

CHAPTER- I

INTRODUCTION

1.1 Background

Migration is the term used to describe a permanent or semi-permanent shift in residence. One of the most significant demographic concerns facing all nations is migration, both internal and foreign. It contributes significantly to the growth of urbanization and social change. Migration is the sole force that may alter the demographic characteristics of a place, aside from the natural increase in population brought on by changes in birth and death rates (Lee, 1966).

People moving across borders will probably add to the home economy's growth, social cohesiveness, and urban diversity. Today, internal migration is acknowledged as a significant contributor to social and economic growth, particularly in developing nations. To maximize its advantages, safe migration should be encouraged given regional imbalances and labor shortages. However, in the absence of a well-coordinated governmental framework and plan, migration has a significant negative impact on human development due to unfair labor practices, poor working conditions, and barriers to accessing shelter, education, healthcare, and food (Todaro, 1980).

Since the beginning of time, people have been relocating both domestically and internationally in quest of new resources for a variety of social, political, institutional, and other reasons (Singh, 1998). Changes in a person's normal residence between clearly delineated geographical units are known as migration, a type of geographical mobility. According to the Central Bureau of Statistics (CBS), outmigration is the process through which a person leaves their home nation or country-of-origin (CBS, 1995). Emigration is the act of moving from one country to another as part of an overseas migration (Bhende & Karnitkar, 1998). an overseas migration may be roughly classified into: voluntary and involuntary, based on situations that are believed to affect human mobility (Peterson, 1978). Although the distinctions between voluntary and involuntary migrations may not always be evident, this study focuses on voluntary international migration (David, 1970).

Immigration and emigration are both effects of Nepal's present population condition. Emigration has historically taken three different forms: (a) military enlistment-related movement, (b) migration for agricultural and other economic purposes, and (c) marriage-related migration. Over 90% of all emigrants come from

mountainous and hilly areas. In the past, both north and south Asian immigrants had made Nepal their final destination. At that time, there was no information about Nepali emigration. In contrast, Nepalese people started migrating to India after the Treaty of Sugauli 816 in order to join the British Indian Army. The advent of the first Army Battalion (Sirmour Battalion) from among the Nepalese prisoners of war was a crucial turning point in the mass departure of Nepalese people (Kansakar, 1984). Of course, 400 to 500 families of Nepalese from Kathmandu used to travel to Tibet on business, but this insignificant number had little impact on the phenomenon of Nepalese emigration (Subedi, 1991).

In addition, many hillside peasants from Nepal were persuaded to immigrate to India for a variety of reasons, such as the new agricultural initiatives launched by the then-British India in the provinces of Assam, Darjeeling, and Burma, as well as the lure of skilled and unskilled employment opportunities in Europe and the Arab world (Singh, 1998).

Except for a few Nepalese immigrants who went abroad to join foreign militaries, there were no empirical data until 1951. The quantity of emigration from Nepal was first reported in the 1952–1954 Nepalese census. According to the 1952/54 census, 1,98,120 Nepalese were absent from their homes for a period of more than six months before the count; subsequent censuses have recorded the number of missing people from Nepal. The household schedules were used to gather data on the absentee population in the censuses and the absentee population in Nepal (Gautam, 1999).

Remittances from migrants living abroad are one of the largest sources of outside revenue for developing countries (\$338 billion in 2008). The true quantity is probably much bigger, taking into account unrecorded flows from unofficial sources. In relation to their sizes, smaller, poorer economies receive even bigger flows as a percentage of their GDP. The international community is now considering remittances as a key policy tool for economic development, that makes it crucial to comprehend the true motivations behind payment patterns for both economic development and the enduring viability of the remittance inflows (Ratha et al., 2009). Recently, a larger size of these monetary inflows has changed migration pessimism into rising optimism.

This study evaluates remittance motive theories already in existence and looks at aspects other than remittances' economic drivers. Although the importance of migration and remittances to the economy of Nepal, it appears that there hasn't been many official research to examine the factors that influence remittances. Therefore,

this study would add to the existing ideas on remittances by exploring the causes of immigration from a region where there hasn't been much empirical research done. The findings are significant in estimating the longevity of remittance inflows and their expected effects on migrant households. The study analyses real migrant remittance behaviour using retrospective data obtained in 1996, which establishes a vital baseline for further research on migrant Nepalese remittance motivations.

The discussion of outmigration from Nepal and Kirtipur, the importance of remittances, and a review of the literature on remittance reasons are covered in the next part. The research location and the datasets utilized for the studies are then described. The methodology (descriptive statistics of the variables) and result interpretation are covered in the sections that follow. A summary and the results' implications are provided when the investigation comes to a close.

1.2 Outmigration and remittances

Both the nations of origin and the countries that receive the workers may concurrently gain from migration of labour. Remittances, information transfer, and trade and business networks can encourage growth while also assisting the nations of origin in reducing their unemployment issues. Additionally, it helps nations that import workers to reduce labor shortages, maintain workforce levels from a demographic standpoint, support occupational mobility, and build up their human capital pool. According on the duration of activities and the differences established by recipient countries, labour migration is often categorized (IOM, 2003).

In recent decades, urbanization has increased economically and politically, and as a result, Nepal is now under increasing pressure from inside and outside migration. According to the 2001 census, inside migration made up nearly 13% of all native-born populations (68.2% of which were rural-to-rural migrants and 25.5% of which were rural-to-urban migrants); 3.3% of all native-born people were foreign immigrants for work and education, with 77.3% of them moving to India and the remainder to Malaysia, South Korea, and the Gulf Cooperation Council (GCC) (Subedi, 2009).

An approximate 20,000 Nepalese undergraduates, generally from the wealthy classes, go overseas each year for academic reasons, predominantly to the United States, Australia, and the United Kingdom. 21,035 students travelled overseas in 2007–2008, according to Ministry data, with 36% going to Australia, 26% to the

United States, 14% to the United Kingdom, and the other 24% going to other nations (IOM, 2019).

India, Japan, Hong Kong, Bhutan, and other Asian nations continue to be attractive foreign destinations for persons moving for employment, but more lately, the Middle East and the GCC. In aggregate 206,572 registered Nepali migrant labour were accommodated in 2008 in Bahrain, Cyprus, Israel, Jordan, Kuwait, Lebanon, Oman, Qatar, Saudi Arabia, United Arab Emirates (UAE), and Yemen. With 91,267, 50,271, and 47,148 migrant workers traveling to each of the Gulf states in 2008, Qatar, Saudi Arabia, and the UAE continued to be the most well-liked vacation spots. East Asia is the second most popular travel location. 53,739 Nepali migrant workers arrived in a total of 13 countries in 2008: Brunei, Cambodia, Hong Kong, Laos, Macao, Malaysia (home to greatest number of Nepali labour), Philippines, Singapore, and Thailand. 3,066 authorized migrant workers from Nepal were welcomed by the SAARC countries—Afghanistan, Maldives, Sri Lanka, and Pakistan—outside of India in the same year ((IOM, 2019).

Despite the wide variety of well-liked destinations, India is the country that receives the most Nepalese labour migrants due to its close proximity, the present of illegitimate Nepalese movement to other parts of India, the regular occurrence of significant seasonal migration flows from rural Nepal into India, and their shared open border (IOM, 2019).

Kirtipur municipality lies southern part of capital city, Kathmandu, Nepal; this municipality is seven kilometres south of capital city. People of these areas rely heavily on subsistence agriculture, the dependency that is roughly consistent with the national trend. In search of income to fulfil various demand of their family members, people began emigrating to Assam, Sikkim, and Burma in army recruitment, tea plantation reclamation of land, especially after Suguali Treaty (1816). This trend of emigration increased in this area after 1950s. The democratic revolution of 1950 motivated more people to emigrate to Indian cities—later on, towards gulf countries. Nowadays, a large number of people are immigrating to gulf countries like Saudi Arabia, Qatar, and Dubai, and so forth in a regular basis

According to statistics from the Municipality Bulletin household survey as of January 2017, 13.4% of the initial sample size of 9,829 respondents were migrants from outside Nepal, while 27.5% had moved inside the country. Beyond the 1,316 overseas immigrants, 12.3% had moved to South-East and East Asian nations i.e.

Malaysia, Japan, Hong Kong, and Korea; 33.3% had moved to South Asian nations and nearly 33% in India; 43% had moved to Middle Eastern and Gulf nations by 15%, 12%, and 9.6% each in Qatar, Saudi Arabia, and the United Arab Emirates; and 10.4% had moved to western nations like the United States, Australia, the United Kingdom, Spain, and Germany.

Since a long time, especially in rural Nepal, labour migration to both domestic and foreign regions has been a substantial source of household financial support. Total poverty in Nepal decreased 42% in 1996 to roughly 31% in 2003/2004 (The World Bank 2005), despite the country's political unrest and the recession in the world economy. According to Lokshin et al. (2010), increasing migration for employment-related reasons and remittance inflows are responsible for about 20% of the decrease in poverty in Nepal between 1995 and 2004.

In 2009, the amount of official foreign remittances registered into Nepal was \$3 billion USD. It is significant to remember that Nepal ranks as the fifth-largest beneficiary when remittances are expressed as a part of GDP, 23% contribution of remittances in total in 2009 (Ratha et al., 2010), even though this amount may appear to be comparatively little to the enormous amounts of remittances entered in large countries i.e. India and China.

Internal remittances only made up 44% of overall remittances in 1996, according to statistics from the Nepal Living Standards Survey (NLSS), while India by itself accounted for 33% and the portion from other overseas places made up 22% (Seddon, Adhikari, & Gurung, 2002). Even though, the percentage of overseas remittances originating from sources other than India has grown, from 22% in 1995–1996 to around 48–53% in 2003–2004 (Subedi, 2009). Major sources now include Saudi Arabia, Qatar, the United Arab Emirates, Hong Kong, and Malaysia. On or after 23% in 1995/96 to 32% in 2003/04, families receiving remittances from abroad grew. In Nepal, one third households receive remittances, the remittances generated from foreign employment have grown to be a significant contributor to Nepalese economy, accounting for 25.4% of GDP in 2018/2019. This has helped to raise the country's population's standard of living (IOM, 2019).

1.3. Statement of the problem

Because the collective movement of the migrants frequently results in significant adjustments in the policy, political, and economic elements of the regions to which

they travel, migration is equally important to the government, planners, and policy makers (Seddon et. al 2002).

Migration is significant trends and processes in Nepal. Diverse research organizations and academics have carried out several investigations in this area. However, the majority of these research concentration on rural-urban and internal hill-terai migration. Two dissertations are concerned with emigration in Nepal, although not in sufficient scale. Subedi has studied emigration in Nepal, and Bhatta has studied emigration by using social network theory in South Asian workers in Korea. These studies have only supplied information on the social network in Korea and patterns of emigration as well as push and pull variables. In reality, these studies do not fully explore the social implications of emigration in the place of origin, the usage of remittances provided by emigrants, their network of friends and family overseas, and vice versa (Bhatta, 2012; Subedi, 1991).

People's responses to current social, economic and political circumstances of the nation may be seen in the phenomenon of migration. Individuals choose to migrate when they are unhappy with the environment they live in. Because of the unemployment innovative minds tend to emigrate, therefore even in limited time, emigration will solve the unemployment problem. But in future, it worsens the issue and results in a lack of the labour force required for a country's development efforts.

According to Adhikari and Hobely (2015), women with migrant spouses have psychological problems, such as self-censorship in interpersonal interactions, especially with other males. Depending on how long a woman has been married, migration has different consequences on her behaviour.

According to Gautam (2005), there have been changes in the village's family and neighbour relationships. The majority of young men and women migrate from their rural communities to metropolitan areas where they either rent or settle down permanently by purchasing homes and property. The left behind elderly people feel aloneness since no individual will around them to care.

Remittance inflows have increased significantly over the past several years, and after being largely ignored for a number of years, they are now again being considered as a viable source of development financing. From \$31.1 billion in 1990 to \$76.8 billion in 2000 to over \$167.0 billion in 2005, remittances were transferred back to underdeveloped nations. According to Kapur and Mechale (2003), registered

remittances are now ten times larger than total personal wealth flows to poor countries & more than double the amount of government development aid.

However, there are several flaws in the present discussions of migration, remittances, and development. First off, the current euphoria around remittances frequently reflects a forgetfulness of decades of earlier studies and legislation on the negative aspects of this issue (Russel, 2003). Second, there has been an uneven emphasis on remittances and foreign income, with less focus on its non-financial effects, such as its effects on health, education, gender, childcare practices, social structures, and ethnic hierarchies in migrant own communities and countries, and its unrelated effects on cultural and social changes in origin societies (Levitt, 1998).

Remittances include cash and non-cash items sent by temporary and permanent migrants through formal and unofficial channels, including the pay of seasonal, or other temporary workers employed in an economy in which they are not native citizens.

A substantial amount of official remittances going into low-income nations appear to be assisting in the economic development of the remittance-receiving countries, has sparked a fresh interest in the remittances sent native country by migrants since the end of the 1990s. Particularly in poor and vulnerable nations, this migration has been compelled by civil war, political persecution, or economic hardship: It is frequently a matter of compulsion, not of choice, for the people from these nations to travel abroad as migrant workers to flee a difficult situation that poses a threat to their lives. Ironically, immigrants help to maintain their own economies after leaving their home nations (Pant, 2008).

Sen (1999) defines development as the process of enhancing peoples' actual freedoms. Sen's capabilities-based approach to development contrasts from more constrained perspectives of development that focus primarily on income indicators (such per capita GNP) and material expansion. Sen used the idea of people's capacity to live decent lives and to make more meaningful choices to operationalize these freedoms. Social well-being, poverty reduction, economic disparity, gender equality, and access to primary education, healthcare, and meaningful employment are all part of the author's conception of development. The underlying presumption is that as human capabilities increase, so does the standard of living for everyone.

Beyond income statistics, it's important to give a comprehensive and diverse picture of how migration and remittances affect people's wellbeing and capacity in

remittance-receiving countries. These opinions emphasize the significance of considering remittances' effects on sending communities and societies as a whole, in addition to how they benefit migrants and their families. Sen poses the following queries: How do remittances impact social and economic opportunity equity and inequality inside the communities? Can remittances improve people's capacity to withstand fluctuations in their income? What impact do remittances have on those who don't receive? Do some of the remittances they receive indirectly benefit them through investments and income multipliers, or do they instead make their situation worse through escalating inequities and poverty? What impact do remittances have on racial and gender disparities? What effects do these have on social reproduction and care systems? Finally, how do migration and remittances impact institutional changes and people's capacity to engage in public discourse in their originating nations (Sen, 1999)?

Remittances are currently sent from nations other than India in a growing proportion, which is a result of altered migration trends and increased wages in these nations. Additionally, the makeup of skilled labor flows varies between destinations. Despite the fact that majority of immigrants to the Middle East work as security officers, transport, and manufacture workforces, South East Asian nations have a greater demand for industrial jobs. The Nepal Rastra Bank had started issuing authorizations to private sector businesses engaged in the remittance-transfer industry in March 29, 2002. According to information from the Department of Foreign job, there were 35.4 percent more workers seeking job abroad in 2009/10 than there were in 2008/09, or 217,164 people (Pant, 2008).

The current eagerness of the younger generation of Nepalese to leave their country has seriously complicated the use of resources and the execution of development plans and programs. Kirtipur municipality, as well as most of other parts of Nepal, is mostly affected by the migration. Any kind of records are not available on the study of migration on semi-urban areas of Nepal. No past study has been conducted in peripheral Kathmandu, Kirtipur Municipality (semi-urban area) regarding migration issues. To fill the gap, this study seeks to explore the following research questions:

1. What are the major sectors of remittances used in the study area?
2. How has the migration caused the social changes in the study area?
3. What are the differences in gender roles of women before and after migration?

1.4 Objectives of the study

This study's main objectives are to examine various forms of migration, volume of remittances, sectors of remittance use, and the consequences with emphasis on sociocultural changes caused by migration:

- (1) to explore the areas of remittances used in the study area of Kirtipur Municipality,
- (2) to examine the social changes caused by migration in the study area, and
- (3) to find out the difference in gender role of women before and after migration.

1.5. Scope of the study

Rural employees are typically less mobile internationally than urban workers, according to an empirical analysis of migration from Europe throughout the 19th century (Chiswick & Hatton, 2003). However, there is contradicting information because people from rural areas also migrate worldwide. The movement of people from Bangladesh's country Sylhet to the UK has a lengthy history (Gardner, 1995). Up until the late 1980s, Sylhet was the starting point for about 95% of Bangladeshi immigrants to the United Kingdom. Similar to how most movement from Pakistan to the UK went from largely rural Mirpur region of that nation (Ballard, 1987).

Moreover, most of the international migration from Nepal originates mainly from rural part of terai and hill regions in Kathmandu, maximum international migration originates from urban areas. Taking this subject into consideration, the semi-urban areas of Kathmandu Valley (i.e., Kirtipur municipality) have been taken for the present study.

1.6. Significance of the study

This study is significant because it may be helpful to determine the socioeconomic traits of migrants in Kirtipur, the usage of remittances, the socioeconomic and demographic effects of migrants on the local level, and the pattern of network construction. After complete and concrete knowledge about migrants, effective policies can be formulated and implemented by concerned authorities.

This study is considered to be essential because it aims to shed light on the economic, social, and political factors that contribute to economic development and because it can be used to establish and carry out various policies and programs that will benefit immigrants as well as the nation as a whole.

Some studies were carried out on socioeconomic characteristics of migrants, the use of remittance, socioeconomic and demographic impacts of emigrants on the local

level and network construction pattern in various parts of the world but very rare in Nepalese context.

1.7 Definition of key terms

Migration is defined as a change in milieu, as well as a shift in residence from one civil division to another or across a country's political border. A migrant is someone who relocates and changes their place of origin to their place of residence because when people move, not only do people migrate, but also cultures do as well. And the host culture is impacted by the migrant culture.

For this study, the suitable key terms have been defined as follows:

Migration is the act of moving from one location to another in search of employment or temporary residence.

Remittances. household income from foreign economies that is primarily the result of temporary or long-term emigration to those economies.

Social change. differences observed in society over a period of time.

Place of origin. the urban area from where the people or migrants depart. Urban area means the area which is under the boundary of municipality.

Place of destination. the place where migrant people arrive.

1.8 Organisation of the study

There are six chapters in this work. The study's introduction is presented in Chapter 1. The literature review on migration, remittances, and social change is thoroughly examined in Chapter 2 and includes both theoretical and empirical reviews. The conceptual framework and technique are covered in Chapter 3. This chapter covers research design, data collection and analysis methods, universe, sample techniques, and data gathering instruments. In a similar vein, Chapter 4 details the respondents' socioeconomic characteristics. A thorough analysis of the social changes brought on by migration is provided in Chapter 5. The study's summary, conclusion, and theoretical reflections are covered in chapter 6 as a conclusion.

CHAPTER - II

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

A literature review is based on the assumptions that knowledge is accumulated, and people learn from and build on what others have done (Neuman, 2007). Literature review is to examine the process of locating, obtaining, reading, and evaluating the research works in the area of research interest. A literature review is a summary of analysis and current knowledge about the particular topics of inquiry (Walliman, 2006).

A systematic, comprehensive, and critical literature review helps a researcher to develop research concepts, theories, methodology, and other skills. In this chapter, this researcher has reviewed various literatures available in different sources and relevant to the research questions and objectives.

2.1 Theoretical review

In recent years, migration has attracted the attention of numerous social scientific departments. Only migration-related literature is available. There have been numerous attempts to generalize particular notions about migration. The network theory, neo-classical theory, modernization theory, and neo-economic theory of migration, among other theories relevant to his research, have all been discussed under this subject.

2.1.1 Network theory

In their theories and investigations of social groups, Durkheim and Ferdinand hinted at the concept of social networks in the late 1890s. According to Tonnies (1887), social groups can be impersonal, formal, and instrumental social relationships or they can be personal and direct social ties that connect people who have similar values and beliefs. A non-individualistic explanation of social realities was provided by Durkheim (1893), who claimed that social phenomena emerge when interacting individuals create a reality that cannot be explained by the characteristics of individual actors (Turner, 1981).

Simmel (1908) explored the possibility of contact in loosely knit networks rather than groups in the twentieth century, pointing to the nature of networks and

the impact of network size on interaction. In order to explore interpersonal connections, Jacob Moreno is credited with creating the first socio-grams in the 1930s. These methods were mathematically codified in the 1950s, and by the 1980s, social network theories and methodologies were widely used in the social and behavioural sciences (Freeman, 2004).

A set of social actors (such as people or organizations), sets of dyadic links, and other social interactions between actors make form a social network. A collection of tools for examining the structure of entire social entities are offered by the social network approach, together with a number of theories that account for the patterns seen in these structures (Wasserman & Faust, 1994).

Social network analysis is used in the study of these structures to pinpoint prominent individuals, spot regional and global patterns, and assess network dynamics. Social psychology, sociology, statistics, and graph theory all played a role in the development of the academic discipline of social networks and their investigation. The dynamics of triads and the web of group affiliations were highlighted in early sociological structural theories by Simmel (Scott & Davis, 2003).

One of the main paradigms in modern sociology is social network analysis, which is widely used in many other social and formal sciences. It belongs to the emerging area of network research together with other complex networks (Borgatti et al., 2009).

