

CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

1.1 Background

Migration has been an integral part of human civilization, (Adler, and Gielen,2002). Millions of people from around the world are leaving their usual place of residence to fulfill such needs as seeking better employment opportunities, securing their basic needs, visiting a new place, education and marriage opportunities. This migratory behavior of people has contributed to a change in traditional boundaries between language, culture, and ethnic group, within both territories. Thus it is an evolving process that affects not only the migrants but also the lives of individuals in both origin and destination countries (Castles, 2000, Wyss, 2003, Wagenknecht,2007).

Migration across the border to India has historically been a significant feature of household livelihoods in the middle hills of Nepal. 'An important aspect of the relationship between India and Central Nepal is the close connection arising from the stringencies of hill agriculture on the one hand and the cash value of Indian employment on the other' (Hitchcock,1961: 15). The first wave of migration began in 18th and 19th centuries when the state policies and agrarian changes forced peasants in the hills to move out of their land and seek their livelihoods elsewhere, both within Nepal and across the border into India (Regmi, 1978).

Foreign labour migration has a long history in Nepal. It started even before the early 19th century, when the first Nepalese traveled to the Lahore to join the army of sikh ruler Ranjit Singh earning themselves – and all these after words employed abroad the nick name “Lahure”and well before the recruitment of the first Nepali to the British “Gorkha”in 1815-16.but even though Nepali labour migrants abroad have been bringing or sending some of their earnings as remittances back to their families for around 200 years, surprisingly little interest has been paid policy makers and significance of the remittances and pension that flow back to Nepal as a result employment abroad at least five years (Seddon, with Adhikari, and Gurung 1996).

Male labour migration across the border to India forms an important livelihood strategy among households in middle hills in Nepal (Hutt, 1998; Pfaff-Czarnecka,

1995; Seddon, Adhikari and Gurung,2002). Hardly any area in the hills of Nepal remains untouched by the practice of young men's outflow to India or, increasingly in the recent years, to various global destinations. In the villages and towns throughout the region people often say that there is no one left in the villages but the old people, women and little children. While this does not mean that all young men out-migrate; the historical practice of out-migration combined with higher aspiration among the younger generation to leave rural villages in search of employment and associated opportunities to participate in consumption activities in cities and towns, often means that those who stay back are equally affected by 'culture of migration' (Cohen,2004). The concept of 'culture of migration' adequately captures the pervasive nature of migration in the middle hills that has long remained a historical practice among the village households. Furthermore, migration decision is a part of everyday life experience, and households consider migration as one of the key strategies of managing their livelihoods, although not everyone migrates.

Migration to India is a very common practice among the poorer households in the western hills of Nepal (Brusle, 2007; Pfaff-Czarnecka, 1995; Thieme, 2006). Data from 2001 census showed that 95 per cent of migrants from mid-west and 99 per cent from far-west Nepal went to India. Migration to India is circulatory in nature. The practice of migration to work in India starts often at a younger age, and many continue to travel back and forth until they are old.

Young men migrate to various destinations in India. The most common destinations from the western hills include: Delhi, Mumbai, Bangalore, Pune, Ludhiana, Amritsar and Almora, Nainital and Pithoragarh. Over the years, social networks and inheritance have played a crucial role in sustaining the migration circle between the origin villages in western hills and specific destinations in India (Brusle, 2008; Thieme, 2006). Except for some adult men who work in government, police or army, most young migrants work in menial and low-paid jobs in the service, manufacturing and agricultural sector.

A livelihood comprises the capabilities, assets (including both material and social resources) and activities required for a means of living. A livelihood is sustainable when it can cope with and recover from stresses and shocks,

maintain or enhance its capabilities and assets, while not undermining the natural resource base (Chambers and Conway, 1992).

Livelihood is more than just income (Lipton and Maxwell, 1992). Income refers to the cash earnings of the household plus payments in kind that can be valued at market prices. The cash earnings component of income includes items like crop or livestock sales, wages, rents, and remittances. The in-kind component of income refers to consumption of own farm produce, payments in kind (for example, in food), and transfers or exchanges of consumption items that occur between households in rural communities.

A livelihood encompasses income, both cash and in kind, as well as the social institutions (kin, family, compound, village and so on), gender relations, and property rights required to support and to sustain a given standard of living. Social and kinship networks are important for facilitating and sustaining diverse income portfolios (Berry, 1989; 1993: Ch.7; Hart, 1995; Bryceson, 1996).

1.2 Statement of the Problem

Globalization, modernization and development of new science and technology have given rise to the phenomenon of seasonal labour migration. Many adverse situations such as poverty, landlessness, unemployment, poor household, illiteracy push rural people for seasonal labour migration to different parts of India as an unskilled and low wage labour in road construction, coalmine, porter, domestic work, manual and agricultural farm work.

The age-old practice of young men travelling to work in India was simply considered a thing to do as a part of managing the livelihoods of their households. Thus, the first thing to be said about this movement to India from the perspective of households in the middle hills is that there is nothing exceptional about this practice (Sharma, 2008). A more interesting question to consider is under what conditions do young men take decisions to migrate? Environmental, agrarian and socio-economic fragility in the hills of Nepal shape the context in which these decisions are made but it provides very little insights into the actual process of decision-making from the young men's perspective. At the same time a rational economic

approach to migration tends to isolate economic decision-making, and consequently does not analyze the cultural, gendered and social contexts in which these decisions are made. young men's migration to India shows that economic compulsions seem quite essential in determining choices they make about migration but choices are far more complex, embedded in socio-cultural norms, meanings and expectation.

Migration to India is subsistence in nature; it does not help in the upward social mobility of the households but it helps the household to manage their everyday survival (Pfaff-Czarnecka, 1995). Because migration to India is not expensive, it is accessible to the poorer households. Although the monetary returns are not significant, it is a major source of livelihoods for the poorer households living in marginal areas, who have established livelihoods networks in various parts of India.

Being unskilled the innocent and illiterate Nepalis inter to India as a seasonal labour migrant in various form of work in farm and nonfarm sectors. Due to the stagnant economy and the trend of external migration likely to increase and necessities of basic needs like food, clothes and shelter have to fulfill through seasonal migration.

The very few numbers of research studies on the seasonal labour to India has been done on the case of eastern, western, central, mid and far western hills of Nepal. But this is the context of carrying out research on seasonal migration to India from the mid-western terai Banke of Nepal. As a research studies researcher is focusing the studies based on the following question:

1. What are the patterns of the seasonal labour migration?
2. What are the causesof seasonal labour migration?
3. What is the impact of seasonal labour migration on the livelihood strategy of the migrants?

1.3 Objectives

The general objective of the study is to examine the seasonal labour migration pattern and its impacts on the livelihood of the migrants. The specific objectives are:

1. To trace the patterns of seasonal labour migration.

2. To find out the causes of seasonal labour migration.
3. To assess the impact of seasonal labour migration on livelihood the situation based on the use of remittances, knowledge and skills obtained at the destination.

1.4 Propositions

Seasonal migration is also known as circulatory migration especially emphasized on the movement of people in search of the resources and high income without leaving their origin permanently. They frequently commuted to work place or destination for the seasonal work and return back after 6 months to 1 year or so with some remittance. Seasonal migration that is undertaken to improve the economic position of the household, or accumulate emigration, is also being noted by recent research. Based on the above mentioned objectives here are three propositions:

1. Seasonal labour migration has increased and more youth and old age people are participating in this migration activity. The form of migration helps to increase to the household income of the seasonal migrants. The increased household income turn resulted in to improvement of household assets.
2. When the economic prosperity of the household dooms as a result of shrinking work opportunities at the local market fails, a tendency to seek work outside home became natural. This is a view of maintaining of livelihood. The lack of opportunity and failure reinforced the involvement in the seasonal labour migration to India.
3. Remittance entered the household from seasonal labour migration. But together with remittance, the expenditure and consumption pattern of households increased.

1.5 Significances of the Study

Research studies on the seasonal labour migration and livelihood has been extremely limited. No any research studies have been done on “Seasonal Labour Migration to India” from the terai belt of Nepal. A number of studies about the seasonal labour migration are available in sociological perspective from the hill migration to the India. Similarly, there are number of studies about the migration of people from the

prospective of permanent migration, but here researcher has going to do the study of by the demographic prospective linking the seasonal labour migration and livelihood of the rural people.

A numbers of variables may affect the livelihood of the people. Seasonal labour migration is one of the most crucial independent variables among other for better livelihood. This research study can help better to understand the consequences of seasonal labour migration of the rural people and the livelihood in both positive and negative.

Policy maker can benefit since this will generate knowledge on the links between migration and livelihood among the rural people, one of the most overlooked area of research and policy at micro level.

In this regards, the findings of this report may represent a situation of other low economic class people of the rural society involve in seasonal labour migration.

1.6 Organization of the Study

This study is organized in to six chapters. Onehas presented the introduction that included background of the study, statement of the problem, objectives, proposition, significance, and organization of the study. Chapter two presented a brief review of literature related to seasonal labour migration and livelihood. The literatures both theoretical and empirical are presented in the form of global, regional and national context. The significant conceptual framework for seasonal labour migration and livelihood scanned from the study of various literatures has also presented in this chapter. The appropriate methodology is presented in chapter three. It contained selection of study area, sample size, research design, nature and source of data, data collection techniques, and method of data analysis. The chapter also presents the limitation of the study and operational definition of the words used in the text. Chapter four will explore the patterns of seasonal labour migrants. Chapter fivediscussed about the causes of being seasonal labour migrant and assessed the impact of seasonal labour migration on livelihood situation based on the use of remittances, knowledge and skills, child education, occupation, property, nature of experiences, assets, history and cultural change in the terms of livelihood framework.

Finally, chapter six consist the summary, conclusion, recommendations and future research issues for the further research.

1.7 Chapter Summary

This is a research study in terms of seasonal labour migration for better livelihood. In the area of migration, most of the research studies are highly biased to the issue of volume, trends, stream, cause and its consequences in terms of permanent migration but this study is encouraged to study the impact of seasonal labour migration on the livelihood of the people. It outlines scientific understanding of knowledge on proposed study. The research problem is identified on the basis on research problem of the study which has for crucial objectives. During the fulfillment of these objectives the study has formulated three propositions that aimed to be proved. Beside it, this chapter carefully addressed the significance of the study.

CHAPTER TWO

LITERATURE REVIEW

This chapter presents theoretical and empirical literature review of theseasonal labour migration and its impact on the family.

2.1 Historical Trend of Migration

During the early 18th century the central Himalayan region was divided among small kingdoms. Towards the latter half of the 18th century, the kingdom of Gorkha, a relatively poor one, began expanding under the leadership of king Prithvi Narayan Shah and in seven years annexed territories five hundred times larger than itself (Onta and Tamang, 2014:287). It was often this period of expansion that Nepal had its first institutionalized experience without migration.

Nepali men developed a reputation abroad as reliable workers because of their role in the British Gurkha army. It was after the Anglo Nepal war of 1814-1816 that the British discovered the Gorkha,(Pemble, 1971). In the often math of this war, the Treaty of Sugauli was ratified, through which Nepals size was reduced to more or less its current territory (Onta,and Tamang, 2014). The war marked the end of Nepali expansionist period. However, this war gave Nepali soldiers a good reputation among British. Their reputation for endurance and reliability has continued until today. Many international companies want Nepali people to work for them, because Nepalis are considered to be hard working and trustworthy. Regardless of the veracity of these perceptions, they create a favorable market for Nepali to obtain job abroad.

Working for the East India Company however was not only way in which Nepalis were employed in India. After the end of British Colonial rule, Nepalis continued to descend from the hills in to the Indian plains for seasonal employment. Low skilled Nepali migration to India was, until very recently the preferred form, of migration. Nepalis are employed in the private sector as security guards, domestic workers, and manual labourers in mines, tea plantation and dairy farms (Sharma, and Thapa, 2013).

The movement of people between India and Nepal became increasingly popular after the 1950 “Treaty of peace and friendship” between the two countries. The treaty

allowed for faster and simple travel across the border, while at the same time making it difficult to estimate the exact number of Nepali working in India. Estimates differ widely, ranging from few million (Kollimar, 2006). The difficulty of accurately estimating the number of Nepalis in India is due to the high mobility of Nepali workers, the prevalence of cross border marriages, the significant population of Indians with historical roots in Nepal, and the many Nepalis who have managed to gain domiciled status in India without it being recorded in either country, (Sharma, and Thapa 2013).

Migration to India was prevalent form of migration until the 1980s, when the appearance of rapidly developing economies of the West, East and South East Asia, driven by the oil boom of the 1970s, created thousands of job in the construction and industrial sector. These economies turned to huge masses of low skilled South and South East Asian workers for labour supply. Nepal's case is not unique, as many other countries in the region like India, Bangladesh, Srilanka, Indonesia and Philippines are also involved in this labour practice. Because of its lowest cost, migration from Nepal to India is still common and significant as many Nepal to India is still cannot afford to go to the new, more popular destinations of Gulf Countries and Malaysia (Sharma, and Thapa, 2013). However, people who are able to pay the costs of overseas migration prefer doing this, mostly due to higher rate of remittances this kind of migration enables.

Labour migration is by no means a recent phenomenon in Nepali society. Young men have left the country to be part of foreign armies or to work abroad, mainly in India, for several generations. What is new, however, is the growth in number of men and women who leaves the country today. While in 2009, between 700 to 800 workers left Nepal every day for destinations other than India (Brusle, 2009) in 2014 the daily estimate was 2,000 people (Washington post 2014). Migrants' destinations have also expanded, as it has become easier for workers to obtain jobs in Asian countries outside of the Indian subcontinent. As a result, Nepalis are in constant interaction with foreign societies, either personally or indirectly through a migrant family member. While understanding the economic impact of remittances allows us to qualify Nepali's economic development, studying the cultural impact of migration on both the person who leaves Nepal and the stay-behind family sheds light on social changes

accelerated by the transfer of money and people between communities of the developing and developed world.

The census of 1942 was conducted in February during the period of world 2 Nepal also sent its own troops to assist the allied forces and they seemed to have not been recorded in the census. The largest number of population absent was from the western hill with 71,059 persons accounting for 2.79 percent of total population and if the males are to be counted the figure must be double the largest number of migration from the Eastern Hills were the Rais and Limbu ethnic groups. The census seems to have not recorded the Nepal troops sent from Nepal in different fronts to assist the allied forces and might have been included only those who went abroad for service (livelihood).

The emigration from Nepal was characterized by universal phenomena of preponderance of males accounting for 87.8 percent of the total population. The total person emigrated abroad as revealed by the census of 1942/45 and 1961 were 198120 and 328470 respectively. As far the major sources of emigrants from Nepal was the hill region accounting to 95.9 percent of the total emigrants in 1952 /54 and 92.9 percent in 1961 and the percent decrease does not mean decrease in absolute number. The number of emigrants from western hill increased from 96639 persons in 1962/64 to 150502 persons or 55.7 percent. Emigration from Nepal to foreign countries continued to increase in all regions (Kansakar, 1974: 68-69).

The countries of destination of population absent abroad were India, Malaya, Burma, China and Tibet, Pakistan. As usual, because of the open border between Nepal and India, largest number of emigrant destination was India accounting for 79.4 percent of the total emigrants. The second largest number of emigrant's their destination in Malaya. After the independence of India and subsequent of sharing of Gorkha army in India between India and United Kingdom, the British established main camp for the British Gurkha troops in Malaya. Mover over during Communist insurgency in Malaya, the British recruited large number of Nepalese in British Gurkha army from 1948 to 1956 (Kansakar, 1982:96). Beside this since early period, Nepalese were working as plantation labourers in plantation areas in rubber, sugar and palm cultivation in Malaya. These were the reasons of migration of Nepalese in Malaya,

Burma and represented the third largest destination of Nepalese emigrants, but it was the largest destination of Nepalese after India, because Burma is adjacent to India, while Thailand lies between Burma and Malaya. Thus when Malaya became the main station of British Gurkhas and the accompanying recruitment of Nepalese during the period of emergently between 1948 to 1956, Malaya emerged as a second important destination of Nepalese emigrants. Emigrants to China and Tibet represent mainly the trades, while those in Pakistan might represent those that had gone to East Pakistan now Bangladesh. In Thai land also there are Nepalese in certain important market places in Bangkok and they are citizen of neither Thailand nor Nepal. The Thai Government considers them as illegal migrants.

Similarly in 1991 also, the destination of over whelming proportion of emigrants from Nepal was India with a total of 5872434 persons or an increase of 212047 persons or 56.5 percent and accounting for 89.21 percent of the total emigrants from Nepal. Source, 1981: population census of Nepal 1981.

In the census of 2001 the total number of emigrants from Nepal has slightly increased from 587243 persons in 1991 to 589050 in 2001, an increases of 1807 person or 0.3 percent only, and the Nepalese emigrants to India as percent of the total emigrants has gone down from 89.21 percent in 1991 to 77.28 percent in 2001. This indicates the increasing trend of emigration of Nepalese beyond India to other countries. The second largest destination of the Nepalese emigrants was Saudi Arabia, which accounted for 8.85 percent of the total emigrants followed by Qatar and United Arab Emirates. The total number of Nepalese emigrants of Gulf countries including other countries like Kuwait, UAE and Bahrain accounted for 16 percent of total. Hongkong is the fourth largest destination of the Nepalese emigrants followed by Japan, Korea and China and the Nepalese emigrants to these East Asian Countries together accounted for 2.83 percent the sixth largest destination of the Nepalese emigrants and the UK represents the fifth largest destination. Source population census: 2001.

Recently, Nepal has observed a rapid increase of absent population over census periods. In the 2001 census, 762,181 persons were reported to be absent. The figure went up to 1,921,494, more than doubled in 2011. The emigration rate for 2011 is estimated at 10.77 per thousand populations, whereas the immigration rate for the

same period stands at 0.46 per thousand populations. The gross migration rate and the net migration rate are respectively calculated as 11.23 and -10.32 per thousand populations.

The 2011 census also recorded households with absent populations. The data revealed that, one in every four households (25.42%; 1.38 million households) reported that at least one member of their household was absent or living out of the country.

The percentage of absent population going to India sharply decreased in 2011, from 77% in 2001 to 38% in 2011. However, the volume of absent population going to India has increased, from 589,050 in 2001 to 722,256 in 2011, which is an increment of 1.2%. One of the reasons for the dramatic percentage decrease is the growing number of youths tending to go to other countries. Among the total absentees in India, 605,869 (83.9%) were males whereas 116,362 (16.1%) were females.

A total of 1,178,926 people went to other countries except India, approximately over three-fifths (61.4%). Among them, 1,062,755 (90.1%) were males and the remaining 116,171 (9.9%) were females. The status of destination of the remaining 20, 312 (1.1%) of absentees is not known of which 4,865 (24%) are females.

According to the NLSS III 2011, near about 20 percent people are out of their usual residence and they are out of usual residence for their better life. Out of total migrants 30 percent are male and 11 percent are females. Through female are more moveable in short term and male are in long run. The male migration is 2 fold higher than female this is to foreign labour migration of male migrants in foreign countries. Its great challenge that 52.8 percent households having one or more migrant either in or out of country.

Movement of human beings in search of resources, for foods and shelter is as old as their history of origin. The social mobility denotes any long term change in the social position of an individual or family (Kerning, 1973).

Migration has become an important livelihood strategy for many poor groups across the world. While it is no panacea for the poor it can bring many benefits and this is being recognized in some policy and research circles. For example, a recent club du

Sahel report states unequivocally “population mobility is a necessary condition of sustainable development and poverty alleviation in west Africa. Any policy program or action which tend to restrain mobility or to provide incentive for people to stay on their land would, in the long run, lead to unmanageable situations”. Similarly for Asia, based secondary data from Bangladesh, China, Vietnam, and Philippines, Anh, (2003) concludes that migration is a driver of growth and an important route out of poverty with significant positive impacts on people’s livelihoods and wellbeing. Anh argues attempts to control mobility will be counterproductive. Afsar, (2003) also argues that migration has reduced poverty directly and indirectly in Bangladesh as remittances have expanded the area under cultivation and rural labour markets by making land available for tenancy. Ping (2003) draws attention to the huge contribution of migrant labour to overly development in China and says “without migration there would be no Beijing, Shanghai, Guangzhou or Shenzhen”. The potential of migration is also attracting attention in Latin America: Anderson, (2002) argues that rural-urban migration can bring many benefits to Bolivia where the low population density, poverty and mountainous terrain makes expensive and difficult to provide services in rural areas.

2.2 Concept of Livelihood Strategy

In the case of migration, it is not only those who migrate but also those who do not who are affected by migration, and this includes both the family members remain behind and the people in the receiving area. They all have to renegotiate their positions and needs; this can open up new opportunities but can also reinforce or create new power imbalances. The Theory of Practice does not just assess the valuation of various forms of capital therefore, but also explores how such valuations are reached (also Kelly, & Lusi, 2006).

Migrants often lack power, and powerlessness is very closely linked to vulnerability. Despite the positive experiences and the possibilities they might have of earning an income, migrants also have to deal with risks. Although migrants are not the poorest of the poor and do not have to struggle for daily survival, they are vulnerable and seem to live ‘on the edge’ (Ellis, 2003). There is only a small distance between being able to survive and thrive and suddenly no longer being able to. For a majority of migrants,

power relations within their group do change to a certain extent. Nevertheless, most of them lack the extensive social capital, as well as cultural and economic capital, to change their power relations as a group, safeguard their basic rights and protect themselves from exploitation and conflict. Migrants have found economic and social niches, but as the majority of them do not acquire new skills, it would appear that their marginality resurfaces.

The livelihoods approach is used to explain the diversity and complexity of the ways in which people make a living. It addresses the living conditions of poor people, their opportunities and capacities for well-being, their resilience and their resource base composed of various assets (Chambers & Conway, 1992).

Livelihood strategies are strongly linked to livelihood assets or capital and these form the heart of the approach. These include social, human, financial, natural and physical capital. These assets are an antidote to a vision of poor people as being 'passive' or 'deprived'. The poor may not have cash or savings but they do have other material and non-material assets such as family, health, skills and natural resources. To understand these assets, one can identify the opportunities they might offer or the types of constraints that might exist (Rakodi, 2002). The assets poor people possess or have access to, the livelihoods they desire and the strategies they adopt are all influenced by the context in which they live. This context has, broadly speaking, two dimensions: the first dimension is an overarching Sustaining Livelihoods in Multi-local Settings structural context, including organizations and institutions such as rules, norms, policies and legislation shaping livelihoods. The second dimension of people's living context is vulnerability. This means the insecurity of people's well-being in the face of a changing ecological, social, political or economic environment (Rakodi, 2002).

Livelihood strategies can be seen as a continuum that covers the range from a struggle to survive, security and growth. Livelihood outcomes are the achievements or outputs of livelihood strategies. They relate to both increased material and non-material well-being such as health, access to services and improved resilience to vulnerability, such as food security or sustainable use of natural resources. In analyzing outcomes, a distinction has to be made between expected outcomes (or dreams and wishes) of

migrants and their families and real outcomes. The nature of outcomes is diverse and their impact on the asset portfolio not always positive. Applied strategies can also be non-coping, erosive or inappropriate (Berlein, p.56). For example, migrants from the Far Western Development Region of Nepal decided to work in Delhi, intending to improve their own financial capital or skills and thereby alter the choice of livelihood strategies. Migration reduces their risks of seasonality, harvest failure and food shortages. Furthermore, due to a lack of health care services in the Far Western Development Region of Nepal, family members regularly come to Delhi for medical treatment and migrants cover their expenses for them. However, the job market in Delhi is highly organized since jobs are handed over and sold within networks. Through the need for substantial seed capital in Delhi, higher living costs, the pressure to remit money and the debts people already have, debt becomes a tool to manage their livelihoods. Migrants borrow from one source to repay the other, perpetuating debt and dependency with the result that they remain migrant for their whole lives (Thieme, 2006).

