgb.v7i0.34271>

- Basyal, K. (2014). *Nepali migrants in India: A case study of political and economic implication for Nepal* [Unpublished Ph.D. Thesis]. Jawaharlal University, India.
- Bhagat, R. B. (2015, March 7). *Migration and social structure in India: Relationship and policy issues*. Key note speaker in national seminar on marginalization and migration in the era of globalization organized by the department of sociology, University of Mumbai.
https://www.researchgate.net/publication/303843424_Migration_and_Social_Structure_in_India_Relationship_and_Policy_issues
- Bhagat, R. B., & Keshri, K. (2020). Internal migration in India. In *Internal migration in the countries of Asia*, 207-228. Springer, Cham.
- Bhagat, R.B. & Keshari, K. (2010). Temporary and seasonal migration in India. *Genus*, 26(3) (Oct-Dec), 25-45. International Institute for Population Sciences, India.
- Bhardwaj, V. K. (2010). *Indo-Nepal open border: An assessment*.
https://www.academia.edu/15357616/Indo_Nepal_Open_Border_An_Assessment
- Bhardwaj, V. K. (2010). Linkage and conflicts along India-Nepal border: Implications and challenges. <http://catalog.ihsn.org/citations/82266>
- Bhatt, D. C. (2016). Far western development region: Opportunities and challenges. *ANWESHAN, A Research Journal*, 3, 145-152.
- Bhatt, D. C. (2015). Socio-economic dimension of migration in far western Nepal. *Nepalese Journal of Development and Rural Studies*, 12(1&2), 23-32.
- Bhattarai, R. (2007). *Open border, closed citizenships: Nepali migrants in Delhi*. Netherlands: Institute of Social Studies. <https://lib.icimod.org/record/12980>
- Bhimdatt Municipality. (2018). *Bhimdatt Municipality local health and sanitation procedure 2018*. Bhimdatt Municipality.
- Bhimdatt Municipality. (2016). *Profile of Bhimdatt Municipality*.
- Bilecen, B., Gamper, M., & Lubbers, M. J. (2018). The missing link: Social network analysis in migration and transnationalism. *Social Networks*, 53, 1-3.
<https://doi.org/10.1016/j.socnet.2017.07.001>
- Bloemraad, I. (2013). Comparative methodologies in the study of migration. In *Routledge International Handbook of Migration Studies* (pp. 567-577). Routledge.
<https://www.taylorfrancis.com/chapters/edit/10.4324/9781315458298-55/comparative-methodologies-study-migration-irene-bloemraad>

- Boyd, M. (1989). Family and personal networks in international migration: Recent development and new agendas. *International Migration Review*, 23(3), <https://pubmed.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/12282798/>
- Bramanti, D., Meda, S., & Rossi, G. (2020). Migrations and intergenerational religious transmission: Issues from international literature. *In Migrants and Religion: Paths, Issues, and Lenses*, 569-588. <https://hdl.handle.net/10807/161728>
- Bratz, K. & Fuchs-schundeln, N. (2012). The role of borders, languages and currencies as destination to labour market integration. *European Economic Review*, 56 (6), 1148-1163. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.euroecorev.2012.05.008>
- Brettell, C. B. (2018). Conceptualizing migration and mobility in anthropology: An historical analysis. *Transitions: Journal of Transient Migration*, 2(1), 7-25. http://dx.doi.org/10.1386/tjtm.2.1.7_1
- Broom, A., & Willis, E. (2007). Competing paradigms and health research. *Researching health: Qualitative, quantitative and mixed methods*, 16-31. <http://hdl.handle.net/1959.9/398587>
- Brusle, T. (2008). Choosing a destination and work migration: Strategies of Nepalese workers in Uttarakhand, Northern India. *Mountain Research and Development*, 28(3-4), 240-247. <https://www.ceslam.org/external-publication/331561115965>
- Brusle, T. (2006, October 29th). *The World upside-down: Nepalese migrants in Northern India*. Martin Choutari, Kathmandu. <https://shs.hal.science/halshs-01694748>
- Buch, T., Schmidt, T.D. & Niebuhr, A. (2009). Cross-border commuting in the Danish-German border region-Integration, institutions and cross-border interaction. *Journal of Border Land Studies* 24(2), 38-54. <https://portal.findresearcher.sdu.dk/da/publications/cross-border-commuting-in-the-danish-german-border-region-integra>
- Castelli, F. (2018). Drivers of migration: why do people move? *Journal of travel medicine*, 1-7. <https://doi.org/10.1093/jtm%2Ftay040>
- Central Bureau of Statistics (2016). *Annual household survey 2015/16*. CBS.