According to migrant network theory, social migrant networks can form when migrants establish and even retain social links with other migrants and their home-country relatives. These networks frequently make further migration easier. The theory is predicated on the notion that migration is a path-dependent process in which the initial waves of migrants influence subsequent waves of movement through their interpersonal interactions. Migration's financial, social, and psychological consequences are often lessened by migrant networks. As a result, migration can be thought of as a diffuse process, in which growing networks lower the cost of moving and increase the likelihood of migration: These trends feed off one another, and over time, migration spreads outward to include all facets of society. The development of a migrant community at one destination also increases the likelihood of additional migration to that location (Castles et al., 2014).

The migrant network theory aims to explain migration flows that cannot be described by other theories now in use. It also aims to explain why migration persists in the face of other countries' greater earnings and the absence of any pull factors or policies in the receiving nation. The idea is founded on the supposition that the diasporas or migrant network influences migrants' decisions when they are picking their destination. It focuses on diasporas or various networks. Network theory therefore aims to explain why migration patterns are not always dispersed equally across nations.

Therefore, studying networks, especially those connected to families and households, enables understanding migration as a social product—rather than the sole outcome of individual decisions made by individual actors, or the outcome of economic or political parameters—and the recognition of social relationships, and its role in international migration, adds an important theoretical emphasis, refocusing the act of migrating.

According to one interpretation of the study, having a social connection to a migrant necessitates the development of a mechanism for the feedback of migrant information, in which contacts serve as sources of information for prospective migrants. Migration is characterized as a network-creating process because it creates a dense network of connections between origin and destination locations. Once created, these networks enable migration to become self-sustaining and resistant to fluctuations in economic incentives in the short term (Portes, 1995).

Empirical studies have shown that knowing someone who has traveled or coming from a community where migration is common is related to crossing international borders. It has been demonstrated using logistic regression models on aggregate statistics that people who are linked to someone who has moved before are far more likely to move than people who are unrelated. Additionally, households with members who have lived in or have expertise in the destinations are more inclined to send migrants than households without such members (Massey, 1986).

According to the literature (Curran & Rivero-Fuentes, 2003; Massey & Espinosa, 1997; Palloni et al., 2001), migrant networks influence whether an individual migrates and that this influence varies depending on the features of the individual and the network.

According to Toma and Vause (2011), the effects of migrant networks rely on both the gender distribution of those networks and the gender of any potential migrants. The persistence of migratory flows and the evolution of these flows' characteristics are both influenced by migrant networks. According to Massey and Espana (1987), once migratory patterns are established, they are believed to persist on their own, independent of the economic and labor market considerations that may have initially sparked them, due to the scale and breadth of migrant social networks.

According to the migrant network theory, a person's migration directly affects the chance of movement for people in their social network when it comes to cross-border migration. By providing useful information and/or resources, the research indicates that these personal ties will reduce the costs of migration and may raise its advantages and ease, increasing the likelihood that individuals with resources will migrate. These connections make up networks of connections. The general premise is that one has greater access to migrant social capital the more migrants there are in a person's social network and the more migration experience each of these migrants has. However, not all networks are created equal.

2.1.2 Neo-classical theory

The article written by the nineteenth-century geographer who developed the principles of migration was the first scholarly contribution on migration. Development was seen as being inextricably linked to migration. According to Ravenstein, economic conditions are the primary drivers of migration, with people typically moving from low-income to high-income locations. According to the neoclassical view, migration is influenced by variations in labor market returns (Ravenstein, 1885).

The most fundamental model initially created to explain migration in the course of economic development stresses that migration originates from genuine wage differentials across markets or countries that emerge from various degrees of tightness in the labor market. According to this idea, inequalities in labor supply and demand between regions lead to wage disparities between nations with abundant labor and those with abundant capital. Thus, salaries are the focus of the neoclassical approach's main argument (Sjaadstad, 1962; Stark, 1991).

The key variable in the extended neoclassical models is earnings weighted by the probability of employment, and migration is governed by predicted rather than actual earnings. It predicts a linear link between pay differences and migrant flows under the full employment scenario (Baur & Zimmermann, 1998; Massey et al., 1993).

Other modifications and empirical tests to the model revealed that the linearity relationship between wages and migration does not hold and that, from densely to sparsely populated areas, both the degree of wage differential and the country's income level matter. Accordingly, the general idea—that migration movements tend towards a certain spatial-economic equilibrium—has persisted in the work of many demographers, geographers, and economists. Furthermore, it was believed that factors like distance and population density had an impact on migration patterns (Skeldon, 1997).

Similar to how the ability to migrate is related to costs, neither the poorest people nor the poorest countries export the most labor (de Haas, 2008). As a result, observed migration patterns frequently take the form of a hump, with migration rates increasing as a nation's income increases and more people or households are able to support migration.

Therefore, as the nation develops, emigration rates decline and the motivations to migrate shift. These arguments have been presented as both a critique of the neoclassical theory and modifications to the theory (that, in some cases, more accurately reflect the reality of migration). For the benefits of migration to outweigh the costs of migration, a salary disparity of at least 30% has been established (Mansoor & Quillin, 2006).

The human capital theory of migration (Todaro, 1969) refers to the application of the neoclassical macro-level elaboration to the micro-level model of individual choice. The human capital hypothesis was first proposed by Sjaadstad (1962), and it enhances the neoclassical framework by include the sociodemographic qualities of the individual as a significant micro-level factor of migration.

A reasonable person who migrates to maximize benefits and gains is at the center of such assessments. Who migrates and who doesn't is significantly influenced by human capital endowments, skills, age, marital status, gender,

occupation, labor market situation, preferences, and expectations. A significant element is individual heterogeneity: distinct people from the same sending country have distinct migration tendencies and would select various destinations (Bonin et al., 2008). The likelihood of migrating has been demonstrated to decrease with age and to rise with education level (Baur & Zimmermann, 1998).

The human capital theory contends that because migration, *ceteris paribus*, boosts people's chances of success, migrants tend to have relative higher levels of competence. The relationship between the income distribution and the skills of immigrants was specifically examined by Borjas & Bronars (1991) with regard to the immigrants in the US labor market. He found that immigrants from nations with higher income inequality tend to be less skilled (negatively self-selected) than the average worker in both the host and source countries. Liebig and Sousa-Poza (2004) further claimed that variances in the political and economic conditions in the countries of origin at the time of migration are to blame for discrepancies in financial outcomes of immigrants with the same quantifiable talents, but from different home countries.

The push-pull framework, which is connected to the neoclassical theory, continues to highlight the economic background of the flow of employees (Baur & Zimmermann, 1998). Push-pull factors create dyadic frames for the empirical study of migration flows and incorporate relational elements into the conceptualization of migration. The framework has come under fire for its failure to identify dominating elements because push and pull factors are essentially mirror images of one another (de Haas, 2008).

An extensive body of empirical research and conceptual criticism have both been conducted on the neoclassical theory of migration. Despite being thorough, it has been criticized for mechanically minimizing migration-related factors, neglecting market flaws, homogenizing migrants and migrant societies, and being a historical and static model. The effects of the home and host nations are typically disregarded, along with the significance of politics and policy, which are only taken into account as migration costs or sources of distortion.

For giving an unduly positive vision of migration that is not always a deliberate activity to maximize advantages, human capital theory has come under fire. In their

assessments of migration research conducted within Europe using various theoretical stances, Massey et al. (1993) discovered that, while generally sustained, the correlation between pay differences and migration flows was not the biggest predictor of migration levels. New theoretical approaches that aim to analyse the interaction of persons, incentives, and contexts better than the neo-classical framework have emerged as a result of widespread discontent with neoclassical economic explanations and the push-pull paradigm.

2.1.3 Theories of social change

Social and cultural changes can be described and explained in a variety of ways. A social transformation is described as a gradual development that has relatively significant repercussions in social interaction, institutions, the stratification system, and cultural components. Societies are constantly in flux (changing constantly). A few changes occur quickly, such as the present social and cultural shifts brought on by computers and mobile phones, while others happen more gradually, like the evolution of the economy. People occasionally embrace change fast; other times, they resist it or take longer to adjust to new opportunities (for example, birth control technology is opposed on the basis of religious and cultural beliefs). Different societies and occasionally different societies within the same culture have different rates of social change. In the diversified and complicated world of the late 20th century to the present, it is incredibly difficult to understand social developments (Vago, 1989).

However, theories from a variety of fields have attempted to analyze social changes. In certain cases, people have looked back at past occurrences to better comprehend current changes. We move from describing social change to explaining it through theory. The theories of social transformation from the past and present are briefly discussed below.

Modernisation theory. The modernization theory contends that contemporary countries are more productive, have better-educated children, and provide more welfare to the poor. Modern societies, according to Smelser's theory, have the unique characteristic of social structural differentiation to distinguish clearly between positions and functions within national institutions. Although structural differentiation has boosted the functional capability of contemporary

organizations, Smelser contends that it has also produced a problem with integration and coordination of the operations of the numerous new institutions.

In terms of politics, Coleman has emphasized three key characteristics of contemporary societies: (a) differentiation of political structure; (b) secularization of political culture; and (c) the egalitarian ethos that strengthens a society's political system (Levy, 1967). Basically, these are the basic tenets of the modernization theory of development: Modernization is a phased process; for instance, Rostow's theory of the economic growth of a specific society contains five phases. It might be claimed that modernisation promotes trends toward convergence among nations because it homogenizes societies: With time, societies tend to grow more similar to one another as they get more thoroughly civilized (Reyes, 2001).

Modernization is a process of Europeanization or Americanization; the literature on modernization has a complacent attitude toward Western Europe and the United States. Societies tend to be similar to one another over time as they grow more highly modernized (Reyes, 2001). These countries are regarded as having unrivaled economic prosperity and democratic stability (Tipps, 1976).

Modernization is also an unstoppable process; once it has begun, it cannot be stopped. In other words, once third-world nations interact with the West, they will be powerless to withstand the pressure to modernize. Modernization is a progressive process that, over time, is not only necessary but also desirable. Coleman asserts that modernized political systems are better equipped than traditional political systems to handle the functions of national identity, legitimacy, penetration, participation, and distribution (Reyes, 2001).

The process of modernization is drawn out; it is an evolutionary, rather than a dramatic, shift. Modernization won't be complete for several generations or perhaps centuries, and its lasting effects won't become apparent right once. These presumptions are all based on American and European evolutionary theory. Another set of traditional assumptions that emphasize the interdependence of social institutions, the significance of structural variables at the cultural level, and the inherent process of change through homeostasis equilibrium is based more strictly on the functionalism-structuralism theory. These concepts, in particular, are taken from the sociological theories of Parsons (Reyes, 2001).

The following are the underlying presumptions: (a) Modernization is a methodical process. The modernism attribute appears as a group rather than alone because it is a cohesive whole. (b) Modernization is a process of transformation; for a society to enter the modern era, its conventional structures and ideals must entirely be replaced by a set of current values. (c) Modernization is a process that is about to happen because it is methodical and transformative, which incorporates change into the social structure. The economic area involved in making public policy decisions has been one of the modernization theory's main applications.

From this vantage point, it is well recognized that Rostow's five stages of development—traditional society, precondition for take-off, take-off process, drive to maturity, and high mass-consumption society—form the foundation of the economic theory of modernization. The solution is to provide these nations with aid in the form of money, technology, and knowledge if the issue facing Third World nations is their lack of productive investments for the advancement of Third World modernisation. Programs that were influenced by Rostow's political theories include the Marshall Plan and the Alliance for Progress in Latin America (Reyes, 2001).

There are numerous ways to describe modernization theory's advantages. We can first determine the foundation of the research focus. Although a psychologist, a social psychologist, a sociologist of religion, and a political sociologist conducted the majority of the modernisation investigations, other authors have expanded the modernization theory to other fields: For instance, Lipset has addressed the potential role of economic development in democratizing third world countries, Bellah has examined the influence of the Tokugah religion on pajanes economic development in South-East Asia with effects on villages in Cambodia, Laos, and Burma, and Inkeles has talked about the effects of modernization on individual attitudes and behavior. The analytical framework is another aspect of the modernisation viewpoint. The assumption made by authors is that Western nations are contemporary and Third World nations are traditional. For the economic growth of those underdeveloped countries, Western principles must be adopted. In addition, the approach distinguishes between unstable democracies, dictatorships, and stable dictatorships. These studies are based on general studies, such as those on value factors in the Third World and the methodology (Reyes, 2001).

The modernization idea, on the other hand, enjoyed popularity in the 1950s but came under fire by the end of the 1960s for a number of reasons. First, Rostow's ethnocentricity provides an illustration of how development is not one-way. Second, the modernization perspective only depicts one potential model of development, with the United States being a preferred illustration of this trend. However, powerful authoritarian regimes and other countries, including Taiwan and South Korea, have contributed to the current state of development. According to the modernization hypothesis, traditional and modern values are never compatible with economic progress. Economic development requires modern values, not traditional ones. The traditional values of Third World nations, however, are varied rather than uniform. Critics argue that traditional and modern values aren't always mutually exclusive when it comes to economic development because traditional values are still important in China and Japan. The author made a distinction between the big traditional values—values held by the elites—and the small traditional values—values held by the general public. Furthermore, it is not necessarily accurate to claim that traditional values and contemporary status are mutually exclusive. For instance, devotion to the emperor can become allegiance to the company (Reyes, 1965, 2001).

Through the lens of the research's focus on Third-World development, the parallels between classical and new modernization studies can be seen. These parallels include the national level analysis, the use of three main variables (internal factors, cultural values, and social institutions), the key concepts of tradition and modernity, and the policy implications that modernization is generally advantageous to society as a whole (Reyes, 2001).

However, there are also significant differences between the new studies of the modernization school and the classical studies. Tradition, for instance, is a barrier to progress in the traditional approach but a contributor to it in the new approach. The new technique uses specific case studies that are presented in a historical context, whereas the classical approach employs a theoretical formulation with a high level of abstraction. The new perspective favors a multidirectional path of growth while the traditional approach adopts a unidirectional road toward the American and European models. Finally, in contrast to the new perspective, the classical perspective downplays conflict and outside influences (Reyes, 2001).

There are several hypotheses that have been put forth to explain why migration starts. Although all of the theories eventually aim to explain the same phenomenon, they do so by means of drastically dissimilar ideas, presumptions, and frames of thought. The five distinct stages of economic development are the emphasis of Rostow. Similar to this, Tipps insists on categorizing his beliefs about modernization as either European or American. The primary presumptions are that modernization is a planned, immediate, and transformative process that incorporates change into the social system (Reyes, 2001).

2.1.4 Neo-economic theory of migration

The New Economics of Migration (NEM) theory, which offers a new level of analysis and a different nature of migration determinants, has come to challenge some of the neoclassical approach's presumptions and shifted the focus of migration research from individual independence to mutual interdependence (Stark, 1991).

The main claim is that families or households, rather than lone individuals, often make migratory decisions. Furthermore, a wide range of variables formed by circumstances in the home country have an impact on migrants' decisions. So, rather than being solely driven by individual utility maximization calculations, household responses to income risk and market failures in the labor, credit, or insurance markets are what determine whether a person migrates (Massey et al., 1993).

Therefore, migration in the absence of significant wage differences or the absence of migration in the presence of wage differences does not imply irrationality; rather, it forces us to take into account a number of other variables related to relative deprivation (a household that is performing relatively worse than other households will be more willing to send a member abroad) and risk-aversion and risk-minimization of household income. When introducing these ideas, Stark was primarily thinking about the risk aversion of low-income households in developing nations where institutional mechanisms like government initiatives or the private insurance market are infrequent. As a result, migration offers a useful tactic for addressing various market failures (Stark, 2003).

As they directly support the idea of household interconnectedness and risk diversification while analytically tying the empirical study of the causes and

consequences of migration, remittances play a significant and essential role in the new economics of migration research (Taylor, 1999).

The NEM has been criticized for sending-side bias and for its limited applicability due to challenges in isolating the effects of market inefficiencies and risks from other income and employment factors, despite being able to analyze the determinants and consequences of migration in parallel. Overall, there hasn't been much interest in or empirical testing of the hypothesis. It has also been criticized for disregarding household dynamics (such as gender roles) and being overly future-focused (Faist, 2000).

The so-called New Economics of Labor Migration, which purportedly sought to address both the excessive structural emphasis of the historical-structural perspective and the theoretical insufficiencies of the traditional neoclassical theoretical framework, has recently been proposed as an alleged theoretical alternative to the theories presented above.

Taylor (1999) and de Hass (2010), who supported the theory, claimed that it represented a fundamentally novel theory that successfully reconciled agency and structure and permitted a wider range of outcomes than either the single aggregation of individual decision-making or the unidirectional imperatives of structures. The new economics of migration, which first surfaced in the specialized theory on migration around the turn of the 20th century, challenges some of the concepts that went into developing the neoclassical theory, either by refuting them (Piore, 1979) or by adding to them (Stark, 1991).

The notion that the choice to immigrate is not an individual one but rather one made by a group, such as a family or household, serves as the foundation of this new strategy. These groups' members work together to minimize risks, increase incomes, and do away with restrictions brought on by the failure of national markets rather than just the labor market.

Stark and Bloom (1985) presented the following justifications for the need for a fresh theoretical framework to explain cross-border migration: Over the past few years, there has been an exciting and major revolution in the study on the economics of labor mobility. Theoretically, migration research has revealed new connections between migration as a distinct labor market phenomenon and other

labor market and non labor market phenomena. It has also highlighted the significance of larger social entities and interactions within them in conditioning migration behavior. Finally, it has improved our understanding of the process. Their research on the economics of labor migration has empirically supported the value of time-tested and proven labor migration models.

Better estimates of essential behavioral patterns, many of which are crucial components of continuing discussions about governmental immigration policies, have also been presented. It allegedly aimed to address both the neoclassical theory of migration's perceivably inadequate nature and the claimed disregard for human agency in historical-structural interpretations. In doing so, it has been variously described as a fundamental departure from prior migration research (Taylor, 1999); a "fundamentally different theory of migration constitutes the only migration theory that explicitly links the migration decision to the impacts of migration"; and "a pluralist view on migration and development", inspired by Giddens' structuration theory, which "sought to harmonize actor and structure-oriented approaches" (de Hass, 2010).

Neo-classical economics and the new economy of migration have different perspectives on return migration, and this is where they diverge from one another. Return migration is seen as a failure, if not an oddity, because neo-classical economics assert that people migrate permanently to raise and maximize their salaries in receiving countries. Return migration is seen as a success story, if not the natural conclusion, because the new economics of migration asserts that people travel temporarily to attain their aims or targets in receiving nations as a prerequisite to returning home (Abreu, 2012). According to de Hass (2010), structuration theory "sought to harmonize actor and structure-oriented approaches."

The neo-classical stereotype of the unsuccessful returnee is something that new economy migration theorists are adamant about rejecting (Abreu, 2012). The length of the stay overseas is determined by the household's requirements in terms of insurance, purchasing power, and savings. Once these demands are met, return migration takes place. In other words, the approach taken by the new economy of migration to return migration extends beyond a reaction to a wage gap. When people are arranged into households, they have the power to manage the risks to their financial security by allocating their resources to different uses in order to get

through financially challenging times. By doing this, some family members can work in the local economy, while others can emigrate in order to find job in a market unrelated to the national one and avoid potential hazards in their own country. The household can rely on the remittances sent by immigrants to get through tough times if such hazards or economic issues arise (Stark, 1991).

The possibility of such risky situations is dealt with by insurance companies or government programs in economically developed nations; in contrast, in poorer nations, there are no institutional mechanisms to deal with risks or each family's low incomes prevent them from having private insurance, which gives migrants even more motivation to leave. Additionally, the credit systems of economically developed nations are effective, enabling families to get the extra money they need to finance various initiatives, such the purchase of new industrial technologies. On the other hand, credit is either hard to get by or prohibitively expensive in developing nations. Because of this, market failures are perceived more strongly on an individual level in the lack of effective and accessible insurance and credit systems, increasing social pressure and encouraging immigration from abroad (Stark, 1991).

The new economics of labor migration believes that in order to fully understand labor migration, households and other larger social entities must be considered. The key factor influencing labor movement within the unit of the home is the unpredictability of household income. The risk of a low household income might be transmitted by having a household member move. In the future, the family member who is currently living overseas might send remittances, increasing the household's income. In addition, according to the notion of the new economics of labor mobility, remittances contribute to the macroeconomic growth of recipient nations. The developmentalist perspective is what is known as this view of how remittances affect sending economies (Taylor, 1999).

International labor movement is therefore some transitory phenomena, in accordance with the new economics of labor migration. However, there is disagreement in the literature regarding whether remittances have an advantageous or disadvantageous impact on the sending economy. Taylor contrasts the migrant syndrome perspective on the effect of remittances upon sending economies in addition to the developmentalist perspective. The economies of sending countries

suffer significant adaptation challenges, such as inflation or Dutch disease, if labor outflows and the remittances that result experience ups and downs. When a country's apparent economic success has a net negative impact, the phrase "Dutch disease" is employed. Remittances' potentially unsettling impact on the economies of sending nations may diminish the likelihood that more households in the sending region will have enough money to live comfortably, which would increase labor migration (Taylor, 1999).

2.2 Review of empirical studies

The history of migration predates the development of humans. Three entities are linked together during the migration process, including the migrants themselves, the area of origin, and the area of destination. There are differing viewpoints on migration in relation to regional development. Migration is thought to represent regional inequality and negatively reflect development in many of the less developed nations. This phenomenon has been linked to the economic and social hardship in the regions where people are leaving, which puts a tremendous strain on the availability of basic services in the regions where people are moving in, notably large cities (Kundu, 2008).