Within the sustainable livelihoods framework three broad clusters of livelihood strategies are identified. These are: agricultural intensification/extensification, livelihood diversification and migration. Broadly, these are seen to cover the range of options open to rural people. Either you gain more of your livelihood from agriculture (including livestock rearing, aquaculture, forestry etc.) through processes of intensification (more output per unit area through capital investment or increases in labour inputs) or extensification (more and under cultivation), or you diversify to a range of off-farm income earning activities, or you move away and seek a livelihood, either temporarily or permanently, elsewhere. Or, more commonly, you pursue a combination of strategies together or in sequence (Chamber and Conway 1992:15).

Identifying what livelihood resources (or combinations of 'capitals') are required for different livelihood strategy combinations is a key step in the process of analysis. For example, successful agricultural intensification may combine, in some circumstances, access to natural capital (e.g. land, water etc.) with economic capital (e.g. technology, credit etc.), while in other situations, social capital (e.g. social networks associated with drought or labour sharing arrangements) may be more significant. Understanding, in a dynamic and historical context, how different livelihood

resources are sequenced and combined in the pursuit of different livelihood strategies is therefore critical.

Whether such livelihood pathways and portfolio combinations result in positive or negative change in relation to the range of sustainable livelihood outcome indicators is a critical issue. Several issues are important here. It is not only the total number of sustainable livelihoods created that is important, but also the level of livelihood intensity (Chambers, 1987). Livelihood resources may be combined creatively and innovatively, often in complex ways, to create more livelihoods in a particular area. For example, degraded land may be transformed with the investment of labour and skill, resulting in the accumulation of natural capital, offering the potential for more livelihood opportunities. Equally, through the creation of local economic linkages and the recirculation of knowledge, skills and resources, livelihood intensity may be increased in an area. Thus investigating the multiplier effects (both positive and negative) of particular options is an important issue in assessing sustainable livelihood outcomes. The impacts of one person's livelihood activities on others, both now and in the future is thus important. The net effects of investing in one set of livelihood strategies therefore need to be assessed, with future impacts discounted appropriately (Chambers, and Conway, 1992).

Rural livelihood strategies are often heavily reliant on the natural resource base. For this reason, the IDS research has examined livelihood strategy choices along gradients running from relatively high to low natural resource endowment (IDS 1996). Such a gradient is also related to the level of risk and uncertainty experienced by resource users, with low natural resource endowment areas being frequently subject to drought, flooding or other natural hazards. But, although such areas may have higher levels of risk relative to income than high resource endowment sites, the absolute income loss if things go wrong in such sites is typically much less, making the potential size of loss, not just the risk of loss is also an important factor differentiating sites along such resource endowment gradients. Livelihood portfolios can therefore be expected to differ along such natural resource endowment gradients.

2.3 Adaption and Coping Characteristics

Coping strategies are the bundle of poor people's responses to declining food availability and entitlements in abnormal seasons or years. Households do not respond arbitrarily to variability in food supply and, as a result, people living in conditions where their main sources of income (and food) are under recurrent threat develop strategies to minimize risk to immediate food security and to longer-term livelihood security (Berger, and Goldstein, 1990).

As coping strategies become an increasingly popular tool in food and livelihood security analysis and policy-making. The central confusion is between coping strategies as fall-back mechanisms during periods when habitual food entitlements are disrupted; and coping strategies as outcomes of fundamental and irreversible changes in local livelihood systems. Clarification is required if coping strategies are to remain a useful conceptual tool, both for monitoring declining food availability and for identifying appropriate interventions. Coping is thus defined as a short term response to an immediate and in-habitual decline in access to food. Adapting, in contrast, means a permanent change in the mix of ways in which food is acquired, irrespective of the year in question. As Gore, (1992: 16) has correctly argued "coping" essentially means acting to survive within the prevailing rule systems. When adaptation occurs, such rule systems (or the moral economy) themselves change, as do the livelihood systems in which these rules operate. Indicators which seek to track coping strategies have to be able to differentiate between coping within existing rules and adapting the rules themselves to meet livelihood needs.

Adaptation in the context of human dimensions of global change usually refers to a process, action or outcome in a system (household, community, group, sector, region, country) in order for the system to better cope with, manage or adjust to some changing condition, stress, hazard, risk or opportunity. Numerous definitions of adaptation are found in climate change literature, mostly variations on a common theme. Brooks, 2003, p. 8, describes adaptation as "adjustments in a system's behavior and characteristics that enhance its ability to cope with external stress". Smith, (2000, p. 225), in the climate change context, refer to adaptations as

“adjustments in ecological-socio-economic systems in response to actual or expected climatic stimuli, their effects or impacts.” Pielke, (1998, p. 159), also in the climate context, defines adaptations as the “adjustments in individual groups and institutional behavior in order to reduce society’s vulnerability to climate.” Based on their timing, adaptations can be anticipatory or reactive, and depending on their degree of spontaneity they can be autonomous or planned (Smith, 2000).

The concept of adaptation has been used both explicitly and implicitly in the social sciences, including in natural hazards, political ecology, and the entitlements and food security scholarship. Some scholars of adaptation have employed the concepts and terminology of bio physical ecological change with a focus on flows of matter, energy and information (Odum, 1970) and related concepts of resilience, equilibrium and adaptive management (Holling, 1986). Others, particularly in the natural hazards perspective, have focused on perception, adjustment and management of environmental hazards (Burton, 1978).

Adaptive capacity has been analyzed in various ways, including via thresholds and “coping ranges”, defined by the conditions that a system can deal with, accommodate, adapt to, and recover from (Smith, 2000, Pilifosova, 2001, 2003). Most communities and sectors can cope with (or adapt to) normal climatic conditions and moderate deviations from the norm, but exposures involving extreme events that may lie outside the coping range, or may exceed the adaptive capacity of the community. Some authors apply “coping ability” to shorter term capacity or the ability to just survive, and employ “adaptive capacity” for longer term or more sustainable adjustments (Vogel, 1998). Watts, and Bohle, (1993) use “adaptability” for the shorter term coping and “potentiality” for the longer term capacity.

A system’s adaptive capacity and coping range (one feature of capacity) are not static. Coping ranges are flexible and respond to changes in economic, social, political and institutional conditions over time. For instance, population pressure or resource depletion may gradually reduce a system’s coping ability and narrow its coping range, while economic growth or improvements in technology or institutions may lead to an increase in adaptive capacity (Vries, 1985; Smith, and Pilifosova, 2003; Folke, 2002).

2.4 Seasonal Labour Migration

Historically, there has been a large amount of international migration in Nepal. Much of the migration is seasonal and is viewed as a strategy to supplement regular farms and house hold incomes during low periods of the harvest and planting cycle (Kollmair, 2006, Thieme, and Wyss,2005). Agricultural work is common (HMG, 2004), as well as urban wage labour in factories, and informal sector jobs, (Garner 2001).

Internal migration is also common. Most Nepali's who migrate to the other countries go to India where they can work as seasonal labourers in the larger wage labour markets in rural and urban areas (Kollmair, 2006). Nepal and India share an open border, so there is no restriction on Nepali cross border travel to India, making this international migration no more difficult than migration to other areas of Nepal.

Where agricultural intensification has been limited, and other rural employment absent, the principal livelihood adaptation has been temporary or permanent migration. Indeed, the Andes full of projects that have attempted—and failed to stop this out-migration. In part this is because migration has been an element of Andean livelihood strategies for a long time; but it is also because migration is critical to the viability of rural peoples' livelihoods (Preston,1997). Migration is often, of course, merely a survival strategy in many contexts families scarcely scrape by, and the cost to the migrant is enormous (Chambers, 1987; Bebbington, 1993). But in some cases migration has allowed significant family accumulation.

The seasonal migration to India is made by poor people (Kollmair, 2006, and Gill,2003). These people usually move out from their village less than six months of the year and work in the brick kilns or agriculture farms, either as security guards or labourers.

In the area of seasonal labour migration that a people who are in vicious circle of poverty leaved their home for a certain period of time to earn money to function their household. They reached different places within the country and outside of the country they may found ample numbers of job opportunities. They earn more money, knowledge, skill from destination and return back to own home. From the earn money

they able to solve their daily problems such as basic needs, paying debt , buying clothes, spend to commute, use in maintaining household building and assets, paying in children education and use in celebration of festivals etc. The gaining knowledge and skills are used at origin that provides them more income than traditional types of work. If they did not become successful to do new work at origin and spent all money got from remittance they again reached to destination for work. In this way livelihood of seasonal labour migrant is operating (Subedi, 1993).

A study on the topic of Seasonal Agriculture Labour Migration from India to Nepal has been conducted with focusing the objectives of socioeconomic characteristics, migration specific season, scale of remittance and consequences of Indian seasonal workers on the labour market in the Terai with selection of three districts (Jhapa, Bara and Banke) of border by using purposive random sampling method. The study found that landless people from Bihar and Uttar Pradesh came to border area of Nepal seasonally for cutting and harvesting of paddy, sugarcane, wheat and maize in contract during the peak agricultural period. They worked in 250 kg paddy, 150 kg, and 108 kg for a bigha land in Shivagunj Jhapa, Kharjurgachhi Jhapa, and Banke respectively (Mishra, 2000).

The traditional form of labour migration to India still continues in a large scale. Seddon, (2001) cited that about 250,000 Nepali migrant labourers are employed in public sectors in India. They assume that number of Nepali migrant workers employed in private sectors in India would be twice as many that employed in public sectors. It is noted that labour migration to India is not governed by the prevailing Act and Rules regarding foreign employment. It is taking place as a free migration which does not require visa and work permit and largely facilitated by open border between Nepal and India. Geographical proximity, cultural affinity and the network play important role in inducing and perpetuation migration of Nepali workers to India.

Census data show that vast majority of Nepali emigrants go to India revealing tremendously increasing number over time. The number of emigrants living in India has increased by about 3.8 times during the last 5 decades from 157,000 in 1952/54 to 589,000 in 2000 accounting 79.4 and 77.3 percent of the total emigrants in the respective years. Beside the census figures, some guesstimates in the labourers

working in India. Seddon, (2001) estimated that there would be as many as one million Nepali workers in India in 1977 according 90.9 percent of the total guesstimated number of 1.1 million Nepalese working in foreign countries. Adhikari,(2006), put this figure to 1.5 million for the year 2006 accounting 63.3 percent of total guesstimated number of 2358000 Nepali workers in foreign lands. The increase in the number of labour migrations to India, as noted, is largely associated with displacement of people due to armed conflict who flee to India.

Migration is also a co-insurance strategy for house hold, because the migration and the house hold insure each other against various risks (Stark, 2001). So at house hold level, remittances are expected to play an important role in coping after disaster.

It has also been established that scarcity of the land and regional disparities are the major factors in the rural labourer's decision to migrate to other areas. Breman, (1993) found that the last few decades have witnessed massive seasonal migration of labour force from rural to urban areas. For the poor, the labour class and marginalized population, seems as the only survival option. Lower castes and tribes are disproportionately represented in circular migration streams.

Seasonal or circular migration has played a crucial role in allowing rural people to cope with the consequences of agricultural distress and devastated rural economy in many parts of India. It was suggested that migration helped to raise the migration helped to raise the migrant house hold's standard of living (Rao, 1996). The study of Rani,and Shylendra,(2001) reveled that seasonal migration is due to weak resources, as the cultivable land in small, less fertile and dependent largely or rain fed cultivation. Moreover, due to inadequate farm and nonfarm employment opportunities within the village, most of the households are compelled to migrate during the lean agriculture season to supplement their farm income.

Migration is not a choice for poor people, but is the only option for survival after alienation from the land and exploitation in origin places. Hence, in developing countries, the largest proportion of migrants moves between rural and urban areas, De,(1999). Deshingkar, (2009) argue that a majority of the seasonal migrant, many of whom are SCs and STs, are poor, and for them migration is a household strategy for managing risks where one or more members of family go away from the village to

find work, and that this is central part of their livelihoods. Whether or not seasonal migration is a coping strategy becomes more accumulative, depends on a number of factors including Improve work ability, rising wages, cutting out intermediaries, and improving skills.

All rural households confront seasonality as an inherent feature of their livelihoods (Chambers, 1981; Chambers, 1982). Seasonality on its own explains many of the patterns of diversity in rural household incomes, especially those involving on-farm diversity and off-farm diversity and off-farm agricultural wage earnings. In economic terms, seasonality means that returns to labour in both on-farm activities and off-farm labour markets vary during the year, causing seasonal changes in the occupation as labour time is switched from lower to higher return activities (Alderman, and Sahn,1989).

Seasonality means that continuous household consumption needs are mismatched with uneven income flows. Leaving aside risk and market imperfections, this would not constitute a problem provided the total income was sufficient to cover annual consumption requirements. Crop shortage, output sales and savings could be used to convert unstable income into stable consumption. In practice, of course both risk and market Imperfections abound in the rural economy (Aderman, and Paxson, 1992). Income instability and consumption smoothing are real problems confronted by households, and therefore an important motive for income diversification associated with seasonality is to reduce income instability. This requires income earning opportunities the seasonal cycles of which are not synchronized with the farm's own seasons. Seasonal migrationto other agricultural zones may be one option, circular or permanent migration of one or more family members to non-farm occupations, another (Alderman,and Sahn, 1989).

Seasonality is one particular instance of rural markets that are differentiated by location, time, skills, gender and cultural proscriptions, the economic motivation for diversification cited in relation to seasonality applies more generally; when the marginal return to labour time in farming for any individual falls below the wage rate or below the wage rate or the return of self- employment attainable off-farm or non-offfarm activities. Work opportunities vary according to the skills (for example, for

salaried jobs), and by gender (for examples, male wage work are construction or mines vs. female opportunities in trading or textile factories). Economic considerations of labour allocation may be overlaid and modified by social rules of access both within the family and in the community, and these rules may result in the 'social exclusion' of individuals and households from particular income streams (Davies, and Hassain, 1997).

2.5. Remittance Income in Nepal

Literally remittance is the transfer of money by foreign workers, but literature also includes other forms of transfers such as social remittances (diffusion of various types of social practices, ideas and values). Knowledge or technology remittances (knowledge, skills and technology brought back by returning migrants), and political remittances as changing identities and political awareness after return (Goldring, 2004).

Labour migration and remittance is becoming the important mainstay of Nepalese economy (Kollmair, 2006). As indicated above, the official statistics does not reflect the actual situation. (Seddon, 2002) estimate the actual remittance in Nepal is about 10 to 20 times greater than the amount shown by the official statistics, which is equivalent to almost 25 percent of national gross domestic product (GDP). This shows an importance of remittance especially 10 the rural households. It means rural livelihoods have never been wholly reliant on agriculture. Labour migration has long been an important feature of rural existence in Nepal.

One of the most defining features of Nepali labour migration to India is the inflow of remittances. Labour migration from Nepal to India is particularly significant because many Nepalis still cannot afford to go to newer destinations, and the remittances they send or bring back plays a major role in raising their families' income. In fact, bringing home money and koselee (gifts) from India is considered a matter of pride, bravery and masculinity in Nepal (Pfaff-Czarnecka, 1995; Sharma, 2007).

However, the three Nepal Living Standards Surveys (1995/96, 2003/04 and 2010/11) show that the share of remittances received by households from India has declined over the years: 32.9 per cent of all remittances in 1995/96; 23.2 per cent in 2003/04;

and just 11.3 percent in 2010/11. This diminishing importance of India is because Nepalis have begun opting for newer and better-paying destinations, but these figures do not really capture the fact that there are still hundreds of thousands of families who depend on earnings from India. In fact, even as the proportion of India-based remittances has gone down, the actual volume remitted has been rising steadily. According to Nepal Rastra Bank 2007, remittance from India was NPR 1355 million in 1991/92 (which was 58.5 per cent of the total). The share of remittances from India had dropped to 12.4 per cent in 2005/06, but in real terms it had gone up considerably to reach NPR 12,100 million (see Annex II). It should also be reiterated that since individuals from low-income households cannot afford to go to highly remunerative countries paying large sums of money, even a small rise in income that follows from going to India can have significant welfare implications on them.

Remittances from international migration have been important component of the Nepalese economy, which constitute 29.1 per cent of GDP (MoF, 2014). Foreign exchange earned from migration was higher than that of export receipts and official aid combined. It was observed in 2010 that around 56 per cent of Nepalese households had at least one migrant abroad or a returnee (CBS 2011). On an average, 1430 workers left the country each day in 2013/14 (DoFE 2014). The remittances have not only far reaching impact and role on Nepal's economy, household consumption and investment patterns, but also on its ongoing structural transformation, characterized by the expansion of low multiplier import dependent services sector activities, and consistent deindustrialization. As a share of GDP, in 2012, Nepal was the sixth highest remittance recipient in the world. International labour migration has thus become the most important economic activity in Nepal.

According to data of Nepal Rastra Bank the remittance received in the country in 2010/11 was 254 billion rupees that increased by 42 per cent in 2011/12 and had reached 360 billion rupees. It reached more than double (582 billion rupees) in 2014/15 from the level of 2010/11. In comparison to GDP (compiled by Central Bureau of Statistics/Nepal), the share of remittance was 18.55 per cent GDP in 2010/11 and had reached 27.98 per cent of GDP in 2013/2014. MOPE: Population and Development Journal, 2016.

According to Nepal Living Standard Survey 2010/11, the average income transfer in the form of nominal remittances was Rs 80,436 per recipient household. Per capita nominal remittance for all population was considered NRs. 9,245 in the reference year. The share of remittance received by Nepalese household from foreign countries other than India was much higher than received from India and from within Nepal.

The share of remittance from within Nepal was 19.6 per cent, and from India it was 11.3 per cent and from foreign countries other than India was the highest as 69.1 per cent. The share of remittances from India and from within Nepal decreased by 300 per cent and around 250 per cent respectively in period of 15 MOPE: Population and Development Journal, 2016 years (from 1995/96 to 2010/11). However, the share of remittance received by Nepalese household from foreign countries other than India was sharply increased by more than 300 per cent (22.4% to 69.1%) in the period of 1995/96 to 2010/11.

The share of remittances in household income among recipients was significantly high in the study period, and it had an increasing trend. The share of remittances in household income 26.6 per cent in 1995/96 and it increased to 30.9 per cent in 2010/11. The total remittance received was 12.96 billion in year 1995/96 and it further increased by more than 200 per cent and reached to 259 billion rupees in 2010/11. The data also showed that the share of remittances from external source were high in comparison to internal sources in 2010/11. The total amount of remittance from external source was 208.2 billion rupees comprising 80.4 per cent of total of 259.1 billion rupees.

There is no separate analysis of remittances entering from Nepal from cross-border movement. Considering the case of Nepal and India also, it is difficult to estimate remittances entering from India to Nepal. The estimate of remittances from India ranges from Rs 6 billion to Rs 40 billion (Seddon, Adhikari and Gurung, 2001). At present, it is estimated that 12 % of the total remittances in Nepal comes from India, which represents about 2.8 % of the GDP of the country. This means about 33 billion Rs. Another source was that of Himal Khabarpatrika (2003, 15-29 March: 22-45) which reveals that Rs 31 billion enters into Nepal from India. Here it was assumed that 2.4 million Nepali works in India and of them 1.4 million send remittances at the

rate of Rs 1400 in a month. This would mean Rs 23 billion in a year. Similarly 48,000 were assumed to work in Indian army and 105,000 were considered as pension receiver for their past service in the army. This army service would bring Rs 8 billion in a year. The proportion of remittances coming from India has been declining also from 32.9 % in 1995/96 to 23.2 % in 2003/04 and 14.0 % in 2008-09 (Adhikari, 2006).

These scenarios depicted that Nepali labour migrants working in the countries other than India are able to send much amount of resources to home. It may open new avenues of international labour migration, but the migrants are needed to be skilled to send large amount of remittances.

Nepal Living Standard survey 2010/11 report explained that the Daily Consumption had the highest share among the uses of remittances that was followed by Repaying Loans. About 79 per cent of the total remittances received by the households were used for Daily Consumption while 7 percent was used for Loans Repayment. The share of consumption on remittances received from India was very high (85 per cent), its share on remittance received from Malaysia, Saudi Arabia and Qatar was more than a half. More than one fourth of the remittances received from Malaysia, Saudi Arabia and Qatar were used for Repaying Loans. It was believed that Out of total of repaying of loans, the loans taken for the purpose of going for foreign employment such as the fee charged to arrange international jobs and cost of transportation and living before departure were very high. So much earning was spent with interest to pay back loans taken for pre-migration processes. Use of remittances on education was low as 3.5 per cent. Its use on Capital Formation, Business and Savings were even much lower (2.4 per cent, 0.5 percent and 0.6 per cent respectively). Similarly, out of the total remittances received in the country, 4.5 per cent of it was used to acquire Household Property. MOPE: Population and Development Journal, 2016.

Poverty declined from 42 per cent in 1996 (NLSS 1995/96) to 25 percent in 2011. It is believed that foreign remittance has more than fifty percent contribution on poverty reduction in Nepal (NLSS 2010/11).

Remittance has helped to sustain the external balance and enhance foreign reserves. It has also led to higher consumption enhancing population welfare and reducing poverty incidence.

2.6 Migration History and Trends of Nepal

Historically the out migration of Nepalis was due to convergence of trade. Trans Himalayan trade was the oldest phenomena of movement of Nepali people from one place to another place around 500 BC. During the dynasties of 'Lichhchhabī' and 'Malla' period in the era between 2nd to 15th Century, Kathmandu Valley was the hub of trans-border trade between India, Nepal, Tibet and China (Schrader 1988). In fact the first wave of labour migration from Nepal begin in 18th and 19th Centuries when the state's oppressive land and labour polices forced peasants in the hills to move out of their land and seek their livelihoods elsewhere, both within Nepal and across the border into India (Regmi, 1978, Shrestha, 1985). This led to migration to north east India from the 1820s and continues to do so (Nath 2006). Due to difficult economic conditions in the hills of Nepal, people have long relied on the comparatively large economy of their immediate neighbour in the south, where they continue to migrate in search of various work opportunities. To quote John Hitchcock, 'an important aspect of relationship between India and Central Nepal is the close connection arising from the stringencies of hill agriculture on the one hand the cash value of Indian employment on the other's (Sharma, 2012).

After capturing the Assam by British in 1826, it opened up opportunities for Nepali migrants to work there as unskilled labourers in mines, tea states, in land reclamation, lumbering etc. British India government encouraged them to continue their jobs in the north east of India. Only after 1850s the permanent emigration accelerated particularly across the border of Sikkim, Bengal, Assam, Darjeeling, Bhutan and Burma (Caplan, 1970).

The treaty between Nepal and British India in 1816 opened the door to set up Gorkha regiments in British Indian army. However, till 1885, Nepal government opposed the requirement of the Nepalis by the British as Gorkha Soldiers, widely known as Gorkha recruitment. The government of Nepal's position to the 'Gorkha recruitment' was changed in 1886. After the accession of Bir Shamsheer Ran to the prime minister

ship through a coup d'état, Nepal's government openly supported the British to hire Nepalis in British Army (Shrestha, 1990, Thieme, 2006). The duly or unduly valorized Gorkha Soldiers have recruited in foreign armies since the late 1800s, the first British India then the process was continued by independent India and more recently by Brunei (Yamanka, 2000). This was the predominated form of foreign work for Nepalis for long time now.

In fact, "for a long time, Nepalis policy was limited to service in British or Indian army or to other jobs in India". (Thieme, 2006). The Gorkha recruitment in India remained the primary form of foreign employment for a considerable period of time. One nearly impossible to travel to other part of the world, in the absence of government of Nepal's foreign employment policy. Before 1990, Nepal government did not have any foreign policy. It was difficult to get passport or travel documents in Nepal until then. It became easier to obtain travel document and passports to common people only after the restoration of multiparty democracy in Nepal in 1990. This is why, India was only easily accessible destination for Nepalese migrant workers and it still prevails to be the one.

In this way, Nepali migration to India has been an ongoing phenomenon with working diaspora spreading all across India. In fact, Nepal and India share open and irregular border and there is no legal restriction in movement of people between these two countries. This kind of free and reciprocal movement of people is facilitated by the Article 7 of the "Peace and Friendship Treaty of 1950" between Nepal and India which formalized the concept of 'open border' between two countries and allowed the citizens of both countries to cross the border without having to produce official document offering equal treatment of both citizens. It grants the same rights and facilities to Nepali in India as those for Indian citizens in Nepal.