- Central Bureau of Statistics (2014). *Population monograph of Nepal*. CBS.
- Central Bureau of Statistics (CBS). (2012). *Nepal living standard survey 2010/11 (Statistical report)*. Central Bureau of Statistics. <https://cbs.gov.np/>
- Central Bureau of Statistics (2011). *Nepal living standard survey 2010/11*. Central Bureau of Statistics (CBS). <https://cbs.gov.np/>

- Chand, R. (2013). Labour migration as a livelihood strategy in far-east Bhutan: a case study of a marginal Bhutanese community, *HRVATSKI GEOGRAFSKI GLASNIK*, 75 (2), 41-57.
- Chaurasia, C.P. (1978). *Migration of labour in Nepal: Its causes and consequences* [Unpublished M.A, Dissertation]. Central Department of Commerce, T.U.
- Cohen, L., Manion, L., & Morrison, K. (2011). *Research methods in education*. Routledge.
<https://doi.org/10.4324/9780203720967>
- Crawford, M. H., & Campbell, B. C. (Eds.). (2012). *Causes and consequences of human migration: An evolutionary perspective*. Cambridge University Press.
<https://www.amazon.com/Causes-Consequences-Human-Migration-Evolutionary/dp/1107012864>
- Creswell, J. W., & Poth, C. N. (2018). *Qualitative inquiry and research design: Choosing among five approaches*. Sage Publications, Inc.
<https://www.worldcat.org/search?q=no:1311567758>
- Creswell, J. W., & Tashakkori, A. (2007). Differing perspectives on mixed methods research. *Journal of mixed methods research*, 1(4), 303-308.
- Crotty, M. (2020). *The foundations of social research: Meaning and perspective in the research process*. Routledge.
- Crush, J. (2013). Linking food security, migration, and development. *International Migration*, 51(5), 61- 75. <https://onlinelibrary.wiley.com/doi/pdf/10.1111/imig.12097>
- Czaika, M. & Reinprecht, C. (2022). Migration drivers: Why do people migrate? In P. Scholten (ed.), *Introduction to Migration Studies*, IMISCOE Research Series, 49-82.
https://doi.org/10.10007/978-3-030-92377-8_3.
- De Haas, H. (2005). International migration, remittances, and development: myths and facts. *Third World Quarterly*, 26(8), 1269-1284. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1747-7379.2009.00804.x>
- De Jong, G. F., & Gardner, R. W. (Eds.). (2013). *Migration decision making: multidisciplinary approaches to micro-level studies in developed and developing countries*. Elsevier.
- Devkota, J. (2016). Do return migrants use remittances for entrepreneurship in Nepal? *Journal of Economics and Development Studies*, 4(2), 90-100.
<https://doi.org/10.15640/jeds.v4n2a8>

- Di Giovanni, J., Levchenko, A. A., & Ortega, F. (2015). A global view of cross-border migration. *Journal of the European Economic Association*, 13(1), 168-202.
<https://www.doi.org/10.1111/jeea.12110>
- Dowah, C. (2020). *Cross-border labour mobility: Historical and contemporary perspectives*. Palgrave Macmillan. https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-030-36506-6_1.
- Dowah, C. (2020). *Cross-border labour mobility: Theoretical prospective and empirical findings*, 277-375. Palgrave Macmillan. https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-030-36506-6_11.
- Donini, A., Sharma, J. R. & Aryal, S. (2013). *Structural violence and social suffering among marginal Nepali migrants*. Somerville, MA (USA): Feinstein International Center. Strengthening the humanity and dignity of people in crisis through knowledge and practice.
- Eilenberg, M. & Wadley, R.L. (2009). Borderland livelihood strategies: The socio-economic significance of ethnicity in cross-border labour migration, West Kalimantan, Indonesia. *Asia Pacific Viewpoint*, 50 (1), 58-73. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1467-8373.2009.01381.x>
- Ellis, F. (2003, November 5). *A livelihood approach to migration and poverty reduction*. Paper commissioned by the Department for International Development (DFID). University of East Anglia Norwich.
https://www.researchgate.net/publication/228593669_A_Livelihoods_Approach_to_Migration_and_Poverty_Reduction
- Farhana, I. (2018). Cross-border intimacies: Marriage, migration, and citizenship in western India. *Modern Asian Studies* 52(5), 1664–1691. Cambridge University Press.