The gain or loss from migration, however, cannot and should not be depicted as a linear result of the development process; the process of migration is becoming increasingly complicated in its relationships with the economy, society, politics, and space. Given the extreme variability of migration-development connections across migrant-sending communities and regions, it is important to avoid making generalizations about these relationships (De Haas, 2010).

According to the field survey, a significant part of income is used for consumption. According to Gautam (1999), migrants utilize their income from India to pay taxes, buy food and clothing as well as to sustain other household costs like feasts and celebrations and to offer money to the bride and groom at wedding ceremonies. Food is purchased from the market, and the money is then used to purchase other goods that lead to dependency. The village economy will go worse in the future due to a shortage of remittances (Gautam, 2005).

Additionally, a percentage of their money is used for luxury and capital

consumption, such as watching TV, playing Casette, drinking, going on picnics, and attending festivals. Very few immigrants spend their money on purchasing new property or starting new construction. Only 20% of the emigrant households in this example had purchased land. The neglect of agricultural land is one thing. Market-purchased food is consumed, and the money earned is used to buy consumption goods that eventually lead to dependency. The village economy will go worse in the future due to a shortage of remittances (Gautam, 2005).

Emigration had little impact on people's desire to attend festivals. The desire of responders to take part in religious ceremonies was discovered to be unchanged. Few respondents claimed to have a stronger propensity. Nearly half of the respondents said they were interested in religious rituals. Two temples have recently been constructed in the village. This demonstrates that the majority of them are drawn to religious rituals (Gautam, 2005).

Nepal has seen a sharp increase in both domestic and international migration over the past 20 years, particularly from rural areas to urban areas and other nations like the United States, United Arab Emirates (UAE), Canada, Japan, Qatar, and India. Some immigrants who are able to make enough money to support themselves temporarily emigrate from their country of origin and relocate to new locations, where they buy land and homes. Other emigrants are relocating temporarily to urban areas in order to take advantage of modern amenities, such as better educational opportunities for their kids. Due to temporary migration, elderly couples are now living alone in remote communities. The issues that elderly couples who are living alone at home following the temporary emigration of their descendants are examined in this article. I contend that a number of issues facing elderly couples in rural Nepali communities have their roots in migration (Gautam, 2008).

From a sociological standpoint, migration has caused major issues for elderly couples, burdening their roles in society and households. The spouses are required to engage in all societal activities, including birth, marriage, festivals, and burial rites, as well as their own personal, social, and developmental endeavors (Gautam, 2008).

The elderly couples who remain at home are now required to take part in all activities, from cooking to attending public gatherings and funeral rites. Kitchen

chores, animal care in the shed, required labor contributions in social and public activities, involvement in wedding parties and funerals, aiding neighbors with daily tasks, and performing in cultural activities are the main burdens placed on them. Leaders of social and developmental activities frequently discuss rejecting the labor of the elderly since they are physically frail and unable to contribute in the same way as other young labor forces. The elderly couples claimed that because their children had moved away, they had trouble exercising. These burdens are becoming too much for the elderly, lonely spouses (Gautam, 2008).

Because the couples are together, they are not physically alone. But psychologically speaking, they are at home alone. Because there are no young, adult, or children nearby, people have a sense of environmental loneliness. They don't live or work with anyone else. Nobody is there to help them with their varied tasks from morning to night. The elderly couples experience loneliness. The majority of the migrant workers' spouses and kids appear to experience anguish and loneliness at home. Additionally, migrants experience loneliness and even question if they ever had children at home (Gautam, 2008).

According to D'emurger (2015), one in seven people globally are migrants, and many of them leave their families behind in their native countries. The estimated 1.92 million migrants in Nepal are mostly men, and 32% of married women have husbands who work overseas. Making the decision to migrate for work is difficult because it requires leaving behind spouses and other family members, among other difficulties (Shattuck et al., 2019).

The life and structure of the home are affected positively or negatively by the income and living circumstances of these migrants in their new locations. Similar to how it affects people left behind in the place of origin and those at the destination, migration can have an impact on the physical, mental, and emotional health and wellbeing of migrants themselves (Ghimire et al., 2018).

In Nepal, the tendency of migration is rapidly growing, forcing families left behind to make social and economic adjustments. They constantly worry about their relationship and their job position (both physically and mentally); some who migrate also leave a sizable amount of loans to families in the hopes of helping them construct

happy families and improve their standard of living (Thapa, et al., 2019).

The families that are left behind are directly supported by the remittances that migrants send while working as laborers abroad. Migration has been a means of ensuring survival, providing access to nourishment and healthcare, raising living standards, and being a key factor in the reduction of poverty (Bhattarai et al., 2020).

However, the division of families has had both beneficial and negative effects on the family members that stayed behind. Families' socioeconomic characteristics, such as earnings, health, and educational levels, as well as domestic duties and relationships and the involvement of women in the community, are all impacted by migration in a variety of ways. The psychosocial and emotional well-being of the family members left behind is also impacted by migration. The reviews mentioned above show that migration has both advantages and disadvantages. Additionally, the family is affected in numerous socioeconomic ways. The psycho-social and emotional health of the family members who are left behind is also impacted (Kaimal & Paul, 2021).

Traditional knowledge, remittances, and other effects of migration have an impact on livelihoods as well as the management of land (Schwilch et al., 2017). Because Nepal imports food, agricultural land is being abandoned there at a never-before-seen pace. Youth migration, unappealing farm income, better jobs outside, a labor shortage, and political instability for the agricultural reform are the causes of this (Satyal, et al., 2017). If the current trajectory of underutilization and abandonment of agriculture continues, there is a substantial risk that food insecurity in Nepal would become worse (Bhawana et al., 2017).

Remittances from migrants are a significant source of income for many developing countries, both nationally and at the household level. Because of labor and water shortages, cash crops are replacing paddy fields, which has a positive impact on land management and land use (Jaquet et al., 2016). After receiving remittances, people replace their paddy fields with cash crops, and the adverse effect is a lack of home labor for agricultural tasks (Rai & Dangal, 2021).

However, the absence of domestic labor as a result of less population on the land is a drawback of the effect of migration. Soil erosion, landslides, and

abandonment have led to the family holdings being neglected or damaged. Remittance-receiving countries are impacted by the migration of people and the remittances they send in both positive and negative ways. After receiving remittances, people replace their paddy fields with cash crops, which has a beneficial effect. On the other hand, a household labor scarcity for agricultural work has a negative effect (Rai & Dangal, 2021).

Parental labor migration is a common occurrence in South Asian nations because Bangladesh, India, Nepal, Pakistan, and Sri Lanka are the main source countries of migrant workers to the Gulf Cooperation Council nations (Anita, et al., 2020; Asis & Feranil, 2020).

The effects of migration on children's health are ambiguous because while remittances and material support may improve health and give access to education and healthcare, other studies indicate that children left behind suffer worse effects of migration than children living with their parents. Similar to this, labor migration lowers unemployment and boosts economic efficiency in the home nations of migrants. The effect of parental migration on children left behind is not always detrimental and is greatly influenced by the characteristics of the transnational families, such as the age and gender of the children, the migrant parent's gender, continuity of care, the relationship between the parents, and living conditions (Anita et al., 2020).

There is a dearth of scholarship on the effects of female migration on the families and children left behind, in particular. According to a recent study, children who are left behind from female migration experience many negative consequences, such as issues with the caring deficit, psychological issues, health, education, aggressive behavior, physical abuse, and antisocial behavior because they lack parental motivation. However, the reduction of poverty, enhancement of educational standards, enhancement of lifestyle, and enhancement of health care services are good aspects (Sapkota, 2020).

Because of the improved household economic condition brought on by remittances and the lower number of mothers migrating, Kunwar et al. (2020) discovered that children of migrants had a similar level of health care seeking and nutritional status to children of nonmigrants despite the high level of parental international labor

migration from Nepal.

Similar to this, a study found that the education, health, and psychosocial development of left-behind girls from international mother migrant households were adversely affected by their mother's departure due to the home environment, physical weakness, girl's preference, tolerance level, decreased communication with mothers, and unsupportive family members. The factors that influence the outcome of a study on the effects of migration depend on the region, ethnicity, kind of migration—local versus international—culture, and tradition (Rai & Dangal, 2021).

The female exodus may have an adverse effect on those left behind, particularly young girls. The females who are being left behind in society face issues with their education, health, and physical and psychological fragility.

2.2.1 Remittance and livelihood

Within the framework, this part covers household subsistence as well as the significance of risk, vulnerability, and asset or competence. With a wider shift away from economic growth and toward human well-being and sustainability, the idea of sustainable living has evolved. Children are struggling with issues like inadequate physical, psychological, and health systems. Its emergence is associated to the shifting the biasness of development thinking from macroeconomic to people-centric, where the people were considered as a means as well as ends of development (Hussein & Nelson, 1998). In the framework of sustainable livelihood, people are recognized as dynamic decision maker who rationalize their decision to attain their source of living from different sources. At the same time people are not absolutely free to make their choice but the given set of circumstances play a profound role in their decision making (Ellis, 1998). Therefore, the concept of sustainable livelihood combines structure as well actor together in a single framework (Carney, 1998).

This idea views households as the fundamental unit that combines the sources of subsistence. Additionally, it views households as the fundamental unit where individuals decide whether to participate in consumption and production. In order to assure its material reproduction, a household divides up and distributes a shared pool of resources, including labor.

Using an economic metaphor, a household's capacity to persuade alternative

strategies depends on its core material, social, tangible, or intangible assets, which may be referred to as "capital." Capital has been classified into five different categories (Goodwin, 2003).

The natural resource flows and services necessary for subsistence are derived from the natural resource stocks (soil, water, air, genetic resources, etc.) and environmental services (hydrological cycle, pollution sinks, etc.). Physical assets such as trains, roads, power, and other infrastructure, as well as production tools and technology, are examples of produced capital. Produced capital is created when human productive activities are applied to natural capital. Economic production as stores is facilitated by the capital base (currency, credit/debt, savings, and other economic assets like land or cattle). The term "human capital" refers to an individual's innate as well as learned productive capacities, such as their knowledge, skills, and physical and mental stamina for work. For joint or collaborative acts, social resources like networks, social claims, social relations, affiliations, and alliances are helpful. Assets provide people the ability to be and act; they are not only resources they employ to construct their lives. The ability to use, change, or recreate assets allows people to reflect on the actions they took in the past to support their livelihood (Goodwin, 2003).

In his multicounty analysis of various developing world regions, Davis and Winters (1998) found that households engaged in on-farm activities typically own land, have lower levels of education, are located away from infrastructure facilities, and have a higher proportion of female household members. Families that work as nonagricultural wage earners tend to be larger, younger headed households with more children, and households with greater levels of education. Families that work in agriculture for a living typically have younger children and male heads of household, little access to infrastructure, and little land. Last but not least, households taking part in transfers are more likely to be led by women, be older, and have smaller homes.

Risk or vulnerability are seen as significant concerns that a household must take into account while planning its means of subsistence. Household responses to risk can be divided into *ex ante* and *ex post* coping techniques for risk management.

Ex post coping strategies are described as "the methods used by households to survive when confronted with unanticipated livelihood failure" in either a gradual or

sudden sense (Ellis, 1998). Ex ante risk management is defined as consisting of "forward planning to spread risk across a diverse set of activities, in the context of subjective evaluations about the degree of risk attached to each source of risk"

A coping technique typically entails altering one's consumption patterns, depleting savings, selling assets, or relying on an unofficial social safety net. The concept of adaptation is linked to the strategic management of livelihood risk. According to Davies & Hossain (1997), livelihood adaptation is the ongoing process of "changes to livelihoods which either enhance existing security and wealth or try to reduce vulnerability and poverty"

Diversification and adaptation are clearly related, but they are not the same thing. As its defining feature, diversification specifically calls attention to a wide range of disparate income sources (farm, nonfarm, remittances, etc.). This is just one possible result of adaptation; there are other possible outcomes as well, such as finding new ways to maintain the current revenue portfolio. According to Eriksen, Brown, and Kelly (2005), adaptation may lead to the adoption of progressively more fragile livelihood systems over time. In contrast, reducing vulnerability is the main goal and benefit of successful diversification for the poor (Ellis, 1998).

According to Devereux (2001), this is the scale of risk and uncertainty, and it can be related to macro (international), meso (sub-national), and micro (individual) levels. Devereux identified five risk factors that affect vulnerability: Droughts, floods, and pests are examples of environmental risk. Price changes, salary variability, and unemployment are examples of market risk. (3) Political risk (variations in pricing or subsidies, transfers of income, and armed conflict) Health risk (exposure to illnesses that limit work) and social risk (loss in community support and entitlements) are the other two risks.

Seasonality in the agricultural economy refers to a mismatch between household consumption needs and unequal revenue flows. The output of agricultural activities varies from season to season and is not consistent throughout the entire year. Three main categories that broadly represent the spectrum of possibilities available to rural people are migration, livelihood diversification, and agricultural intensification/extensification. A household can either increase the amount of agriculture (which includes livestock rearing, aquaculture, forestry, etc.) it depends on

for its income through processes of intensification (more output per unit area through capital investment or increases in labor inputs) or extensification (more land under cultivation), or it can diversify into a number of off-farm income-generating activities, or it can leave the area and look for a livelihood, either temporarily or permanently, elsewhere. Or, more frequently, a household will apply several different techniques concurrently or sequentially (Hussein & Nelson, 1998).

It directly affects the way of life of the receiving homes on a household level. Apart from foreign direct investment (FDI) and official development assistance (ODA), it has been stated that remittances are the second-largest source of external finance (Oluwafemi & Ayandibu, 2014). Remittances are thought to be three times as large as foreign aid in some poor nations (Keely, 2009).

2.2.2 Poverty: vulnerability and deprivation of livelihood assets

In this section, risk and vulnerability and lack of productive asset have been discussed as an important dimension to understand poverty. To understand livelihood strategy of poor, it is necessary to understand the life of poor and dimension of ill-being that poor people experience in their life. Low income and low level of consumption, income, and possession of durable assets are universally accepted as measures of poverty, but multifaceted experience of poverty is not revealed by these indicators. Such experiences are complex and may vary from one community to another as per variation of set of circumstances. Because deprivation is multidimensional and has many different manifestations, a more nuanced and localized understanding of poverty is required. Income is only one aspect of deprivation; it is frequently not considered the most significant aspect of deprivation or welfare (Jodha, 1998).

In his research on Rajasthan, Jodha (1998) found that peasants viewed reducing reliance on patrons as a key aspect of wellness. Villagers embraced betterment in their lives despite a decline in their total income because of less dependency and higher consumption levels. The eight main dimensions of deprivation described by Chambers (1995) are poverty (the absence of material needs, assets, and income), social inferiority, isolation, physical weakness, vulnerability, seasonality, helplessness, and humiliation.

Seasonality and Vulnerability are significant aspects of poverty that have a

significant impact on how a household survives. Seasonality demonstrates that poverty is a dynamic, not a static, idea. Poverty and risk or vulnerability can be shown in a linear fashion as follows: risk, shock exposure, asset erosion, increased shock vulnerability, shift into or persistence of poverty. According to Devereux (2001), risks can be categorized into those that affect a lot of individuals because of geography or certain behaviors (also known as covariate risks) and those that are unique to a person or family (also known as idiosyncratic risks).

In the context of agricultural economy, seasonality means household consumption needs mismatch with uneven income flows in a particular season. The output of agriculture activity is not constant over all months of the year but vary from one season to another (Ellis, 1998).

A poor household is often found as risk averse, meaning that it chooses a sustainable flow of income rather than higher income. A poor household diversify its livelihood to mitigate and to offset the risks involved in precarious nature of the sources of livelihood. Adaptation is defined as the process of minimizing the susceptibility to risk and making livelihood more sustainable (Chambers, 1995).

According to Kozel and Parker (2001), the structural imbalance in the allocation of opportunities and resources is to blame for the region's persistent poverty. The only assets that the poor have are their own unskilled labor. Typically, the poor suffer from a lack of private assets because they lack access to literacy and rich land. Additionally, the poor have restricted access to public resources like government programs, basic services, and community infrastructure.

People living in poverty frequently lack access to informal support networks and social capital; they frequently become destitute as a result of idiosyncratic shocks that frequently permanently deplete their physical and human resource bases, leaving them with no chance to escape poverty. Due to discrimination in hiring, illiteracy, and lack of skills, low-caste people are typically restricted to the lowest status and lowest paying jobs (such as casual agricultural labor). They frequently become bonded laborers as a result of debt brought on by shocks like the high cost of medical care. Their poverty is continued through several generations and often related to their social identity. This is defined by the other as structural poverty. Other poor households, which are relatively better in terms of assets, capability or social hierarchy and may

expect to come out of poverty, are defined as mobile poor (Kozel & Parker, 2001).

Sharp (2007) used both qualitative and quantitative techniques to evaluate poverty in a study of Ethiopia. According to Sharp, access to resources for a living is a key factor in determining poverty. The author discovered that poor households cannot meet their subsistence needs since their productive resources have been reduced. Families are divided into four categories: impoverished (unable to meet needs on their own and dependent on assistance), vulnerable (struggling to meet needs), viable (able to meet needs), and doing well (generating additional income for savings, investing, or shopping). In this region, more than half of the households are found to be vulnerable; over the past year, many of these homes have become vulnerable and impoverished due to the loss of natural resources. It demonstrates how the resource (livelihood resources) plays a crucial role in comprehending the dynamic and complex idea of poverty.

2.2.3 Dynamics and recent trend of rural livelihood

In this section, the evidences of changing nature of rural livelihood with increasing importance of nonagricultural activities (and migration) have been explained. Livelihood diversification became norms than expectation. In the developing world, local nonfarm income makes up between 30% and 45% of rural household incomes, according to Haggblade et al. (2005); Reardon et al. (1999) estimated 32% and 40% for Asia and Latin America, respectively. Davis and Winters (2007) also noted that around more than 50% of households in different parts of developing countries get their income from diverse source rather than depending upon one source.

In his research in Ghana, Lay and Schuler (2008) found that households gradually diversify their sources of income through both increased migration and an increase in nearby nonfarm work. These decisions to diversify are largely motivated by need rather than by fresh opportunities, particularly in terms of immigration. Through increased involvement, low-income households increase their income share, especially from local nonfarm activities, whereas returns to diversification activities stagnate or even decline. As a result, households with low non-labor asset bases are becoming more diverse while still being poor.

According to Ellis and Freeman (2004), rural income diversification is driven not only by sudden risk or seasonality but also by the failure of agriculture to deliver

improving livelihoods in the post liberalization era. Rural people are poor and vulnerable because they rely heavily on agriculture.

Rigg (2006) demonstrated how the livelihood in rural regions is becoming less dependent on agriculture, which means that land is becoming less of a factor in determining wealth or how poverty is reproduced.

According to Bryceson (2002), market liberalization and structural adjustment measures during the previous 15 years have sped up de-agrarianisation in sub-Saharan Africa. Traditional export commodities and commercial staple foods are no longer produced by peasant farmers in rural places far from roadways and metropolitan markets. The search for much-needed cash earnings has been replaced by non-agricultural revenue diversification.

The above literatures shows that developing countries' education and rural infrastructure development is playing an important role in moving a household away from agricultural activities and towards nonagricultural wage employment and self-employment, suggesting that the development in rural areas is increasing the people's participation of nonagricultural activities, apart from negative factor such as market liberalization policies or climatic instability that is increasing risk and decreasing return in agriculture.

2.2.4 Economic sociology of migration

The notion of the "new economics of labor migration," which has highlighted the migration process as a means of subsistence, is discussed in this section. The new economics of migration concentrated on a microeconomic level; instead of assuming that individuals make most of their own migration decisions, it assumes that people act collectively, typically within households or families, to maximize expected incomes, minimize risks, and loosen restrictions related to a variety of market failures, which are particularly prevalent in developing countries. Because households in the location of origin may want to diversify their risks, migration may still happen even if there are no pay differences between the places of origin and destination (Stark, 1991).

The premise that income has a constant impact on utility for various actors across socioeconomic situations is also questioned by the new economics of mobility. To increase absolute and relative incomes, it is suggested that households send family members to work somewhere else. The new economics of labor migration theory, like

the neoclassical economic theory, places a strong emphasis on homes as a unit of analysis where people work together to optimize projected incomes and reduce risks. According to theory, families can reduce risks to their financial well-being by dividing up family labor throughout several labor markets (Stark, 1991; Stark & Taylor, 1991).

From this perspective, families, homes, and other cultural production and consumption units—rather than autonomous individuals—are the units of analysis for research on migration. Wage disparities between locations are not a need for migration because families can still have compelling incentives to spread their risk without them. When a family member migrates to earn remittances in order to overcome credit limits and finance rural productive investments, the absence of a rural credit market may also operate as a push factor (Katz & Stark, 1986).

This method suggests that reducing salary disparities could not always prevent migration. When markets other than wage markets are imperfect, uneven, or simply do not exist in the place of origin, there may still be incentives to migrate, as well as when there is a desire to join a particular reference group. However, it is important to note that many of these additional elements, such as the desire to advance in status, are at least loosely connected to income or expenditure (Katz & Stark, 1986).