The treaty itself does not say about open border system between Nepal and India but it only has an article related to migration. This article also does not say about equal treatment and employment opportunity to Nepali workers. It rather talks about privileges in residence, ownership of property, participation in trade and movements. It does not, however, clarify that what are other privileges of a similar nature. Consequently, the textual ambiguity has frequently caused problem in the

implementation of Treaty Provision, especially in the case of Nepalese migrant workers' relation to Indian state (Prasain, 2010).

Nearly 200 years ago, the British began to recruit men from the hill areas of Nepal, known as Gurkhas, in to their armed forces. The Indian military also began enlisting Nepali men after India's independence in 1947. Currently about 3,500 Nepali soldiers serve in the British Army and more than 50,000 in the Indian military forces. Indian was also the first country to attract civilian migrants from Nepal. The number rose sharply in the 1950s and 1960s, and today, India represents the largest market for foreign migration in Nepal (Seddon, 2005).

Nepalese people have a long history of migration. In the beginning of the 19th century young hill men used to go Lahore city of Northern Punjab to be recruited to the army of Ranjit Singh. These recruits were popularly called Lahure. After the war between British East-India Company and Gurkha in 1814, British Army in India (1815-1816) started recruiting Nepalese men. After the independence of India, British took some regiments along and left some in India. Since then Nepalese men were continuously recruited in the Indian and British Army. At the same time civilian migration also expanded to Darjeeling and Jalpaiguri districts and Sikkim, Assam, and Meghalaya for labour in the tea states (Gurung, 2008).

Other out migrants were attracted by tea plantations, construction works, coal mining and land reclamation in Assam, Bengal, Darjeeling, Garhwal and Kumaon (Hoffmann, 1995; Kregel, 1997; Hoffmann 2001). The main reasons for the migration were oppressive land and labour policies and indebtedness as a result of compulsory, unpaid labour demands. They forced harassment from their employers and creditors in the hill villages as well as land expropriation. By the end of the 19th century, for example, half the population of Darjeeling in India was of Nepalese (Shrestha,1998). Many of the early Nepalese migrants to this region settled permanently and came to be known as Indian Nepalese (Upreti, 2002).

After 1950 the Nepalese began to move to industrializing area like Delhi, Mumbai, or Bangalore, where employment was easier to find (Upreti,2002).The tradition of Nepalese going for foreign employment started about 200 years back 1815/1816 which the east India company recruited the Nepalese youths in the Indian army. The

trend is in practice ever since. Nowadays Nepalese people are migrated around the world and mostly India and Arab countries.

2.7 Migration from Nepal to India

Nepal has a long history of labour migration. For around 200 years, Nepali men and to a lesser extent women have been leaving their homes to seek employment and living abroad. Even before the well-known recruitment to British-Indian armies, poor Nepalese fled excessive taxation, corvee labour and exploitation from state agencies. At present a large proportion of labours go abroad temporarily, with the aim of returning back to their homeland. Foreign labour migration and subsequent remittances prop up the country's sailing economy. Yet this important sector continues to be neglected by policy makers and planners. In the distant as well as recent past, policy makers have turned a blind eye to this aspect of the economy. And they have looked down upon those who go to do menial work in other countries. Until the 1980s, labour migrations mainly took people to India where work permit and passports were /are not required. In this context, regulations to control and manage foreign employment were required. In this context, regulations to control and manage foreign employment were deemed unnecessary. In the mid-1980s, however, Nepali citizens began to seek work in the gulf countries and the government of Nepal took steps to formulate foreign labour related regulations (Gurung, 2004).

Gill, 2003, assumes that "labour migration has been a feature of Nepalese livelihood strategies for at least 200 years". In mid-western and far western hill villages, labour migration represents a vital part of rural systems without which life, for most people, would not be sustainable since the economy relies on two main sources of income, rural systems may be describes as "agri migratory".

There is also long history of Nepali from far western region of Nepal migrating to India to work as watchmen in different cities of India. Approximately 15 to 20 thousand of such watchmen are estimated to be working in Delhi alone. These Nepali migrants are marginalized and work under vulnerable circumstances. They are not covered under any of the Indian labour laws because they have no formal contract of their job and employee to employer relationship. Because of the poor economic condition of the far western Nepal, these people migrate to India for better livelihood

options. But in India too their economic condition and living condition remain poor. Since these migrants are uneducated and unskilled, they do not get good job and live in compromising environment to save money (Bhattra,2007).

In conversation the migration leader, said, initially Nepalese people moving to India were confined with works of domestic help, cooks, guards, and coolies but now things have changed. Now people are entrepreneurs and work for big hotels, people run their own food stalls. Initially Nepalese worked in government sector as well but now it has minimized. Now people are much in entrepreneur sector and decent service sector as well. Things have changed to much extent regarding working opportunities, capabilities, and conditions for nonresident Nepalese” (Dhakal 2012). According to Pravashi Sang leader in India, There are around 35,00,000 Nepalese migrants. Around 2,00,000 are permanently settled here. There are around 6,00,000 migrant Nepalese in Mumbai half of them living in slums. In Delhi also there are, more than 1,50,000. In Indian coal mines there are more than 2,50,000 working Nepalese from eastern parts of Nepal. Now even educated people from Nepal have started emigrating India for employment, which was not so before.

There is no single perspective of Indians regarding Nepali people. In southern India Nepalese are highly respected because it is believed that Nepali workers work honestly and are hard working as well this does not apply to Uttar Pradesh as Nepalese encountered by the people residing in UP are most the people who share same border with them. In Mumbai it is different, Shivesena shows positive attitude towards Nepalese because Nepalese are active in Shivasena Mumbai. Nepalese are not much hated as Biharis in Mumbai. Even in Bangalore Nepalese are respected (Dhakal 2012).

A study on the topic of migration in Nepal: A study of far western development region conducted by the Centre for Economic Development and Administration, Tribhuvan University, Kirtipur, Kathmandu in 1977. The questionnaire was filled at Betkot, Kanchanpur through which seasonal migrants move down to Mahendra Nagar and on to the Terai vicinity, to India. The total 373 respondent were taken for the study purpose among the majority (71percent) were from Dadeldhura then followed by Bajura and Bajhang. Among total 373 seasonal migrants chetries were in majority

with 60 percent, and then it was followed by Brahmin, Kami and Sarki with the percent of 19, 10, 6 respectively. The report reported that seasonal migrant are selective with respect to age, sex, education etc. The percent of migrants below age 30 was 46 and age below 50 was 90. Similarly, the male percentage in that group was 90. As regards education, the seasonal migrants were comparatively more literate, as 42 percent were literate in contrast to literacy rate of the whole population in Nepal was 13 percent in that period. The report again addressed that almost all of seasonal migrants 99 percent has farming as main occupation but have low amount of land i.e below 0.68 hector (one bigha). The farm production was not sufficient over the year among 67 percent had incurred debts from money lenders or from other sources. This implies that seasonal migrants had come from low economic status and they are moving down to Terai or India to seek better alternatives in employment and better economic conditions. Mainly they go to these areas for seasonal employment and solve their food problem for six months or so on at first and secondly to generate cash incomes buy essential commodities for household consumption as a better livelihood (NPC and CEDA, 1977).

Nepalese workers from the far west tend to head for certain specific locations in India either west wards or along abroad route heading from north to south down the western part of India. Most work in adjacent Uttar Pradesh, but other travel further afield. Dixit, indicate that “ the population of poverty stricken western hills migrate to adjacent areas in India. Besides going to nearby plains, some Nepalese from far west also hike across in to Uttarakhanda, whose own men folk migrate to Delhi to find better work. In Uttarakhanda, Nepalese called (Dotyals) serve as Collies in hill station like Nainital and Manssoore and carry loads for pilgrims and themselves – at holy location such as Gaumukh and Katernath”(Dixit, 1997). Punjabi land lords, and also these in Hariyana regions of northwest India, Nepali road gangs build and maintain mountain high way, in May 1997, Indian newspapers briefly noted the execution style killing of eight Nepali labourers by militant at stone crusing factory in Kasmir Valley.

Some travel farther afield, to Mumbai or Delhi. Sociologist Phanindra Paudyal, who studied Nepali labour in Mumbai 1998, reported that it was the rural poor of the far west district of Nepal, such as Doti, Accham, Baitadi and Dadeldhura that landed up in India’s financial capital: “ with little or no education, and no off farm experience,

these, these migrants do not have to skilled jobs that are available. They find what work they can on the basis of their reputations as ‘brave, sincere and honest Gorkhas’(Dixit, 1997:16).

Some travel east as far as Calcutta or Patna or even as far south as Madras or Bangalore: “at the sub continent’s other extremity, in and around the city of Bangalore villagers from Bajhang District in Nepal’s far west have established a well – organized labour monopoly for themselves. According to Pfaff-Czamecka Swiss anthropologist who has studied this Trans – South Asian phenomena, Bajhang survive on the basis of remittance from Bangalore, (Dixit, 1997). The district of Bajhang exports a very high numbers of male populations as temporary migrants all over India, but 20 percent end up in Bangalore – where there is a long standing tradition of such migration and other nearby South Indian cities. Bajhangis are mainly employed as guards and night watchman in government offices, factories and shopping complexes (bazaar), “the ability of finding jobs as watchman is the outcome reputation which several generation of bajhangis have acquired as brave and sincere workers”, according to Pfaff Czamecka, J. Similar linkage exist for other regions of Nepal between places of origin and destinations. This is the matter of geography, but more importantly it is a consequences of the way in which migration has evolved historically and migrants from their place of origin thought reasonable prospects of employment exist and access can be obtained.

Out migration for a short period to earn cash income is common. People from Karnali go to mainly to place like Nainital and Garhwal in India for labour. A study conducted in 1970 (Okada, 1970) revealed that about 30 percent of the people of Jumla took part in seasonal migration. However, the exact figure differed from village to village, ranging widely from 5 to 75 percent of population. In Tatopani village Panchayat, out of 2500 people, 125(5 percent) went out to seek agricultural work in the Terai and India for six months. 35 percent from Jancha Tharpatti, 75 percent from Dullu (Population 1000), and 20 percent from Lurku (population 1800) went for trade or work to Surkhet, Rajapur, and Nepalgunj, and India (Lucknow and especially Nainital). Jobs are also sought for the short periods, ranging from 2 to 5 months as security guards in India and forest workers in Kumaon and Garhwal. In winter most Jumlis shuttled between Nepalgunj and Surkhet and used animals for transportation of

goods and commodities. They used to take mustard seed from Surkhet to Nepalgunj, and on their return trip carried salt and manufactured goods. In spring, they headed towards Tibet, loading their animals (sheep and goats) with rice cigarettes, clothes, etc. for sale. A flock of sheep would consist of at least 500 heads. In the winter months as many as 4000 to 5000 heads of sheep and 1000 horses could be seen each day moving towards for pasturage (Okada, 1970).

Since migration is male dominated, it has Implications for gender roles and responsibilities at community level. Migration in Nepal depends greatly on social networks (Maharjan,2010). Once migration begins in communities it grows over time with strengthening of migrant social networks. As a result, population dynamic within communities with more male out migration become increasing skewed. For migration brings about change in existing gender based divisions of labour and responsibilities with respect to work load and decision making.

Until the early 1980s, labour migration from Nepal was more or less restricted to India. From the late 1980s, the destination diversified, with Nepalese migrants migrating in significant numbers eastward to south east Asia and far east and from the mid,1990s west ward to gulf countries. The proportion of migrants leaving for India reduced from 90%in 1981 to 77% in 2001 and 37% in 2011 (Kansakar, 2003, CBS 2012). On average, more than 1,500 peoples leave Nepal each day to work in overseas destinations. About 25 % of the total households in the country have at least one absent member, (CBS 2012).

While cross border migration to India may be individual or family based almost all other international migrants go individually leaving their families behind, including their spouse and children (Pun, 2013). Cross border migration may be seasonal or annual, but other international migration is generally for a period of 2-3 years. It doesn't cover migration to India, since there is no system of data collection an account of an open border policy with freedom of mobility of people between two countries.

Personal motivations are important drives of foreign employment. Transnational migration is a way to experience the wider world and to avoid difficulties at home. Young people especially hope to escape strong family structure and find freedom

abroad. (interview male migrants Eastern Nepal 2013). Thus migration has become a modern “rite to passage” for young people (Brusle, 2008, Thieme, and Muller-Boker, 2010).

Interview confirmed that almost every family in rural Nepal has at least one member working abroad (Nepal 2013). Working as mercenaries in foreign countries is longstanding practice in Nepal, and since generation people especially from the western part of Nepal have gone to India to work (Thieme, and Muller-boker,2010, Poertner, 2011). Today Nepalese consider working overseas as more successful and progressive than migrating to India (Interview, Dhangadi 2014).

2.8 Migration from Tarai to India

Migration to India has generally been considered a hill phenomenon. The fact that many people from Nepal’s Tarai belt, including a large number of Madhesis, also go to India for work is largely ignored not just in the migration literature but also by the wider populace that erroneously considers migration to be solely a hill-male behaviour. Despite the fact that nearly 30 percent of Nepali migrants as per the 2001 census were from the Tarai (which, of course, includes people of hill origin living in the Tarai, CBS, 2002). There is a dearth of literature that looks at migration from the Nepal Tarai to India. Because of this faulty understanding of the nature of migration, migrants from the Tarai become invisible to researchers as well as to migrants activist in India.

Nepal’s Absentee Population in India 2001 Census Mountains 168,756, Hills 37,537, Tarai 382,757, Source: Census of Nepal 2001.

To take one example, in the seminal piece by Dixit, (1997) that consisted of field trips to various parts of India and interviews with a number of individuals, including four officials representing different Nepali migrant associations, not a single person was a Madhesi. It has been argued that one reason why migrants from the Tarai become invisible in India is the cultural and linguistic similarities they share with inhabitants of north India. But this alone cannot fully explain why the Madhesi migration experience in India has received sparse attention in existing studies on Nepali

migration to India – with the possible but limited exceptions of (Hollema, 2008 and Neupane, 2005).

2.9 Theoretical Review

The study of migration is by no means of an exclusive field of demographers, but is also taken up by economists, political scientists, geographers, sociologists and social anthropologists. The discipline specific peculiarities can be discerned based on concepts, frames of reference, assumptions and the level of measurements adopted. They have produced a vast body of empirical and theoretical literature on migration and labour circulation in the developing countries. This makes sometimes difficult to draw a coherent and linear theoretical development. The development of migration theories can be categorized into three broad groups such as individualistic approaches, structural approaches and integrative approaches. However, these approaches focus on 'who migrates' and 'why migration occurs' types of reasoning. I would like to take this as a point of departure to go further to find out the interconnectedness between migrants and their households back home. More specifically, I am interested to look pattern, causes and impacts of season labour migration in the livelihood strategy of the rural poor. Hence, what is relevant to this paper is perhaps to find out the approaches that can link migration with the places of origin and view migration as a process of interaction between two social spaces.

Individualistic approaches: Derived from the classical and neoclassical economic theories, the individualistic approaches assume individuals as the prime deciders of migration process and focus on why people take a decision to migrate. The classical economic theories, also called functional and behavioural economic theories are based on modernization theory, where migration is viewed as free choice intended to maximize utility out of scarce resources, (Shrestha, 1988).

The neoclassical theory of migration also emphasizes on the individual decision of migrants based on their rational choice in between the places of origin and destination depending upon the wage differences, labour equilibrium and income maximization (Massey, 1993; Spaan, 1999). Moreover, Spaan, (1999) calls this phenomenon as place utility. "This type of approach uses the individual as unit of analysis and basically explains migration in terms of a rational-calculating and utility maximizing

individual making a decision to migrate or not on the basis of an evaluation of the areas of origin and destination" (Spaan, 1999: 21-22). Hads and Todaro model of 'pull and push' factors of migration is one of the influential contributions in the neoclassical theory (See for instance, Massey et a 1993; Rodenburg, 1993; Taylor, 1999). The surplus labour, scarce capital, popular ion pressure and unemployment situation in the sending area serves as push factor and scarce labour, surplus capital, high income and social amenities in the receiving area serves as pull facto r where the individual makes a rational decision for maximizing income (Goss,and Lindquist, 1995; Massey,1993; Spaan, 1999).

What is common in these two approaches is the focus on individuals, rational choice in between sending and receiving areas. These classical and neoclassical economic theories of migration are criticized as the perspective that is usually a historic and plays no attention to the underlying structural forces which also affect the migration process, including the social, cultural and political aspects of migration (Goss, and Lindquist, 1995; Massy, 1993; Rodenburg, 1993: Shrestha, 1988: Taylor, 1999: Taylor, 1996). Spaan, (1999) argues that volunteerism is not always the case and there is no free mobility of labour as assumed by the theory. These theories have given much emphasis on economic, objective and measurable factors, allegedly constituting the motivation of migration whereas more subjective factors such as curiosity and adventurism are Overlooked (Skeldon, 1997).

Structural approaches: In reaction to the former models of migration, a new perspective emerged encompassing neo Marxist theories, Dependency theory and the World System perspective under the broad umbrella of 'political-economy"or historical-structural' perspective (Spaan, 1999). Thecrux of this approach is that internal or international migration (or circulation) is not to be perceived as an isolated process as a result of the process of historical socioeconomictransformation. Fue Hed by capitalist and accumulation in the center and the (incomplete) penetration and subordination of pre-capitalist modes of production in the periphery (Massey,1993; Rodenburg, 1993: Shrestha,1988: Spaan,1999). Rodenburg,(1993) further illustrates that rather than seeing wages as positive inducements to move, Marxists consider the cash economy as an instrument to bind the migrants by deliberately creating such differentials in between two areas.

The structural perspective views the migration process as a result of exploitation of the rural areas created by wider capital force through the one way flow of economic surplus. This takes a more negative view of migration and point to inherent antagonistic forces and conflict between the developing world. "Capitalist expansion will eventually result in the ever increasing exploitation of cover over the periphery, contributing to its underdevelopment. Migration from the periphery to the core serves to reinforce this equal relation (Spaan, 1999:28).

Integrative approaches: Other approaches such as New Economics of Labour Migration, System Approach and Network Approach are considered under the category of integrative approaches. This approach tries to overcome the previously theory biased emphasis either on individuals or on macro level socio-economic and political structures. New economics of Labour Migration views migration not motivated by income maximization but motivated by minimizing risks of the households. "Unlike individuals, households are in a position to control risks to their economic well-being by diversifying the allocation of household resources, such as family labour. While some family members can be assigned economic activities in the local economy. others may be sent to work in foreign labour markets where wages and employment conditions are negatively correlated or weakly correlated with those in the local area" (Massey, 1993: 4 36).

According to this perspective, labour migration is an economic strategy made by the household to allocate its human resource rationally to increase the flows of income and to decrease the scope of economic risks (Massey, 1993: McDowell, and De, 1997). More recently livelihood perspective can also be included within this approach. As livelihood in simplest term, is the ways and means of living (Chambers, and Conway, 1992). the people strategies their livelihoods by diversifying their livelihood activities and social support capabilities not only to struggle for survival but also to improve their standards of living (Ellis,1998). Labour migration is one of the livelihood diversification strategies under taken by themhouse hold in the expectation of improved livelihoods (McDowell, and De, 1997; Siddiqui. 2003: Thieme, and Wyss,2005). McDowell, (1997: 20) argues, "Migration is often perceived as an exception to or rupture of normal patterns of society Instead, we argue for an understanding of rural development that takes migration as the rule rather than

the exceptions 'international labour migration has been an integral part of the livelihood strategies of the majority of people for many generations' (Thieme and Wyss, 2005: 66).

The transnational approach thus stresses the importance of crossing international borders (Vertovec, 1999; Conway, 2000). The focus on the 'nation' implies that a 'society' or 'nation' can be perceived as a single unit. It implies that a society shares the same living conditions and has other things in common and that state borders are firm boundaries that separate very different worlds from each other. What the approach ignores is that social life only accepts administrative borders in a political and administrative sense, (Becker, 2002; Wimmer, & Glick-Schiller, 2002; Schendel, 2002.). Regions like South and Central Asia provide interesting examples of how borders are changing and how different migrants perceive international borders differently. Some centuries ago, Nepalese had already settled on Indian territory, but have maintained close social links across the border to India until the present day, providing us with an indication that these Indian Nepalese might in a not only physical but also cultural sense be closer to Nepal than they are to other parts of India – but they are still always considered as international migrants because they crossed a border.

Theoretical review above reveals that the development of migration theories and perspectives on to looking at migration has been changing over time. The conventional approach of looking at migration as product of exploitation, coercion, and deprivation and talking migration as decision to look for more viable "new" life does not work anymore. Researchers have already shown that poorest of the poor are often left behind in villages (De, 2005). Furthermore, life time migration as a form of permanent migration is also changing to more temporary type of circular contact migration where individual family members migrate while others remain at home. This has become an important factor of socioeconomic transformation in Nepal in the recent years.

This is particularly important in the context of international migration for work, which is quite different phenomenon as compared to in country migration from Hill to Terai or from rural areas to urban centers. Unfortunately labour out-migration in Nepal has

always been seen as by product of a stagnant rural economy, to be eliminated by domestic economic development, the agricultural sector (Seddon, 2002). It has never received an attention by policy-makers or researchers in spite of its significant contribution to the socio-cultural and economic transformation of rural Nepal. Recently, its importance is increasingly realized the issue has been covered widely in both academics and policy-making (Gill, 2003; KC, 2003b; Lokshin, 2007; Seddon, 2002). The Government of Nepal has also recognized its legislative role and involved in the process.

A verity of theoretical models has been proposed to explain why international migration begins, and although each ultimately seeks to explain the same thing, they employ radically different concepts, assumptions, and frames of references. Neoclassical economics focus on differentials in wage and employment condition between countries and on migration costs, it generally conceives of movements as an individual decision for income maximization.

The “new economics of migration” in contrast, consider conditions in a variety of market, not just labour markets. It views migration as a household decision taken to minimize risks of family income to overcome capital constrains on family production activities. Dual labour market theory and world system theory generally ignore such micro level decision processes. Focusing instead of forces operating at much higher levels of agriegration. The former links immigration to the structural requirements of modern economies, while the latter sees Immigration as a natural consequence of economic globalization and market penetration across national boundries.

2.9.1 Neoclassical Economic of Macro Theory

Probably the oldest and best known theory of international migration development originally to explain labour migration in the process of economic development (Levis, 1954; Ranis, 1961, Harris and Todaro, 1976). According to theory and its extensions, international migration like internal counterpart, is caused by geographic differences in the supply of and demand for labour. Countries with largest endowment of labour relative to capital have a low equilibrium market wage, while countries with a limited endowment of labour relative to capital are characterized by a high market wage, a depicted group historically by the familiar interaction of labour supply and

demand curves. The resulting differential in wage causes workers from the low wage country. As a result of this movement, the supply of labour decrease and wages rise in the capital poor country, while the supply of labour increase and wages fall in the capital rich country, leading at equilibrium to an international wage differential that reflects only the costs of international movement, pecuniary and physical.

Mirroring the flow of workers from labour abundant to labour-scarce countries is a flow of investment capital from capital rich to capital poor countries. The relative scarcity of capital in poor countries yields a rate of return that is high by international standard.

2.9.2 Neoclassical Economics-Micro Theory

Corresponding to the macro-economic model of individual choice (Sjaatad, 1987, 1969, 1976, 1989; Tadaro). In this scheme, individual rational actors decide to migrate because a cost-benefit calculation leads them to expect a positive net return, usually monetary, from movement. International migration is conceptualized as a form of investment in human capital people choose to move to where they can be most productive, given their skills, but before they can capture the higher wage associated with greater labour productivity they must undertake certain investments, which include the material costs of maintenance while moving and looking for work, the effort involved in learning a new language and culture, and difficulty experienced in adapting to a new labour market, and the psychological costs of cutting old ties and forging new ones.