<https://doi.org/10.1017/S0026749X16000810>
- Fawcett, J. T., & Arnold, F. (1987). The role of surveys in the study of international migration: an appraisal. *International Migration Review*, 21(4), 1523-1540.
<https://doi.org/10.1177/019791838902300314>
- Gautam, T.R. (2012). Causes and impact of migration: A sociological study of emigration from Kandebash, Baglung Nepal. <https://doi.org/10.3126/dsaj.v1i0.285>
- Ghimire, A. (2013). *Changing migration patterns and their impacts on human security in Nepal*. Nepal Institute for Policy Studies and South Asia Regional Coordination Office of NCCR (North South).

- Gill, G. J. (2003). Seasonal labour migration in rural Nepal: A preliminary overview. *'Working Paper 218'*. Overseas Development Institute, UK.
<https://assets.publishing.service.gov.uk/media/57a08cfce5274a31e0001590/wp218.pdf>
- Giovanni, J. di., Levchenko, A.A. & Ortega, F. (2012). A global view of cross-border migration, *Discussion Paper Series CDP No 18/12*. Centre for Research and Analysis of Migration, Department of Economics, University College.
https://julian.digiovanni.ca/Papers/diGiovanni_Levchenko_Ortega_JEEA15.pdf
- GIZ/ILO (2015). *Labour market trends analysis and labour migration from South Asia to Gulf Cooperation Council countries, India, and Malaysia*. GIZ/ILO.
http://www.oit.org/wcmstp5/groups/public/---asia/---ro-bangkok/---ilo-kathmandu/documents/publication/wcms_377416.pdf
- Government of Nepal/ Ministry of Labour, Employment and Social Security (2020). *Nepal labour migration report*. Gov/N.
<https://www.developmentaid.org/api/frontend/cms/file/2020/12/Migration-Report-2020-English.pdf>
- Government of Nepal, Ministry of Labour, Employment and Employment (2016). *Labour migration for employment, a status report for Nepal: 2014/15*. Gov/N.
https://www.ilo.org/kathmandu/whatwedo/publications/WCMS_500311/lang-en/index.htm
- Grimes, A., & Wesselbaum, D. (2019). Moving towards happiness? *International Migration*, 57(3), 20-40. <https://doi.org/10.1111/imig.12546>
- Guba, E. G. (1990). *The paradigm dialog*. SAGE.
- Gurieva, L.K. & Dzhioev, A.V. (2015). Economic theory of labour migration. *Mediterranean Journal of Social Sciences*, 6(6), 101-109. <https://doi.org/10.5901/mjss.2015.v6n6s7p101>
- Gurung, Y. B. (2012). Migration from rural Nepal: A social exclusion framework. *HIMALAYA* 31(1).
<https://digitalcommons.macalester.edu/digitalcommons.macalester.edu/>
- Gurung, H.B. (1984). *Internal and international migration in Nepal*. Material Planning Commission on Population 1984, Kathmandu, Nepal.
- Hatton, T. J. & Williamson, J.G. (1992). *International migration and world development: A historical prospective*. National Bureau of Economic Research Working Paper. Cambridge MA. https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-642-78749-2_1

- Heinz, F. F & Ward-Warmedinger, M. (2006). Cross-border labour mobility within an Enlarged EU (An Occasional paper series). *European Control*, 52, 1-36.
<https://doi.org/10.2139/ssrn.923371>
- Hutt, M. (1998). Going to Muglan: Nepali literary representations of migration to India and Bhutan. *South Asia Research*, 18(2), 195–214.
<https://doi.org/10.1177/026272809801800205>
- ICIMOD (2010). *Labour migration and remittance in Nepal: A case study*. International Centre for Integrated Mountain Development (ICIMOD).
file:///C:/Users/lenovo/Downloads/icimod-labour_migration_and_remittances_in_nepal.pdf
- International Labour Organization (ILO) (2015). *International labour migration statistics: A guide for policy makers and statistics, organization in pacific*.