Seasonal migration is one method of distributing household labor over time in different geo-graphic areas in rural developing nations, where some family members stay at home while others work elsewhere, such as in an urban area. The household can rely on remittances from migrants during times when the economy in non-local areas is booming, the economy at home deteriorates, and local labor productivity does not produce enough money. Thus, migration, particularly seasonal movement, is a typical risk management tactic in developing nations where government programs and private insurance are insufficient to safeguard the welfare of rural households (Massey et al., 1987).

Some of the neoclassical perspective's premises were called into doubt by the new migration-economics perspective. It suggests that families and households, not lone individuals, make the decision to migrate. Families and households are groups of linked persons that strive to maximize income while minimizing risks and removing constraints brought on by a range of market imperfections. Some members of the

family are sent away in order to diversify their sources of income, lower their risks, and make new investments. The remittances that migrated family members send back help the households survive when the local conditions worsen. The study of the effects of family remittances has been most influenced by this idea since it provided a suitable framework for many of their presumptions. According to the theorists of the new migration economics, households move some of their members not only to increase their income in absolute terms but also to increase it relative to other nearby households and decrease their privations in comparison to a certain reference group.

2.2.5 Migration in relation to livelihood

The function of migration within the framework of livelihood is explained in this section. In the 1980s, a pluralist mindset that was much more in line with the fundamental concept of subsistence arose in the study of migration. The New Economics of Labor Migration is a recent theory created by Stark and Bloom (1985) that has given optimism about migration a new foundation. According to this view, a person's decision to move is not seen as an independent one, but rather as a component of the household's strategy for sustaining itself. One of the key components of plans to diversify, secure, and possibly strengthen rural households over the long term is migration, which is frequently linked with other plans such local nonfarm enterprises and the intensification of agriculture (Bebbington, 1999).

Labor migration is becoming seen to be more than just a means of short-term subsistence, a crisis management technique, or the archetypal escape from sorrow. Instead, it is frequently a conscious choice to enhance livelihoods, facilitate investments, and assist in reducing family income variations that have (often) been wholly dependent on climate vagaries (McDowell & De Hann, 1997). The acquisition of a wider variety of assets that provide protection from upcoming shocks and stressors can then be considered as a benefit of migration (de Haan et al., 2000).

There is no a priori reason why urban households cannot be included in this diversification through migration argument. This is surprisingly similar to the NELM premises, and if we consider both domestic and international migration as a component of a larger household livelihood strategy to diversify income sources and overcome social, economic, and institutional development constraints in the place of origin, both approaches can be effectively combined. Neo-classical and

developmentalist migration economists progressed in the opposite direction from the livelihood techniques intended for sociologists and anthropologists, who departed from somewhat rigid structuralism in favor of more pluralist approaches.

A shift away from neo-classical and actor-oriented approaches toward a household-level based theoretical perspective, acknowledging the relevance of both agency and structural constraints to development, was signified by the development of NELM as of the late 1970s, concurrent with the emergence of livelihood approaches. It's interesting to note that NELM chose a household-oriented methodology that is widely used in other social science disciplines.

According to Stark and Lucas (1988), economists have started to examine household composition issues that have historically been the purview of anthropologists and sociologists. Additionally, Stark and Lucas proposed that dualistic theories of development must be revised in order to reflect the recent intergenerational view of the family, which spans the two, rather than an urban sector and a rural sector, each with its own population benefiting from the sector-specific speeds of development. Classes stop being made up solely of peasants and workers, and a mixed class of peasants and workers appears. Anthropologists are not unfamiliar with this perspective, but it has never been combined with household economics before. The latter claim was supported by empirical study on rural livelihoods, which also showed that both domestic and foreign migrants frequently keep deep relationships to their home towns for considerably longer periods of time than was previously thought (McDowell & De Hann, 1997).

Migration or activity at the origin are frequently both, not either or. We shall see that the emphasis in recent scholarly work on transnationalism has also emphasized the ability of households and larger social groups to retain trans-local and transnational social links, livelihoods, and identities over extended periods. The key methodological and analytical implication of all of this appears to be that a migration strategy's impact cannot be assessed in isolation from other livelihood strategies, i.e., the whole range of multi-local and multi-sectoral family activities (Stark, 1991).

The relationship between migration and more general processes of transformation or development cannot be determined by research that attempts to separate migration and migrants from their wider social and economic context and

other livelihood activities. Rather than being mutually incompatible options, employment at the origin and migration are frequently mixed. Such a variety of techniques cannot be understood without a home perspective (Stark, 1991).

This viewpoint appears to more accurately reflect the realities of daily life for millions of households in developing nations than neoclassical or structuralist approaches, and is shared by both NELM and livelihoods approaches. According to Stark (1991), the livelihood method may be used to model and gain insight into how households live and develop their lives as well as how these lives are realistically incorporated into a larger institutional context.

Migration, according to de Haan et al. (2000), is ingrained in societal laws and norms rather than being an atomistic response to economic or environmental pressure. Migration networks and household management and structure are two institutions that have a big impact on migration. These institutions govern how much migration can contribute to raising living standards, but there is in no way a clear or straightforward connection between the two. The decision to employ the family as the main analytical unit can then be understood as a kind of compromise between actor and structural methods, taking into account the fact that household structures differ over time, place, and social groupings.

In considering migration as a household strategy for sustaining its livelihood, we agree that structural forces do, to some extent, allow for agency. The importance of implicit contracts inside the family is increased by household approaches, which seem particularly applicable in developing nations because many people are unable to ensure the family income through commercial insurance markets or government programs (Baur & Zimmermann, 1998).

2.2.6 Remittance

It has been attempted to investigate the significance of remittances in the household and household economy support systems. Remittances are one of the most crucial components of migration, possibly even more so for the places where the migrants originally came from. Even though basic judgments about remittance quantities and usage vary, there is already a substantial body of literature on the topic. Overall, since the 1970s, when there was a lot of emphasis on the ostentatious expenditure of migrants and their family, the evaluation of remittances has evolved

toward more favorable views, emphasizing, for example, upon the conditions needed to secure the investment of remittances (de Haan, 1997).

de Haan (1997) asserts that there are two categories of economic models for remittance behavior. The first model, which builds on the research of Rosenzweig and Stark (1989), emphasizes an insurance agreement between the migrant and the home left behind as a way to manage household risk. This can be contrasted with research that focuses on migration and remittances as a kind of portfolio diversification, where the potential benefits of receiving remittances are compared to the returns from domestic income sources. The analysis of differences in remittance behavior between men and women, which are brought on by gender-differentiated inheritance rules, supports the second model, which builds on literature about the bequest motive and views remittances as investments in household assets that the migrant will later inherit.

In an article on the significance of urban-rural remittances in rural development, Stark (1980) described how a family member moving from the country to the city avoids the credit and insurance markets, allowing excess to accumulate and the diversification of income sources. The sequential nature of migration and remittances, as well as the fact that remittances are also motivated by the desire to inherit family property, were stressed by Stark and Lucas (1988).

Lipton (1980), focusing on India, asserted that remittances make up a small portion of village income. Other repercussions of emigration are not more encouraging for the rural poor, he continued, highlighting the connection between migration and inequality at the village level. In addition, David (1995) discovered that average remittances were extremely modest yet essential to food security as a mechanism to spread out risks and guarantee assistance during harvest.

According to McDowell and de Hann (1997), the amount of remittances varies greatly based on a number of variables, including the migrant's orientation, work prospects, cost of living, and the accessibility of their home village. Diverse usage patterns for remittances are also demonstrated by the evidence. Remittances can undoubtedly have bad effects, but the evidence makes it very obvious that these effects aren't always a problem. According to the research, the type of migration, the characteristics of the migrants, and those who remain behind all affect how remittances are used. More research is required in this area, particularly regarding the

ways that governments might strengthen the beneficial benefits of remittances.

2.2.7 Migration, poverty, and inequality:

Migration and remittances have played a context-specific influence in either reducing or escalating poverty and inequality. This section explores the connection between poverty and inequality on the one hand, and migration on the other. According to de Haan (1999), who studied 40 Indian villages, a village's high emigration rate is closely related to the unequal distribution of its resources, typically land. The more commercialized and unequal villages are where the poorer and wealthier migrants are most likely to have originated. Because better-off villages and villagers learn faster and can take advantage of new career opportunities, migration also worsens intra-rural inequality. Poor migrants are pushed by rural poverty and labor placement practices, but wealthy migrants are drawn to fairly certain possibilities of employment or education. In conclusion, push and pull migrations are sources of new inequality as well as the twin offspring of inequality in the same kind of community. Migration can undoubtedly increase inequality, just as rural diversification.

As was already mentioned, the research demonstrates unequivocally that migration is a highly selective process. Extremely poor people typically aren't given the chance to migrate.

As is evident in China right now, migrants typically do not come from the poorest areas. According to research by Murton in the same Machakos regions and Tiffen et al. (quoted in McDowell & de Hann, 1997), unequal access to nonfarm income and urban remittances contributed to a polarization of land holdings.

According to studies on migration in Western Kenya, investments in education rather than agriculture have helped to increase differentiation. The poorest migrants may not have much room for advancement, according to study on them (Breman, 1990). According to research conducted in Palanpur, the likelihood that the poorer parts will migrate and profit from migration changes throughout time. Research among Bihar-born migrants indicates that different groups have benefited from migration in ways that are difficult to anticipate. The poorest may have migrated and sent substantial quantities of remittances, according to other study that was previously mentioned. As a result, migration frequently reduces poverty, but it can also widen inequality (de Haan, 1997).

de Haan (1997) came to the conclusion that the key concern is not migration itself, but rather what possibilities are accessible for what types of individuals, and whether the type of migratory labor allows the migrants and their families to increase their assets and human capital.

There is a plethora of literature on migration and development, which shows that there is significant population mobility in developing countries and that migration is a complex phenomenon that occurs in a wide range of spatial and temporal contexts and for a wide variety of material and nonmaterial reasons. In the context of the sustainable livelihoods framework, which emphasizes that migration does occur in response to crisis and that it is also a key livelihood strategy for many people in the face of physical, economic, social, and political adversity, there has been an increase in interest in a more balanced approach to migration in recent years. However, the implications of migration for well-being and the impact of poverty and vulnerability on migration are highly controversial.

The concept of intervening obstacles, a variation on the cost theory, was created by Lee in 1966. According to Lee, migrants experience both economic and noneconomic challenges, and these challenges are positively correlated with distance. This Lee remark is more pertinent for international migration, when financial and psychological costs, in addition to legal obstacles, make the movement more challenging.

Distance was found to be a key factor acting as a deterrent to migration in a research for Kenya (Rampel, 1970). The idea was validated by a second empirical investigation of regional mobility in Brazil (Sahotas, 1968). However, other studies have demonstrated that people who live in areas that are extremely close to towns can profit much and avoid the drawbacks of actually migrating (Connell et al., 1976); however, after a certain point, greater distance also discourages migration. Distance discourages migration, according to some research conducted in the region. The price of transportation is one of the key elements affecting the migration process. Because it is not only less expensive but also simpler for them to learn more about the culture, language, and opportunities in neighboring regions, data analysis based on region has revealed that people are more interested in moving a short distance than a great distance (Caldwell, 1969).

Richey (1976), who studied both established and developing nations, discovered that low-income and less educated migrants are particularly prone to short-distance movement. Schult (1971), using data from Colombia, demonstrated that some types of migration may occasionally be prevented by the distance of movement, which represents the expense of the migration process. For instance, moving internationally is expensive. These international migrants, in Schultz's opinion, typically have higher levels of education, higher incomes, greater risk tolerance, and more valued work skills than internal migrants.

Migration comes with additional costs in addition to financial ones. According to Greenwood (1971), people are hesitant to travel across large distances since it accentuates the cultural divide between their homes and their final destinations. It is advantageous for a migrant to migrate to a location where the social nonmonetary costs of migration, in addition to the monetary expenses, also play a role in the migration process, according to Mangalam (1968).

Migration was viewed as an investment to increase human resource production in the early 1960s. People weigh the costs and benefits of an investment before deciding to migrate. The financial, psychological, and prospective earnings at home that a migrant must give up are all included in the cost of moving. The migrant's returns are their potential future profits in their new location.

In this context, we can bring up the work by Sjaasta (1962). Sjaasta looked analyzed the percentage gains and losses in population that in-migration and out-migration caused in 48 U.S. States between 1940 and 1949. The author considered per capita income, the rate of income increase, and educational attainment to be influential elements in the paper. It was discovered that net immigration was closely related to income. Despite being tiny, the net income gain had a big impact.

According to Becker et al. (1986), a person is more likely to relocate if they anticipate a favorable outcome from doing so, taking into account both salary increases and moving. The nexus between population expansion, urbanization, and development became a concern for policymakers and planners in the 1960s, which led to some development of the economic interpretation of migration that was mostly based on American experience.

Kuznets (1966) outlined how immigration could result from economic

expansion and progress. The need for workers in various occupations changes as technology develops. The need for labor in agriculture declines as a result of technological advancements. According to him, since the population growth in rural areas is larger than that in urban areas, migration should make up for the faster growth in the demand for labor outside the agriculture sector as well as the faster rate of natural increase in agricultural labor. According to Goldstein (1990), the temporary migration from rural to urban enables cities to meet their demand for specialized labor and services. This lessens the rural labor surplus and spares cities from having to take on the task of permanently integrating a large number of migrants.

A ground-breaking contribution to the field of migration is Todaro's (1969) model of rural-urban migration. The model is based on Lewis's (1954) primary model of development, which Fei and Ranis (1964) formalized and expanded. Migration is primarily an economic phenomenon, according to the Todaro model. The labor market options that are available, such as those between the rural and urban sectors, are taken into consideration by migrants, who then select the opportunity that would maximize their anticipated benefits from migration. The model considers:

- (a) compare the predicted salaries of current and potential labor force members for a specific time horizon in the urban sector with current average rural incomes, and migrate if the former is greater than the latter;
- (b) Migration decisions take into account anticipated, rather than actual, differences in real wages between urban and rural areas. The expected differential is produced by the interaction of two factors: the actual salary gap between urban and rural areas and the likelihood of finding employment in the urban modern sector; and the probability of getting an urban job is inversely related to the urban unemployment rate.

The model also demonstrates the operation of urban labor markets and the integration of immigrants into those markets.

He observed that migrants only hunt for jobs for a short time, contradicting Todaro's (1969) finding, but he did confirm the idea that migrants earn less than non-migrants by attributing this wages to the migrant's age and skills rather than their status as a migrant. Papola (1981) also observed low unemployment rates and high labor participation rates among the migrants. Papola also observed small duration of

job search for the city in-migrants, especially among unskilled. However, the author did not support the Todaro's prediction that the migrants were earning less than the non-migrants.

Several laws were identified in a research on migration conducted by Ravenstein (1885, 1889). The majority of our migrants only travel a short distance, and as you get further away from a given center of absorption, the number of migrants there will decline. Long-distance migrants typically want to settle in one of the major commercial or industrial hubs. As a result, there is a global shift or displacement of the population, which causes migration currents to flow in the direction of the major commercial and industrial hubs that receive the migrants. One of our rapidly expanding cities gradually spreads its attractive force to the most remote region of the kingdom as the residents of the area immediately surrounding it move into it in large numbers and the gaps left in the rural population are filled by immigrants from farther away districts. Dispersion is a similar process to absorption in that it occurs in the opposite direction. A compensatory counter current results from each migration's primary current. For Ravenstein's current and countercurrent, the terms stream and counter stream have been used instead.

In a broad sense, many people opposed Ravenstein's immigration policies (Bourne, 1889). Redford (1962) explained Ravenstein's laws in terms of pull and push elements. Redford noted that while good conditions tend to draw individuals to another region, bad socioeconomic and physical variables tend to push people away from their native country.

Through their investigation of the labor markets affected by rural-urban migration in China, Tianhong et al. (2000) discovered that, contrary to what the Todaro model suggests, rural-urban migration is not a uniform phenomena. On the other hand, they have discovered evidence demonstrating the diversity of rural-urban migration and the lack of appreciable pay disparities between jobs in the formal and unofficial sectors in urban areas. Potts (2000) provided data supporting the Todaro model with an emphasis on Africa. The results of this study raise questions about how much net in-migration actually contributes to unemployment in modern-day sub-Saharan Africa.

McCatty (2004) concentrated on the rural-urban migration and how it affected

urbanization, particularly in emerging nations. His study examines the Lewis dual sector model, the family/household migration model, and the Todaro model, which offer theoretical justifications for the process of rural to urban migration. Additionally, McCatty contended that migration from rural to urban areas is a natural result of asymmetric policies and the growth of metropolitan economies.

Therefore, migration should be viewed as an equilibrating response to economic instability. Migration will continue as long as there remain employment imbalances between rural and urban areas brought on by urban bias, and it is the duty of the government to lessen this imbalance. The advantages and disadvantages of rural-urban migration are also examined in this research, and it is discovered that while there may be advantages, disadvantages are widespread in emerging nations. Urbanization is inefficient because the marginal societal costs vastly surpass the marginal private costs. When marginal private costs and marginal private benefits are equal, urbanization is at its highest degree.

The fundamental Todaro model from 1969 was refined by Harris and Todaro in 1970, leading to a two-sector trade model of migration and unemployment. Both the Harris-Todaro model and the original Todaro model have occasionally undergone modifications or extensions thanks to numerous academics. Despite salary and income disparities, several research looked at earnings in the country of origin and the country of destination independently to understand migration.

The basic hypothesis that high earnings in the destination country are positively correlated with high in-migration rates was supported by Arnold and Cochrane in 1980. Arnold and Cochrane discovered that the outcomes vary depending on the country of origin since high out-migration rates are sometimes associated with lower incomes and other times with higher incomes. They believe that salary levels have a greater potential to influence migration than the unemployment rate. The studies by Arnold and Cochrane (1980) in Thailand and by House and Rempel (1980) in Kenya have shown a correlation between migration rates and earnings in the destinations as well as with variations in unemployment rates among regions.

Economic opportunities, skill transferability, level of economic development, political environment, and institutional controls that reflect the immigration policies of the two countries were the four vectors of variables used by Greenwood and

McDwell (1991) to explain annual immigration to both the U.S. and Canada for the period 1962-1984 from a number of specific source countries. The pay gaps, various measures of skill transferability, the political climate in the countries of origin, and the policy variables have all been identified by Greenwood and McDwell as significant predictors of immigration to the United States and Canada. Using individual migration histories from 1963 to 1973, Tunal (1996) examined the qualitative and quantitative significance of the various factors influencing migration and return migration.

Katz and Stark (1986) demonstrated that, despite a greater mean income in the rural area, migration from a rural to an urban area can be reasonable. This is true even when there is uncertainty regarding income in the immigrant location. The migration literature is being urged more and more to account for environmental and climatic variations. It was believed that regional disparities in property prices and wage rates would be translated into regional differences in non-tradable consumption goods, such as the environment or climate.

Remittances have been shown by Glytsos (1988) to have an impact on migration. Remittances were viewed by Glytsos as an intrinsic and obligatory part in the decision-making process for temporary family migration. The model has done quite well when tested mostly with data from the transient migration of Greeks to West Germany. An further examination using data from Greek-American permanent migration gives its validity greater weight. Using household data from El Salvador and Nicaragua, Funkhouser (1995) investigated the factors that influence remittances.

Debt-interlocking, or the repayment of debts through an advance labor commitment, or *dadán*, involving employers in the destination areas or their middlemen, is a common cause of out-migration. The reasons of debt may or may not be eliminated by such outmigration. As workers look for alternate sources of monetary gain, the elimination of individualized dependencies or interconnected ties may also hasten labor movement and mobility (Breman, 1974).

However, it does seem that migrant households often have better incomes and consumption levels than similarly situated nonmigrant households (Krishnaiah, 1997). But because it frequently relies on ex-post cross-sectional comparisons, this conclusion must be carefully connected to the impact of migration. According to

Mosse et al. (2002) and other studies, migrants not only have different placements at the entry point, but also have different statuses that cause them to follow different trajectories. As a result, changes in post-migration average incomes might only give a partial picture of the varied set of changes. Rogaly et al. (2001) found some evidence in one of the few thorough ethnographic studies indicating the rise in incomes of seasonal migrants as a result of migration.

Migration has a minimal effect on income and asset inequality. Rogaly et al. (2001) found evidence of lower inequality because labor-force participation increases the earnings of labor-force households relative to non-labor force households. In another setting, Mosse et al. (1997) put out the theory that these disparities grow as a result of the diversified character of the migratory process, which enhanced income and asset disparities.

Consumption, debt repayment, and other social obligations are the three main uses of remittances. These actually represent the first tax on migrant incomes. However, the research on investment is contradictory. In addition to frequently investing in real estate, consumer goods, and housing, migrant households frequently use their income to meet their agricultural businesses' working capital needs. The evidence for further profitable farm or non-farm investments is scant, although few studies do note that a tiny proportion of migrant and return-migrant households have made such investments (Rogaly et al., 2001).

Rural out-migration appears to provide some evidence for an improvement in the productive potential of source areas and the ability of some poor migrant households to acquire small surpluses and to strengthen their productive base and bargaining strength in the rural economy (Rogaly et al., 2001). This is true even though studies do not fully account for the impact of some factors, such as the life-cycle effect.

In a study on the effects of information on migration, Findlay (1977) identified the importance of knowing potential destinations as a further crucial component. Findlay has noted that migrants from the same place of origin prefer to travel in the same direction, in part due to the information and assistance they receive from their links to kinship and friendship and in part due to their innate attachment to their friends. The depiction of better living conditions and future chances in surrounding

cities and industrialized nations by the media encourages migration. Iyoha (1975) investigated how migrants in Venezuela and Nigeria were affected by radio, television, and newspapers.