2.9.3 The New Economics of Migration

In recent years “a new economic of migration” has arisen to challenge many of the assumptions and conclusion of neo-classical theory (Stark, and Bloom, 1985). A key insight of this new approach is that migration decision are not made by isolated individual actors, but by large units of related people typically families or households in which people act collectively not only to maximize expected income, but also to minimize risks and to loosen constraints associated with a variety of market failures, apart from those in the market (Stark, 1988; Taylor, 1986; Stark, 1991).

2.9.4 Dual Labour Market Economy

Piore, (1979) has been the most forceful and elegant proponent of this theoretical view point, arguing that international migration is caused by a permanent demand for migrant labour that is inherent to the economic structure of developed nations. According to Piore, immigration is not caused by push factors in sending countries (low wages or high unemployment), but by pull factors in receiving countries (a chronic and unavoidable need for foreign workers). This stems from four fundamental characteristics of advanced industrial societies and their economics.

2.9.5 World System Theory

Building on the work of Wallerstein, (1974), a variety of sociological theorist has linked the origins of international migrants not to bifurcation of the labour market within particular national economies, but to the structure of the world market that has developed and expanded since the sixteenth century (Portes, and Walton, 1981; Petras, 1981; Castell, 1989; Sassen, 1988, 1991). In this scheme, penetration of capitalist economic relations into peripheral, non-capitalist societies creates a mobile population that is prone to migrate abroad.

Driven by a desire for higher profits and greater wealth, owners and managers of capitalist firms enter poor countries on the periphery of the world economy in search of land, raw materials, labour and new consumer markets. In the past, this market penetration was assisted by colonial regimes that administered poor regions for the benefit of economic interests in neocolonial governments and multinational firms and perpetuate the power of national elites who either participate in the world economy as capitalists themselves, or offer their nations resources to global firms on acceptable terms.

2.9.6 Network Theory

Migrant networks are sets of interpersonal ties that connect migrants, former migrants, and non-migrant, in origin and destination areas through ties of kinship, friendship, and shared community origin. They increased the likelihood of international movements because they lower the costs and risks of movement and

increase the expected net returns to migration. Network connections constitute a form of social capital that people can draw upon to gain access to foreign employment, once the number of migrants reaches a critical threshold the expansion of network reduces the costs and risks of movement, which further expands the networks, and so on. Overtime migratory behavior spreads outward to encompass broader segments of sending society (Hugo, 1981; Taylor, 1986; Massey, and Garcia, 1987; Massey, 1990a, 1990b).

Migration networks theory involves acknowledging the role of the family and community in migration decisions, in encouraging, or funding the passage, in facilitating settlement and/or retaining ties to home. It recognizes that migration is an ongoing process; that a movement once established can become self-sustaining through the use of these networks. Migrant networks aid settlement and enable community formation. Migrant groups develop their own social and economic infrastructure, with associations, clubs, places of worship, shops, cafes, and even professionals such as doctors and lawyers. Hein de Haas (2010) has recently argued that networks theory tries to understand the internal dynamics of migration systems and is good at understanding how they become sustaining or self-perpetuating, but is less good at understanding how migration systems and networks are (differentially) initiated, their diverse trajectories, or what he calls their breakdown. Haas suggests analysis of 'feedback systems' in sending and receiving countries that serve to trigger and eventually end migration flows. This is a useful way of thinking about the role of communities of practice and conjuncture-specific structures for migrants at home, away, and inbetween.

2.9.7 Migration System Theory

The various propositions of world system theory network theory, institutional theory and the theory of cumulative causation all suggest that migration flows acquire a measure of stability and structure over space and time, allowing for the identification of stable international migration systems. These systems are characterized by relatively intense exchanges of goods, capital, and people between certain countries and less intense exchange between others. An international migration generally includes a core receiving region, which may be a country or group of countries and a

set of specific sending countries linked to it by unusually large flows of immigrants (Fawcett, J.T, 1989, Zlotnik, H, 1992).

2.9.8 Pull and Push Theory

Implicitly or explicitly, gravity and push-pull models are rooted into functionalist social theory. Functionalist social theory tends to see society as a system – or an aggregate of interdependent parts, with a tendency towards equilibrium. This perspective, in which people are expected to move from low-income to high-income areas, has remained dominant in migration studies since Ravenstein (1885; 1889) formulated his laws of migration. The idea that migration is a function of spatial disequilibria constitutes the cornerstone assumption of so-called ‘push-pull’ models which still dominate much gravity based migration modeling as well as commonsensical and non-specialist academic thinking about migration. Push-pull models usually identify various economic, environmental, and demographic factors which are assumed to push migrants out of places of origin and lure them into destination places. While deeply rooted in functionalist, equilibrium thinking, it is difficult to classify push-pull models a theory because they tend merely to specify a rather ambiguous list of factors that play ‘a’ role in migration. Push-pull models tend to be static and tend to portray migrants as ‘passive pawns’ lacking any agency (which can perhaps be defined as the ability of people to make independent choices to act or not act in specific ways – and, crucially, to alter structure) and fail to conceptualize migration as a process (DeHaas, 2010a).

Economic explanations of migration behaviour can incorporate motivations for migration beyond just economic factors, often referred to in terms of ‘push and pull’ factors (from Lee, 1966). The suggestion is that some forces act to push people from their place of residence while others exert a magnetic-like force that attract migrants to particular places. Push factors other than economic forces can include demographic growth, low living standards, and political repression, while political freedom and availability of land are some examples of non-economic pull factors (Castles and Miller, 1999).

2.9.9 Transnationalism

During the 1990s migration literature began to criticize the methodological nationalism inherent in mainstream social science, accusing it of positing the nation/state/society as the natural social and political form of the world (Wimmer and Glick Schiller 2002a: 302). Instead scholars proposed the concept of transnationalism as a more appropriate way to describe and explore contemporary, novel, migrant identities and communities (Faist, 2000; Glick Schiller, 1997; Urry, 2000; Vertovec, 1999). Portes (1999: 217) contend that we have witnessed the emergence of a new social field in which mobile individuals and communities increasingly live dual lives, forging social contacts and making a living across national borders, while speaking the language of both countries and retaining both as home. Nina Glick Schiller and her colleagues use the label 'transmigrants' for the individuals who maintain these affective and instrumental relationships across national borders (Basch 1994; Wimmer and Schiller, 2002b). The transnational elites, a term used for highly skilled professionals in global cities (Beverstock, 2005), are the archetypal transmigrant; the nomadic worker, the embodiment of flows of knowledge, skills and intelligence who occupy segregated communities in cross border space (Castells, 2000). Transnationalism is a concept, or a perspective (Faist 2010), that enables us to think/see across boundaries, to observe connections between places and peoples, to consider links people have outside the nation, and to look at the impacts of these in terms of identities (or habitus) and actions and structures (2). It is also a call to researchers not to ignore things outside of the state (not to be methodologically nationalist). It thus has a massive contribution to make to practice stories of migration.

Migration studies has long recognized that migrants retain ties with their origins through correspondences and remittances, (starting perhaps with Thomas and Znaniecki's, 1927, *The Polish Peasant in Europe and America*), but by the 1920s and 30s researchers began to concentrate more on settlement, adaptation, and social exclusion. Transnationalism therefore serves to ensure that researchers do not restrict their gaze to only trying to understand assimilation or incorporation or its lack. There can sometimes be a tendency in transnationalism literature to ignore restrictions to movement, and the continuing power of the state to contain and exclude. It also tends

to overlook the power of the state to encourage mobility. It sometimes tries to contain migrants within transnational spaces, just as earlier literature tried to contain it in nation states. Beck (1992) believes transnational connections undermine sovereign national states, leading to multiple identities and citizenship; certainly developments in transnational theory have led academics to rethink rights and obligations outside state borders. Faist (2010) suggests 'transnational studies' could benefit from combining a transnational perspective with a world systems approach. Transnationalism is good for addressing 'how 'old' national, international and local institutions acquire 'new' meanings and functions in the process of cross-border transaction' (2010, 1666) whereas 'world systems theory is useful in outlining the asymmetric power relationships between emigration and immigration regions' (2010, 1671).

2.10 Bourdieu the theory of practice

2.10.1 Practices

which are generated by habitus do not exist in a disorganized vacuum but rather within a structured framework, which Bourdieu conceives of as belonging to a social field. If habitus determines the subject's goal and internal constraints, the social field focuses on the objective goal and external conditions (Bourdieu, 1977: 78-79; Bourdieu and Wacquant, 1992: 97). Every social field has its own rules which are neither explicit nor codified and which can, with caution, be compared to a game (Bourdieu and Wacquant, 1992: 98). These principles constitute what is possible or impossible, and what is allowed and not allowed within the game. These constitutive rules are only very rarely explicitly formulated. Players consciously or unconsciously accept the explicit and/or implicit rules of the game (Bourdieu and Wacquant, 1992:98-100). To overcome the rigidity of these 'rules of the game', Bourdieu introduces the term "strategy". Strategies are products of habitus and of practices adapted to a social field. They regulate most behaviour. Even if the interests of agents determine their strategies, this is not normally through a fully conscious and rational calculation of risks or resource deployment: it is determined more by a sense of reality. The choice and implementation of a strategy are part of habitus. They allow the agent to make a

without consciously thinking about it. They can be seen as constraints, but they at the same time make a “game” really possible. Each social field has its own respective social structure and social order. A social field is composed of the availability of multiple forms of capital agents possess. They condition the position of an actor in relation to other social actors within a social field (Bourdieu and Wacquant, 1992: 94-114; Mahar et al., 1990).

The Theory of Practice provides a clearer understanding of the relationship between individuals and society with its attendant power relations. It sheds more light on explanations of how and why migrants and their non-migrating family members may benefit from migration and of what sometimes prevents them from doing so; at the same time shows the inter linkages between sending and receiving regions (Thieme, 2006).

2.10.2 Habitus

Habitus operates at the subconscious level. It is a socially and culturally conditioned set of durable dispositions for social actions and thus a product of history. It describes the presence of past experiences, which is represented by an actor’s present and future perception, thinking and action (Bourdieu, 1977: Bourdieu, 1990: 53; also Grenfell and James, 1998: 61). Habitus is internalized and gives individuals a sense of how to act in specific situations, without continually having to make fully conscious decisions. It generates practice and limits people’s possibilities at the same time. It is shared by people of similar status but varies across different social groups.

2.10.3 Capital

In any analysis of society, capital must be taken into account in all its forms, and not just economic capital, which is probably the best known. Bourdieu uses the economic term ‘capital’ to show that relationships and exchanges within a society cannot only be reduced to an economic rationale including the exchange of goods, material self-interest and profit maximization (Bourdieu, 1986). There are as many interests and values to be maximized as there are social fields. Bourdieu therefore defines capital very broadly. Capital is accumulated labour and includes all material and symbolic goods that present themselves as rare and worthy of being sought after

in a particular social formation (Bourdieu, 1986). Bourdieu distinguishes between economic, cultural, social and symbolic capital. Economic capital is the ownership of monetary profit and can be cashed in, for example a house or livestock that can be sold. Cultural capital is the product of intellectual ability or educational qualifications. Social capital consists of a network of lasting social relations or an individual's circle of acquaintances. Symbolic capital is the recognition and legitimization of other forms of capital, such as economic or social, which can lend a person prestige and reputation (Bourdieu, 1986; Schwingel, 1995: 92-3). All forms of capital can be transformed into one another, not automatically but through transformation work (Bourdieu).

2.3 Conceptual Frame Work of the Study

Male labour migration across the border to India forms an important livelihood strategy among households in middle hills in Nepal (Hutt, 1998; Pfaff-Czarnecka, 1995; Seddon, Adhikari and Gurung, 2002). Hardly any area in the hills of Nepal remains untouched by the practice of young men's outflow to India or, increasingly in the recent years, to various global destinations. In the villages and towns throughout the region people often say that there is no one left in the villages but the old people, women and little children. While this does not mean that all young men out-migrate; the historical practice of out-migration combined with higher aspiration among the younger generation to leave rural villages in search of employment and associated opportunities to participate in consumption activities in cities and towns, often means that those who stay back are equally affected by 'culture of migration' (Cohen, 2004). The concept of 'culture of migration' adequately captures the pervasive nature of migration in the middle hills that has long remained a historical practice among the village households. Furthermore, migration decision is a part of everyday life experience, and households consider migration as one of the key strategies of managing their livelihoods, although not everyone migrates.

Seasonal labour migration is one of the livelihood strategies of the rural people. It supports to change their living style gradually by changing their occupation and level of income. For the work, huge mass of the people leaved their home and reached at the work place out of the district for the short period of time in the season of

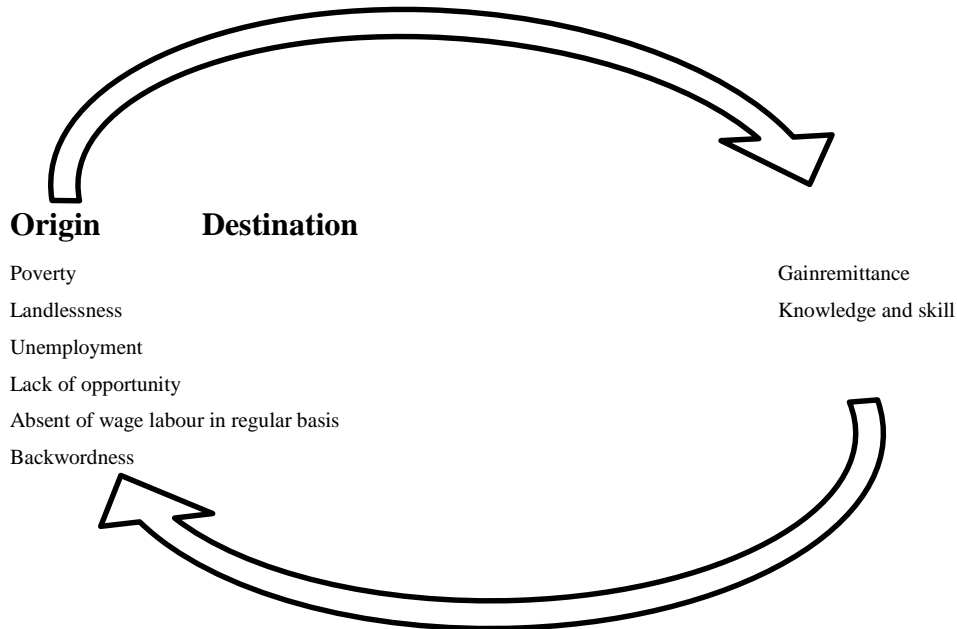
cultivation and harvesting (Mishra, 2000, CEDA, 1977). They got the opportunity of earning more money in non- agricultural wage work and attracted the huge mass towards it by the years. They spend the earning amount in managing food for the family at first than after the remaining amount is used to purchasing clothes, households assets and also invest in children's education as the house hold priority.

The difficult economic conditions at home, poverty, landless ness, food scarcity un employment and lack of work in the regular basis push the rural prone of the hill and teraiin the mid-west region to migrate as a seasonal labour migrants to India. In other hand the immense work opportunities, nearness, cheap travel fare and easy access of transportation pull them to migrate India. In such context, due to lack of alternatives they decide to migrate as a seasonal labour migrant to India. They involved in different agricultural and non-agricultural sectors for their better livelihood.

The figure No.1 shows the way of livelihood operation of seasonal labour migrants. It helps to enhance the education level, awareness of health, sanitation, quality of life, income and reduce the household size by utilization of the remittance etc.

Figure No 1

Circulation



Inputs: Seasonal labour migration

Outcomes: Improvement in their livelihood

Out puts:

-) Change in occupation
-) Raised in both income and expenditure
-) Saving habit in practice
-) Established social network
-) Household education raised
-) Improved in health and sanitation
-) Improved household infrastructures
-) Acculturation introduced

Research Gap

There are many more research in the field of migration livelihood and the positive aspect of the labour migration. It is fact that migration provides the remittance and it contributes to the individual, household and national economy. It terms of the developing countries along with Nepal. National economy is transferring remittance based economy which is not considered positive for long run.

Inthe last many years,many of the scholars researched on the migration to India from the mid and far western hills of Nepal. They have been discussed on various topics in migration like as the history, trend, characteristics, and causes of migration to India. Many of the research work have been done in the migration to India and the risk of HIV/AIDs to the Nepali migrants mainly in the far-western development region.Thousands of people get infected and died by Aids.There are many more research area which has been left behind in the various aspect of migration such as, permanent migration, citizenship, Nepali skilled professionals in prestigious multinational IT companies, hospitals and star hotels likewise different spears of the migration can be researched.

Mostly not only the people of certain mid and far-western hills migrate to India. People from the entire Nepal migrate to India so research of thedifferent region should be conducted. The thousands of people from the eastern, western and central development region migrate to the West Bengal Darjeeling to the South Indian city of Channai, Tamil Nadu and Andra Pradesh in different sectors. This could bring new insight to the research study.

2.4 Chapter Summary

This chapter accumulated the literature related to seasonal labour migration and livelihood. Some major theories are presented in the last then conceptualization is presented basically South Asian trend and the trend of mid and far western hills and terai of Nepal. The conceptual frame work has been developed based on the study of literatures related to seasonal labour migration to India and the livelihood strategy of the rural people.

CHAPTER THREE

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

Research is a process of finding or proofing a new or old one while methodology is a guideline to complete that process. In this way this chapter covers the methodology of study covering the introduction of the study area, sampling method, source of data, research design, questionnaire design, data collection and data analysis and management.

3.1 Introduction to the Study Area

The study area of this research work is specific Chisapani VDC-9 Dallichaur, Banke. A part of Province No. 5 is one of the seventy-five districts of Nepal. This place is situated in Bheri zone, Midwest, Nepal its geographical coordinates are 28° 38' 0" North, 81° 17' 0" East. Nepalgunj as its district headquarter, covers an area of 2,337 km² and had a population 491,313 in census 2011. There are three main cities in the Banke district: Nepalgunj, Kohalpur and Khajura Bazaar. Banke is bordered on the west by Bardiya district.

Rapti zone's Salyan and Dang Deukhuri districts border to the north and east. To the south lies Uttar Pradesh, India, a country in Asia; specifically Shrawasti and Bahraich districts of Awadh. East of Nepalgunj the international border follows the southern edge of the Dudhwa Range of the Siwaliks. Most of the district is drained by the Rapti, except the district's western edge is drained by the Babai. Rapti and Babai cross into Uttar Pradesh, a state in India, Nepal's neighboring country and eventually join the Karnali, whose name has changed to Ghaghara.

An Indian Railways line reaches Rupaidiha across the border. It involves train changes at Gonda, Bahraich and Nanpara. For travellers coming in from India it is also possible to take an express train to Lucknow and from there a direct bus to Rupaidiha. Indian and Nepalese nationals may cross the border without restrictions; however, there is a customs checkpoint for goods and third country nationals.

Nepalgunj has a sub-tropical climate. Temperatures sometimes exceed 40 °C (104 °F) from April to June. During the rainy season-arriving in June and lasting into

September—it is less hot but sometimes very humid. Winter is usually pleasant while the sun is out. It sometimes is foggy and overcast; then it can be chilly with temperatures below 10 °C (41 °F) but no frost. The highest temperature ever recorded in Nepalgunj was 45.0 °C (113.0 °F) on the 16th June 1995, while the lowest temperature ever recorded was –0.3 °C (31.5 °F) on the 9th January 2013.

There are one Sub-metropolitan city, one Municipality and six Rural Municipalities in Banke District. Nepalgunj Sub-Metropolitan City, Kohalpur Municipality, Rapti-Sonari Rural Municipality, Narainapur Rural Municipality, Duduwa Rural Municipality, Janaki Rural Municipality, Khajura Rural Municipality, Baijanath Rural Municipality.

Banke district is a rural district with 85 percent of its 0.49 million population (2011 CBS) living in the forty-six VDCs and only 15 per cent in Nepalgunj municipality. Banke is among the top twenty highest paddy producing districts (0.1 million tons/year) of the country and is ranked 15th among wheat producing districts (70 thousand tons per year) based on data collected by MoAD averaged over last five years. Major agricultural products exported to India from Banke include pulses, oil seeds, spices, quinoa, and herbs and was worth NPR 5.15 million for the FY 2012/13 (DADO, Banke).

Banke district houses large forest area and arable land in the district accounts for about 25.35 per cent or 52.8 thousand ha (CBS 2011). Seventy one per cent of the cultivable land is Khetor low land (37.8 thousand ha) and the remaining 15 thousand ha is upland area. Agriculture in the district is predominantly rain-fed with only 21.9 per cent of the cultivable land with intermittent irrigation facilities. Forests account for 50.17 per cent (0.11 million ha) of total land of the district. Major ecosystems in the district are Sal forest, deciduous riverine forest, savannahs and grasslands, mixed hardwood forest, flood plain community, Bhabar and foot hills of Chure range. The major timbers in the forest are Sal, Karma, Khair and Sissoo species (DWNPC).

Chisapani is a former VDC of Banke district now it is known as Baijanath Rural Municipality. It is situated in the northern part of Nepalgunj, 27 km faraway from Chisapani VDC. Bardia National Park (Belwa VDC) is in western part of Chisapani VDC and Banke National Park is in eastern part of Chisapani VDC which lies in Naubasta VDC. It is 140 m height from the sea level.

There are 47 VDC in Banke District. Now it has been merged in 6 rural municipalities. Chisapani VDC has 9 wards. The total population of this VDC is 7995 having 3739 male and 4256 female, with 1324 households. The total population of the study area of the Chisapani VDC-9 Dallichaur is 1932 having 825 male and 1107 female with 257 household.

The main occupation of the people in this village is agriculture, 86%, people depends on agriculture and livestock are 39.26%, government job, 5.77% and foreign employment 17.32% meant absentee population are 259 in 183 households, male 211 and female 48, census 2011. The inhabitant of this VDC Brahmin, Chettri, Thakuri, 63.29%, Ethnic, 19.46%, Dalit 16.54%, and Madhesi 0.71%. In this VDC 43.83% households are below the poverty line.

Researcher selected this specific village because offirstly herself a permanent resident of this VDC. She has been acknowledged about the seasonal migration to India from the rural marginalized men usually single but somehow with their spouse and children. It makes researcher always very curious about their migration process from her early days and secondly there is a high flow of seasonal labour migration to India from the most popular entry and exit point Indo Nepal border Rupaidiha. Huge numbers of people migrate as seasonal migrants annually individually or with their family members, friends and relatives from this Chisapani VDC-9 Dallichaur, Banke. Massive number of people makes human caravan in the village and in the border area in the coming and going process to India.

3.2 Research Design

For the comparative study both the descriptive and exploratory methods are employed in the research design. Qualitative technique is used to collect primary and secondary data. In order to achieve the research objectives, all the available data are produced in simpler descriptive presentation. Responses of the respondents have been interpreted on the analytical basis. The qualitative data are utilized in appropriate sections/sub section are required.

3.3 Sample Size and Sampling Method

The 55 sample size was taken to fulfill the objective of the research in the Chisapani VDC-9 Dallichaur Banke district. Due to the lack of proper information of seasonal labour migrants of district at village development committee level information were collected with the help of VDC secretary. Researcher used both purposive and non-purposive sampling method for the selection of the area, number of individual and VDC. Though about migrant, most of the people destination is India which is included in this study. Due to lack of formal data on seasonal labour migration in district these sampling procedures would be more reliable to collect the analytical data from the field.

3.4 Nature and Sources of Data

Qualitative data were derived by employing primary as well as secondary sources. Primary data were collected by field survey with the help of checklist to gather the information from the individual migrants, On the other hand and feeling related information was collected by face to face interview with respondents. The researcher personally involved to collect all required data from the field. These secondary data were derived from various published and unpublished material, report, articles, previous dissertation etc. The secondary information has been taken in reference to various published and unpublished material. The published and unpublished journals, books, literatures, documents as well as websites were consulted to collect important and essential information to complete this task.

3.5 Interview Design

Qualitative data were collected using a checklist of interview. One set of checklist was used to collect some economic, social and demographic information of the individual was prepared to collect information by checklist. Two focus group discussions were conducted to collect information from the migrant family, relatives and other persons. FGD guide line related to the topic.