<https://www.unescap.org/sites/default/files/International%20Labour%20Migration%20Statistics%20Guide.pdf>
- International Labour Organization (ILO) (2012). *Level of international standard classification of occupation ICSO-08*. https://www.ilo.org/wcmsp5/groups/public/---dgreports/---dcomm/---publ/documents/publication/wcms_172572.pdf
- International Organization for Migration (IOM) (2020). *World migration report, 2020*. International Organization for Migration (IOM).
https://publications.iom.int/system/files/pdf/wmr_2020.pdf
- International Organization for Migration (IOM) (2018). *Migration and the 2030 agenda: A guide for practitioners*. IOM, Geneva. <https://migrationdataportal.org/tool/migration-and-2030-agenda-guide-practitioners>
- International Organization for Migration (IOM) (2010). *Economic shocks and human trafficking risks: Evidence from IOM's victims of human trafficking database*. International Organization for Migration (IOM).
<https://www.migrationdataportal.org/resource/economic-shocks-and-human-trafficking-risks-evidence-ioms-victims-human-trafficking>
- Jamshidi, P., Ahmad, A., & Pahl, C. (2013). Cloud migration research: a systematic review. *IEEE transactions on cloud computing*, 1(2), 142-157.
<http://dx.doi.org/10.1109/TCC.2013.10>
- John, K. (2016). *Open borders in European Union and beyond: Migration flows and labour market implecation*. National Bureau of Economic Research.
<http://www.nber.org/papers/w23048>.

- Jones', H. & Basnett, Y. (2013). Foreign employment and inclusive growth in Nepal: What can be done to improve impacts for the people and country? Research and Policy in Development & Centre for Inclusive Growth Practice Solutions for Nepal. ODI (Overseas Development Institute), UK.
<https://www.refworld.org/pdfid/523abb634.pdf>
- Kansakar, V.B.S. (2001). *India-Nepal open border: The nature patterns and social culture implication*. Institute of Foreign Affairs.
[https://www.scirp.org/\(S\(351jmbntvnsjt1aadkozje\)\)/reference/referencespapers.aspx?referenceid=2296149](https://www.scirp.org/(S(351jmbntvnsjt1aadkozje))/reference/referencespapers.aspx?referenceid=2296149)
- Kansakar, V.B.S. (1984). *Indio-Nepal migration: Problem and prospects*. Contribution to Nepalese Studies.
https://himalaya.socanth.cam.ac.uk/collections/journals/contributions/pdf/CNAS_11_02_05.pdf
- Kansakar, V.B.S. (1982). *Emigration,remittances and rural development*, Tribhuvan University, CEDA, Nepal. <https://catalogue.nla.gov.au/Record/1036678>
- Kansakar, V. B .S. (1974). *Population change in Nepal, A study of mobility during 1911-1961*[Unpublished Ph. D. Thesis]. Patna University India.
- Karki, C. (2018, Janurary 1). *Indian construction workers coming to Nepal in drove employment opportunity*. The Kathmandu Post.
<http://kathmandupost.ekantipur.com/news/2018-01-21/Indian-construction-workers-coming-to-Nepal-in-droves-html>
- Kaska, M. & Paas, T.(2013). *Cross-border labour flows from Estonia to neighbouring countries*. The University of Tartu, Faculty of Economics and Business Administration. <http://dx.doi.org/10.2139/ssrn.2270627>
- KC, B. K. (2004). Migration, poverty, and development in Nepal. *Asian and Pacific Migration Journal*.13(2). <https://doi.org/10.1177/011719680401300204>
- K.C, B. K. (1998). *International migration in Nepal: A situational analysis*. CDPS, T.U.
<https://docs.censusnepal.cbs.gov.np/Documents/df799519-c537-4cde-b9c4-1b5239248955.pdf>
- K.C. B. K. (1995). Urbanization and migration in Nepal. *Population and Development in Nepal*, 3, 11-28.

- Khadria, B., Kumar, P., Shantanu, S. & Sharma, R. (2011). *Working paper on international migration and diaspora studies project*. Zakir Husain Centre for Educational Studies. Jawaharlal Nehru University.
http://lib.jnu.ac.in/sites/default/files/pdf/imds_p/working%20paper_34-36.pdf
- Khatri, S. K. (2007, August 9-10). Labour migration, employment and poverty alleviation in South Asia, *Updated Summary of the Proceeding of the Regional Seminar*, jointly organized by South Asia Centre for Policy Studies and Friedrich Elbert Stiftung, Kathmandu, Nepal.
<https://citeseerx.ist.psu.edu/document?repid=rep1&type=pdf&doi=c395619e63429d1e084b479861da76d77960781e>
- Kunwar, L. S. (2018). Process and determinants of cross-border migration of Nepalese people in India. *Tribhuvan University Journal*, 32(1), 167-184.