Schooling is often regarded as one of the key factors for migration after job-related mobility. Such movement occurs in the wealthier villages. According to Connell et al. (1976), there was a positive and significant correlation between student migration and the village's high agricultural productivity and literacy level.

Speare (1972) also examined the relevant evidence. The likelihood that someone will move rose with educational attainment. Although educated individuals make up a small part of all migrants from the majority of regions, the propensity to leave one's place of origin grows as one pursues higher education.

Numerous studies have shown that demographic considerations have an impact on migration as well. Schultz (1971), using census data from Colombia, discovered that youth migration is accelerating at the same rate as population growth. According to the projections, a ten percent difference in the population growth rate led to a twenty-five percent difference in the out-migration rate among people under the age of 26. In his research for Africa, Gugler (1968) noted that 42% of migrants were aged 10 to 39. The decision to immigrate depends in large part on the size, makeup, and dynamics of the family as well as any conflicts within it. On these elements, Borjas and Bronars (1991) concentrated.

Migration is typically gender- and age-selective. According to Caldwell's (1969) research, permanent migrants in the age range of 30-59 had a 1.5 times higher likelihood of being unmarried than non-migrants. Heisler (1973) observed that as the length of a male migrant's job has increased, household movement has become more and more prevalent among single male migrants. Gugler (1968) found the same thing among Africans and Liberians.

Hugo (1981) examined the migratory patterns of several ethnic groups and discovered that some ethnic groups' members are more likely to migrate than others, such as the Serbs in Yugoslavia and the low Sinhalese in Sri Lanka. In Kenya, the group with the highest migration rates is the Kikuyu. In Peru, Liberia, and Indonesia, migration is commonplace—even required—for young people (Hugo, 1981). However, a study by Mabogunje (1970) found that traditional leaders in some groups,

like the Maasai of Kenya, disapprove of leaving the tribe and view metropolitan material prosperity as unimportant to success.

Undocumented migration has recently caught the attention of academics as a serious global concern. It is thought that a nation that proclaims its border open must deal with the possibility of a significant influx of immigrants from less developed nations. Because of this, practically all nations are moving toward rigorous regulations to prevent illegal immigration and severe legislation for legal admissions. Ethier (1986a) examined how border security and domestic enforcement (finding illegal immigrants while they are working) affected domestic policy goals of lowering the rate of undocumented immigration and boosting national welfare. Ethier also looked at how well domestic enforcement measures worked to have employers who hire illegal immigrants check their employees' immigration status.

In order to discern between the stock and flow of illegal immigrants, Dijajic (1987) developed a dynamic framework. According to Dijajic's analysis of the general equilibrium, any additional effort to stop the flow of illegal immigrants by stepping up domestic enforcement could actually lead to a rise in the number of illegal immigrants living in the country and so harm the economy. Hill and Pearce (1990) used general equilibrium analysis to determine the effects of high, medium, and low levels of domestic enforcement on the employment levels of illegal immigrants using data from the 1980 census for the United States.

In 10 villages in Bangladesh's Cumilla district, Hossain (2001) investigated the rural-urban migration of residents. According to Hossain's study, which primarily focused on differences and migration-related factors, those involved in the process of rural out-migration are adults and have higher levels of education. Before moving, the majority of them were either studying or unemployed. A quarter of the migrants went in search of permanent employment, while about half did so for temporary work. Additionally, it has been discovered that permanent types of migration are related to the educational level of the migrants, but temporary types of movement are mostly linked to illiterate migrants. The migration rate is observed to be much greater for individuals who are educated, unemployed, and between the ages of 20 and 29. According to the author, the key push causes for outmigration are poverty, job searching, and family pressure, while the main pull factors for immigration are better opportunities, prior migrants, and the availability of jobs.

Recent studies on migration have focused on the floating population. China's Floating Population was the subject of a research by Zia and Zhongdong (2004). The tabulations from the 2000 Chinese Population Census, which included a sample of micro-level data from the Census, were the subject of this study. Their research aimed to paint a picture of China's "floating population," or migrants without local household registration (Hukou), who face severe social and economic disadvantages. According to the authors, China's floating population increased to almost 79 million people by the year 2000. If this population is defined as migrants who moved between provinces or countries and stayed there for at least six months, then intra-country floating migration has also played a significant (66 million) role in the growth of the floating population.

In a study conducted in Vietnam, Cung and Mont (2012) examined the effect of remittances on household welfare. The primary factors included in the study are household age, assets, durable goods, and child education. Utilizing data from the Vietnam Household Living Standard Survey conducted in 2006 and 2008, regression analysis was performed to calculate the effect of international remittances on household expenditure. According to Cung and Mont, a significant portion of remittances were used for housing, land, debt repayment, and saving.

Ziaul et al. (2016) conducted a survey of rural Bangladeshi families to determine the effect of remittances on spending and saving patterns. The average monthly remittance received by the household was US\$ 358. A household that receives remittances typically spends more on food, overall spending, and savings each month than a home that does not. These amounts are around US \$28, \$32, and \$10 greater, respectively. Remittance has a statistically significant positive impact on food, total consumption expenditure, and savings, according to the results of the path-model analysis. As a result, this study has come to the conclusion that remittances have a significant impact on the consumption and saving patterns in the selected rural districts of Bangladesh's south-west. The robustness of the study findings, however, might be improved by additional research that addresses randomness in the sample selection process and covers a larger sample and study region.

According to Javaid (2017), there is a beneficial correlation between consumption and remittances. A similar favorable correlation between investment behavior and remittances was found by Javaid. The influence of remittances on

investment and consumption was examined in this study using data from a field survey of Tehsil Sargodha that covered a year, from January 1 to December 31, 2011. A sample of 355 homes with at least one individual employed abroad were studied for the study.

2.3 Academic discourse on migration and its impact

The academic discourse on various techniques through which migration is explored has been offered in this section because this study is focused with issues of migration. This study has shown that the researchers have given consideration to the effects of migration as well. The labor market, income, assets, and patterns of investment and spending are the main ways that migration has an impact on the source regions. Rural out-migration has the potential to tighten the labor market in some situations, even while seasonal out-migration may have the impact of reducing employment across the annual cycle. However, actual data from outmigration regions rarely lends support to this conclusion (Srivastava, 1999).

The fact that outmigration frequently occurs in conditions of labor surplus may explain why the findings don't sustain themselves. There is also proof that female and even juvenile laborers are taking the place of male workers. This conclusion is not frequently supported by evidence (Srivastava, 1999).

One of the tactics businesspeople like to shift risk and production cost onto workers is labor immigration. Continuous formalization is also necessary to protect enterprises from government oversight. As a result, the majority of businesses in the unorganized sector are not subject to regulation. Additionally, in such tourist destinations, companies hardly ever offer benefits beyond minimum pay. To meet their needs for food, shelter, and other necessities, migrant workers must fend for themselves. Although the bad living conditions of laborers are caused by employers failing to internalize the true costs of hiring labor (in violation of various laws), the urban congestion that results from this appears to be due to unplanned movement in society. Because of the significant expenses associated with population concentration in big cities, the costs of population mobility have also been theorized. The growing economic literature on internal migration has not taken into account the social, political, or other effects of immigration, particularly when such migration is seen group-wise, linguistically, ethnically, or regionally (Weiner, 1982). However, these

effects are prominent in the corpus of sociological and political literature.

The utilization of migrant labor in destination locations has evidently many justifications. Oberai and Singh (1983) and all relevant evidence demonstrated that the recruitment of immigrants is equally driven by techniques of labor management and wage cost reduction, even while the shortages of local workers serve as an important justification. Migrants are chosen because it is simpler to control and obtain work from them under difficult circumstances. Additionally, firms can simply grow or decrease the labor pool at no cost, and migrants can put in lengthy and flexible hours of work. The flexibility of the migrant workforce is enhanced by the involvement of contractors and middlemen in hiring and managing them.

From the viewpoints of changes in workers' employment in both the source and the destination places, the issue of social and economic mobility can be investigated. The majority of temporary migrants lack skills. Their migration's duration, conditions, and gender all play a role in the subject of mobility. Generally speaking, only a very tiny percentage of male migrants' experience economic mobility in their new communities (Mosse et al., 1997).

The restricted mobility happens as immigrants gain some skills in their final destinations and are better equipped to take advantage of the local labor market conditions. Social and economic mobility is slightly more affected in the source regions, but it rarely benefits the lowest people and has a little effect on poor immigrants to society. Depending on the length of the migration and the location, exposure to a different environment and the stresses it brings has a significant impact on migrant workers' attitudes, behaviors, and levels of awareness (Rogaly et al., 2001). In the case of urban migrants, changes are more pronounced. Workers from other countries become more aware of their working conditions (Srivastava, 1999).

Families may experience a range of effects as a result of lifestyle choices and awareness shifts. The greater awareness that migrants, particularly those in metropolitan areas, acquire frequently aids them in realizing the value of educating their offspring. Outmigration may nonetheless hasten qualitative changes in the labor connections that are already in place in rural regions, even if labor tightening is not the result. This will have an impact on the rate of change. This could happen in a number of ways. First, there is the well-known effect of migration on attitudes and

awareness since returning migrants and migrant workers are less likely to put up with poor working conditions and low pay. Second, emigration encourages a more varied approach to generating income. This may tend to push up the acceptable level of salaries (reservation wages) in rural regions and may make some types of work partnerships (those involving individualized dependency) less acceptable (Srivastava, 1999) when combined with some growth in the income and employment portfolio of poor households.

Poorer migrant workers are crammed into the bottom extremities of the labor market and receive limited benefits from their employers or the local governments there. They have few material possessions and experience a variety of deprived conditions when traveling. Migration affects migrants and their families in the source regions in both bad and positive ways. Whether they work in agriculture or not, migrant workers endure appalling living conditions. There is no provision for clean restrooms or safe drinking water. Despite the Contract Labor Act, which mandates that the contractor or employer must provide sufficient housing (Rani & Shylendra, 2001), the majority of people live in open spaces or in improvised shelters.

Chain migration, according to Das (1994), also has the effect of dividing this market along ethnic and regional lines. Because of their employment contracts, migrant employees in the construction industry are dispersed. Focusing on the traits of migrant workers, education and access to resources provide two major obstacles to the poorer social groups' ability to get on-the-job training and skills that might lead to semi-permanent employment.

Studies are also conducted to examine how migration affects women (Rogaly et al., 2001). Given the patriarchal structure, women may have to deal with a variety of issues that are made worse by the uncertainty around the timing and amount of remittances, which are essential to the fragile home economy. In turn, this uncertainty forces women and kids from low-income working households to enter the job market under challenging circumstances. As a result, migration can have a dual impact on women, but the strong patriarchal influence limits the extent of women's autonomy (Rogaly et al., 2002).

In a number of circumstances, women join their male household members in the migration streams. In such circumstances, older children and younger siblings

frequently follow and assist their parents in their work. Family migration typically involves the younger family members moving away, allowing the elderly to manage new tasks while also providing for their basic needs (Mosse et al., 2002).

Male migration can have a particularly negative effect on women because they frequently shoulder greater domestic duties and care for younger siblings. Their prospects of receiving an education are further diminished by the absence of male supervision (Srivastava, 1999).

Male-only migration has a substantial effect on family relationships, as well as on women, children, and elderly people who are left behind. The lack of men increases the psychological and material instability, which puts strain on the family as a whole and necessitates discussions (Rogaly et al., 2001). Male outmigration has been found to affect women's participation as employees and decision-makers in the directly productive sector of the economy as well as their level of interaction with the outside world (Srivastava, 1999).

Children frequently accompany their families to the workplace where they are exposed to health risks because there are no creche services. Additionally, they lack access to education. Their movement pattern is not taken into consideration by the educational system at home, and their brief residency in the places of destination does not qualify them for education there as well (Rogaly et al., 2002).

In a recent paper, Hann (2011) brought up a crucial issue that is directly related to the gap in the migration literature: whether migration studies have become a crucial component of comprehending development processes, such as growth, poverty reduction, or rural development, which, it has been argued, does not necessarily reduce migration. Although the burden of proof is still on the proponent, it is discovered that it is still challenging to incorporate a knowledge of mobility, particularly labor migration, in literature on mainstream development studies.

In the context of social, economic, political, environmental, and historical circumstances, households in developing nations frequently implement a variety of livelihood strategies to diversify their sources of income (Kothari, 2002). The framework for sustainable livelihoods examines how households and communities are enabled or prevented from pursuing various livelihood strategies—including migration—in response to the current circumstances, as well as what effects this has

on their wellbeing and susceptibility to unfavorable events. Access to various livelihood resources, including human, physical, social, and environmental capital, and the role formal and informal institutions and organizations play in facilitating or restricting access to alternative livelihood strategies are particularly crucial to this process (Scoones, 1998).

A livelihoods approach sees migration as one of a number of options that households and communities adopt to diversify and sustain well-being, in contrast to economic theories, which typically see migration as a response to disequilibria like inter-sectoral wage discrepancy (de Haan & Rogaly, 2002).

The livelihoods framework refers to a broad range of factors that influence migration, including monetary and non-monetary factors, voluntary and forced migration, and individual and household circumstances and decision-making, meso-level (socioeconomic conditions in the source and destination areas), and macro-level (speed and unevenness of development, as well as national and international policy).

For both poor and non-poor households in many developing nations, migration is a crucial tool for the diversification of their sources of income and for ensuring their survival. Outmigration may be the primary driver of improved livelihoods and well-being in locations with limited resources. For instance, entire groups may migrate in circles in hazardous conditions like rural dry areas. Similar circumstances may lead to other households and communities sending seasonal excess labor out to give remittances or save money that can be used to maintain consumption during lean seasons, provide insurance against shocks, or finance investments. People who are living in extreme poverty may be forced to migrate permanently, which could exacerbate their plight if there is no protection against losing their source of income. For historical reasons, migration processes are frequently entwined with social or cultural relationships and made easier by familial networks. Certain demographic and ethnic groups may benefit from these mechanisms' promotion of mobility while being excluded from others (Scoones, 1998).

The poor are particularly prone to food insecurity and other negative effects from risk, shocks, and stress due to unfavourable conditions paired with inadequate social support and livelihood security (Waldinger, 2001).

As a result, the poor are more likely to need techniques for diversifying their sources of income, like migration. The main conclusion of the framework for determining livelihoods is that the poor are a heterogeneous population with varying access to resources and institutions, and as a result, variable capacity to engage in activities like migration. Numerous factors make it difficult to determine how poverty influences migration decisions and the following impacts of migration on well-being.

Not all persons who are poor, especially those who are chronically and severely disadvantaged, have the choice to immigrate. The degree of social inclusion or exclusion, which is reflected in access to and control over resources, has an impact on one's capacity to use migration as a means of subsistence. According to Kothari (2002), many non-moving people and households from a sending area are likely to already be or develop chronic poverty.

Due to exorbitant financial and economic costs, as well as issues such a lack of access to networks and a disadvantage in terms of skills, knowledge, and physical mobility, they are unable to choose migration to improve their situation unless they are forced to. This results in a second issue, which is the blurring of the lines between voluntary and involuntary migration due to the coercive nature of extreme poverty: Although moving may be theoretically voluntary, people who are extremely or persistently destitute may not have any other viable options for survival. In some ways, this is similar to the difference between push and pull factors (Kothari, 2002).

There is a significant distinction between diversifying one's means of subsistence voluntarily, when migration is a desirable alternative, and compulsorily, where it is a last resort. The inference is that in the latter scenario, migration is probably going to make people more vulnerable and poor. People who are extremely poor may not be able to make decisions about where to go if they lack education and social capital, and their options may be limited by a lack of money (Ellis, 2000).

Poorer migrants may need to borrow money at high interest rates to pay for moving or living expenses, as Wood (2003) found in urban Bangladesh. For instance, during the immediate post-migration period before wages are received, the high interest rates exacerbate the migrants' poverty and vulnerability as well as that of any

non-migrants who depend on remittance transfers. Due to the impact that migration can have on the wellbeing of migrants and non-migrants at the source and destination over time, it is particularly challenging to distinguish cause from effect when evaluating relationships between poverty and migration.

People who are poor may migrate in an effort to improve their situation, but this move could make them even more vulnerable and poor. According to de Haan et al. (2002), some households and communities connected to migrant networks may experience long-term advantages that disguise the links between mobility and early well-being.

Migration frequently makes it easier to escape poverty, demonstrating the close connection between the two. Absolute poverty is the definition of poverty that scholars frequently use when discussing migration and poverty. However, poverty has a powerful relativity component: People may feel poor if they discover that their income is lower than others' when comparing themselves to them (de Haan et al., 2002).

Household members may move, not necessarily to enhance their absolute income but rather to improve their relative poverty status in relation to a particular reference group (Stark & Taylor, 1991; Quinn, 2006).

The prevalence and severity of relative poverty can be assessed in a number of ways. One indicator, drawn from the extensive literature on relative deprivation and reference groups, is the percentage of people in a person's neighborhood who they compare their income to and whose incomes are higher than their own, multiplied by the average excess income. It was demonstrated that adding up the measure of relative poverty, as described above, across all of the people who make up the community, is equal to multiplying the total income of the community by the income inequality quotient, or the Gini coefficient (Stark & Wang, 2005).

When considering social policy as a migration policy, it is crucial to consider the connections between relative poverty and migration. If relative poverty has an impact on migration, then tax and transfer policies that alter the distribution of income will have effects that not only function through the typical mechanisms but also through movement tendencies. In other words, if income has a nonlinear impact on migration, redistributing cash to the poor is likely to lower overall migration

intentions. On the other hand, if migration were income-linear and there was no effect of relative poverty on migration, income redistribution would not affect migration—no matter how extreme the income inequality and how wide the associated inequalities in migration inclinations. It can be seen that the study is addressing a crucial policy issue by evaluating the evidence on the impact of relative poverty and income inequality on the propensity to migrate (Stark & Wang, 2005).

The next question is whether, when all other pertinent factors are held constant, a community's propensity for migration is positively correlated with the community's overall relative poverty, as determined by the Gini coefficient. The goal of the study is to objectively support the claim that migration is favourably impacted by the community's overall relative poverty. This expectation is based on the straightforward intuition that people care about their relative status or income (or lack thereof), and that migration is a reaction to a low relative position in a group (or in a population). A higher level of absolute poverty should be expected to be correlated with a stronger propensity to move (Stark & Wang, 2005).

The analysis of the study demonstrated a positive correlation between migration and the Gini coefficient, holding the population's per capita income constant. The study's preliminary policy conclusion is that, in order to limit migration, lowering absolute poverty might not be sufficient on its own. This understanding could be helpful when analyzing the effects of various development regimes. The decrease in relative poverty is by no means a certain notwithstanding the increases in average income within the communities of origin. The relative poverty may well worsen as the economy as a whole develops. The tendency to migrate is likely to increase among the relatively poor. In fact, decreasing income inequality in regions of origin may have a similar impact on decreasing migration as increasing incomes in such regions (Stark & Wang, 2005).

Hatton and Williamson (2002) observed a negative and significant effect of Gini coefficient in their study using a balanced panel of number of immigrants to the US by country/year 1971–1998 that included 16 Western European countries, 6 Eastern European countries, 14 East Asian countries, 5 Middle Eastern countries, 2 North American countries, 4 Caribbean countries, 6 Central American countries, 11 South American countries, 14 African countries, and 3 Oceania countries.

According to the report, while the proportion from relatively poor Eastern Europe nearly doubled, it decreased drastically from comparatively wealthy Western Europe to just 5.7% in the 1990s. A change from rich to poor immigrant sources, an increase in the Asian portion that exceeded a third in the 1970s and 1980s, and an increase in the share from the American continent that rose from 40% in the 1950s to 50% in the 1990s served as a counterbalance to the fall in the European share. The growth from underdeveloped Central America, the Caribbean, and notably Mexico more than offset the drop in the proportion from wealthy Canada within the Americas. Africa is the continent with the highest percentage of immigrants to the US, despite the fact that this percentage has increased quickly.

The causes of migration were explored by Fiaschi et al. (2017) using a unique search model in which people with varied capabilities are permitted to move between regions with heterogeneous enterprises and in the presence of firing costs. The study studied the quantitative implications of the theoretical model, notably with regard to the severity of firing costs, and calibrated it to Italian data. It then evaluated its predictions using census data on inter-regional migration in Italy from the years 2000 to 2014.

The study adopted the strategy of Molho (1987) and Pissarides and McMaster (1990), which distinguished between the choice of a destination and the decision to migrate. It then concentrated on the push factors that encourage people to migrate by expressing the likelihood of migrating as a function of characteristics of the region of origin. The study used a series of explanatory variables (unemployment rate, nominal salaries, housing price, and regional EPL) taken as a ratio of origin-to-possible-destinations values at time t_1 to regress the annual probability of migration from one location at a time. The study came to the conclusion that the likelihood of migrating to Italy increased as firing costs decreased over time (i.e., higher flexibilization). Although the unemployment rate is statistically negligible, the nominal earnings were statistically significant only under certain conditions and were therefore in the negative.