3.6 Data Collection Procedures

The data were collected on the basis of above mentioned check list of interview and FGD guide line as follows.

Qualitative data were collected using structural check list for interview schedule by face to face interview with the respondents. Two focus group discussions were taken to fulfill the objective of the study. Data were collected by involving the researcher own self as well as with the help of assistants.

3.7 Data Management and Analysis

Analysis is presented mainly in analytical procedure. Qualitative data were adopted in the analysis of interrelationship of labour migration and livelihood, the qualitative data as well as the facts and information collected through the in depth interviews and observation are presented systematically and logically.

3.8 Limitation of the Study

The study is limited to the seasonal labour migration to India. Since the data used in the study is not collected from the whole VDC's but only 55 seasonal migrants were selected for the study from the single ward. These data were collected by check list of interview. The study is intended to focus only variables related to seasonal labour migration and livelihood of the rural people in Chisapani VDC-9 Dallichaur, Banke.

This is the study conducted for partial fulfillment of the Master in Philosophy in Sociology in this context the sample size may or may not represent the whole population of the region.

There may be various variables which may affect the livelihood of the rural people. Seasonal labour is considered as the most important variable among others that supports to make their better livelihood. This research studies can help better understanding the pattern, causes and impacts of seasonal labour migration and livelihood of the rural marginal migrants.

3.9 Operational Definition

Deshingkar, P, et al. (2009) defined seasonal migration as a temporary move from and followed by return to the normal place of residence, for purposes of employment. This study reveals that some households barely manage to raise themselves (Mosse, 2002) and not just a response to emergencies. Above existing survival levels, while others accumulate wealth over time. However, what is clear is that most would be worse off if they were depending solely on local employment.

More recently, the idea of migration as a coping strategy (Davies, 1996) is gaining acceptance. This is migration that is integral to people's coping, survival and livelihood strategies (Rao, 2001; Conroy et al, 2001; Mosse, 2002) and not just a response to emergencies.

Seasonal migration that is undertaken to improve the economic position of the household, or accumulative migration, is also being noted by recent research in India. For example Rao, (2001) refers to three kinds of migration in his study of Ananthapur and Rayadurga districts in Andhra Pradesh. Type 1 is migration for coping and survival. Type 2 is defined as migration for additional work/income. It takes place when the work in the village is over, normally after harvesting all crops. Type 3 is migration for better remuneration or a better work environment or opportunity to use skills or acquire new skills.

In this context Breman, (1993) found that the last few decades have witnessed massive seasonal migration of labour force from rural to urban areas. For the poor, the labour class and the marginalized population, migration seems as the only survival option. Lower castes and tribes are disproportionately represented in circular migration streams.

Seasonal/circular migration has played a crucial role in allowing rural people to cope with the consequences of agrarian distress and devastated rural economies in many parts of India. It was suggested that migration helped to raise the migrant household's standard of living (Rao, 1986). The study of Rani and Shylendra (2001) revealed that seasonal migration is mainly due to weak resources, as the cultivable land is small, less fertile and dependent largely on rain-fed cultivation. Moreover, due to inadequate

farm and non-farm employment opportunities within the village, most of the households are compelled to migrate during the lean agricultural season to supplement their farm income.

Seasonal migration across the border between Nepal and India is another feature of the cross border movement of people. It has taken place due to both pull and push factors. It is again difficult to estimate the volume of this migration. Nepalese from mid-west and far west go to India for seasonal work and come back to involve in farming. It is estimated that up to 70 % households in mid-west and far west Nepal have at least a member that goes to India for work. People from Tarai Nepal, particularly eastern Tarai, go to India to work in farming during the peak farming season. On the other hand, a large number of Indian people from Bihar and UP also come to Tarai, Nepal, to work on farming on a seasonal basis. This seasonal migration is basically done to earn some income during the slack farm period. The wage differential is the cause of seasonal migration. Wage rates are generally higher in India and non-farm sector than in agricultural sector. Seasonal migration is the main livelihood source of the poor households in villages (Gill, 2003).

In his study, de Haan (1999) observed that migration is not a choice for poor people, but is the only option for survival after alienation from the land and exploitation in origin places. Hence, in developing countries, the largest proportion of migrants moves between rural and urban areas. Deshingkar, P, et al. (2009) argue that a majority of the seasonal migrants, many of whom are SCs and STs, are poor, and for them migration is a household strategy for managing risk where one or more members of family go away from the village to find work, and that this is a central part of their livelihoods. Whether or not seasonal migration is a coping strategy or becomes more accumulative, depends on a number of factors including improved work availability, rising wages, cutting out intermediaries, and improving skills.

Livelihood the definition: There is a consensus that livelihood is about the ways and means of 'making living'. The most widely accepted definition of livelihood stems from the work of Chambers, and Corny 'a livelihood comprises the capabilities, assets (including both material and social resources) and activities required for means of

living' (Ellis, 2000) suggests a definition of livelihood as 'the activities, the assets and the access that jointly determine the living gained by an individual or household'.

Therefore, researcher has tried to cover the characteristic of livelihood defined by above mentioned Social Scientist as possible such as 'the activities, the assets, the access' that jointly determine the living gained by an individual or household.

3.10 Chapter Summary

The chapter deals with methodological part of the study. This chapter includes methodological aspects as introduction of the study area, nature and sources of data, research design, sampling process as well as research instruments. This chapter also deals with data management and analysis along with limitation of the research. The study is focused on the seasonal labour migration and livelihood strategy of rural household of Chisapani VDC-9 Dallichaur, Banke district.

CHAPTER FOUR

PATTERN OF SEASONAL LABOUR MIGRATION

This chapter deals with individual migrant related aspect from the prospective of migration. The study indicates to the destination as well as expenditure of migration and feeling views of the individual towards the migration. This chapter covers understanding as well as overall scenario of migrant.

4.1 Seasonal Migration

Seasonal labour migration has long been part of the livelihood portfolio of poor people across Nepal. Seasonal migration in a year the idea of migration as a coping strategy (Davies, 1996) is gaining acceptance. This is migration that is integral to people's coping, survival and livelihood strategies (Rao, 2001; Conroy, 2001; Mosse, 2002) seasonal labour migration not just a response to emergencies. It is now recognised that migration is a part of the normal livelihood strategy of the poor (Haan, 1997) and does not occur only during times of emergency or distress.

It is found that the majority of seasonal labour migrants are migrated two times in a year especially in the season of cultivation and harvesting. In the study researcher found total migrants migrates twice a year in the rainy and autumn. They stay 2/3 months in the destination in the rainy season and 6/7 months in the autumn season. In the rainy season migration is no longer than 3 months they spoke due to the biggest festival of Hindu Dashain and Tihar the respondent return back after the short term stay in India because they attain the festival with their family. This seems compulsory for them to be with their family members. In another hand the autumn migration is longer in the comparison of the rainy migration because it last for 6/7 months some migrant return in Chaitya Dashain otherwise other of the migrants return in the time of cultivation. Among the 55 respondent in the study area all of the seasonal migrant are found return in the Dashain and Tihar. But in the case of autumn season migration very high number of respondent return back to their origin in the Chaitya dashain the number is 39 people and following this other 6 respondent return only in the time of agricultural cultivation season. There are no significant differences between the male and female in terms of taking part in seasonal labour migration in a year because they

migrate together with their spouse and family members. Expect it, male proportion is found higher than female in the participation.

4.1.2 Month of Migration

The study found that the preferable months of the seasonal labour migration are June /July in the rainy and November/December Autumn season. After the season of crops cultivation and harvesting they move for seasonal labour migration to India. Which are known as the pick agricultural season in both places of the origin and destination. Researcher found 13 people migrating in the month of June and rest of 42 people found taking part in the migration in the July in rainy and in the case of autumn migration in winter 19 people found in the month of November and rest of the 36 people found in the month December. The migrant finish their cultivation work showing wheat and pulse in their own field or they does the sharing crop cultivation to the land owner and moves for the destination where he/she conduct such manual work in the agriculture field.

4.1.3 Prime Destination of Migration

Migration to India is a very common practice among the poorer households in the western hills of Nepal. Most of the peoples migrate to India to earn their living from the starting of the history of migration. India was known for the popular destination for the migrants of Nepal when there was no other third world opened for the Nepali migrants. Later the access to the Oil boom countries of Gulf huge number of migrants decreased. It does not mean the whole migration to India has stop. There is a human caravan in the border area of Nepal and India. Number of people departs to India for the seasonal labour migration. Likewise hundred and thousand number of Indian labour enter to Nepal in the search of work from India. As the findings of (Brusle, 2007; Pfaff-Czarnecka, 1995; Thieme, 2006).

According to the respondent migrant the major areas of destination found in this study area the main destination of migrants are Himanchal Pradesh and Uttarakhand. Simla, Kullu, Manali, Bageswar of Himanchal- Pradesh, and Pauri, Garwal, Almoda, Nainitaal, Pithoragadh, Ranikhet in Uttarakhand. Among the total number of the migrants the highest number 30 people were found migrating in the Uttarakhand and

Himanchal Pradesh which is well known as Kala pahar hilly region in India. Which is followed by Punjab Hariyan 10 people, 6 people were found migrating to Gujrat-Rajkot, 3 people in Maharasta- Mumbai, Nasik, 3 people found in Rajasthan Kota, Delhi UP, similarly 3 people in South India-Chennai, Tamilnadu, Banguluru Karnataka, and 1 in Hyderabad AP. Although high proportion of seasonal labour migrants found migrating to Himanchal and Uttarakhand they find it easier destination from their beginning of migration. Some travel farther afield, to Mumbai or Delhi. Sociologist Phanindra Paudyal, who studied Nepali labour in Mumbai 1998, reported that it was the rural poor of the far west district of Nepal, such as Doti, Accham, Baitadi and Dadeldhura that landed up in India's financial capital: "with little or no education, and no off farm experience, these migrants do not have to skilled jobs that are available. They find what work they can on the basis of their reputations as 'brave, sincere and honest Gorkhas'" (Dixit, 1997:16). Some travel east as far as Calcutta or Patna or even as far south as Madras or Bangalore: "at the sub continent's other extremity, in and around the city of Bangalore villagers from Bhajang District in Nepal's far west have established a well organized labour monopoly for themselves.

Gill, 2003, assumes that "labour migration has been a feature of Nepalese livelihood strategies for at least 200 years". In mid-western and far western hill villages, labour migration represents a vital part of rural systems without which life, for most people, would not be sustainable since the economy relies on two main sources of income, rural systems may be describes as "agri migratory".

Nepali migrants must have contributed a lot in the development and economic security of other people in the host country, particularly India. They work with low wage and work hard. As a result, the cost of production or the cost of services would go down. Nepalis are also useful in particular niche of work in which Indians do not have competency or strength. For example, they have been useful for the security of houses, businesses and the like. This is very important for creating good business environment. Another area of work that Nepalis are employed is the infrastructure construction in high hill areas, farming in the hilly areas and other general activities there like portering. It is said in India that the farming in hilly areas of Uttaranchal Pradesh would collapse if Nepali workers do not come

there. Similarly, Nepalese are helping in the construction and maintenance of road and other infrastructure in high altitude areas.

Urban areas of India have changed in the sense that more and more women now participate in formal employment. Taking the case of Delhi, a large number of young girls are brought from Nepal to look after the young children. Similarly, many women are also helping in domestic work undertaking dirty works like cleaning and washing of the house, clothes and dishes. The service of the army personnel is well regarded as they work risking their lives. In recent times, there is a tendency of young Nepali people to undertake restaurants with new food items from Nepal.

4.1.4 Types of Work

The nature of the work of all Nepali workers was found temporary. As mentioned earlier, a vast majority of them were daily wage earners and had not a fixed job to perform. Those who were found to be working in hotel, restaurants and other establishments in monthly salary basis also reported that their job was not permanent. Therefore they were too getting not any facility apart from their monthly salary.

The respondent states about the work variation in the working place Road construction, breaking stone and making pebbles, carrying stone, brick, mud, soil and rock blasting. Agriculture work- Agriculture farm and manure work, Planting and harvesting, apple picking and loading, some digs field for plantation. Dairy work- like milking cattle, cattle rearing and grazing, grass cutting. Hotel Cook, waiter dish washer. The deforestation of Khair tree, making bhatta of Khair log in Punjab. House hold work-house maid, cleaning and washing, male and female both are involve in the house hold work. They work as Security guard in Company, school, college, hospital hotels and night watchman in the market area. The type of work in destination countries is also different.

Most labourers work in both formal and informal sectors, but mostly as menial workers. Most of these jobs required no skills and education. The most common jobs undertaken by migrants in India were chaukidar (security guard), portering,

domestic help and general unskilled labour work. Chaukidar was the most sought after work by Nepali migrants, but this seems to have been difficult in recent years. The more and more formalization of 'security jobs' by security companies like 'group four' is reducing the opportunities for Nepalese. Analysis of the work also reveals that there is a direct correlation between educational status and the nature of work. Poor and illiterate people were found to work in informal sector like domestic help, watchman, porter, farm labor and hotel/restaurant workers. Prior to migration, most of them worked in farming. The income level also varied with the age and strength. The Nepali migrants in India who are prefer to work as porter and get more money.

The case of Indian migrants is slightly different. While, a relatively more Indians who come to Nepal are skilled and educated and are involved in professional work or trade, a large number of them also work as Nepali migrants in India. But, it is widely reported that their income is higher than that of Nepalis in India.

4.1.5 Age of First Time Migration

The practice of migration to work in India starts often at a younger age, and many continue to travel back and forth until they are old. As the finding of theory of practice of Bourdieu People are always in practical relations to the world: 'the habitus is constituted in practice and is always oriented to practical functions' (1990: 52). The focus of empirical work, then, should not rest with an analysis of rules (structures, norms, laws) and how people respond, nor economic factors and how they 'drive' people, but instead should explore the ways in which people work things through in practice. Practice theory (Bourdieu 1977,) draws attention to the ways in which the social world emerges out of an ongoing interrelationship between structures and the way they are interpreted and enacted.

Their first time migration has been found at the early age of 13 to 20 years migrating to India till the age of nearly at the age of 68 to 70 years. The total number of the migrant from the study area the active number of people found their first time migration process at the age of 13-14 were 14 likewise 15-16 were 26 and 17-20 were 15 this indicates the cause of illiteracy and low educational level of the seasonal

labour migrants. That makes migrants always remain unskilled and low wage labour in their entire life.

4.1.6 Destination of First time Migration

Generally volume of migration is high in the short distance (Revenstein, 1989). The first time destination of the migrants are different part of India They started their first time migration in the different rural and urban parts of India. From their origin which was easier and usual route for the migration. Basically the migrants from Jumla, Humla, Mugu, Kalikot, Daileshkh and Jajarkot migrates to Himanchal and Uttarakhand (Kala Pahar), from Accham to Dehli, Mumbai, from Bajhang Bajhura to Bangaluru, Chennai, from Rukum, Rolpa, Salyan to Punjab.

Among all of the respondent from the study area the highest number of migrants 40 are found first time migrate to the Simla, Kullu, Manali Himanchal Pradesh Pauri, garwal, Almora, Nainital, Ranikhet Uttarakhand and rest of 15 people were found to the rest of other destination of India Gujarat Rajkot, Delhi, Rajesthan Kota UP, Chennai Tamilnadu, Bangaluru Karnataka, Heydrabad AP Jammu Kashmir Srinagar, Laddhakh, Punjab Hariyana, Maharastra Mumbai, Nasik.

4.1.7 Finance Management for Migration

It is not easy to manage money for the migration to rural poor people. They have to manage for their departure from different sources. Although the migration expenditure is not so high for India it is cheap in the context of other countries. Migrant have to face some difficulties in the origin to collect money for the expenditure.

From the total respondent from the study area most of respondent address their problem of financial management. Among the 55 total respondent 9 burrow from friends and relatives likewise 18 ask debt from the money lender where the interest percent is very high to pay it start from 3-6 percent similarly the rest of other remain 28 respondent manage their migration expenditure by them self. This shows the circumstances of the rural poor how they suffer from the little sum of money in the

time of migration process. It is bitter truth they became the victim of high rate of interest to the moneylender in the origin.

4.1.8 Involvement in Migration in their Life Time

Nepal is well known as the country of labour factory in the world which is known as human capital. Huge numbers of youth enter in the labour market every year. Nepal is one of the highest labour exporting country in the world. The huge numbers are uneducated and unskilled labour those who are migrate as an unskilled and low wage labour in the third world countries of GCC, South Korea, including India. The young and able bodied people involve in the 3D work (danger, dirty, difficult) in the country of destination. Country depends on the remittances of the foreign migrants including India.

The main of cause migration are poverty, landless ness, unemployment are the push factors likewise the easy access of migration like low expenditure, transportation facilities, nearer to origin and high opportunity availability in the host country are the pull factors of the seasonal labour migration. Migration is conducted for the economic propose. High labour force moves to the host country for the cash income for the individual and house hold level. It tries to reduce the household chronic poverty. Due to the low amount of remittance earned in the host country there is not found any high expectation from the seasonal labour migrants. It is just for survival.

Migration often involves a transfer of the most valuable economic resource human capital from a poor country to a rich one. The family, local community and state of the place of origin have borne the costs of upbringing of the migrant to young adulthood. The immigration country will reap the benefits of this investment, and the migrant will often return home after completing his or her work in life Stephen Castles to once again be the responsibility of the country of origin. It is only worthwhile for the emigration country if the gain in human capital (enhanced skills and productivity) through working abroad can be productively utilized upon return and the transfer of income from migration country outweighs the costs of upbringing of the migrant. Both labour importing and labour exporting countries often pursue short term aims. The former are concerned with obtaining a flexible, low cost labour force. The latter are mainly concerned with generating

jobs for an underutilized workforce and with getting the maximum possible inflow of worker remittances.

From the study it has been found that the last 5-45 years in migration to India. These involvement starts at the early age of 13 and it last at the age of 68 to 70 years. Which is very interesting to heard no one could imagine how long time they contribute to the host country. In the study area researcher found the respondent who have been migrating from last 40-45 years are 6 this is followed by the 30-35 years are 12 likewise 20-25 years are 13, 15-20 year are 13, last 10-15 years are 6 and migration from the last 5 years accounts 5 people. It makes surprising contribution of the Nepali seasonal labour migration to India. It shows how patient are the migrant, how did they sacrifice their whole life in the process of coming and going to the different part of the destination.

The above are the general benefits that host country like India are getting from migrants from Nepal. But it is difficult to estimate quantitatively the contribution made.

4.1.9 Continuity in Migration

Seasonal labour migration has great contribution in advancing the individual, household as well as national economy. People take it as a way to reduce poverty in the rural area and in country as to be ideal in own country without jobs. All of the migrant are not happy and their feeling is not satisfactory but they are constraint to migrate for their better livelihood.

Respondent in the study area are positive towards continuity of their seasonal migration in coming future to the host country. The importance of earning for their everyday life is most important, and they are more conscious about the cash income, which makes big deal at the time of the emergency. They think here are not any options of work in our country or in our locality, so they are willing to continue their migration to India. Here are some aspects about their continuity in future. Among the 55 respondent of the study area the highest number of people are found to continue their migration process in future 48 accounts to continue rest of 7 are hopeful to migrate to Gulf destination after earning some amount of remittance in India they will

try for Gulf countries like KSA, UAE, Qatar, Oman, Kuwait, and Malaysia. Generally the huge number of respondent are willing continue their movement to India, they take it as an easy and nearer destination but the new generation are mentally prepaid for the Gulf migration.

4.1.10 Gender and Migration

In the case of female participation there is less involvement found from the beginning of the seasonal labour process to India. Which theory did not match to the Ravenstien 'the law of migration' were he has state that female are more migratory than male although the case was of short distance female migration. The study shows about the female are rarely participate in the migration process with their spouse and family members. Otherwise there is not any other individual participant in the migration. According to the complex circumstances in the destination they are not allowed to take their spouse with them together. They showed the cause of personal security of the female in the destination which is very important for the female migrant. Researcher was curious about the less engagement of female migration with the spouse and members. They exclaim due to the unfavorable condition for female they dislike taking their spouse to the host country. Researcher found about the reality of the high risk of children and girls trafficking cases in the destination. They spoke only rare numbers of female are found engaged in labour migration to India. Main important finding found in the study was the most of the prone household female used to migrate with spouse and whole family members. According to the study them the family with landless a very amount of land size are seems migrating in the of daily wage labour to the destination. Most of the male spouse felt unsecure with the female migrants. That is why they left their family especially female back at home and move with the male group.

There were total 9 female respondents in the study. Female were asked about feeling towards the seasonal migration how they feel. The response was positive. They told they feel good and never faces any torture or case of humiliation in the destination. They report there is good environment for work there is not any case of humiliation in the working place. They spoke their earning their work condition types of work. Among the female respondent they report about their work that varies according to

season they are mostly agriculture farm worker they work together with their spouse. Sometime they involve in the road construction. They also claim about the low wage of the destination and expressed their dissatisfaction towards the seasonal labour. According to them they migrate for the support of the house hold income otherwise they suffer whole year in the shortage of food stuff and household assets. The most female respondent found active in their everyday life and they claim they are empowered by migration process they know their earning and expenditure makes them happy with their family member. Mostly they are illiterate and they are from adult age. They are adopting this migration process from last 10-30 years. According to them they feel seasonal migration is one the important source of income which helps them in the time of food scarcity. That helps for child education to celebrate feast and festival to attention social function and all house hold assets. They accept female and family migration together makes more supportive and surplus income for the livelihood for the individual and household level. The female migrant are found willing to continue the migration process to the destination with the spouse and family member for their betterment of the individual and household. Their likelihood seems strong for the seasonal labour migration.

4.1.11 Chapter Summary

This chapter outlined the pattern of the seasonal labour migrants. It indicates when, where, how and how long does the process of migrate takes place. Seasonal labour migration is considered as the one the important coping strategy for the livelihood portfolio of the rural individual and farm household. According to the respondent seasonal migration took place twice in a year in the month of June/July in rainy and November/December in the autumn season. It last up to 2-3 in rainy and 6/7 months in the autumn season. There prime destination varies, highest number of respondent nearly 30 found in migrating to the Uttarakhanda and Himanchal Pradesh well known as Kala Pahar and rest of 25 other people migrate to other destination of India. The first time migration was started between 13-20 years they manage the expenditure for the departure some manage themself and other some number borrows with relatives and friend and the ask debt with money lander. In the study life time migration total years of 5-45 is found. The most of the respondent states they are continuing their process of migration in the coming future the number is 48 rest 7 people are wishing to migrate Gulf countries.

CHAPTER FIVE

CAUSES AND IMPACT OF SEASONAL LABOUR MIGRATION

This chapter deals about the causes and the impact of the seasonal labour migration. It is the chapter which tries to address the history and the tradition of the seasonal labour migration.

5.1 Causes for Seasonal Labour Migration

There are two types of causes, one is pulling and another one is pushing which is similar as the migration framework of (Lee 1996 and Zellinsky 1971). The main causes are poverty and food scarcity that pushed people to seasonal labour migration the fact is similar to (Seddon, 2000, Mishra, 2000).

There are other valuable causes that directly or indirectly influence the people to involve in the seasonal labour migration. The one mostly growing causes is pulling factor i.e immense opportunities in the destination and remaining other pushing factors. Absence of regular wage labour in the local level is the main cause seasonal of migration.

The key indicator of globalization is the rapid increase in cross border flows of all sorts: finance, trade, ideas, pollution, media products and people. The key organizing structure for all these flows is the transnational network, which can take the form of transnational corporations, global markets, international governmental and nongovernmental organizations, global criminal syndicates, or transnational cultural communities. The key tool is modern information and communications technology, including the internet, improved telephone connections and cheap air travel (Castells 1996).

People are always in practical relations to the world: 'the habitus is constituted in practice and is always oriented to practical functions' (Bourdieu, 1990: 52). The focus of empirical work, then, should not rest with an analysis of rules (structures, norms, laws) and how people respond, nor economic factors and how they 'drive' people, but instead should explore the ways in which people work things through in practice. Practice theory (in the work of Bourdieu and Giddens)

draws attention to the ways in which the social world emerges out of an ongoing interrelationship between structures.