<file:///C:/Users/lenovo/Downloads/20890.pdf>
- Kunwar, L. S. (2015). Emigration of Nepalese people and its impact. *Economic Journal of Development*, 19&20 (1&2), 77-82. <https://doi.org/10.3126/ejdi.v19i1-2.17705>
- Lamichhane, S. (2018). *A study of labour migration and remittance economy of Nepal; A system dynamics approach* [unpublished M.phil. thesis]. The Department of Geography, University of Bergen. <https://bora.uib.no/bora-xmlui/handle/1956/17784?locale-attribute=no>
- Laura, O., Kaczmarczyk, P. & Salamonska, J. (2022). Labour migration. In P. Scholten (ed.), *Introduction to migration studies*, IMISCOE Research Series, 117-135.
https://doi.org/10.10007/978-3-030-92377-8_7
- Lee, E. S. (1966). *A theory of migration*, *Demography*, 3 (1), 7-13.
<https://doi.org/10.2307/2060063>
- Lokshin, M. and Glinskaya, E. (2007). *The effect of male migration for work on employment patterns of females in Nepal*. Policy Research Working Paper 4757. The World Bank.
<http://hdl.handle.net/10986/6917>
- Malmberg, G. (2021). Time and space in international migration. *International migration, immobility, and development*, 21-48. Routledge.
<https://www.routledge.com/International-Migration-Immobility-and-Development-Multidisciplinary-Perspectives/Hammar-Brochmann-Tamas-Faist/p/book/9781859739761>

- Mamgain, R. P. (2016). *Out-migration from hill region of Uttarakhand: Issues and policy options*. Giri Institute of Development Studies.
http://nirdpr.org.in/nird_docs/srsc/srsc-rr-090518-5.pdf
- Massey, D.S. et al., (1993). Theories of international migration: A review and appraisal. *Population and Development Review*, 19 (3), 461-466.
<https://doi.org/10.2307/2938462>
- McDougal, C. (1968). *Village and household survey in Far Western Nepal*. CNAS.
- McKenzie, D., & Rapoport, H. (2007). Network effects and the dynamics of migration and inequality: Theory and evidence from Mexico. *Journal of Development Economics*, 84(1), 1-24. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jdeveco.2006.11.003>
- Ministry of External Affairs/Government of India (1950). India-Nepal treaty of peace and friendship. <https://mea.gov.in/bilateraldocuments.htm?dtl/6295/Treaty+of+Peace+and+Friendship>
- MoLESS (2020). *Migration report 2020*. Ministry of Labour, Employment and Social Security (MoLESS).
<https://www.developmentaid.org/api/frontend/cms/file/2020/12/Migration-Report-2020-English.pdf>
- Nandini, A. (1999). *Engendered mobilization- the key to livelihood security: IFAD's experiences in South Asia*. Rome: IFAD. https://ic-sd.org/wp-content/uploads/2019/11/Prakriti_Sharma.pdf
- Nayak, N. (2010). India–Nepal peace and friendship treaty (1950): Does it require revision? *Strategic Analysis*, 34(4), 579-593. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1080/09700161003802778>
- Nicander, J. (2015). *The impact of migration and remittances in the Nepali society: Analysis of the migration process in Nepal* [Unpublished Ph.D. Thesis], Lund University.
<https://lup.lub.lu.se/luur/download?func=downloadFile&recordOId=5463257&fileOId=5463258>
- NIDS & World Bank (2009). *Nepal migration survey*. Nepal Institute of Development Studies (NIDS).
https://www.ceslam.org/uploads/backup/Survey_Migration_History_Nepal.pdf
- NPC. (2019). *The fifteenth five year plan (2019/20-2023/24)*. National Planning Commission, Government of Nepal.
https://www.npc.gov.np/images/category/15th_plan_English_Version.pdf

- Nepal Rastra Bank (2009). Remittance in flow. Kathmandu: Nepal Rastra Bank.
https://www.nrb.org.np/contents/uploads/2021/02/Internatnional_Flow_of_Financial_Resources-I.pdf
- Neuman, W. L. (2016). *Social research methods: Quantitative and qualitative approaches*. Pearson.
[https://www.scirp.org/\(S\(lz5mqp453edsnp55rrgjt55\)\)/reference/ReferencesPapers.aspx?ReferenceID=2131204](https://www.scirp.org/(S(lz5mqp453edsnp55rrgjt55))/reference/ReferencesPapers.aspx?ReferenceID=2131204)
- Pant, B. (n.d.). Remittance inflow to Nepal: economic impact and policy options. *Economic Review*. Nepal Rastra Bank. <https://www.nrb.org.np/er-article/remittance-inflows-to-nepal-economic-impact-and-policy/>
- Panthee, Sundar. (2012). Remittance to Nepal: Option and modality.