Using a neoclassical migration theory, Cattaneo (2003) demonstrated the factors that influence internal migration in Albania. Using average pay and unemployment differentials, a gross migration function and a willingness to migrate function were estimated. The Albanian Living Standard Measurement Survey from

2002 served as the study's data source. In order to account for personal traits and district-level influences, the unemployment and wage rates for each of Albania's 36 districts were calculated: The neoclassical migration function was put to the test using the pertinent differentials. The human capital theory, which states that people invest in migration to take advantage of more favorable economic possibilities, is supported by the beneficial impact of migration on salaries when using the probit model. The findings supported the hypothesis that there is a connection between migration and earnings at both origins and destinations. The findings supported the hypothesis that there is a connection between migration and earnings at both origins and destinations.

The results for the unemployment function are more difficult to understand, and there is no direct evidence to support the human capital theory—that is, there is no connection between unemployment differentials and migration. Additionally, the human capital prediction that migration is conducted to optimize individual earning potential is supported by the predicted coefficients of the individual variables in the earning function.

According to human capital models, factors raising the disparity in projected earnings between a migrant's origin and destination increase their likelihood of migrating. In keeping with the new economics of labor migration (NELM) tradition, more recent models extend the list of factors influencing migration beyond earnings to take other factors into account, such as income risk and liquidity restrictions on output in the migrant's household of origin. Earning potential, age, migration expenses, and the likelihood of employment are the four categories of variables that human capital models have concentrated on to capture an individual's predicted earnings differential between moving and staying at home. These four groups have served as the foundation for data collecting and econometric research since they are crucial to comprehending the likelihood of migration. With regard to these four categories of migratory determinants for both men and women, however, the existing econometric studies, which are mostly focused on cross-section data analysis, frequently have yielded contradictory results (Cattaneo, 2003).

The first group of migration-related factors has to do with people's productivity and hence prospective income. The total number of years spent in education or at work has been used by economists as a stand-in for productivity.

Whether or whether there is migration, experience is a major factor in determining earnings in human capital models (Mincer, 1974; Sjaastad, 1962).

In reality, because the first is typically a linear translation of the second, it is typically impossible to separate the effect of experience from age when modeling wages or migration drivers.

In studies of migration's human capital, the total number of years of education is a crucial variable of importance. The majority of studies on the factors influencing migration conclude that migrants have greater educational levels than non-migrants and that rising levels of education encourage migration. At least one study discovered a link between female education and international migration from Mexico. The economic benefits of education at migrant destinations in comparison to the place of origin determine the migration's education selectivity (Kanaiaupuni, 2000).

As a result, Ozden and Schiff (2001), using cross-sectional data from rural Mexico, discovered that whereas domestic migration, particularly to low skilled agricultural and service jobs, has a positive relationship with education, foreign migration does not.

From the perspective of human capital, Ozden and Schiff's (2001) finding would seem to suggest that education has a relatively large positive impact on the productivity of female migrants from rural Mexico, while Kanaiaupuni's (2000) finding would seem to suggest that education has a relatively large positive impact on the productivity of international migrants from rural Mexico.

Hondagneu-Soletto (1994) provided an alternative perspective, arguing that women with higher education feel confined by social mores and a lack of economic prospects in their home countries, and that leaving those countries opens up new social and employment opportunities for them. If this is the case, earnings models, projected earnings models, or even NELM models, may not adequately account for female migration.

Alternative economic explanations for the result that migration selects favourably for female but not male education include the possibility that, beyond a certain point, increasing education of men does not produce good returns in rural producing activities. For instance, men's education may help them accept new

agricultural methods or make the switch from subsistence to commercial farming. The economic benefits to households from keeping educated females at home may be reduced if women are not participating in these activities.

There are other possible factors as well, such as the possibility that women with more education might have fewer children and postpone childbearing, which might boost their mobility in comparison to men's. According to a number of studies, women's desire to immigrate is primarily driven by the possibility of marrying a more affluent man rather than job. The likelihood of finding a spouse drove a sizable portion of Nicaraguan women's migration from rural to urban regions, however this was mostly due to employment considerations (Behrman & Wolfe, 1984).

However, United Nations (1990) discovered that women in Mali respond to economic and social determinants in the source region and not merely to the likelihood of getting married to a wealthy guy. According to Chen (2011), women in China frequently move from rural to urban areas for employment-related reasons rather than for the potential of marriage. According to Chen, female migrants' lower levels of education account for a large portion of the income gap between male and female migrants. Therefore, there is a lot of evidence suggesting economic factors play a big role in migration for both men and women, even if the majority of these findings originate from studies of domestic movement rather than international migration.

According to the majority of studies, the young are more mobile than the elderly, and when migration costs rise, older people are less likely to move than younger people are because they have a shorter future time horizon over which to spread out fixed migration costs. Age and international migration by the sexes have not received much scholarly attention.

According to Kanaiaupuni (2000), men are more likely than women to move, particularly between the ages of 20 and 29. Migration possibilities also decline with age for both sexes. However, women are more likely than men to migrate after the age of 50. This result supports the claim that, once their children have grown, women frequently relocate to be with family members or to live with their spouses abroad.

Migration costs are a key factor in determining who migrates and who does not, and some research indicate that there are differences in migration costs for men and women. On the presumption that distance is directly related to costs, migration costs have traditionally been represented by the distance to the border or the destination. However, civil status, the necessity to provide for dependents, and migration networks may also have an impact on migration costs. In order to create more gendered human capital migration models, these variables have been incorporated into migration and immigrant employment models (Kanaiaupuni, 2000).

Married people with children will incur higher migration costs, and they may be more inclined to split their families between different locations (for example, the father may move while the mother stays behind). Male and female international migration propensities are influenced differentially by the number of children and civil status. Women's propensity to move is significantly influenced by their civil status, but not by their gender; unmarried women are more likely to migrate than married women (Kanaiaupuni, 2000).

Additionally, males with children are more likely to immigrate than men without children, although women's migration is not significantly impacted by the number of children. In contrast to education and work experience, civil status and the number of children are what best account for income variations among Mexican immigrants (Kossoudji & Ranney, 1984). Married women in Brazil did not react positively to positive pay differences between sending and receiving populations. These results suggest that men and women may have different opinions about the advantages and disadvantages of migration (Cackley, 1993).

An individual's migratory networks influence the costs of migrating as well. Networks are important factors in the third and fourth categories of migration determinants because they transmit information and aid potential migrants in crossing borders and finding lucrative employment at their destination. The likelihood of migration has been found to be significantly influenced by migration networks, which are also typically the most significant single factor determining future migration. There are strong arguments in favor of expecting networks to have gender-specific effects. If networks' value comes from providing job information and if men and women are concentrated in various sectors of the destination,

networks containing male migrants may not have much of an impact on female migration, and vice versa. For instance, a female sibling interested in moving to an urban domestic career may find little benefit from contact with a male family member working in a farm job (Cackley, 1993).

A few research has started to look into how networks' gender composition affects migrant behaviour. Male and female networks are significant in explaining migration by both sexes, according to Davis and Winters (2001), but female networks have a stronger influence on females' destination choices. In explaining the decision to immigrate, family male networks are found to be more significant than family female networks. Using cross-sectional data from the Mexico movement Project, Curran and Rivero-Fuentes (2003) discovered that male migrant networks are more significant drivers of international movement for males than for women.

In their analysis of longitudinal data from the 2003 Mexico National Rural Household Survey, Richter et al. (2005) discovered comparable findings. However, none of these research makes use of panel data at the person level. Furthermore, there hasn't been any theoretical research on why gender-specific networks would benefit men and women differently.

Finally, migrant labor recruitment tactics and policy variables may have an impact on the likelihood of employment. Filipino migrant labor recruiters pair together men and women with particular employment abroad. Labor recruiters don't have a significant impact on rural Mexico-to-U.S. migration. However, there are gender differences in the employment sectors at the destination (Tyner, 1996).

King and Zontini (2000) discovered that an increase in jobs in the service and informal sectors can primarily account for a rise in female immigration to Southern Europe. The labor marketplaces for Mexican immigrants in the United States frequently divide workers by gender. The concentration of men in construction and women in domestic services is the most striking example.

Due to the disproportionate concentration of male and female immigrants in particular economic sectors, immigration laws that are more easily implemented in some sectors than in others may have differing effects on migration for the two sexes. For instance, the Immigration Reform and Control Act (IRCA) of 1986 in the US made it unlawful for employers to intentionally hire undocumented workers. In

comparison to, say, the informal domestic service jobs where female immigrants are primarily employed, the enforcement of this Act is expected to be simpler and more thorough in somewhat formal jobs. The need for panel data covering the time before and after the policy shock makes it difficult to test for the effects of policy changes on global migration. Researchers are only now starting to investigate how women may react to policy innovations differently than men due to the lack of comprehensive panel data (King & Zontini, 2000).

The majority of social science researchers concur that migration decisions are made by households, not just by individuals, even though the human capital model of migration has given researchers insight into the fundamental factors that influence individual migration (Aguilera & Massey, 2003; Curran & Rivero-Fuentes, 2003; Munshi, 2003). The importance of the household as a social unit determining behavior is highlighted by ethnographic research, including some that challenge the unitary household assumption common to economic studies. Thus, both household and individual factors affect the likelihood of migration. Family migration networks are one such household variable; as a type of capital, they act in conjunction with human and material capital to produce differences in the costs and advantages of migration between households and people (Wolf, 1992).

The majority of empirical studies using household variables to analyze migration are based on split household models, in which certain household members may migrate, changing the demographic makeup of the household as a whole, but the household continues to function as an economic and social unit in the area where the migrants are being sent. Within the NELM approach, split migration models are implied. Theoretically, any household variables affecting the opportunity cost of migration, migrant earnings and remittance behavior, and indirect effects of migration and remittances on household incomes via their influence on liquidity and risk should all be included in a model of migration determinants. Family networks, proxies for risk aversion and credit availability, physical and human capital assets, stochastic factors like weather shocks, and household variables like access to credit are all commonly used in migration models (Stark, 1991b).

There hasn't been much research done to compare household-level factors between men and women who migrate internationally, but gender may play a role. Numerous home factors have uncertain a priori effects on both genders' foreign

migration. For instance, one would anticipate land to have a negative impact on men's migration by males, not women's, if access to land improves potential male economic contributions at home. If migration is thought to be a highly risky activity, household wealth may be predicted to raise the likelihood of international migration—or the opposite, if perceived to be a less risky activity—as a (negative) proxy for risk aversion or a (positive) proxy for access to insurance. The influence of household income on male and female migration is influenced by how risky migration is seen to be by each gender. Wealth would be predicted to reduce the likelihood of migration as a proxy for having access to capital to finance domestic production activities (Stark, 1991b).

The livelihood of migrating is influenced by the migrant's remittance behavior. Household wealth may lessen the likelihood of both sexes migrating if male migrants send money home to fund domestic investments while female migrants send money home primarily to support their families back home during adverse shocks (Briere et al., 2002).

An individual's tendency to move may be influenced by household land and other wealth indicators. Female migration may be decreased by land, housing, and company ownership, according to Donato (1993) and Cerrutti and Massey (2001). Additionally, Cerrutti and Massey discovered that home ownership—a sign of wealth—increased the likelihood of male migration. According to Kanaiaupuni (2000), agricultural land decreases the likelihood of female migration, increases the likelihood of male migration, and decreases the likelihood of both male and female migration when a business is owned.

Household size, household education, and kid count are additional household variables that could be incorporated into empirical models of migration. The opportunity cost of migration should be reduced if there are adults on the farm who can replace the migrant's labor. The efficiency of the migrant's labor at home and, thus, the opportunity cost of migration may be impacted by the education of other household members (Kanaiaupuni, 2000). Family size or land ownership had no appreciable impact on international migration from rural Mexico, according to Taylor (1999).

On the basis of networks, Boyd (1989) and Massey et al. (1987) started to develop a new perspective on the sociology of migration. The embeddedness method

in economic sociology is where the concept of social networks originates (Granovetter, 1973). The social structure is connected to the individual decision-maker at the meso level through homes, family networks, and social networks (Faist, 1997; Haug, 2000). A network of interpersonal relationships between migrants and their friends or family can be used to characterize a migration. Social networks provide as a platform for the sharing of knowledge and for support or patronage. Through reduced costs and hazards, social network interactions facilitate migration.

Transnational migratory networks can be established thanks to social networks (Faist, 1997; Pries, 2004). Social networks could have a multiplier effect that causes a migratory cycle. Informal networks assist immigrants in finding employment or housing, as well as in funding their travel. Migration networks allow people to cross borders, whether they are doing so legally or not (IOM, 2003). at conjunction with circular migration and chain migration processes, personal relations—which link migrants, former migrants, and nonmigrants to one another at the regions of origin and destination—increase the likelihood of international labor migration (Boyd, 1989). Potential migrants can gain from the social networks and ethnic communities already formed in the destination country as social networks are widened and enhanced by each new immigrant.

Social networks are frequently a significant factor in determining migration plans and the choice of destination, according to migration research (Wilpert, 1992; Faist, 1997). Thus, social network integration significantly affects migration choices. Whether or if direct or indirect economic factors, including the life cycle or education, have a beneficial impact on migration decisions depends on the social and cultural context (Hugo, 1981). Social and cultural elements affect (a) if migration occurs, and (b) whether it does so in a permanent or circular manner. (c) the choice of location; and (d) the experiences of migrants in their new setting. The demographic structure (i.e., family size, age and sex, stage of life, and other facets of family social structure, like kinship patterns) affects migration availability, expectations, motivations, and incentives (Harbison, 1981).

Migrating decisions are influenced by these four elements of motivation for migrating. Therefore, migration is significantly influenced by the family. This fact becomes especially clear when taking into account how a person's place in the family, how they are socialized there, and the social network that the family provides. As a result, it is clear that the social context plays a crucial role in determining the

decisions that potential migrants make (Harbison, 1981).

To formulate the effects of migration networks on migration decision-making, a systematic model is required. Establishing how social networks effect migration and creating an integrated model are necessary because they can be viewed as a push or a pull force. The idea of social capital is a significant step in this approach. In the middle of the 1990s, social capital became a part of migration study (Portes, 1995 b).

The idea of "social capital" is a development of the "network perspective," and it has come from a variety of theoretical frameworks that link human capital with social networks, including Bourdieu sociology and Coleman sociology (Portes, 1998). Economic growth and political science both have several applications (Putman, 1993; Dasgupta & Serageldin, 2000). From the social network perspective, a diverse theoretical framework of social capital has emerged and been applied to several disciplines (Flap & Volker, 2004). The economic approach to sociology and the social capital approach in migration sociology are closely related (Portes, 1998).

According to the reviews of the aforementioned literature, there has been a significant amount of empirical study on the effects of migrant networks on migration. The scope of application includes migrant worker immigration and recruitment strategies, post-guest workers, family reunion, tied movers and marriage migration, illegal immigration, human smuggling and trafficking in migrants, migration as a household strategy and remittances, circular migration, migration systems and return migration, as well as ethnic communities, institutions, and organizations. Numerous studies have provided empirical support for the significance of personal networks in migratory behavior. The overview is not thorough but rather aims to give readers a sense of the various approaches used to study how networks affect migration.

For macro-level investigations, aggregate official data on the number of migrants (emigrants in the country of origin, immigrants in the country of destination) or the foreign population in the country of destination are available. The effects of networks can be inferred indirectly from this data, including the official statistics on foreign workers, the data on racial segregation in certain areas, and the data on visas. Examples include the number of emigrants (outflows) and immigrants (inflows), as well as the age and sex makeup of the foreign population (Haug, 2000), foreign workers from particular countries (Haug, 2004a), the number of visas for spouses and

kids for the purpose of family reunification (Haug, 2004a; Haug, 2004b), or regional clusters of immigrants or ethnic segregation (Bahr & Gans, 1985). Analyzing the number of previous migrants from a certain nation of origin to calculate probable emigration from that area is one approach of modeling network effects in economic migration research (Alvarez-Plata, et al., 2003; Straubhaar, 2002).

At the meso level, there are hardly any data available. According to Wilpert (1992) and Pichler (1997), the majority of qualitative social research has been done on ethnic communities, ethnic economies, and other ethnic organizations. Other instances include hiring workers through personal relationships made by social network users to businesses, as in the hiring of Polish seasonal workers in Germany or "guest workers" in Germany (Dietz, 2004). Another sort of research focuses on the so-called migration multiplier, or the quantity of future family members who are sponsored by pioneer migrants to immigrate to the US (Jasso & Rosenzweig, 1989). Social capital has been used in certain studies to examine how ethnic communities integrate (Lever-Tracy & Holton, 2001).

The majority of information about migration networks comes from survey studies. The living circumstances and integration of foreign workers have been the subject of numerous studies in Germany (Diehl & Haug, 2003). Some of these studies specifically discuss the social and familial networks of migratory workers. Although there are some hints in this direction, only a few studies explicitly take chain migration into account (Haug, 2000). Examples include time series analyses of the process of family reunification and the shrinking size of families remaining in the sending country (Nauck, 2005), the analysis of tied movers and marriage migration (Haug, 2000), and the scope and make-up of kinship networks in the destination country (Haug, 2004c). In the immigrant sample of the German socioeconomic panel, it has been examined how social networks of immigrants at the place of destination existed prior to immigration (retrospective question), how they influenced the choice of residence (Bauer & Zimmermann, 1997), and how they affected immigration and return migration (Haug, 2000).

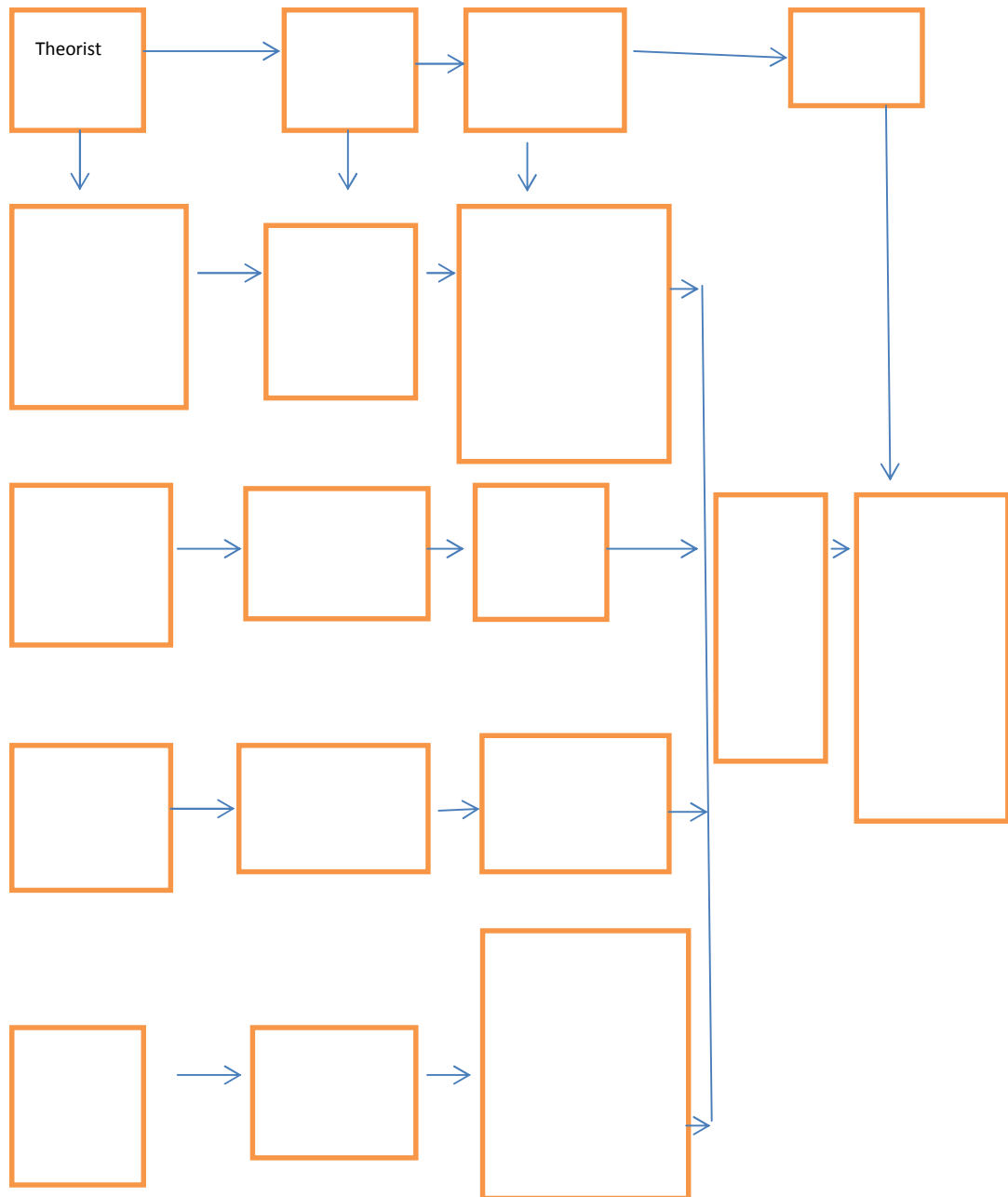
Some research has taken migration as a longer-term economic adaptation issue. In addition to being seen as individuals with their own set of abilities, migrants are also seen as players in larger social structures and members of groups, all of which have an impact on their ability to move up the economic ladder. According to Portes (1995; Portes & Rumbaut, 1996), migrant networks are

collections of personal links that unite migrants, former migrants, and non-migrants in their communities of origin and destination. These connections are based on kinship, friendship, and shared roots.