Among the 55 respondent nearly all of respondent in the study area meant 35 people thought about cause of the poverty, landless ness, food scarcity, unemployment, and rest of 20 respondent reports as the cause of jobless ness and lack of work in regular basis in their own country and locally. These are main causes of seasonal migration which is known as pushing factors for the migrants in their origin and in another side the main pulling factors to migrate to the destination is immense opportunities available in the host country.

In conclusion, the primary cause of seasonal migration for work is the low production in their household and scarcity of wage labour at the local level. That Subedi, 1993 also explained in PHD dissertation about the cause of outgoing worker is the low production in the primary household farming and lack of wage labour at the local level. Similar fact has also been explained by many researchers in Nepal, India, Bangladesh and other South Asian countries such as Subedi, 2000, Mishr, 2000, Gill, 1991.

5.1.2 Importance of Migration

As a major factor in globalization, migration is one of the forces eroding the power of the nation-state. One area in which this is particularly apparent is that of border-control which is usually seen as a crucial aspect of nation-state sovereignty. Reference has already been made to the difficulties experienced by emigration countries in controlling migration flows. Indeed the very fact that large numbers of people have to go abroad to seek a reason able livelihood exposes the inability of the state to bring about economic development, and may lead to a crisis of confidence (Castles, 1998).

Seasonal migration that is undertaken to improve the economic position of the household, Rao (2001) refers to three kinds of migration in his study. Type 1 is migration for coping and survival. Type 2 is defined as migration for additional work/income. It takes place when the work in the village is over, normally after harvesting all crops. Type 3 is migration for better remuneration or a better work

environment or opportunity to use skills or acquire new skills. They observe that there is a continuous transition between the different types. According to neo-classical economic theory, the main cause of migration is individuals' effect to maximize their income by moving from low wage to high wage economies (Borjas, 1989).

Migration is important for the better livelihood for the rural poor. It is essential for everyday life of the migrant individually and household level. The respondent in the study accepts they migrate for the betterment of the individual and household level. Their little effort of migration can help for their survival they replied that it is very essential for their individual and household income. They know the value of income which is very important at time of emergency and household assets. Whether they cannot earn their income they have to face the shortage of financial problem in aspect of life. Migration is essential for the smooth livelihood

Next importance of the seasonal migration is for the cash income for their livelihood, where cash can be easily purchase for every essence. Although the earning in the host country is not high and satisfactory but the migrant think very compulsory for the migration, the little remittance in the host country somehow help in the time of scarcity. Therefore here are some data what the migrants think about their importance of participation in seasonal migration to the host country. Among the total migrants, 37 migrant importance for their livelihood, 12 for cash income, and rest think about the additional earning.

5.1.3 Decision Making for Migration

Migration networks theory involves acknowledging the role of the family and community in migration decisions, in encouraging, or funding the passage, in facilitating settlement and/or retaining ties to home. It recognizes that migration is an ongoing process; that a movement once established can become self-sustaining through the use of these networks. Migrant networks aid settlement and enable community formation.

It is not easy to leave the house and family. People migrate for jobs and better income with uncertain and difficult situation. Day to day we read and view the news of losing and being disable as well as vulnerability in destination facing by the people who are

for better jobs and more income, though people decides for migration. Most of the decision were taken by own self i.e husband. Our society is male dominated and most household decisions are by the male rather than female. Females have to support to their counterpart and very females can oppose the decision of her partner. In some cases family makes decision for migration the senior member of the family decides otherwise male individually make decision for the seasonal migration to India.

In the study all most of all respondent nearly 35 makes their decision individually themselves but 20 followed by the decision of family members. According to the respondent those who make decision themselves they are free to choose the destination where ever they feel comfort and wish to migrate but in the case of the respondent those who obey their family decision they follow their family members and moves with them.

5.1.4 Land Property

Land is considered as major source of property and people are dependent on the agricultural land for their livelihood and agricultural production is the main source of food. In the study there are found unequal distribution of agricultural land. Majority of the total households have little amount of land which is not sufficient for their household livelihood as fact of Subedi, 1993. Though they, have to participate compulsorily. Indeed there are found many of the respondents with less land some of them have their own land but the land holding size is very less than 2 kattha. Here is some land holding size of the respondent. From the total number of the respondent 7 people found with the land holding size of below 1-2 kattha, followed by 17 people with 5-6 kattaha likewise 19 people with 9-10 kattha, another number of 9 holds 20 kattha and respectively 3 holds 30 kattha, which is largest landholding size of the respondent is 30 kattha. The people who were interviewed were mostly poor and belong to low economic background. Some of them are involved in their own cultivation and harvesting work but other are participate in share cropping of land lord.

5.1.5 Food Sufficiency

According to the respondent migrants due to landlessness or less land holding size there is no sufficient food production they start to buy or burrow food stuff from the beginning of the year and rest of them consume hardly of to 3 to 6 months. Most of the migrants face food scarcity from the agriculturally rich months after two or 3 months of the year.

Over all 7 respondents have food sufficiency of 6 months, 16 respondent 3-6 months and rest of the 19 number have food sufficiency, higher number which is followed by the less than 3 months but the 13 respondent of the study face always food scarcity due to less land. In rural area higher land holding is considered as wealthy and have more food production and food sufficiency. The above mention report shows that higher land holders have higher food sufficiency while lower land holding have food sufficiency for six months and lower land holding size has 3-6 months food sufficiency the respondent with very low land of 1-2 kattha face always food scarcity in the whole year and they are the main migrants who migrate for seasonal labour to India.

5.1.6 Low Wage Rate Comparison to India

Most of the respondent of the study argued about the wage rate comparison to Indian currency. According to them they do not think wage rate is highly difference in the origin and destination. They spoke there is not too much high wage rate in India comparison to Nepal. It is similar to Nepali wage rate, the most important issue is absence of work in regular basis which is absence here in the origin but in the host country they can find regular work. The respondents explain there is not leisure time in the host country. They spoke about the unwilling ness to move in the distance place. They wish to work here in their own country in own locality, with their family members if the regular work is available in the locality. In the study over all response was the same the case of absence of work in the regular basis. Among the 55 respondent nearly 48 people exclaim about the irregular work in the origin but rest of 7 people accepted the cause of high wage rate in the host country. According to them the wage is higher in the comparison to the origin, plus the availability of work everywhere.

According to Adhakari, J, most people who moved from Nepal to India as short-term or seasonal or temporary workers do not earn much. But it is done due to compulsion or poverty at home, conflict or the tradition of migrating. For example, a Nepalis earns, on average, about IRs 2,000 a month in India, but this is also high considering that there is lack of employment within the villages. However, the income level varied a lot with education and nature of job. A large number of migrants, almost 40 %, earned from IRs 1,000 to 2,000 in a month. The cooks, chaukidar(watchman), factory workers, experience gardener and the like were found to get this much of salary. These people when they work in formal institutions like companies, big restaurants and hotels and get experience, they will start to get IRs 2,000 to 3,000 a month. Permanent job holders in formal institutions like banks, army, universities, factories and companies were said to get more than IRs 3,000 a month. Only one in four migrants were found to get this level of salary (Adhikari, 2006).

5.1.7 India not Gulf countries

There is a huge trend of Nepali youth moving for countries of Gulf, KSA, Bahrain, UAE, Kuwait, Qatar and Oman (GCC). After the age of 20/21 generally they start making their passport for the foreign labour migration.

Researcher was curious about the cause of what makes them to migrant to India instead of foreign labour migration. There was a variation in response which was very interesting to heard, the older respondents are okay in their seasonal labour migration to their destination. It is nearer and easy for movement in the time of emergency and feast and festivals. They do not want to move for the third world countries because there is a long time contract of 2/3 years. They found it difficult to stay so long out of home place they are not allowed to return back in the time of emergency.

Most of the respondent replied the same answer the main cause is due to poverty they are unable to pay high cost in the international migration process in the third world Gulf countries, passport, medical checkup, air fare and long processing. Some number of youth respondent nearly 7 of the study are found interested in the movement for Gulf but not now later, after earning some amount of necessary expenditure in the India. They are hopeful for their desire for foreign labour migration. The next very

less number nearly 3 peoples disagree for Gulf migration because they have heard about betray from broker in the processing and some of them are frighten of the cruel punishment of Arabic law of the Gulf like sentence to death etc.

5.1.8 Utilize of Leisure Time

They address they are constraint to migrate India to earn cash income for the better livelihood it is not utilizing of leisure time although they wish to stay in their own country and work here but here is nothing to do. Sometime it makes them unhappy they do not want to leave their family back here they want to live together with family. But if they do not migrate it will be difficult to conduct household activities.

From the all most of all respondent some number of the respondent agree with the question of after their own work of field in the pick season of agricultural cultivation and later moves to destination and repeat the same work of cultivation in the destination. The highest amount of people 37 are found positive towards the question the time remain from the agricultural work in the place of origin and little earning in the destination for the certain period of time and returning back to the own origin. Rest of 18 disagreed with the researcher they states there is no any other alternative they are constraint to move for their living cause of the poverty and unemployment they migrate as a seasonal labour migrants.

5.1.9 Enforcement For Migration

Migration is not a choice for poor people, but is the only option for survival after alienation from the land and exploitation in origin places. Hence, in developing countries, the largest proportion migrant moves seasonally as the cross border migrant. The open border has further reinforced independence between them. A large number of migrants move to India to earn their living.

There are various drives of migration which enforce the migrant to leave their origin, firstly the important is the pull factor, available of many more opportunity, easy access for movement, smooth road facility, transportation and cheap expenditure in the receiving country and in the other side poverty, unemployment and lack of work in regular basic in the local level, that makes push for migration. Likewise somehow it

seems influence of network that plays important role for the migration process. They remember the old days and tell their real story of their first time migration how the return migrant from India were treated in the society how much priority was given in the village and respected in a good manner. That makes them influence for the destination and migration. The respondents start asking so many questions about the migration with the regular migrant. In the study according to the highest number of respondent nearly 41 people were driven by push and pull factor and the hence 14 people were influence by the network, at first they left the school and runaway with the migrants to the destination in the interest to see and experience the new place out of home without family. Later this coming and going process became profession of seasonal labour migration.

5.2 Impacts of Seasonal Labour Migration on the livelihood

Generally seasonal labour migration is associated to agricultural migration. It is conducted by the small farm and peasant household in the rural area. People migrate for the cash income for the food security as the coping strategy in the time of food scarcity in the origin which is known as the risk management. High number of unskilled migrant entry in to the work force of the seasonal labour in the destination being uneducated and unskilled they perform as a very low wage labour in the different sectors of as agricultural and non-agriculture. The migrant do not expect high due to their low remittance in the work place, the remittance is not found used in productive it is just consumed in the individual and household. Indeed it cost worthy to the rural poor for their livelihood security. The respondent took it very positive about the earned remittances in the host country. The little sum of the earning is a big means for the migrants because they know the reality of absence of work opportunities. The remittance earned in the host country make big a contribution to the individual and household level. That secures their livings in the place of origin. Although it is not the highly paid destination they feel good to move beside of staying. That makes them to engage in the earning to contribute for themselves and to the family members. It has a positive impact on the livelihood strategy of the individual and household level.

For Bourdieu, economic factors (such as those often identified to explain migration, see Chapter three) have a logic in terms of their impacts on outcomes, but they do not work through rational calculation, nor as structural determinations, but are enacted in rational practice: 'the practice most appropriate to achieve the objectives inscribed in the logic of a particular field at the lowest cost' (Bourdieu, 1990: 50). Practices, he says, are reasonable rather than rational calculations, because they are adjusted to the future, but this does not imply they are necessarily the product of an identifiable plan. Certain rules, norms and routines tend to get followed unconsciously and habitually where conditions have not changed much since the dispositions were formed. sociologists tend to conclude that people are straightforwardly following rules, but they may instead be acting out something of a migration habitus, a tendency towards migration that have developed over generations and through socialization. Habitus is what transforms rules into practice.

5.2.1 Monthly Earnings

Migration is best understood as one of the strategies adopted by individuals, households or communities to enhance their livelihoods. This strategy is much more common than is often assumed, and has been so throughout history.

Migrant remittances represent the largest direct positive impact of migration on migrant sending areas. If one considers labour as an export, then remittances are the part of the payment for exporting labour services that returns to the country of origin.

The annual remittance earn by every seasonal migrant and able to bring money at their origin ranging from below ten thousands to above sixty thousand. Generally male are paid higher than female worker. According to female respondent in the study they spoke about their remittance earn in monthly base 4000-5000. Comparison to the male migrants it is low rate of remittance which is paid to female workers in the destination. According to the male respondent report that there is variation in the earnings of the migrant worker that depends due to the nature of their work in different sectors provides different salary. In the study their daily wage starts from 150 to 500 per day it meant 4500 to 15000 per month that differ according to their work place and to the nature of their work. It match with the finding is similar to

(Adhikari, j, 2006) where he address Nepali labour migrants are low paid worker in India. They are unable to improve their standard of living by the low rate of remittances. Researcher found the remittance earn in the destination is consumed in the household assets which could not be used in any productive work.

5.2.2 Increase in Income Level after Migration

Migration is related with the economic aspect of the people whether in the rural or urban area. People migrate distant for the expectation of some earning for the living. Although the remittances are very low they try to adjust for individual and household which is taken seriously for the survival. The migrant do not expect high level of income but they want to come out from the chronic poverty which they are facing from the last many generation.

Almost of the all respondent in the study well known about the low rate of earning in the destination but they accept the reality of being able to earn their livelihood which make them easier for everyday life. Although it is not too much high but they think their income level has been increased after the seasonal labour migration to India. Among the total respondent highest number of people 47 accept increase in income level thought they become secure, followed by 8 disagree with the due to the low rate of income makes them disagree but most of the respondent thought their income level has increased after migration. They feel easy in the time of emergency at home. They could afford their basic need. They do not have to ask debt in the time of urgent with the landlord in a high interest that feel them migration has contributed for little bit increase in income level. It is take it as positive aspect of seasonal labour migration.

5.2.3 Purchase of Land Property

Land is another kind of capital of natural capital where people can make their shelter and use it for their livelihood by producing more production either in agriculture or non-agriculture. Land is considered as major source of property in agricultural country like Nepal. Landless ness or lower land is the main drivers of seasonal labour migration. That push the migrants to left their origin and move for destination for low paid work. The migrants always expect to purchase land but they found it difficult due

to high rate of land in the Terai region and low paid income, like wise big family and high expenditure in the house hold.

According to them not all of the respondent are able to purchase land property most of them in the comparison to young age or junior migrants senior migrants those who are involve in this process from long period are able to purchase land property here in the Terai. From the total respondent of the study only 14 people are able to purchase land of 10-15 kattha, followed by 16 about 5-10 kattha, 15 people 1-5 kattha, rest of the 10 people are unable to purchase land due to their new involvement in the migration process. The young and new migrant those who are involved from last 5-10 years are unable to purchase land in the origin. The respondent spoke about the land property which they have purchased after migration 2 kattha to 15 kattha from the low remittances which they were become able to save from their everyday house hold expenses.

5.2.4 Built House

The little sum of remittance from the host country and high expenditure in the house hold makes difficult to save in such low income. They are unable to save due to high expenses in the family without income source and high dependency on the bread winner. Poverty and unemployment of other of the family members makes high risk in the household. They lose their chances of saving and unable to build house. Other basic need should be fulfilled instead of building house.

From the total respondent very little respondent are able to build house. Those who were the senior migrant and participating in seasonal labour migration from the last 20-45 years in the migration process to the destination. Rest of other migrant are found with their very old and hut type home which they were not able to build new home for themselves and their family members. Some little number of the senior migrants found been able to build new houses for them and rest of other of the migrant have built small houses to stay and another number of young migrants who have started from last 5 to 10 years are not able to build house due to low remittance of India which is highly spent in house hold assets. Some senior respondent nearly 19 people were able to build new house after engagement of long turn in coming and going process of migration followed by 36 people are unable to build house.

5.2.5 Help in House Hold Assets

Although remittance earn in the India is not so high in the comparison to other third world countries. Little amount of the remittance earned in the host country plays an important role in the individual and house hold level of the seasonal migrants. Hundred and thousand numbers of people migrate in the search of seasonal work in the different destination of India from the different border of Nepal. Huge amount of remittances enter from India to Nepal which invisiable due to less priority given to migration to India.

All of the respondent of the study are 100% agreed about the contribution of the remittances in the poor house hold. They spoke there is no doubt about the low amount of remittances which they receives in India helps them in many ways in the name of several categories for the fulfillment of their house hold assets.

5.2.6 Maintain Food Consumption

Seasonal labour migration is well known as the agricultural migration in the pick season of agricultural cultivation and harvesting in the both place of the origin and destination. People migrate to the host country and earns for their living in the origin. They complete their own farm work at the agricultural season and move for the near destination or border area in the same types of work again there in the destination for a certain period of time and as usual they return in their own place of origin. The duration of migration is only from 3/7 months in the host country.

Migration helps for the food security in the time of food scarcity which is known as coping strategy and a risk management. The all most of the people accepted the remittances brought from India help them in the time of food scarcity in their family. They also talk about the contribution of remittances in the management of the food consumption. The little amount of income plays an important role to support and manage food consumption in the time of food scarcity.

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The farm production was not sufficient over the year among 67 percent had incurred debts from money lenders or from other sources. This implies that seasonal migrants had come from low economic status and they are moving down to Terai or India to seek better alternatives in employment and better economic conditions. It found similar to the study of CEDA mainly they go to these areas for seasonal employment and solve their food problem for six months or so on at first and secondly to generate cash incomes buy essential commodities for household consumption as a better livelihood (NPC and CEDA, 1977).

5.2.7 Savings in Month

Saving is known as the back bone of the human development and prosperity. It plays an essence role for the better future. It does not value how much is earned but it values the saving. Indeed migrant works hard in the destination for their better livelihood. In hazardous and vulnerable condition they carry out high risk and difficulties for the good future of individual and household. Researcher could not find such high saving migrants in the study due to their low rate of income and high expenditure.

The low income rate remittance of the destination comparison to other Gulf or third world countries, it is difficult to make a big saving in monthly or in annual basic. In another hand big family size and no any other income resources they have to be careful about their expenses and rest could save only little sum of money. It means they can hardly save from 1000 to 5000 per month. It varies according to their earnings and their expenses they save the high earning migrants saves high but low earning migrants could save less. From the 55 individual of the study highest number of people nearly 20 could save up to 5000 per month and rest of 35 save below 1000-

5000 per month. It shows their saving is not high their migration only help for their survival.

5.2.8 Participation in Micro Saving Agencies

In the study researcher could not find any of the migrants participating in any saving and credit agencies. They think because of the low income source of remittance and high rate of expenditure migrants from India could not save lots like comparison to the other Gulf countries migrants. The rate of low income earned in the host country is only used in the household assets. Therefore according to the respondent there was absence of participation in the saving agencies. They state seasonal migration is not of high income there is not big saving, just done for survival for the food security. Due to the income expenditure increases highly in the household. That is why there is not expectation of high saving they just earn little sum of money in the host country and spent in the origin. Literally they talk about the very little change of savings rarely could make. There is absence of participation in the saving agencies. So whatever they earn they spent on the household and the remains sum of money they provide loan to their friend and relatives in interest that gives some benefits.

5.2.9 Achievement of Better Livelihood

The term livelihood attempts to capture not just what people do in order to make a living, but the resources that provide them with the capability to build a satisfactory living, the risk factors that they must consider in managing their resources, and the institutional and policy context that either helps or hinders them in their pursuit of a viable or improving living. In the livelihoods approach, resources are referred to as 'assets' or 'capitals' and are often categorized between five or more different asset types owned or accessed by family members: human capital (skills, education, health), physical capital (produced investment goods), financial capital (money, savings, loan access), natural capital (land, water, trees etc.), and social capital (networks and associations). These asset categories are admittedly a little contrived, and not all resources that people draw upon in constructing livelihoods fit neatly within them. Nevertheless, they serve a useful purpose in distinguishing asset types that tend to have differing connections to the policy environment. For example, human capital connects to social policies (education and health), while natural capital

connects to land use, agricultural and environmental policies (see Scoones, 1998; Ellis, 2000).

Poverty, landlessness, unemployment and big family size make migrants to leave their origin in expectation of some amount of income from the seasonal labour migration. In the absence of other resources and dependence on one breadwinner that makes harder to rural poor. The high expense of the household and low remittance of the India makes very difficult to manage livelihood of individual and household. The migrants are trying their best to achieve their better livelihood.

According to the respondent of the study highest number of respondent 32 people agreed with the question followed by 23 disagreed for achievement of better livelihood they exclaim they are not completely able to achieve their better livelihood but the little amount of remittance supposed to help migrants in the time of need or emergency. It shows they are in the process of earning their better livelihood in coming future on word. They are also hopeful to achieve their desire of better future from migration to India. Not today but after 10 to 20 years ahead.

5.2.10 Seasonal Migration as a Dual Beneficial

Seasonal labour migration is considered as an agricultural migration in the pick season of agricultural cultivation and harvesting in the both country of sending and country of receiving. The migrant involve same work in the destination. Firstly the migrant finish their own work of agricultural and later move for receiving country.

In the study all most of all respondent report there is no doubt about the seasonal labour migration as well as dual beneficial where they do their own agriculture work of cultivation and harvesting in the field and after finishing their own work they move for destination to earn cash income for their livelihood. Seasonal migration helps in the place of origin and place of destination in dualistic way. Therefore it makes easier to migrate India being nearer to their place of origin and they spoke there is no doubt about the seasonal migration as a dual beneficial.

5.3. History of Seasonal Labour Migration

Historically the out migration of Nepalis was due to convergence of trade. Trans Himalayan trade was the oldest phenomena of movement of Nepali people from one place to another place around 500 BC. During the dynasties of 'Lichhchhabī' and 'Malla' period in the era between 2nd to 15th Century, Kathmandu Valley was the hub of trans-border trade between India, Nepal, Tibet and China (Schrader 1988). In fact the first wave of labour migration from Nepal began in 18th and 19th Centuries when the state's oppressive land and labour policies forced peasants in the hills to move out of their land and seek their livelihoods elsewhere, both within Nepal and across the border into India (Regmi, 1978, Shrestha, 1985).

The known evidence of migration starts from the period after Gorkha established rule in Kumaon and Garhwal of current India in 1804. This was the time when first known flow of Nepalese to India started as they started moving to Kumaon, Garhwal and up to Sutej. At the same period of time, Gorkha moved beyond Sikkim towards the east and the flow started there simultaneously.

Nepal and India share a unique relationship since the time ancient time. They have the similar culture and tradition and the Hindi language of India is also easy to understand and learn to Nepali citizens. Socially and culturally, the two countries are inseparable. Most of the people of Nepal have migrated to that country and belong to the Indo Aryan racial stock. Their life styles, manners, customs, food habits have the same roots. Nepali, which is the national language, is written in Devnagari script. This apart, almost all the languages and dialects spoken in Uttar Pradesh and Bihar states are prevalent in Nepal, particularly in the Terai region. Most of the Nepalese (86%) are Hindus. Their festivals, deities, epics, religious places etc. are similar to Indians. In the border regions, people of the two countries maintain even more extensive socio-cultural contacts. The political tie between both the countries has made the migration easier from either of the countries to the other.

There is a very old history of Nepali which was only one place to migrate as a worker. There were not any options of mobility to another place out of the country. Seasonal labour migration to India is associated with the earning of their livelihood strategy in the rural or urban area and hills, mountain and the Terai of Nepal. Migration is

considered as an economic aspect of the migrants. Due to difficult economic conditions in the hills of Nepal, people have long relied on the comparatively large economy of their immediate neighbour in the south, where they continue to migrate in search of various work opportunities. Mainly the people of Nepal including hill and the mountain people of the central, eastern, western, far-western and mid-western development region stated to migrate to India as a seasonal labour migrant in the different part from north to south and the east to west of India. They migrated in the state of India from UP to South India and Uttrakhand to Maharstha. Migrant from different part of Nepal are found in the each and every state of India is very common. According to the old age retired migrants they guessed it has been started in the time of their grandfather and father about nearly 100 years ago where 3-4 generation of the respondent has been engaged in the coming going process to India. The migration was firstly started for food security for the time of food scarcity as a coping strategy for their livelihood in the high risk of food scarcity in the slack season. Similar to the findings of (Schrader 1988, Okada, 1970, 106, Sharma, 2012, Regmi, 1978, Shrastha, 1985).