- Paulo, P. & Romano, O. (2015). Immigrants and cross-border workers in the U.S.-Mexico border region. *Frontera Norte*, 27 (53), 5-30.
https://www.researchgate.net/publication/276075668_Immigrants_and_Cross-Border_Workers_in_the_US-Mexico_Border_Region
- Piche, V. (2014). Theories of migration. @-migrinter, 12, 108-111. <https://doi.org/10.4000/e-migrant.348>
- Piche, V. (2013). Lee's théories migratoires contemporaines au prisme des texts fondateurs. *Population*, 68, 153-178. <https://doi.org/10.3917/popu.1301.0153>
- Piper, N. (2017). Migration and the SDGs. *Global Social Policy*, 17(2), 231-238.
<https://journals.sagepub.com/doi/full/10.1177/1468018117703443>
- Piya, L. & Joshi, N. (2016). Migration and remittance in Nepal: A review of the push-pull factors and socioeconomic issues. *Journal of Contemporary India Studies: Space and Society*, 6, 41-53. https://home.hiroshima-u.ac.jp/hindas/PDF/2015/04_piya.pdf
- Ponterotto, J.G. (2005). Qualitative research in counseling psychology: A primer on research paradigms and philosophy of science. *Journal of Counselling Psychology*, 52(2), 126-136. <https://doi.org/10.1037/0022-0167.52.2.126>
- Ravenstein, E. H. (1895). The laws of migration. *Journal of the Royal Statistical Society*, 49, 241-305. <https://escholarship.org/uc/item/3018p230>
- Roy, A.K, Singh, P. & Roy, U. (2015). Impact of rural-urban labour migration on education of children: A case study of left behind and accompanied migrants' children in India. *Space and Culture, India*, 2 (4), 17. <http://dx.doi.org/10.20896/saci.v2i4.74>
- Salimano, A. & Pollack, M. (2004). *International mobility of the highly skilled: The case between Europe and Latin America*. Working paper, series no. 1.
https://www.researchgate.net/publication/228830698_International_Mobility_of_the_Highly_Skilled_The_case_between_Europe_and_Latin_America

- Samuels, F., Nino-Zarazue, M., Wagle, S., Sultana, T. & Sultana, M. M (2011). *Vulnerabilities of movement: Cross-border mobility between India, Nepal, and Bangladesh*. Background Note (November). Overseas Development Institute.
https://www.researchgate.net/publication/318379972_Vulnerabilities_of_movement_cross_border_mobility_between_India_Nepal_and_Bangladesh
- Sati, V. P. (2016). Patterns and implications of rural-urban migration in the Uttarakhand himalaya. *Annals of Natural Science*, 2(1), 26-27.
https://www.researchgate.net/publication/305777030_Patterns_and_Implications_of_Rural-Urban_Migration_in_the_Uttarakhand_Himalaya_India
- Seddon, D., Adhikari, J., Gurung, G. (2002). Foreign labour migration and the remittance economy of Nepal. *Critical Asian Studies*, 34(1), 19–40.
<https://doi.org/10.1080/146727102760166581>
- Seddon, D., Adhikari, J., Gurung, G. (2001). *The New lahures: Foreign employment and remittance economy of Nepal*. NIDS. <https://searchworks.stanford.edu/view/5570160>
- Shah, N. M., & Menon, I. (1999). Chain migration through the social network: experience of labour migrants in Kuwait. *International migration*, 37(2), 361-382.
<https://doi.org/10.1111/1468-2435.00076>
- Shahi, M.B. (2005). *International labour migration from Bajhang to India: A Case Study of Lamatola VDC, Bajhang District, Nepal*, [Unpublished MA Dissertation], Central Department of Geography, T.U. Kirtipur.
<https://elibrary.tucl.edu.np/bitstream/123456789/9092/2/Chapter%20page%283%29.pdf>
- Sharma, B. (2017). Socio-economic problems of remittance economy: The case of Nepal. *Journal of Advanced Management Science*, 5 (4). University of New Brunswick.
<http://dx.doi.org/10.18178/joams.5.4.285-290>
- Sharma, S., Thapa, D. (2013). *Taken for granted Nepali migration to India (working paper III)*. Center for the Study of Labour and Mobility, Kathmandu supported by Open Society Foundation, New York.