By lowering the costs and hazards of relocating and raising the anticipated net returns from migration, individuals, in accordance with the analysis above, improve the chance of internal movement. People rely on their network ties as a social resource to access various forms of financial capital, such as employment, high income, the ability to save, and the ability to send money back to their country of origin.

Figure 1

Theoretical Framework of the Study



The network theory of migration, neoclassical theory, human capital theory, and new economic theory have all been employed in this study to create a conceptual framework. The migration, remittances, and social changes in the research area have all been explained using these hypotheses.

A social network, according to the network theory of migration, is a social structure made up of social actors that create and maintain social links as well as

offer feedback on migration-related information. Furthermore, it goes on to say that network theory aims to explain why migration patterns aren't always spread equally across nations. Studying networks, especially those connected to families and households, enables one to comprehend migration as a social product—rather than as the outcome of a single actor's decision, a single economic factor, or a single political factor—but rather as the result of all these variables working together (Boyd, 1989).

Similar to this, according to neoclassical theory, individuals should relocate from low-income to high-income places. It goes on to say that predicted earnings, rather than actual earnings, are what determine migration, and the main determinant is earnings weighted by the likelihood of finding employment. It predicts a linear link between pay differences and migrant flows under the full employment scenario (Baur & Zimmermann, 1998; Massey et al., 1993).

Regarding the stages of economic growth and underdevelopment, Nadal (2015) cited Rostow and Frank. Through five stages—traditional society, pre-conditions for take off, take off, drive to maturity, and era of high mass consumption—Rostow aims to pinpoint the mechanisms by which traditional agrarian cultures began the process of modernization. Gunder, Ander in his theory of modernization, which he refers to as "metropolish-satellite relations," Frank bases the relationship between economic dominance and exploitation on a global scale. Frank contends that because this relationship between a metropolis and a satellite is fundamentally one of extraction and expropriation that is then generalized on a global scale, underdevelopment results from it.

The focus of migration study has evolved from individual independence to mutual interdependence as a result of new economic theory, which also explains a new degree of analysis and a distinct type of migration determinants (Stark, 1980). Migration choices are not made solely on the basis of personal utility maximization calculations, but rather represent a household's reaction to income risk as well as to the collapse of many markets, including the labor market, the credit market, and the insurance market (Massey et al., 1993).

The study area's migration and its underlying causes are described in the framework. The study has discussed the societal changes brought about by migration

and remittances, as well as the use of remittances, the gender role of women both before and after migration, the diversification of income, and the migrant's final destination. The researcher has therefore acquired data in the study region based on the aforementioned framework.

CHAPTER- III

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

This chapter in this study has been divided into two sections. The conceptual framework was covered in the first section, and the research technique was covered in the second. In the first section, an effort has been made to comprehend the idea that describes the factors that push people to emigrate, the uses of remittances, and the societal changes resulting from the use of remittances. In a similar vein, the second section has covered the research methods used for this study. Naturally, it is based on both primary and secondary facts and information. In order to get first-hand data, a sample survey was carried out in the municipality of Kirtipur.

3.1 Conceptual framework of the study

Migration is characterized as a network-creating process because it creates a dense network of connections between origin and destination locations. Once they are in place, these networks enable migration to become self-sustaining and immune to fluctuations in short-term economic incentives (Portes, 1995). Any rural or urban areas of Nepal are unaffected by the practice of labor migration outflows to different international destinations. It has been demonstrated that those with migrant experience are much more likely to migrate than people without that connection, both in rural and urban places across the nation. Additionally, households with members who have lived in or have expertise in the target location are more inclined to send migrants than households without such individuals (Massey, 1986).

People frequently claim that the only people left in the villages and towns in the area are the elderly, women, and children, even though this does not imply that all young males leave. People who stay put are often equally impacted by the outmigration culture due to historical outmigration practices, higher aspirations among the younger generation to leave villages in search of employment, and opportunities to engage in consumption in cities and towns (Cohen, 2004).

The term "migration culture" accurately describes how common migration is in both urban and rural places and how it has long been ingrained in both rural and urban households as historical traditions. Additionally, households view migration as one of the most important management strategies for taking care of their daily needs, children's education, health services, and in some cases, loan repayment—and, to some families, as a foundation for savings, although not everyone migrates.

People are supposed to relocate from low-income to high-income locations, according to the neoclassical paradigm. The most fundamental model emphasizes that migration originates from actual pay differentials across markets or nations that emerge from various degrees of labor-market tightness. This model was initially designed to explain migration in the process of economic development. According to this idea, wage disparities between countries with abundant labor and those with abundant capital come from spatial variations in labor supply and demand. Thus, salaries are the focus of the neoclassical approach's main argument (Sjaadstad, 1962; Stark, 1991).

The basis of migration is the difficult economic condition at home (unable to provide better food, education and health to family members), landlessness, homelessness or the need to rebuild new homes, food insufficiency, unemployment, semi-unemployment, and low incomes in the case of employed people. In the other hand, ample work opportunities, handsome salary, and desire to fulfil the need of left behind people are the pull factors of migration.

The majority of household work is performed by women in a typical Nepalese home, with the males working outside to provide for the family. Women handle chores like carrying water, gathering firewood, cooking, cleaning, and taking care of the young and old. On the other hand, men predominate in public areas and engage mostly in activities that generate revenue away from the house (Stark, 1991).

The effects on family relationships and those left behind, such as women, children, and the elderly, can be particularly severe when solely men migrate. The lack of men increases the psychological and material instability, which puts strain on the family as a whole and necessitates discussions (Rogaly et al., 2001). Male outmigration has been observed to have an impact on women's participation as employees and decision-makers in the directly productive sector of the economy as well as to raise the degree of their interaction with the outside world (Srivastava, 1999).

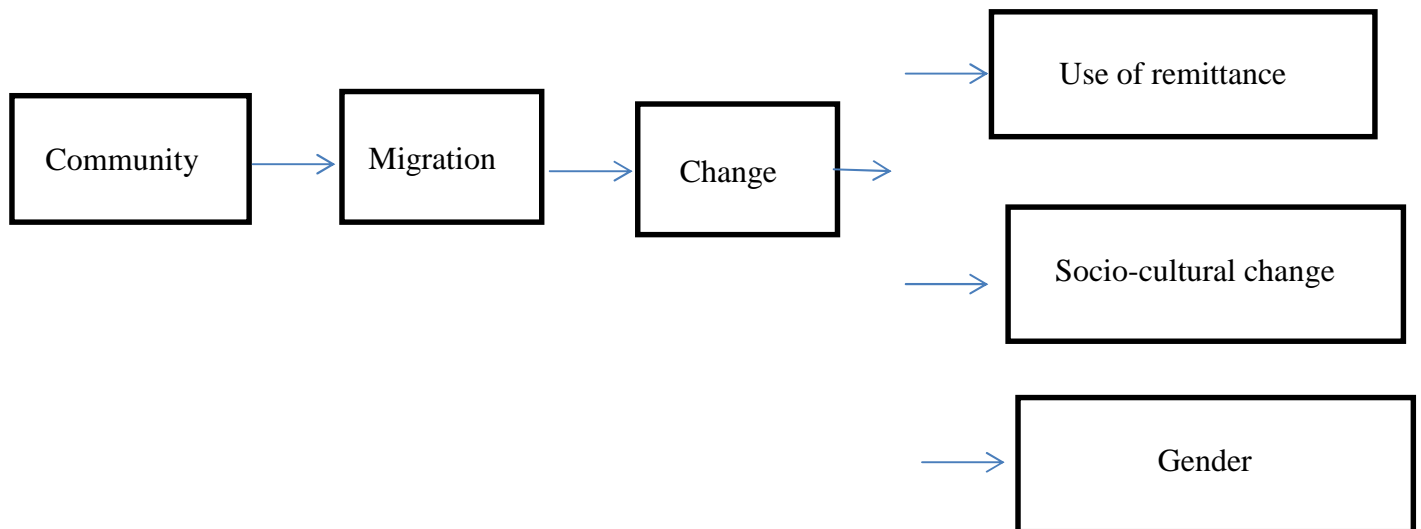
David (1995) also discovered that although average remittances were extremely modest, they were essential for ensuring food security since they helped spread out risks and provided assistance during harvest. According to McDowell and De Hann (1997), the amount of remittances varies greatly based on a number of variables, including the migrant's orientation, employment prospects, cost of living, and the accessibility of their home village. Diverse usage patterns for remittances are also demonstrated by the evidence. Remittances can undoubtedly have negative

effects; however, the literature makes it quite obvious that these are not always the case. According to the research, the type of migration, the characteristics of the migrants, and those who remain behind all affect how remittances are used.

Figure 2 shows the change caused by migration in an overall living standard of people, their sociocultural status, gender participation in household works, and gender participation in outside work before and after migration.

Figure 2

Conceptual Framework of the Study



3.2 Research methodology

The various data gathering methods employed in this study were explained in this section. It also described the nature of data, sources of data, universe, sampling procedure, limitations of the study, and ethical consideration.

3.2.1 Research design

The three research questions below were the focus of this study, and the research design served as a comprehensive research-method framework from beginning to end. What remained the biggest remittance-using industries in the research area? How have social developments in the study region been impacted by migration? What were the differences in gender role of women before and after migration? The first research question explored major sectors of remittances used in the study area. Similarly, the second question described social changes caused by migration. The third question explained the differences in gender role of women before and after migration. Thus, the variables to be measured in this research became qualitative and quantitative. This study therefore used both qualitative and quantitative research designs. This study also used household-level, cross-sectional, and descriptive research designs not individual-level and time-series research designs to explore the current status of the study area. For the second and third objectives, this study used a before-and-after design without a comparison household that is, the method related to the same households measured twice: before and after. This study used primary source to collect the information about family background, education status, place of migration, caste/ethnic group, uses of remittances, religion, gender role, living standard, physical structure, and hygiene.

3.2.2 Primary source of data

To collect primary data, interview schedule, and nonparticipant observation methods were used. The interview schedule was designed to conduct research with migrants for the collection of primary information. Structured questionnaires were created to gather data for the interview schedule on a variety of topics, including family history, education level, site of migration, caste or ethnic group, uses of remittances, religion, gender role, etc. Beside interview schedule, nonparticipant observation method was also used to collect the information about their living standard, physical structure, hygiene, and so forth.

3.2.3 Study area

Kirtipur municipality, all 10 wards of which are the study area in this study, lies in the southern part of the capital city, Kathmandu, Nepal. Though this municipality is seven kilometres south of capital city, people of these areas depend

heavily on subsistence agriculture because of having both urban and rural settlements. In search of income to fulfil various demands of their family members, people from the study area started to migrate after 1950s. The democratic revolution of 1950 motivated more people to migrate in Indian cities. Later, after 1990 the trend was turned towards gulf countries. Nowadays, a lot of individuals are moving to non-gulf countries as well as gulf countries like Saudi Arabia, Qatar, and Dubai.

3.2.4 Population and sample size determination

This study used a finite population ($N = 1156$). There are mainly two methods of selecting a sample from a population in probability sampling: One method is when the population is unknown or infinite, and another one is when population is known or finite.

When the population is infinite. Researchers usually employ the following method for determining a sample size.

In this condition, the formula determining the sample size is as follows:

$$n = \frac{z^2 p q}{e^2} \quad \text{or} \quad n = \frac{t^2 p q}{d^2}$$

where

n = the sample size

$z = 1.96$ —that is, the value 1.96 is the critical or tabulated value of z

at 5% level of significance ($\alpha = 0.05$) or at 95% confidence level

($CL = 0.95$) for two tail tails. *Note.* Use z statistic in case of a

large sample ($n \geq 30$), but use t statistic in case of a small sample

($n < 30$). In case of a large sample, however, the z and t statistics

give almost the same result.

p = variability or standard deviation (it can be taken from

previous studies or pilot study), or 50% ($p = 0.50$) if there is

no any previous study.

$$q = 1 - p = 1 - 0.5 = 0.5$$

d or e = acceptable level of sampling error or the margin of error

($e = 5\%$ or 0.05 , generally)

Let us look at the formula while conducting a survey on migration and social changes in peripheral capital city. Now, the sample size (n) is computed this way:

$$n = \frac{(1.96)^2 (0.5) (0.5)}{(0.05)^2}$$

$$n = \frac{3.841 \times 0.25}{0.0025}$$

$$n = \frac{0.9604}{0.0025}$$

$n = 384$ (a sample size, not related to this study)

When the population is finite. The second condition related to this study is when population is finite or known. While conducting the research in Kirtipur municipality on migration, remittances, and social changes, the population size or universe (N) the total number of migrant households in all 10 wards of Kirtipur municipality was finite. Based on the total number of migrant households ($N = 1156$) in the different wards of Kirtipur municipality, the sample size ($n = 250$) was determined in this study by using this formula:

$$n = \frac{N}{1 + N(e)^2}$$

where

n = sample size

N = population size = 1156

e = the margin of error = $5\% = 0.05$

$$n = \frac{1156}{1 + 1156 (0.05)^2}$$

$n = 297$

The households with migrants less-than-one-year outside from their home—the numbers of households with such features were 47—were excluded from this total sample size (n). Therefore, the actual sampled households included in this

study—after excluding 47—was 250 (i.e., $n = 297 - 47 = 250$). The distribution of the remaining sampled households with eligibility criteria were as followed.

Table 3.1

Determination of Sample of Migrant Households' Proportion to Population Size

Ward No.	Migrants HHs	HHs %	Sampled HHs	Sample %	Left HHs
1	103	8.91	22	8.8	2
2	87	7.52	19	7.6	2
3	93	8.04	21	8.4	3
4	134	11.59	29	11.6	4
5	127	10.98	26	10.4	5
6	96	8.30	21	8.4	7
7	107	9.25	23	9.2	6
8	110	9.51	24	9.6	3
9	187	16.17	41	16.4	9
10	112	9.68	24	9.6	6
Total	$N=1156$	100	$n = 250$	100	47

Note. Field survey, 2020, by this researcher himself. HHs = Households.

The study took caution to include the households from all 10 wards of the Kirtipur municipality. The study selected 250 sample households ($n = 250$) that is, 22, 19, 21, 29, 26, 21, 23, 24, 41, and 24 sample households from Ward No. 1 to 10, respectively using a systematic random-sampling method.

3.2.5 Sampling design to select sample households

In order to complete their study on time and obtain accurate data, researchers need the correct informants in the proper numbers. Even if the researchers have a choice as to where and when to conduct observations, who to speak with during interviews, or which information sources to prioritize, they still need to decide on a sampling strategy. According to Maxwell (1996), even a single case study requires a decision to focus on this example above others and requires sample choices within

the case itself because it is impossible to analyze every single case in the population. As a result, sampling is necessary for researchers to carry out sample studies within the constraints of time and money. The target population (a sampling frame) in this study comprised all migrant people living in the Kirtipur municipality. At the first stage, this study used a stratified random-sampling method: The 10 *wards* of the Kirtipur municipality became 10 strata of the target population. At the second stage, the 250 sample households ($n = 250$) were selected from the target population of 1156 households ($N = 1156$) by using a simple random sampling; that is, 22, 19, 21, 29, 26, 21, 23, 24, 41, and 24 households were selected proportionately from each stratum. This study, therefore, used a proportionate stratified random-sampling method (a probability sampling method): the stratification of the target population into 10 strata at the first stage and the selection of an equal percentage of sample households from each stratum (around 21% from each stratum as shown in Table 3.1) the selection of an equal percentage because there were 10 unequal strata in this study at the second stage through the use of a simple random-sampling method

3.2.6 Data collection tools

3.2.6.1 Interview schedule

The respondents' primary information was gathered using an open-ended and closed-ended structured interview schedule, or a paper and pencil interview (PAPI) technique. The interview schedule was created so that enough data could be gathered from the respondents regarding the many factors, including gender, caste/ethnic group, uses of remittances, caste/ethnic background, education status, site of migration, and uses of remittances.

3.2.6.2 Non-participant observations

An observation method is a method in which researchers uses their eyes, rather than eyes and mouth, to collect primary information. And in a nonparticipant observation method, researchers do not actively participate in the respondents' activities but observe their activities closely as outsiders. Therefore, a nonparticipant observation method was also used in this study to collect overall information about their living standard, physical structure, hygiene, and so forth. For that purpose, this researcher visited different places of Kirtipur municipality to physically see the level of their living standard, physical structure, hygiene, and so

on. This researcher visited places like Umamaheshwor Mandir (Kirtipur height), Chovar height, and Chandagiri height to gain a bird's-eye perspective of the area. The experiences became very much exciting, because urbanisation was found to be phenomenal. Because this researcher was born and brought up in the Kirtipur, he had seen most of the places in his childhood to adulthood. He was surprised to find that whole new township with residential and other types of concrete buildings at so many places where nothing but simply rice and paddy fields had existed in the past.

3.2.7 Data management and analysis

The data analysis was presented mainly in an analytical procedure. The data collected from primary and secondary sources were edited, coded, and tabulated in appropriate formats. The quantitative data collected on different aspects of the study was subjected to suitable statistical test, using excel programmes, and the result were interpreted accordingly to derive their objective outcomes.

Similarly, the information collected through the qualitative research was also documented thoroughly and accordingly. Qualitative data were adapted in the analysis of interrelationship of migration, use of remittances, and sociocultural changes.

3.2.8 Data-processing tools and style of writing

The data collected were processed by using Microsoft Excel, and this study was written, using a style of *Publication Manual of American Psychological Association (7th ed.)*.

3.2.9 Limitations of the study and ethical consideration

The Kirtipur municipality of the Kathmandu district served as the focus of this micro-level study of emigration. Only in the research region were the issues of emigrants included. Only 250 people were included in the study's sample survey. The study's use of a descriptive design came to be another drawback. The study's results were gathered using simple statistical procedures including interview schedules and outsider observations.

Sincerity and honesty were used throughout the research process to ensure that accurate information on the many parts of the study area could be systematically

explained. All registration procedures for the PhD program at Tribhuvan University were carried out in accordance with its rules and regulations. Given the delicate nature of the subject, the respondents were fully apprised of the study's objectives and accorded complete confidentiality prior to the interview. We made every attempt not to harm the respondent's feelings while conducting the interview.

CHAPTER - IV

MIGRATION, REMITTANCE, AND ITS USE IN HOUSEHOLD

This chapter deals with the brief introduction about the study area. This study indicates the features of migrants' households, migrants' family profile, migrants' profile, and the remittances used by the migrants in the study area. This chapter covers understanding as well as overall scenario of migrants.

4.1 Study area and migrants' profile

In accordance with the Municipal Act, Kirtipur, one of the historic Newar-dominated cities inside the Kathmandu valley, was established as one of the 58 municipalities. It is located 7 kilometres to the southwest of the metropolitan area of Kathmandu. As one of the older and more traditional Newar towns in the valley, it is also known as the "city of glory." It is located between 27°38' and 27°41'36"N and 85°14' and 85°18'00"E, and its elevation ranges from 1284m to 1524m above mean sea level. By integrating eight modern village development committees—Palifal, Layaku, Bahirigaon, Chithubihar, Champadevi, Bishnudevi, Balkumari, and Chovar—it was proclaimed a municipality in 1997. Kirtipur Municipality's 14.76 sq. km. of land is divided into 10 wards for administrative purposes. It is bounded on all sides by the Bagmati River, Chandragiri Municipality, Kathmandu Metropolitan City, and Dakchhinkali Municipality. A total of 65,602 people were counted in the 2011 census, of whom 55.6% were men and 44.4% were women. There were 19,441 families, with an average household size of 3.37, giving the municipality an average population density of 36.4 people per hectare (CBS, 2011).

4.2. Characteristics of Settlements/toles:

Kirtipur municipality, one of the historical municipalities, is composed of ten different wards. In this municipality, Newars (24,441) are the majority of population, and other caste/ethnic groups are Brahmin(hill) (15,883), Chhetri (13,370), Tamang (3,419), Magar(1,936), Rai (828) and others (5,725). Ten wards comprise these different toles. Layaku, Baghbhirab, Chadanichowk, Tyangla, Ramitemarga, and so forth are the major toles in Ward No. 1. Layaku and Baghbhirab is the traditional Newari settlement where famous Baghbhirab temple is

situated. And the settlement and structure of houses is still traditional. People prefer to use Newari language to communicate each other, and even older generation of this area cannot speak and understand Nepali language as well. But Chadanichowk, Tyangla, and Ramite marga areas are inhabited by other caste and ethnic groups, including Newars; this area is comprised of some new settlement, and the structure of house is also modern. As a mixed community, people use Nepali language as their communicating language. Devdhoka is in Ward No. 2. Devdhoka area is fully occupied by Newar community; in this ward, Municipal office is situated. Samal, Khasibazar, Dhalpa, Nayabasti, chogal, and so forth are in Ward No. 3. Samal, Khasibazar, Dhalpa, and Chagal are also Newari settlement; the majority population of this area is Newars, but mixed population is inhabited in Nayabasty area. Tallo Gamcha, Mathillo Gamcha, Basnetgaun, Bistagaun, Manedada, Pragati Hight, Sallyanstan, Jhulpokhari, and so on in Ward No. 4. In this ward, a majority of Newari people live in Tallo Gamcha, Mathillo Gamcha, but Basnet Gaun, Bista Gaun, Manedada, and Pragati height are inhabited by a majority of Chhetri caste; Sallyanstan and Jhulpokhari areas are inhabited by majority of the Brahmin community. Bhaktepati, Bistagaun, Karkigaun, Jakha, Bhandarigaun, Chugaun, Samacha, Rarahill, and so forth Ward No. 5. Bhaktepati, Bistagaun, Karkigaun, and Jakha are the areas where Chhetri are the majority people, and few settlements of Dalits are also found in this area. The majority of Brahmins live in Bhandarigaun, and Newars are the majority of people in Chugaun and Samacha. Rarahill is a new settlement area composed of a mixed group of people.