5.3.1 Generation in Seasonal Labour Migration

Migration is a social and historical phenomena it has a strong tie between the receiving and sending country like wise migration and migrant. It is carried out by economic poor to reduce their growing chronic poverty and to establish a strong economic condition for individually and household. For the aspect of economic establishment many of the rural poor simple and innocent Nepali migrant has engaged in this process of migration from the last more than 100 years. Also it is going to continue on words and many youth and adult age are participated the migration for their livelihood strategy. While practice theory offers a more general, sociological, theory of how all of social life unfolds through the practice of daily life, substantive theories also have a role to play in illuminating specific aspects of international migration or certain parts of a structuration cycle. Each field contains its own cultural logic, and its own power structure, power struggles, formal structures of control (Bordieu,1985).

According to the respondent of the FGD group they told about the interesting story of their old generation how difficult was to migrate in the process of earning their livings in the distant area the problem faced by them in the working place on the way and how they start cope. At the time of focus group discussion researcher meet the 80 years old migrant who were ex migrant spoke about the different experience of his life time migration. According to them firstly they started to copy their senior migrant and somehow they left home, school and run away with them. They call it firstly that was curiosity of the seeing of new place later it became a practice for their livelihood strategy which was done to reduce the risk and difficulties created by food insecurity. The other new young stated copying it as a regular process of the migration from their senior members like grandfather, father son and grandson. In the study the older citizen 3-4 generation including to respondent some explain about their grandfather father son and grandson some other told father son, and grandson are involve in this seasonal migration process from their beginning. This is a kind of handover of seasonal labour migration to India from grandfather, father son and to grandson. It is a kind of culture of migration to India which is to continuing in the coming future until they receive their better livelihood through seasonal migration to India.

5.3.2 Tradition of Seasonal Labour Migration

There is a long history of seasonal migration to India from the high hills and the mountains in Nepal. Poverty, unemployment, landless ness and the unfavorable agricultural production in the region drives the poor to search other off farm opportunity to the powerful south neighbor which was economically highly structured. The first migration was the Trans Himalayan migration later where people used to sail their home product like ghee and hand loom product radi pakhi (mat) in the different part of India and return back with the rice, salt, oil and kerosene to the rural hills and mountain. Later the form of trade migration changed in to the seasonal labour migration work and the poor youth started to move in the search of work opportunity in the several cities of the India. Low wage work was found easily that could help them in the time of slack season and food scarcity. The migrants started their coming and going process of seasonal migration from the early and last up to the old age.

The culture of migration as migration grows in prevalence within a community it changes values and cultural perceptions in ways that increase the probability of future migration. Among the migrants themselves, experience in an advanced industrial economy changes tastes and motivations (Piore, 1979). Although migrants may begin as target earners seeking to make one trip and earn money for a narrow purpose, after migrating they acquire a stronger concept of social mobility and a taste for consumer goods and styles of life that are difficult to attain through local labor. Once someone has migrated, therefore, he or she is very likely to migrate again, and the odds of taking an additional trip rise with the number of trips already taken (Massey, 1986).

They think seasonal labour migration is a kind of tradition in their family. Seasonal migration can be an important strategy to cope with poverty for those who are not able or willing to depart permanently to large distances. They know how the process of seasonal migration has been carried out from last ¾ generation. It was participated by their grandfather father son and grandson. They think that it is a tradition of going and coming India after the cultivation and harvesting to become secure in the time of food scarcity and other house hold assets likewise fest and festivals. According to the senior and retired migrants it is known as a coping strategy in the time of scarcity of food stuff they manage to migrate. It became true while researcher could find 3-4 generation in a same place. It was co incidence to see all of them together staying in a same house who shares lots of interesting story about India migration as a seasonal worker. Here it was important to call them senior citizen who were living retire life. Almost of the respondent in the study found they are going to continue their process of seasonal migration in coming future. The respondent knows well here is not opportunity of work in the locality and the option is to migrate and to find destiny in destination. Although the income is not good it pays a high worth in time of emergency.

5.3.3 Decrease in Number of Migration

Seasonal migration is a livelihood strategy for the poor and unemployed people in the rural part of Nepal. It is define as a coping strategy for the food security in the origin. Each poor youth and adult decides to move for the better earnings for the individual or household. Hundreds and thousands of people moves through cross border

migration to find their destiny in the distant place desire of better livelihood security. The flow of the migrant from of different part of Nepal in the border area in the of departure shows the number of migrant is increasing there is not any sign of decreasing in number of seasonal labour migration to India.

Most of the respondent from the study replied every new young comes to know the migration process and decides to move with the respondent those who are regular migrant. There are numbers of people who conduct coming and going process to the destination. The all of the respondent denied about decrease in number of seasonal labour migration because they have saw numbers of people leaving their home in each season for migration to India from their community. The respondent feel the number of seasonal migrants is increasing its not decreasing at all. According to them they have found most of the new migrants are participating in the seasonal labour migration. They take it as easier for the movement due to low expenditure and nearer to the origin where they could move frequently at the time of emergency. There is not restriction and barriers as the other third world countries of Gulf. The migrant migrate for a certain time to the host country and later return back to their home with the very little amount of remittances for their livelihood.

5.3.4 Previous migration

The previous migration was certainly very difficult due to the absence of road and transportation facility. There was lots of suffering on the way of Nepal due to lack of development and to reach the destination they had faced many hardship in the migration process in the old day. The senior ex migrant remember their precious flashback of 45-50 years how was the migration conducted by them and how long it took time to reach the destination.

Most of the senior and retired migrant in the FGD address their old stories about difficulties to migrate India there was no road way and have to walk along for several days and months to reach the destination. There they had to face lots of hardship in travel. At that time it was not easy like today due to well and smooth road and transportation facilities it has make easier to travel for migration to the border area. The respondent senior citizen feels ashamed when they saw today facilities of road and transportation and development of both countries. They supposed to think like a

day dreaming when they saw the road facility and construction of India they remember their contribution in road construction of Himanchal and Uttarkhand. Most of the respondents remember the agricultural work of Punjab and fruit farm work of Simla.

5.3.5 Modern Migration

Today the development and high modern technology has made everything easier and comfortable. There is not any hardship in the trip everyone access to reach in the different part of the world due world globalization. The world become global village there is not any difficulties in reaching some new place and acquiring knowledge in the different field. People become advance and searching the different destination and opportunities in different sectors. The respondent remembered the previous day India was only one place to migrate. There were not any alternatives and they were constraint to move to the new distant place with environment which was totally different to our county. They remember the very hard moment of their life in the working place first there was the problem of adjustment, later slowly they tried to adjust themselves. After moving several times in the different part of the destination they continue their process of seasonal labour migration for life long.

The respondent talked about the smooth moves of the people to the different part of the country in the origin and destination. They thought due to road and transportation facilities now a days they can move to each and every part of the world not only India. Road way access in Nepal and Road and Railway facilities in the border makes them easier to move where ever they desire to move east west north south of India. There is not any restriction during the movement to the receiving country. Therefore the people from Bajhang and Bhajura were found in Karnataka Bangaluru, and people of Jhapa, Sayanja Palpa Lamjung, Baglung were found in Tamilnadu Chennai in south India likewise people from Gulmi and Argachai were found in Heydrabad Andra Pradesh, the people of central and eastern hills are found engage in the West Bengal those are some examples of migration. Here researcher herself has found so many people in the different places and parts of India working in different sector and situation. They engaged in the various work categories in different state and work station.

5.3.6 Nature of First Migration

The first migration was started with the desire of seeing out world and run away from home and school and followed to the regular migrant network in the family and society like, father, brother, relative or neighbour. There was a kind of influence which they experience in the time of first migration. They state that the regular migrant were well recognized and respected in the society. They thought the regular migrant have a good reputation in the society then why should not they try for migration. Later they decide to migrate with the family members, friends and relatives.

Migration proceeds step by step Ravenstein's assertion that migrants did not proceed directly to their destination but by a series of steps was accepted and indeed publicized by Arthur Redford, who wrote in his review of early nineteenth-century migration immigration into any centre of attraction having a wide sphere of influence was not a simple transfer of people from the circumference of a circle to its centre, but an exceedingly complex wavelike motion Ravenstein 1876.

The respondent in the study total 38 were migrated with family members like father, brother and relatives and 17 followed by friends and networks respectively. Father and elder brother involve in the migration and next the younger one follows the same process of emigration which is very common in our society. They said they started their migration with father, family members, friend relatives and neighbour. They saw them in the India coming and going process of migration they express they became influence and start copying them and left home for the intension of desire of seeing the outer world, experiencing something new in the new country gaining knowledge out of home and to earn some amount of money for their self and for the family. Basically it was started by the influence of network in the neighbor where they were immature in the early age of teen and later in the time of maturity later it became livelihood strategy. They agree it a kind of struggle for the betterment of the own self and behalf of the family members. Somehow it makes them happy for their economic prosperity. Indeed it is not so high but it makes life easier in the time of food scarcity and emergency.

5.3.7 Type of Family

The family is defined as the number as the number of the person taken meal in combine using a same kitchen under the one roof. In the study there are found individual having only one family. Therefore number of family is equal to number of household. Nuclear family means a couple with their own son or daughter only other wise family is defined extended/jointly.

In the study most of the respondent state that they do have a big family size and all stay together in a same house in a family. Most of the respondent stay in the joint family, the highest number of the joint family is 13 people followed by up 22 people in in next joint family and respectively 20 people found nuclear family. The nuclear family size starts from 5 and joint family size is up to 12 that is why they it is difficult to survive without seasonal migration. Researcher herself found such a big family size where three generation lives together in a family. Share same kitchen and same food with the family where grandfather, father and son stay together. Among the total respondent 13 people found with the family size 10-12, followed by 22 people 7-9 members respectively and followed 20 people 5-7 members respectively. It shows that Nepali society is slowly changing it forms joint to nuclear family. It show high number of are respondent belong from the joint family.

5.3.8 Family Migration Additional Earning

Most of migrants are adults; Families rarely migrate out of their country of their birth, males move more frequently abroad. More men tended to travel longer distances 'Ravenstien 'the law of migration 1876'.

Most of seasonal migrants travel single without family members due to complex circumstance in the destination. As usually the high risk of women and children most of the migrant left their family back and they head single. The male member head together with male members like father, uncle, son and brothers but female migrant are less participated in Seasonal migration to India. How far researcher observed herself the less number of female are encouraged to migrate and rest of other stay back at home.

In the study most of the respondent replied about the unfavorable circumstance in the working place insecurity of the female spouse in the host country. Most of the migrants are aware about the high risk of children and girls trafficking in the red light area of India where Nepalis girls are made escort in the flesh market. Researcher found some condition about the female migration the family in very poor house hold and adult age are involve in migration with the spouse and family members.

In the study among the total respondent 9 family of migrant, who migrates with spouse and grown up children and rest of 46 other migrants move with male participant father, brother, friend and relatives. The family migrants also participate in different types of works like house hold work maid, cleaning washing and some of the female migrants also works in road construction and agriculture farm manure and dairy work like milking and cattle raring grazing and grass cutting all of this jobs has being conducted by male and female migrant. They accept the reality of additional income of their spouse and grown up children makes their household easier. That makes for additional savings in the household. That helps them for their betterment and it give some relief to the bread winner of the household. Family migration makes additional contribution for their individual and household prosperity. In other hand family migration makes moral and social support in the host country. Plus it create extra income source for the livelihood security of the individual and households. The respondent accepts the reality of family migration make additional income which support in the time of emergency.

5.3.9 Number of Family Members Participated in Seasonal Migration

Family migration makes the migrant easier on the way and in the host country. Normally all of the male participate in the migration and somewhere female migrant also moves with their spouse. It seems very drastic when researcher came to know some of the migrants have 7 family member father mother brother spouse and children together including them in the seasonal migration. Usually researcher found father mother and 5 sons together. It makes a wide range of collective family migration which supports for their family better economic condition.

Most of the respondent in the study replied about their engagement in the seasonal migration is collective with the family members. Mostly the highest number of

respondent were 32 people with 2-4 members followed by 22 people 5-7 members respectively participating in seasonal labour migration. That makes a good account for the prosperity and the betterment of the seasonal migrants.

5.3.10 Family Education and Standard

Migrant in the study found more aware of the value of education they came to know how the important the education is and how they suffer in the absence of education in the process of migration and being uneducated unskilled how much they suffer in the menial labour in the destination they regret being uneducated. The most of the respondent are conscious for their children education and do not want to repeat the same fault in their upsprings' life. Every respondent are found admitted their children in the private school not in the government school. They talk about the importance of English education to the new generation for their bright future.

They respond not so much but little bit they are able to enhance child education. They came to know the value of education and given their first priority is their children education being illiterate and un-educated they had to face several hurdle and torture in their life so they are well aware of their child education. They are also in the process of maintaining their family standard. Although remittance of India is not so high they earn very low rate of remittance which is only for hand to mouth but according to the most of the respondent told that they try their best to save more by decreasing other household expenses. Seasonal labour migration is not of high income in the comparison to other third world countries. It is used only in the house hold assets. In the study nearly 35 agree with the maintaining family standard but rest 20 disagree with the question because of very low income and high expenditure they never guess about maintain family standard. Likewise they think they are in the process of maintaining good livelihood where they could be able to enhance good standard of living.

5.3.11 Expenditure of Remittance

Motives for remitting include pure altruism (immigrants care for those left behind), pure self-interest (migrants' aspiration to inherit, desire to invest in the migrant sending area and make sure their investments are taken care of by those left

behind), and NELM motives (migrants and their households of origin are bound together by mutually beneficial, informal contracts, including an agreement to provide income insurance to one another). Expenditure is an important need of the development among the crucial family needs.

The expenditure is necessary for the family members. The money is to be arranged for support of parents, son and daughter, grandson as well as granddaughter. The family expenditure increases according to the size of the family. If the size of the family expands, there may be income shortage. It creates trouble in the family. The size of the family and expenditure has a close relationship. Expenditure increases with increase of income. Remittance is earned individually and spent collectively with family members. The expenses are necessary for food, clothing, medicine, education and initiation of children. The development and welfare of the family is blocked if the expenses are not arranged timely. It disturbs the peace prosperity and happiness of the family.

It accepts the proposition of the study and migration theory of Revenstine and Todaro. The earned income in the destination is used at home in various expenditure categories. Most remittance-use studies conclude that remittances are consumed instead of invested and thus are not put to productive uses in migrant sending areas (for reviews, see Taylor et al., Durand and Massey, 1992; and Martin, 1991).

The use of amount is varies according to household. The expenditure on food is increased the highest amount of financial capital is used in food stuff. The respondent in the study the income from remittance is used by each and every individual in various category of expenditure. Firstly most of the remittance is used in the basic needs of the respondent in buying food stuff, grocery second clothes, third tuition fee of the children forth in medical treatment, in social function like marriage ceremony and feast and festivals. Likewise other expenses come due to the necessity of the individual and household. The drastic change has seen in the term of telephone. It may be the reason of newly introducing the telephone (mobile phone). Somehow they spent in maintaining house and possible buy land etc. In the study according to the respondent they exclaim that most of the remittance used to spend in the categories mention above like food stuff, grocery, clothes, child education and household assets,

feast and festivals and marriage ceremony. It is already addressed there is not high earnings in the host country behind that the respondent used to spend their low remittance according to their priority. Usually it is difficult to make big saving they spent their earning in the child education, medical treatment, in feast and festivals, marriage ceremony and house hold assets etc.

5.3.12 Cultural Change

Culture is known as social capital, related with system norms and sanctions. It is an identity of the human being. Different country has own cultural identity. That affects the people those who migrate for a long or short term in the new place of destination. In the case of India many migrant found in mix language, custom, eating habit and celebrating festivals.

In the study most of the respondent disagreed with the cultural change in the migrant society. All most of them replied there is not adaption of India culture in there society, they are following their own culture and tradition. There is not any cultural change in the migrant community everything is as usual.

5.3.13 Influence in the Society

The migration to the destination has not made any influence to the origin. There is a normal daily life of the migrant. In the study most of the participant agreed that there is not so many influence has been found in the society due to migration. Somehow use of Hindi language in the talking tone and dressing sense of male and female has been influenced by India in both old and new generation which is not a great deal and does not make a big sense. Beside of that there are some influence according to them many new youth are found interested in the seasonal migration to the destination and the condition of work and wage. They express their desire to migration with the respondent.

5.3.14 Happy and Satisfied

Although it is well known the seasonal labour migration is not of high earning in the host country. Migrant are unable to make big saving due to low income in the cross border migration in comparison to the third world countries. People found happy and

satisfied with whatever little amount of remittance they earn and knows the worth of their income which plays an important role in the place of origin in the time of emergency.

Most of the respondent in the study found happy with their migration process in the host country where they are able to meet their basic needs of their individual and house household level. Most of the respondents with the adult age are found satisfied the highest number of respondent happy with their migration process. They felt it has been long involving in the process of seasonal migration they have accepted as habitus. They do not wonder to the new place of destination they find comfortable themselves with nature of work and employer. There is a good connection between the employer and employ in the host country. They feel happy and satisfied because they know here is not any alternative in the home place. But rest 5 found respectively un happy with their seasonal migration process there is the problem of adjustment like the hard some life, difficult work more and long hour of work and low wage that makes them un happy and unsatisfied.

5.3.15 Migration Collective or Single

The migrant in the study most of the migrant move collectively it makes them easy in the migration process. They think it is good to move together they feel strong in the collectivity and most of the migrant move together collectively. Among the 55 migrant in the study all in all migrants found migrating with collectively in the group. They usually move with their family members like father brother uncle cousin, relative friend and with neighbour. The respondent state they feel comfortable to each other on the long travel in bus or train. There they find their community where no one could humiliate them. In many ways they work more or less nearer to each friends and relatives it makes them sharing and caring each other in the time of need. They take care about each other in the working place. The expansion of networks reduces the costs and risks of movement, which causes the probability of migration to rise, which causes additional movement, which further expands the networks, and so on. Over time migratory behavior spreads outward to encompass broader segments of the sending society (Hugo, 1981; Taylor, 1986; Massey, 1990a, 1990b).

5.3.16 Difficulties Faced in the Indo-Nepal Border/Destination

Undoubtedly, there becomes higher chance of risk factors in unorganized sectors with comparison to organized sector from various angles. There is the weak social protection mechanism in this sector. The workers are denied their rights in general, wherever placed and in whatever positions they work. They are not provided the basic amenities of life and are not paid wages/remuneration. Similarly the workers are not getting minimum wages in lieu of the services rendered by them to respective employers and there is uncertainty about the work they have to do. The workers are further not allowed to avail social security, dignity and respect and are compelled to live in an atmosphere which is not conducive to their health. Therefore it will be not be an exaggeration to say that various types of social, economic, legal and other problems are gripping the lives of the workers who are engaged in unorganized sectors.

In the study according to respondent reported about the many kinds of difficulties at the time of migration process on the way, working places and in the border area. They replied not too much but some time they have faced several difficulties in the work place. They face some kinds of discrimination and humiliation from native worker. Some time they accuse of theft and robbery, and some time they have to bear many kinds of blame against them that makes them unhappy and helpless. None of the respondents go to police or any other authority, if they face any problem with their rights at work, one of the main reasons behind this is they are not aware about their rights as migrants and as labourers. As these migrants are not aware of their labour rights, most of the time they even could not figure out that their rights being violated.

Second at the time of departure and arrival in the Indian border they are cross questioned by the Indian police gives trouble to the migrants. When they know they are migrating for work in India they make huge issue about their citizenship and so many unnecessary things. While crossing the border, these migrants have to face lots of problem because of their ignorance of the laws and rules regarding the borders. The custom authority and police at the border trouble these people in different ways so that they can collect bribe from the migrants. All of the respondent reports they face some kind of problems while crossing border. The problems they mainly face are

harassment from the police and paying bribe. They have to pay bribe to cross even their used household things at the border. So they have to pay in any cost otherwise they restrict to cross the border. This is the cruel reality they face in the departure and arrivals of border. Third they are betrayed by the fraud Indian on the bus where they are made unconscious and robbed them they make empty pockets by pickpockets. Likewise they experience many more incidents in the migration process. It makes them upset in the travel or on the work place.

5.3.17 Drastic Incident Faced by the Migrant

There are number of people who face accident in their life in the destination. That may be on the road or may in the working station. Mainly many poor and innocent people become victim of road accident and factory accident.

Not all of them, but 3 people of the research area among the 55 respondent in the research found that they have faced a drastic incident in the destination where they face the drastic accident of their loving ones who never came back again in their life they face their demise in front of them. There is a case of lost elder son in the explosion of rock blasting on the road construction in Simla where one respondent could not find any part of body of his son, second respondent lost his son in the road accident in Pauri Garwal and the third incident where the respondent brother was killed in another road accident in Bageshwar, Uttarakhand. It was truly drastic and difficult to hear about this all they know the real cost of family demise in the destination. There was found one migrant become handicapped in the road accident last year in Simla and lying on bed he has lost his right leg it was troublesome to know all this. According to the respondent those are some example where many of the lives lost in the different accident. Some of the migrant become handicapped in the different accident in the work place. According to the respondent in the study many of them found aware about such accident in life. They take precaution to save their life from such drastic road and factory accident in the destination.

5.3.18 Role of Met/Agent

Met/agent play an important role in the process of seasonal labour migration in the rural area of hill, mountain, and terai. He is call met in a local language that meant a

sir or leader for the poor migrant. A met is an agent who makes connection between workers and employer for migration in the certain destination in India. He plays an important role to supply labourers who are illiterate and out of access to migrate to India. He manages money for travel and he has been already with the contact to Indian employer. He specially works for the contract of low wage labour supply for employer. Met is a Nepali man who is known as labour contractor and knows about the work availability and labour force in the remote part of Nepal. He takes lots of commission by the exporting illiterate and unskilled low wage labour to India those who are out of access and unable to pay for their travel expenditure and accommodation those who could not find fix destination to India and also those who are new to India. Where met/agent shows big dreams of work and high payment which would not be true in reality. He gathers poor migrants who wish to migrate but unable to pay all together and takes with him. Firstly he starts exploiting them in the working place he takes already their earning in the name of his expense in the process of migration.

5.4 Chapter Summary

This chapter outlined the major causes of the seasonal labour migration which are poverty, unemployment, landless ness, food scarcity and the lack of daily wage in regular basis locally are the push factors and open road, transportation, network relation by the communication and good opportunities of wage labour in India are main pulling factors of seasonal labour migration. Similarly the study shows that the seasonal labour migrants used their remittance to fulfill their basic needs at first, it shows the significant impact of seasonal labour migration on the livelihood of the migrant people.

History of seasonal migration to India shows which has been carried away by the generation to generation it is a kind of hand over to the seniour to junior of the family members. There a culture of seasonal labour migration to the destination. It is known as agricultural migration in the pick season of agricultural cultivation in the both place of origin and destination. They stay for a certain period of time of 6-7 months in the destination and return back to their origin. Although the remittance earned in India is not so high and satisfactory in the comparison to other oil bum countries like Gulf

Saudi, Qatar and Dubai but our poor migrants are constraint to migrate India and they earn some little amount of remittance from their beginning. The migration is related with the food security is conducted as coping strategy for the food stuff in the time of food scarcity and other emergencies. The remittance is not found productive it is household consumed. Basically, the migrant use their income to manage food commodities, grocery, clothes, child education, health treatment, household assets, household building maintenance, for feast and festivals, and marriage ceremony etc. Male take decision for the migration it is male dominated. Wage is higher paid to male than female. It is of dual beneficial for the migrants.