<https://www.ceslam.org/uploads/backup/Taken%20for%20Granted%20Nepai%20Migration%20to%20India.pdf>
- Sharma, J. R., Sharma, S. (2011). *Enumerating migration in Nepal: A review*. CESLAM working paper I, Center for the Study of Labour and Mobility. Kathmandu.
https://www.ceslam.org/uploads/backup/Survey_Migration_History_Nepal.pdf

- Shrestha, M. (2017). The impact of large scale migration on poverty, expenditure and labour market outcomes in Nepal. *Policy Research Working Paper*, World Bank and Social Protection and Labour Global Practice Group.
<https://openknowledge.worldbank.org/handle/10986/28625>
- Sijapati, B., Bhattarai, A. & Pathak, D. (2015). *Analysis of Labour Market and Migration Trends in Nepal*. GIZ/ILO.
<file:///C:/Users/lenovo/Downloads/Analysis%20of%20La%20bour%20Market%20and.pdf>
- Sijapati, B., Mak, J., Zimmerman, C., & Kiss, L. (2019). Nepali women's labour migration: Between protection and prescription. *Migration Letters*, 16(4), 611–624.
<https://doi.org/10.33182/ml.v16i4.847>
- Sjoberg, A. (2017). *Contemporary migration in Canada*. Global Equality, Heather Mackay: Umea University. <https://doi.org/10.1080/13691830600554817>
- Solimano, A. & Pollack, M. (2004). *International mobility of the highly skilled: The case between Europe and Latin America*. Working paper, series no. 1.
https://www.researchgate.net/publication/228830698_International_Mobility_of_the_Highly_Skilled_The_case_between_Europe_and_Latin_America
- Srivastav, R. (2011). Labour migration in India, recent trends, patterns and policy issues. *Indian Journal of Labour Economics*, 54 (3), 411-440.
<https://www.econbiz.de/Record/labour-migration-in-india-recent-trends-patterns-and-policy-issues-srivastava-ravi/10009502028>
- Subba, T.B. (2003). *Nepal and the Indian Nepalis (state of Nepal)*. Himal Books Publication 5th printing, Lalitpur Nepal.
- Subedi, B. P. (2003). International labour migration from Nepal: Emerging pattern and trends. In Ishikawa, Yoshitaka (ed.), *Comprehensive changes in migration in Asia and Pacific region*, 252-271. Kyoto University.
<https://elibrary.tucl.edu.np/bitstream/123456789/6033/2/Chapter.pdf>
- Subedi, B. P. (1991). International migration in Nepal towards an analytical framework. *Contribution to Nepalese Studies*, 18 (1), 83-102. CNAS, TU.
<file:///C:/Users/lenovo/Downloads/6906.pdf>
- Suliman, S. (2017). Migration and development after 2015. *Globalizations*, 14(3), 415-431.
<https://doi.org/10.1080/14747731.2017.1281625>
- Suwal, B.R. (2020). *Applied survey sampling*. Heritage publishers and distributors.

- Tellez, E.A. & Mendoza, C.R. (2011). Migration from Mexico to the United States: Wage benefits of crossing the border and going to the U.S. interior. *Politics & Policy*, 39 (1), 119-140.
<http://eprints.uanl.mx/7456/1/Migration%20from%20Mexico%20to%20the%20United%20States%20Wage%20Benefits%20of%20Crossing%20the%20Border%20and%20Going%20to%20the%20US%20Interior.pdf>
- Thapa, R., Yadav, Y.K. (2015). Rural labour migration in India: Magnitude and characteristics. *International Journal of Applied Research*, 1(2), 114-118.
<https://www.shram.org/uploadFiles/20170824020611.pdf>
- Thieme, S. & Muller-Boker, U. (2010). Social networks and migration: women's livelihoods between far-west Nepal and Delhi. *European Bulletin of Himalayan Research*, 3536, 107-211.
https://himalaya.socanth.cam.ac.uk/collections/journals/ebhr/pdf/EBHR_35&36_08.pdf
- Thieme, S. (2006). *Social networks and migration: Far west Nepalese labour migrants in Delhi*. Munster: LIT publishing house.
https://www.researchgate.net/publication/236208871_Thieme_Susan_2006_Social_Networks_and_Migration_Far_West_Nepalese_Labour_Migrants_in_Delhi_Series_on_Culture_Society_Environment_Vol_7_LIT_Publishing_House_Munster-Hamburg-London_270pp
- Thieme, S., Bhattarai, R., Gurung, G., Kollmair, M., Manandhar, S. and Muller-Boker, U. (2005). Addressing the needs of Nepalese migrant workers in Nepal and in Delhi, India. *Mountain Research and Development*, 25 (2), 109-114.