The respondent found migrates collectively with the family, friends and relatives. They talked about the unity powered and strong bonding with the migrants that makes happy and helpful in the time of need. Most of the respondent found happy and satisfied rest of some found dissatisfied with the work and remittance earned. There is not a huge saving due to low rate of remittances in destination they spend their earnings basically on the household assets. They are not found participating in any micro saving agencies. They are able to save 1000-5000 monthly rarely. They have faced many drastic incidents in their life time migration. Three respondent of in the study found losing of their loving one life in the destination. They face humiliation and in the working place, on the way and in the Indo Nepal border area. Although there are lots of risks in the destination they are fond carrying out the migration process due to of lack of opportunities in the origin.

CHAPTER SIX

SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

The chapter lays out a brief summary and conclusion along with recommendations which are conclude on the basis of research results. The chapter has unique importance in research study as it can provide overall scenario of study at glance.

6.1 Summary

The purpose of the study is to study the seasonal labour migration and livelihood strategy in rural areas of Nepal. The summary of the study in details is explained in earlier chapters and here is overview in the section

This is a community having seasonal migration as a livelihood option. As a result, this study was designed by selecting 1ward of the VDC using a simple random sampling method. Altogether fifty five individuals have been interviewed in the VDC of Chisapani-9 (Dallichaur) Banke. The study found that most of the people are engaged in the seasonal labour migration. The total household of the ward is 257. Dalit household is 49, Janjati 21 and Brahman, Chettri, Thakuri 187. Half of the total population is found to have participated in the seasonal labour migration to India and nearly 2 persons per household participated in the migration to India. They earn Rs. 31500 to 42000 annually within the total 6-7 months of their stay in the destination. The pattern of the seasonal labour migration has been found to be increasing in the last 10-15 years.

There is the involvement of people from the age of 15 to 68 years but highest proportion of seasonal migrants is aged 15 to 50 years. Among them 46 were male population and 9 were female population those who were involved in the seasonal migration. The age of the migrant is 15 to 68. Seasonal labour migration has been highly male dominated and female are seen somehow in the family migration with their spouse in the study. The total migrants are 100% Hindu. There is not any change or transformation of religion found in the study. There were the highest proportion of 47 migrants were married and the rest 8 male migrants were found unmarried those who were on the age group of 15 to 27 years. There were not any divorce or widow cases in seasonal migration.

The overall literacy rate is mostly illiterate and some are literate as schooling of preprimary primary and lower secondary and secondary level. Among the 55 migrants researcher found 3 male youth who were SLC graduates. By sex status male proportion comparatively higher than female in primary secondary and SLC level. All of the migrants have their own land but the land holding size is less it is from 2 to 30 kattha. The migrant mainly involve in agriculture either own or share cropping of landowner. All of the migrants earn their cash income through the seasonal migration from the host country.

It is found that the majority of seasonal labour migrants are migrated twice in a year especially in the season of cultivation and harvesting in the month of June/July in rainy and November December in autumn. The number of migration has been increasing tremendously from the last 10 years. The migration is cross border from terai to India. Generally, male migrates for the seasonal labour migration to destination however female migrate with their souse and family members like the father spouse son/daughter participates in seasonal labour migration. Poverty, unemployment, landless ness, insufficient food stuff and regular basis work cause migration which is known as push factors and in other side immense opportunity of daily wage labour, easy transportation in the border, are pull factors of the seasonal labour migration. Most of the respondent mentioned not the low wage but absence of regular basis wage labour locally causes the seasonal migration to India.

The prime destination is Simla, Kullu, Manali, Bageswar Himanchal- Pradesh, Uttarakhand- Pauri, Garwal, Almoda, Nainitaal, Ranikhet, Maharasta- Mumbai, Nasik, Gujrat-Rajkot UP- Rajesthan Kota, Delhi, South India-Chennai, Goa, Tamilnadu, Banguluru Karnataka, and Hydarabad AP Kasmir- Srinagar, Laddakh. Although high proportion of seasonal labour migrants found migrating to Himanchal and Uttarakhand and second highest number found in Punjab they find it easier destination from their beginning of migration. Altogether 30 migrants were found migrating to Uttarakhanda and Himanchal Pradesh rest of the 10 Punjab 6 Jugrat, and rest of other migrants were found in other destination like Rajesthan, Maharastra, Tamil Nadu and Karnataka of India. The migrants are involve in variety of working

place Road construction, breaking stone and making pebbles, carrying stone, brick, mud, soil and rock blasting. Agriculture work- Agriculture farm and manure work, Planting and harvesting, apple picking and loading, some digs field for plantation. Dairy work- like milking cattle, cattle rearing and grazing, grass cutting, Hotel Cook, waiter, dish washer. Some migrant were involve in deforestation of Khair tree, making bhatta of Khair log in Punjab. House hold work house maid, cleaning and washing, male and female both are involve in the house hold work. Rest of them work as Security guard in Company, school, college, hospital hotels and night watchman in the market area.

There is male domination in seasonal labour migration female migrates with their spouse. The average annual remittances receive by per person is Rs.31500 to 42000. It is very low remittance in the comparison of other Gulf countries. The remittance earn in the destination is not found productive it is consumed in house hold. The remittance is primarily used to fulfill the house hold assets. They spent in food stuff, grocery, clothes, children's tuition fee, medical treatment, fest and festivals and social function like marriage ceremony etc.

The context of female participation to India is different from the rest of other countries due to un-favorable environment. So the participant found less in the comparison to the other countries. From the beginning of the migration there are very less number of female engaged in the seasonal labour migration due the complex circumstances for female in the host country. Migration is especially male dominated. The male migrant travel along with the male members of the friend and family. Female are left back at home for the household. Only the few number of the female are found adapting migration as a coping strategy in the family member. The finding shows female are involved from the prone household. Who lives in very prone whole year due to landless ness or low land. They move with their spouse and family member to the support the livelihood security of individual and house hold. According to the female migrant they have not any problem with the migration. Their strong likelihood was observed in the study. They did not report any unfavorable condition in the working place. They are found happy with their earnings.

Labour migration to India has a long history in Nepal. Firstly it was associated with trade later it was transform to the labour migration of youth of the hills, mountain and terai region of Nepal. It was specially conducted for the food security of the rural household as a coping strategy. Later it started to transform from different generation and strongly rooted as the culture of migration in the small farm and peasant society. According to respondent 3-4 generation has been found engaged migration process in the study. It meant 100 years of seasonal migration has found conducted by the rural poor. All cast and creed are found in the participating in the migration process. According to the study not only the poor migrate for seasonal migration where very few numbers of middle class individual found in the study those who migrate for the additional income for their individual and household level. They are found for their surplus income for the better future.

According to the respondent there is huge flow of migrant found in the last 10 years they found several new comers in the place of origin and destination. There is not any sign of decreasing in number of migrant of seasonal labour migrant increasing order. They share about the hardship of the previous migration due to the lack of road and transportation facilities. They had spent several day and month in the coming and going process of migration. They spoke the facilities of modern migration process which become easier in modern days. Likewise they state about the first time migration, influence of network and run away from school some from home with returnee migrant. They think family migration as additional income which helps for the livelihood which makes some relief in single bread winner and helps living easier. They have not found any cultural change or any other influence in the society. They think their earnings help for their livelihood security. Most of them agree with increase in income after the migration process to the destination. According to the respondent they try to save some sum of amount for the better future. Although they accept the remittance earned in the destination is not productive it consumed.

Generally decisions are made by individually in the practice of migration secondly family otherwise somehow networks. Most of the respondents migrate collectively with the family members, friends and relatives. That helps for easy movement and in the time of risk in the host country. Their unity makes them strong protective. They feel secure in the working place and on the way. Migration expenditure has found

managed by debt by money lender, some ask with friends and relative otherwise big numbers manage themselves. Some migrant has faced drastic incident in the destination losing of loving one life which was very sad to hear Agent plays an important role of contractor in the seasonal labour migration to destination. He collects the poor innocent migrant for the migration showing them hundreds of dreams of attractive salary in the receiving country. Later exploit the migrant.

There is significant impact of seasonal labour migration on the livelihood of the seasonal migrants. They are able to improve their family economic condition. Some of the youth migrants are shifting their occupation of agriculture to nonagricultural. Family structure of the migrants is high from 5-12 people in a family. Income and expenditure both has been increased by the seasonal labour migration. Most of the senior are able to purchase land property and some are of them are able to build house through migration likewise some migrants able to return debt to their moneylender. Also some of the migrants lend debt to the people of their community in the time of emergency.

The highest number of migrant found happy and willing to continue their migration process in the coming future the happy number contains 48 being nearer they think less expenditure and frequently coming and going process makes them feel happy. Very few numbers of respondents are found interested for the Gulf migration after earning some expenditure for the Gulf migration. The curiosity of researcher about their migration to India instead of gulf found very interesting most of the report their poverty and high cost of expenditure in the passport, medical test long time in processing makes them unable to migrate. The other number of people found long term labour contract and the charges of sentence to death of Arabic law makes them dislike migrate in the Gulf.

The cross-border movement to India from Nepal has been significantly mainly for livelihood security of many poor and lower middle class households that participate in this migration. This must certainly has been helpful in preventing from depending of poverty for many. Cross border migration has not been significant in brining economic prosperity or economic mobility. Indeed it is highly worthy for the poor individual and rural house hold of the origin. It makes huge contribution in the time of

food scarcity in the household. For many going to India does not cost much, and thus in this sense it is also less risky adventure.

There are several difficulties in the process of migration on the way and the working place they face many cheat and torture at the time of departure and arrival in the border area by the Indian police they are bibe in the process of arrival.

6.2 Conclusion

Despite some improvements in the seasonal migrants the children education and literacy rate other social economic indicators are still back word and poor. This study found that the seasonal migration is male dominated in the distant migration to India. Migrants are involved in unskilled and low wage labour in the destination either in the agriculture or non-agriculture is high likewise mostly the age of 15 to 50 is highly active in the migration process. Mainly 47 respondents are married and rest of the 8 are found unmarried. Migration is more towards the economically prosperous area with the rational choice of the migrants.

Seasonal labour migration is a historical phenomenon. It has been a part of the livelihood portfolio of the poor people across Nepal. It is considered as an agricultural migration of small farm and peasant household of the rural area. It is conducted in the time of agricultural pick season in the both place of home and destination. Chronic poverty and lack of opportunity, land less ness and small peasant family/household somehow individually and other wise entire family participates in the seasonal migration. It is axiomatic that migration is a social process, not just a matter of economic decision making. It is short time migration after the certain time migrants return back to their origin. Historically it was started as the coping strategy where people used to move for the food security and cash income in the time of food scarcity and emergency where they could use their remittance. It is also known as risk management strategy. Later it was handover from generation to generation and all upcoming generation start adapting this strategy from the time of their grandfather, father, son and grandson. This was specially started for the coping in the time of food security, grocery, clothes, child education, social function like marriage ceremony feast and festivals and all hose hold assets.

The unique open border between the two countries, formalized by the treaty of 1950, allows the citizen of both the countries to cross the border without having to produce official documents and offers equal treatment of both citizens.

The pattern of the seasonal migration is increasing massively in number in the last 10-15 years. There is not decrease in the number of migrant to the destination hundreds of new migrant are found in the seasonal migration process. Basically seasonal migrants took place twice a year in the month of June/July in rainy and November/December in autumn season after the agricultural cultivation and harvesting. Seasonal labour migration is conducted in the pick agricultural season in both place of origin and destination. The migrant starts their seasonal labour migration at their very early age of 15 to the age of 68. They have been involved in the migration from 5 to 45 years in their life time. Male migration is highly dominated some female are migrated with their spouse and family members. Some of the Father mother and grown up children participated in the seasonal migration. Other of the male migrants migrates individually participates in the seasonal migration. Family migration makes helps to make some additional earning for their better livelihood.

The main cause of the seasonal labour migration is poverty, unemployment landlessness or low land, food scarcity and lack of regular basis daily wage work. Extension in communication network like friends and relatives that makes migrant easier to move for the destination in the collective effort. During the migration, the migrants are able to learn new knowledge and skill about the different kinds of work and also some of the migrant are able to change their occupation after the migration. The process of seasonal labour migration has empowered migrants and the seasonal labour migration has been the means of operating household economy at the origin. Generally seasonal labour migration has improved the livelihood of the individual and house hold level.

There are various types of seasonal labour Migration patterns are often observed to correspond more closely to historical and cultural criteria than to short-term economic calculation. Likewise, the nature of implicit compacts between migrants and their resident families is deeply rooted in culture and society. Several recent reviews and collections have emphasized this aspect (de Haan, 1999; de Haan

& Rogaly, 2002; Kothari, 2003), Livelihoods Countries other Countries Internal Cross Border National International migrant take part in the seasonal labour migration one or more than one times in a year.

Migrants come from a variety of backgrounds, and different groups concentrate on specific occupations; migration streams are strongly segmented (de Haan, Rogaly, 1996). They belong to various ethnic groups, castes, and are both landless and landowners. Although there is some evidence that the landless migrate less because they cannot afford the necessary investment this seems to be context specific: in some areas they migrate less, but this is not necessarily the case in other areas, or in other periods. Relatedly, migrants come from a variety of districts, not necessarily the poorest. Some areas have developed a tradition of migration, and once certain patterns of migration exist, they do not change easily. Seasonal migration is dual beneficial. It helps their own farm at the agricultural cultivation and harvesting season and later they moves for the destination again they conduct their agricultural cultivation and harvesting work in the destination. That helps to the seasonal migrant to earn their living at the leisure time after their agricultural farm work in the home land. It is a short term cyclical migration after the certain period they return back to their home country with the very little amount of remittance they earn in the host country. It seems very low but it cost high worthy for the poor migrants for individual and household level. In the study very few numbers of lower middle class individual found migrating to India for the additional income.

Migration from Nepal to India is only regarded as migration of lower class labours, which have no means of livelihood options available in Nepal, which is not a fact. The fact remains that, there are many Nepali migrants in India, who are well settled and have a decent job and earnings. Moreover, most of the Nepali migrants migrates to India can have a satisfactory living, if they would stay in Nepal. But they migrate to India in search of earning extra cash money.

On the today context there are not only the poor and un-skilled Nepali migrants resides in India. Researcher herself found the huge number of well off and highly skilled professionals and entrepreneur involved in different mega multinational IT companies and star hotels in Bangaluru, Karnataka, which is known as the silicon

valley in IT progress. Migrants are found engaged in the different mega companies of Chennai, TN Maharashtra and many other mega cities in India. They are paid very high range of remittance. There is enormous numbers of Medical, and IT students those who are found involved in different such mega companies and hospital after their study. They are remunerated highly. It is a positive side for the highly learned professional. There are slightly better-off households that are also migrating, but they are less vulnerable, and may undertake migration in order to save for or invest in a particular purpose. In the study very few of lower middle class individual found migrating to India for the additional income.

The positive impact of cross border migration and its ripple impacts to other extended family circle also depend on the nature of job and income level in India. It has to be borne in mind that an overwhelmingly majority of Nepali migrants in India is from poor economic background and they are also doing menial and low income work in India. They are also not making a large savings to invest in Nepal. There are evidences that that support their extended family members during emergencies or provide loan with no interest. Some of them also support education fees for the extended family kids.

The cross border migration has also helped to change the skill and occupational experience, especially of Nepali migrants. The non-farm skills are gained by Nepali migrants after migration to India as such opportunities are less in Nepal itself.

In addition, the study has found that the remittance earn in the destination which is not high as the other Gulf oil boom countries and very less in the comparison. But it has a big importance to the poor migrants of the rural households. It plays significant role for the livelihood of the migrants. The migrants use the remittances in food stuff, clothes, tuition fee, medical treatment, feast and festivals, marriage ceremony, and house hold asset respectively. Somehow other of the senior migrants those who are migrating from long time are became able to purchase some land property and built house. At the end the impact of seasonal labour migration on the livelihood is highly significant because it has improved the livelihood of the migrant family. Thus, migrants have continued their seasonal migration especially for maintaining food

stuff, grocery and clothes through the year firstly and fulfill other basic needs respectively.

Finally the seasonal migration has a positive impact to the livelihood of the rural prone individual and household level. Not only people of the hills and mountains migrate to India people of Terai are also equally participate in the seasonal labour migration for their livelihood strategy. Migration to India is subsistence in nature, it does not help in the upward social mobility of the households but it helps the household to manage their everyday survival. The migration to India is not expensive, it is accessible to the poorer households. Although the monetary returns are not significant, it is a major source of livelihoods for the poorer households living in marginal areas, who have established livelihoods networks in various parts of India. Migrants are able to earn their livings by the help of migration process to India. It is not of high rate of remittance and big saving indeed it cost high worthy for the rural prone. It makes a huge contribution in their daily life of the migrant in the origin. The remittance is not found productive basically consumed in the household assets. Migrants are found happy and confirm about their better future. Respondents are found aware about their child education and saving. They are able to maintain food security for the time of food scarcity and other emergencies. They know the importance of migration and remittance in the destination.

The treaty that guides the population movement between Nepal and India has a provision for citizen-like treatment for the citizen of each other country. But, there are concerns raised from time to time about the security of migrants because of their nationality. Nepali migrants are generally robbed while travelling to return home. Increasingly, Nepalis are also illogically implicated in crimes and such cases are unnecessarily given more attention in the media. Therefore, securitization of workers is a big problem.

Thus far, migration is an integral part of the livelihoods of the rural poor. Excluding 8 people dissatisfied in the migration process rest all of the 47 people found happy and satisfied in the seasonal labour migration to India. They are found improving their better livelihood by overcoming from the chronic poverty of the past. After the seasonal migration to India they found themselves in a proper condition. According to

them at first they were landless or they had very little land but after the migration they were able to purchase the land from 10-15 kattha by 14 people, 5-10 kattha by 16 people and 1-5 kattha by 15 people respectively. Migration is seen to contribute positively to the achievement of secure livelihoods, and to the expansion of the scope for poor people to construct their own pathways out of poverty. The senior migrants are able to achieve more than the junior migrants. Most of the senior migrants are able to build house, purchase land, maintain food consumption, and make saving by lending money in debt to the friends and family in the comparison to junior one. They are able to invest for education and in health. Similarly they are able to spend in the social function it contributes in the different spare of life. That is why the excluding 8 respondent of the study rest of all 47 respondent were found eager to continue their migration process in future. It is accepted the seasonal migration is dual beneficial. It helps to acquire new knowledge and technology in various sectors. The low amount of remittance earn in the destination contribute worthy high. It has a positive impact on the livelihood strategy of the rural poor in the place of origin.

6.3 Areas for Further Research

Research is strong analytical tool to view the strengths of the policy formulation, implementation and results. Research has great Important to make better results and solutions of emerging problems.

The practice of labour migration has been started in 1950 in Nepal but people have not improved their economy as expected due to high expenditure and consumption. Remittance has been considered as an expense of household assets, not for their sustainable livelihood. Therefore people and nation should not depend on remittance for the long period it could not be the sustainable for livelihood. In this context, it is important to investigate the way how local wage can be made international wage to minimize the pattern of labour migration? Next what would be the best way to improve livelihood in sustainable way?

The research was based on small targeted area with few purposive samples. This research has focused limited area of seasonal labour migration to India and the livelihood strategy of the people of Banke. So, similar study of other cast/ethnic group

should be done to get a full picture of the nation and better understanding of foreign labour migration and its impact on Nepali livelihood.

Likewise, it is necessary to find out the social, economic, political cultural and psychological consequences of labour migration at the regional and national and international level.

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THANKS

Annex: 1

TRIBHUVAN UNIVERSITY
Central Department of Sociology
Kirtipur, Kathmandu

**SEASONAL LABOUR MIGRATION TO INDIA AND LIVELIHOOD
STRATEGY IN THE MID WESTERN DEVELOPMENT REGION OF NEPAL**

A STUDY OF CHISAPANI-9 BANKE

CHECK LIST

Survey with Individual Migrants Schedule 2017

Patterns

- 1 Which month do you migrate for seasonal labour migration?
- 2 How many times do you migrate in a year?
- 3 Which is your prime destination for seasonal migration and why?
- 4 What types of work have you done there?
- 5 What was your age of first time migration, when you got migrate?
- 6 In which place of India did you migrate at the first migration?
- 7 How do you manage financially for migration?
- 8 Do you want to continue your involvement in seasonal migration in future?

Causes

- 1 Why do you migrate seasonally as a seasonal labour migrant?
- 2 Why do you think seasonal migration is important for you?
- 3 Why do you decide to move for India instead of searching work in your locality?
- 4 How much land do you have?
- 5 Do you have sufficient food production?

- 6 What is the type of your family?
- 7 Do you think low wage rate in local market in the comparison of India?
- 8 Why did you choose India as your destination instead of migrating to Gulf Country like Qatar, Dubai, Saudi Arabia and Malaysia?
- 9 Whether you utilize your leisure time by going and coming to India?
- 10 What really enforce for migration?
- 11 Do you think seasonal migration is duel beneficial?

Impacts

- 1 How much do you earn in a month?
- 2 Did you purchase land property?
- 3 Did you build house?
- 4 Do you think migration helps for household assets?
- 5 Are you able to maintain food consumption?
- 6 How much do you save in a month?
- 7 Do you participate in saving groups/agencies?
- 8 Do you think you have achieved your better livelihood by migration?
- 9 Do you think seasonal migration is duel beneficial.

ANNEX II

TRIBHUVAN UNIVERSITY
Central Department of Sociology
Kirtipur, Kathmandu

Guide line for Focus Group Discussion

- 1 When and how many times does your migration take place?
- 2 How many generation of your family has been migrating to India?
- 3 Do you think it is a kind of tradition in your family to migration India?
- 4 Is there any change in the numbers of seasonal labour migration before last ten years on wardin your community?
- 5 How much difficult was to migrate to India, when there were not road way facility?
- 6 How much easier is to migrating India today?
- 7 Why and how did you start migrating to India?
- 8 Do you migrate collective or single and why?
- 9 With whom do you migrate for work as a seasonal labour to India?
- 10 What was your first age when you stated migration and in which part of India?
- 11 What was the type of work as seasonal migrants?
- 12 What really enforce you to migrate to India?
- 13 Do you migrate alone or with your spouse and children?
- 14 What types of work does your spouse and young children involve there?
- 15 Do you think family and grown up children help to earn extra income along with you in India?
- 16 How many members of your family are involve in this migration altogether?
- 17 What is your family size and about food sufficiency?
- 18 Can you enhance family education and family standard?
- 19 Do you think you have achieved your better livelihood by migration?

- 20 Have you increase your income level by migration?
- 21 How much do you save in per month?
- 22 Have you participate in saving and credit organization?
- 23 In which purpose do you spend earnings?
- 24 Have you experience any cultural change because of seasonal migration?
- 25 Is there any influence due to migration in family?
- 26 Are you satisfied with your migration?
- 27 What types of difficulties do you face in the destination?
- 28 Have you faced any problem in a border area?
- 29 Have you faced any drastic incidents where your family member were injured or lost their life in the working place?
- 30 Why did you choose India as your destination instead of migrating to Gulf Country like Qatar, Dubai, Saudi Arabia and Malaysia?
- 31 Do you think seasonal migration is duel beneficial?
- 32 Are you happy and satisfied with migration?
- 33 What would be the alternative of the migration to India?

Appendix-III

List of participant in Focus Group Discussions

FGD-I Seasonal labour migrants

Name	Age
1 Durga Lal Jaisi	65
2 Kul Prashad Adhikari	30
3 Bhim Lal	62
4 Mndatta Jaisi	28
5 Birbal Bohara	55
6 Dhan Bahadur Mahathara	52
7 Parsu Ram Budhathoki	40
8 Gagan Ram Jaisi	36

FGD-II Seasonal labour migrants

1 Yegya Bahadur Shahi	50
2 Buddhi Shahi	48
3 Govinda Bahadur Chand	61
4 Birbal Bohara	55
5 Chetan Rokaya	22
6 Krishna Rokaya	27
7 Purna Bahadur Khattri	45