<http://www.bioone.org/doi/pdf/10.1659/0276-4741%282005%29025%5B0109%3AATNONM%5D2.0.CO%3B2>
- Thieme, S., Muller-Boker, U. (2004). Financial self- help associations among Far-west Nepalese labour migrants in Delhi, India. *Asian and Pacific Migration Journal*, 13(3). University of Zurich. <https://doi.org/10.1177/011719680401300303>
- Thieme, S. and Wyss, S. (2005) Migration patterns and remittance transfer in Nepal: A case study of Sainik Basti in western Nepal. *International Migration*, 43, 59-98.
<http://dx.doi.org/10.1111/j.1468-2435.2005.00342.x>
- Thornton, G. (2016). *Overseas migration patterns from India, A detailed report*. India: Grant Thornton India LLP.
http://www.nsd.gov.in/research/NSDC%20Migration_Feb%2018.pdf
- Upreti, B.C. (2008). *The India-Nepal open border: Nature, issues and problems*. Himalaya Frontiers of India (1st Edition). Routledge.
<https://www.taylorfrancis.com/chapters/edit/10.4324/9780203887325-16/india%E2%80%93nepal-open-border-nature-issues-problems-upreti>

- Uprety, D. (2017). The impact of remittance on economic growth in Nepal. *Journal of Development Innovations*, 1(1), 114-134. Karma Quest International.
<https://econpapers.repec.org/scripts/redir.pf?u=https%3A%2F%2Fwww.karmaquest.org%2Fjournal%2Findex.php%2FILGDI%2Farticle%2Fview%2F14%2F13;h=repec:kqi:journl:2017-1-1-6>
- United Nations (2017). *International migration report 2017: Highlights*. Department of Economic and Social Affairs. United Nations (UN).
https://www.un.org/en/development/desa/population/migration/publications/migrationreport/docs/MigrationReport2017_Highlights.pdf
- UN DESA (2019). *The International migration 2019 report*.
<https://www.un.org/development/desa/en/news/population/latest-migration-trends-revealed.html>
- United Nations Development Programme (UNDP) (2020). *Human development report. 2020*. The Next Frontier. <https://hdr.undp.org/content/human-development-report-2020>
- United Nations Development Programme (UNDP) (2020). *Global human development report*.
<https://hdr.undp.org/content/human-development-report-2020?>
- Waldinger, R. (2017). A cross-border perspective on migration: beyond the assimilation/transnationalism debate. *Journal of ethnic and migration studies*, 43(1), 3-17. <https://doi.org/10.1080/1369183X.2016.1238863>
- Walmsley, T., Aguiar, A., & Ahmed, S.A. (2017). Labour migration and economic growth in East and South Asia. *The World Economy*, 40 (1), 116-139.
<http://hdl.handle.net/10986/16858>
- Weiner, M. (1973). Political demography of Nepal. *Asian Survey*, 13(6), 617-630.
<https://doi.org/10.2307/2642967>
- Weiner, M. (1985). An International migration and international relations. *Population and Development Review*, 11(3), 441-455. <https://doi.org/10.1177/019791838902300315>
- WFP (World Food Programme) Nepal (2008). *Passage to India: Migration as a coping strategy in times of crisis in Nepal*. WFP and NDRI (Nepal Development Research Institute).
<http://arks.princeton.edu/ark:/88435/dsp01h989r334g>
- World Bank (2016). *Migration and remittance factbook*.
<https://openknowledge.worldbank.org/bitstream/handle/10986/23743/9781464803192.pdf>
- World Bank (2016). *Moving up the ladder: Poverty reduction and social mobility in Nepal*. Washington, DC: World Bank. <http://hdl.handle.net/10986/25173>
- World Bank (2011). *Large-scale migration and remittances in Nepal: Issues, challenges, and opportunities*. Poverty Reduction and Economic Management Sector Unit, South Asia Region, World Bank, 130.
<https://documents1.worldbank.org/curated/en/338751509560708416/pdf/WPS8232.pdf>
- Yamane, T. (1967). *Statistics, an introductory analysis*; 2nd Ed.; Harper and Row.
<https://www.gbv.de/dms/zbw/252560191.pdf>