Similarly, Chovar Height, Katuwalgaun, Thapagaun, Charghare, Taudaha, Nepalgaun, Guth, and so forth in Ward No. 6. In Chovar height and Guth, Newars are the majority population with their typical traditional Newari settlement; some other caste group—like Brahmin, chetries and Dalits—also live in this area. A majority population of Chhetri live in Katuwalgaun, Thapagaun, Charghare, and Taudaha areas. Similarly, Brahmins are the majority people in Nepalgaun. Famous Adinath (Lokeshwor) temple, Chovar gorge, Ganesh temple, and Dry port are situated in this ward.

Itagoal, Bhajangal, bhairamtar, Dewal, and so on remain in Ward No. 7. Itagol is inhabited by Newari people; the settlement of this area is traditional Newari style before earth quake 2072, but these days' people started to build modern houses

in this area. Bhajangal, Bhairamtar and Dewal are structured by mixed community (i.e., Newars, Chhetri, Brahmins, Magar, Dalits, etc.), and this is the ward where famous Bishnudevi temple and the cremation ground of Newars of Panga is situated. Bhujinda, Chikhu, Lachi, Salik, Dokashi are in Ward No. 8; All the toles of this ward are densely populated with Newari settlement, and the majority people are Newars. Khashibazar, Dokashi, Pangadobato, Nayabazar, Town planning, and so forth are in Ward No. 9; except for town planning, all the toles of this ward are composed of Newari people with some modern and traditional houses. But town planning is composed with mixed settlement with modern concrete buildings. This area is the famous market area of Kirtipur municipality. All the branches of famous banks, insurance company, telecommunication office, electricity authority offices, and so forth are situated here. Dokashi, Chhitoo, Tanani, Itachai, Mangal, and so on are in Ward No. 10; all the toles of this ward are also occupied by Newars with some traditional and some modern houses; and this ward is an entrance point of traditional Kirtipur area.

The urban settlement of the study areas includes Khashibazar, Dokashi, Pangadobato, Nayabazar, Town planning, and so forth in Ward No. 9. This area is the famous market area of Kirtipur municipality. Dokashi, Chhitoo, Tanani, Itachai, Mangal, and so forth are in Ward No. 10, and this ward is an entrance point of Kirtipur municipality. All the branches of famous banks, insurance companies, telecommunication offices, electricity authority offices, municipality office, and so forth are situated in Ward No. 9 and 10; these two wards are the market place of the municipality.

Similarly, the rest of eight wards are the rural setting of the study area. Layaku, Baghbhirab, Chadanichowk, Tyangla, Ramitemarga, and so forth are the major toles in Ward No. 1. Devdhoka is in Ward No. 2. Samal, Khasibazar, Dhalpa, Nayabasti, chogal, and so forth are in Ward No. 3. Bhujinda, Chikhu, Lachi, Salik, Dokashi, and so on are Ward No. 8. All the toles of ward numbers one, two, three, and eight are densely populated, having a compact rural Newari settlement. Similarly, ward numbers four, five, six, and seven are scatter population, having scatter rural mixed caste and ethnic settlements.

4.2.1 Housing pattern

Out of the total of 19441 households in Kirtipur municipality, 5,589 homes were built with mud bonds, while 7,711 homes were built with cement bonds. In addition, 51 homes were said to have been built on wood, while 5,695 dwellings were said to have been built on RCC pillars (Nepal Archives).

Most of the traditional Newari houses are joined each other as a compact settlement, three storeys, made of unbaked bricks walls and roofs made of tiles. But other caste/ethnics' traditional houses are not joined, settlements are scattered, and three storeys, wall of the houses are made of mud and stone/baked or unbaked bricks. Most of the houses have tiles roofs whereas some are thatched. In recent days, all the people in these areas prefer to build RCC pillar houses.

4.2.2 Literacy and educational status

Within this municipality, there are 50 educational establishments, from pre-primary to higher education. The Tribhuvan University's location is one of them, and it serves as a reminder of the nearby higher education center to the locals. Over 37,418 people older than 6 years old live in Kirtipur Municipality, and 73.5% of them are literate. 59.4% of women and 85.9% of men are literate. The total literacy rate is greater than the national average (which is 53.7%).

Only 24.9%, 16.4%, and 13.7%, respectively, of the municipality's 52,482 literate residents completed their primary education. 12.5% of SLC residents are literate. According to the Municipality Profile from 2019 (22%), more people are pursuing higher education (i.e., education beyond SLC).

4.2.3 Health status

There are two small hospitals (such as Kirtipur Hospital, a branch of Model Hospital, and Bishnu Devi Hospital, newly operated by Kirtipur Municipality), eight sub-health posts, and thirty-one health clinics. More than half of the wards lack access to the basic amenities. Locals must immediately travel to hospitals in Kathmandu or Patan in an emergency. For the existing population of 65 602, the construction of a district level hospital or more health centers is urgently required. However, the municipality has a plan in place for an ambulance service to transport both emergency and non-emergency patients to the hospitals in Kathmandu and Lalitpur.

4.2.4 Market places

Markets are primarily centered in the Nayabazar region, the municipality of Kirtipur's central business district, while other small local businesses are dispersed around the town's outskirts. The primary sites for the sale of agricultural products, primarily vegetables, are Nayabazar and Panga bus park areas. The vegetable market thus occupies more than 60% of the entire Kirtipur area. Around the municipality, there are more generalist stores such luxury stores and mixed shops with produce, meat, fruits, and seafood. The observation indicates that more than 50% of the businesses are not related to agriculture.

4.2.5 Economic structure

The Kirtipur people's primary economic activity has always been agriculture. However, after land was purchased in the 1950s for Tribhuvan University and the Horticulture Research Center, this activity drastically decreased. Today, a small percentage of families in Kirtipur are exclusively involved in agriculture. The town's occupational structure is still dominated by small-scale cottage industries, crafts, and agriculture.

People are employed in salaried positions in government and nongovernment organizations both inside and outside of the municipality as agricultural land continues to shrink due to the encroachment of land plotters and others. People also engage in a variety of income-generating enterprises both inside and beyond the town. Most of the wards have a very low percentage of land used for agriculture; nevertheless, some wards (i.e., 4, 5, and 8) accounted for about 45% of the land use for agriculture. Nowadays, locals prefer to sell their land and construct large homes that will be rented out to Tribhuvan University students.

Kirtipur does not currently have any national-level industry. The Nepali government constructed the Himlal Cement Factory, Krishi Chun Udhyog, Sitaram Gokul Milk, and Pasma Factory about 20 years ago. But these businesses are now being shut down by the government for a variety of reasons. Other smaller industries exist in addition to large businesses. Small-scale factories, such as cottage industries, handmade paper, woolen crafts, and notebook factories, are primarily located in the Panga and old core districts among them. In Ward No. 6, major private sector establishments include more mineral water companies and a theme park.

4.2.6. Sources of water

Every area of Kirtipur's settlements has access to a network for the delivery of water. The springs at Dudh Pokhari and Sim Jhawahiti, both of which are in Ward No. 7, are the municipality's two primary sources of drinking water. Both springs have centralized piped water delivery systems with daily capacities of 2200 lm^3 for Dodh Pokhari and 1000 lm^3 for Sim Jhawahiti. The Water Supply Corporation (WSC) built a number of deep borings that can deliver water. There is water reservoir in Jakha, Bhanjgal, and Chovar height. Recently, Kirtipur municipality is receiving drinking water from Melemchi Drinking Water Project. About 92% households have a water connection. And households are able to get water for three hours on average twice daily from the Water Supply Corporation (WSC).

4.2.7 Language

The Newari people in the study area have their own language called the Newari language, and the script is Ranjana. In the family, they utilize their native tongue, and they also communicate with their communities using that language. Nepali language is a medium language of communication to interact with other communities. Other communities (Brahmin, Chhetri, Dalit, and Magar) in the study area use Nepali language to communicate with the family and other community members. A medium of communication in municipality, ward office, and school is Nepali as well.

4.2.8 Population of the study area

The census of population conducted in 2011 revealed that Kirtipur had a total population of 65 602 people, with slightly more men (36 476) than women (29 126) living there. In the Kathmandu district, Kirtipur Municipality was discovered to be the

location with the second-highest density of people after Kathmandu Metropolitan City. Kirtipur had a total of 19,441 households, with a 3.37 average household size. In comparison to the entire area, a relatively uneven population distribution was observed each ward. As a result, it appeared that the distribution of resources had changed more.

Table 4.1

Population distribution of Kirtipur municipality

Ward	Area/Ha	No. of HHs	Population			Average HH Size
			Total	Male	Female	
1	43.11	1915	1708	674	1034	3.5
2	71.89	1863	1728	610	1118	3.61
3	10.27	1414	3120	2738	2382	7.41
4	640.72	1426	6158	3079	3079	13.11
5	158.64	2027	6785	3821	2937	3.49
6	464.85	1678	7282	3586	3696	12.83
7	34.52	1722	4661	2934	1727	2.71
8	17.19	1359	4206	2447	1759	6.24
9	13.78	2845	8242	2911	3331	5.96
10	176.68	3192	9736	5676	4063	6.4
Total	1801.35	19441	65602	36476	29126	3.37

Note. Taken from Municipality Profile, 2019.

The average household size for the municipality's 10 wards is also shown in Table 4.1. Wards No. 4 and 6 were among those identified to have considerably larger average household sizes. Household sizes increased to 13.11 and 12.83 correspondingly. The rural nature of these two wards could be the cause of the high average household size.

4.3 Features of migrant households

This chapter deals with the basic features of respondents chosen from the Kirtipur municipality, their family members, and migrants. This chapter presents demographic information regarding gender, caste/ethnicity, and religion of household heads, education status, age distribution, marital status of migrants'

family members, reasons to migrate, their destination place, person help to migrate, and reasons to comeback last time to the place of origin of the migrants. This chapter presents demographic information of total 250 sample households, 300 migrants of that sampled households, and 906 family members of the 250 households.

4.3.1 Gender of the respondents

The sample size of this research was 250, and 250 respondents were the household heads, which included both males and females.

Almost four fifth (79.2%) of respondents were found to be male and the remaining one fifth (20.8%) female, a percentage that appeared almost similar to national figure of male headed households. This result seemed almost similar to the figure of male (74.1%) and female (25.9%) household heads from Nepal, which must be due to the high proportion of male labor migration (Annual Household Survey 2015-2016). Therefore, the migration pattern by the gender in Kirtipur was seen similar to that of Nepal.

4.3.2 Respondents by caste/ethnicity

In this research, the 250 respondents became the household heads selected as sample ($n = 250$). Table 4.2 shows the respondent profile by their caste/ethnicity.

Table 4.2

Caste/ethnicity of the household heads (HH head)

Caste/ethnicity of HH head	Number	Percent
Newar	162	64.8
Chhetri	43	17.2
Brahmin	22	8.8
Dalits	20	8
Magar	3	1.2
Total	250	100

Note. Field Survey, 2020, by this researcher himself.

About two thirds of the respondents belonged to the Newar community, which was represented by 64.8% of the study's participants. Table 4.2 further

demonstrates how few Magar were present in the research area. These ethnic groups' representations were found to be close to Kirtipur Municipality's caste demographics.

4.3.3 Respondents by religious beliefs

The religion of study area was found quite interesting. From the data obtained by my field work it was found that the majority of the respondents were seen to be Buddhist, and second and third positions were occupied by Hindu and Christian, respectively.

Because a majority of Newar in Nepal have their inclination towards Buddhism, the field survey also depicted the similar result in the study area. Due to the dominance of Newars in the study area, the majority of the respondents were found to be Buddhist (54%), followed by Hindu (36.4%) and Christians (9.6%). Some Dalit from Hindu and Buddhist religion were found changing their religion into Christian. Dalits and Magar were observed changing their religion from Hinduism to Christian.

In experiences shared during the field visit to Mathillo Gamcha, Ward No. 4, one of the respondents from a Dalit household gave the following explanation for why he converted from Hinduism to Christianity:

When I followed a Hindu religion, as my ancestral religion, I and my family were never treated as a human being. I was always behaved in a different way. When I took a tea in a public tea shop, I had to sit far away from other caste-group people and I had to wash my glass myself. Other people did rarely communicate with me. Once my granddaughter went to shop and caught a loaf of bread among many breads, she happened to touch other bread as well. Then, Chhetri shopkeeper bit my granddaughter. Even though I know the constitution I could not sue him. From then, we decided to change our religion. Now, we are Christian. We do rarely visit public places where the Hindu people are visiting. We visit church every Saturday for Saturday pray; no one treats me as untouchable here. This is the reason why I changed my religion (L. P. Karki, personal communication, July 25, 2020).

Although the municipality is close to the capital city, it is located in a rural location, and the discrimination against untouchables based on caste was still

evident there. Caste-based discrimination was thus discovered to be a major motivator for people from the research area to change their religion.

4.4. Migrants' household profile

4.4.1 Education status of the migrants' household members

Access to education influences the status of individual, ultimately affecting the living standard and tendency towards migration. If people are more educated, they seek an appropriate job based on their education status. Table 4.3 presents the educational status of household members in the study area.

Table 4.3

Education status of the migrants' household members

Education status	Number	Percent
C1–C10	279	30.79
SLC	122	13.46
IA	271	29.91
BA	156	17.21
Illiterate	78	8.6
Total	906	100

Note. Field Survey, 2020, by this researcher himself.

Total family members of 250 migrants were 906. Among 906 family members, the percentage of illiterate people became very low (8.6%) compared to national figure (65%), meaning that the literacy rate in the study seemed highest (about 91%). However, it is interesting to note that there was no single individual with Master-and-or-above level of education.

4.4.2 Age distribution of the migrants' household members

Age, an important variable of this study, was classified into 13 age groups, ranging from 5 years to 66 + age. And the age gap was used as 5 years in each category.

Table 4.4*Age Distribution of the Migrants' Household Members*

Age distribution (In years)	Number	Percent
05–10	91	10.04
11–15	70	7.72
16–20	56	6.18
21–25	52	5.73
26–30	150	16.55
31–35	137	15.12
36–40	75	8.27
41–45	81	8.94
46–50	55	6.07
51–55	51	6.07
55–60	49	5.4
61–65	34	3.75
66 and above	5	0.55
Total	906	100

Note. Field Survey, 2020, by this researcher himself.

As seen in Table 4.4, the age distribution of the migrant families resembled that of Nepal's population. The population group with the highest density was those between the ages of 15 and 60; those 66 and older made up only 0.55% of the total. It is clear that the average life expectancy in the research area was considerably lower.

4.4.3 Marital status of the migrants' household members

An effort was made to understand the marital status of the household members. People having more family members and joblessness, or very low income, in the host country were forced to migrate because of their incapability to fulfil the basic needs of their family members.

Table 4.5

Marital status of the migrants' household members

Marital status of migrants' household members	Number	Percent
Married	586	64.67
Unmarried	320	35.32
Total	906	100

Note. Field Survey, 2020, by this researcher himself.

According to Table 4.4, 30% of the household members in the sample fell into the 30 and under age bracket. And this was consistent with Table 4.5's results, which show that 35,32% of the respondents' family members were single. In addition, most of the residents of the research area wed beyond the age of 30. Additionally, a large percentage of married people lived in households in the research area.

4.5 Migrants profile

4.5.1 Gender of the migrants

One significant variable in this study was gender. Given that Nepal is a society where men predominate, the migratory situation in the research area likewise revealed a similar outcome: From 250 homes, 91.6% of the migrants were men, while the remaining 8.4% were women. The national data published in the Nepal Migration Report 2020 by the Ministry of Labor, Employment, and Social Security also appeared to be comparable to this data. This study also revealed a negligible proportion of female labor migrants: Due to a decrease in the overall number of male migrant workers, the share of female employees increased from a little more than 5% in the previous ten years to almost 8.5% in 2018–19 (MoLESS, 2020).

Despite the fact that the case involved short-distance female migration, the hypothesis did not support Ravenstien's law of migration, according to which

females migrate more frequently than males. According to this study, women very infrequently migrate alongside their partners and families. Due to the complicated conditions in the destination country—particularly the importance of female migrants' personal security—females are not permitted to move with their spouses or unmarried girls. The researcher was interested in why female migrants were less active. According to this study, male migrants fear transferring their wives or other female family members to the destination country because of the un-favourable conditions for women there.

4.5.2 Relationship status of the selected migrants

While analysing the marital status of 250 migrants from the study area, the majority of the respondents for foreign employment were married (81.33%) as opposed to unmarried (18.66%). The probability of outmigration of married people was seen higher than unmarried people, because the unmarried were found relatively less attached with the households' social and economic responsibilities. Unsurprisingly, married people have to look after their families; it is more difficult for jobless married people to fulfil their basic and other needs of their parents, wife, and children. Thus, it may be hypothesized that the propensity to migrate would be higher among the jobless married people in all migrants.

During the field visit, one of the married respondents from Chugaun Ward No. 6 said the following anecdotally:

I am married with Juna at the age of 24. We used to remain in a Joint family, and I was jobless at that time. I tried a lot to get a job or to be self-employed. Fortunately, I got a job of a school bus driver. I worked for five years. During this period, we gave birth to two girl children. From my earning, it was hard for us to sustain our family life, meaning that it was a difficult time for me and my wife to fulfil our basic needs. As a father of two growing children, my social and economic responsibilities began growing. Then I decided to go to Gulf countries to earn some money (D. Maharjan, personal communication, July 26, 2020).

This account suggests that the jobless married people's propensity to migrate seemed higher than unmarried people because of the married people's huge responsibility to look after their family members.

4.5.3 Education status of the migrants

Educational attainment often serves as an indicator of migrant's quality within a given cohort.

Table 4.6

Education status of the migrants

Education status of migrants	Number	Percent
Primary education (up to class 9)	10	3.33
SLC	7	2.33
Intermediate	118	47.66
Bachelors	115	46.66
Total	250	100

Note. Field Survey, 2020, by this researcher himself.

Table 4.6 presents the educational attainment of migrants in the study area. Overall, 47.66% of the migrants obtained education up to Intermediate level education, 46.66% had Bachelors level, about 3% had up to 9 classes, and about 2% had SLC level education. The data shows that the proportion of the migrants with Intermediate and Bachelor level education became high. It is interesting to note that there was no illiterate migrant, indicating that people from the study area were migrating after getting a certain level of education.

4.5.4 Age Composition of the migrants

People are more prone to migrate when they are young, as has long been noted. In her 1930 essay, Dorothy Thomas (quoted in Lee, 1966) claimed that the only generalization that could be made about differences in internal migration was that migrants are young adults or people in their late teens. This broad conclusion suggests that young people will likely migrate more frequently than other age groups in the future if there is an increase in international migration. The traditional economic theory explaining why young people are more likely to migrate is that doing so is a prospective investment that comes with significant costs that must be paid in order to reap the benefits of better income (Sjaastad, 1962).

The transaction costs of moving, physical dangers, finding work, forgoing profits, the psychological costs of leaving familiar surroundings, adjusting to a new labor market, and assimilating to a new culture and environment are all included in the cost of migration to another nation. Due to their high rates of unemployment or part-time employment in their native countries, their forgone earnings from migration are also likely to be less. Additionally, as aging tends to increase investments in family and other contacts as well as family obligations, the psychological costs of moving may also be lower (Lundborg, 1991; Simon, 1986).

The expected returns, on the other hand, are dependent on the wage, the likelihood of finding job, and the amount of time spent working overseas (Todaro, 1969). Young migrants should expect higher returns because they have better human capital in terms of education and job-specific skills—as well as longer working lives.

The household theory of international migration (e.g., Stark and Bloom, 1985; Stark and Levhari, 1982) hypothesized that, particularly in developing economies, the decision to migrate is frequently made by the family as a whole—not just by the individual migrating. Lower household incomes, smaller land holdings in agricultural communities, smaller ownership of productive assets, and inefficient credit and insurance markets are the logical causes of outmigration. People want to emigrate to diversify their risk and create alternative sources of stable and robust incomes, which will finance households' consumption and investment activities.

As a result, families might send a member of their household overseas to receive remittances, which are sources of supplementary income. The households consider a number of factors while deciding which member of the family will migrate abroad. They first choose the family member who is not contributing significantly to the household's economic well-being. Second, the member's opportunity cost is little. Third, the member who migrates stands to benefit the most personally. A young family member would be chosen from this standpoint.

Table 4.7*Age of the migrants*

Age of migrants	Number	Percent
18–24	17	6.8
25–34	140	56
35–44	60	24
45 and above	33	13.2
Total	250	100

Note. Field Survey, 2020, by this researcher himself.

A country's unemployment has affected all age groups in every society, and Kirtipur municipality is not an exception. The result from Table 4.7 displays evidence in this regard. The 25–35 age group of people constituted the majority of the migrants (56%) from the study area. The people of age group 18-24 were also observed financially supporting their family members by engaging themselves in the foreign employment activities (6.8%)

The statistics in Table 4.7 appeared to be comparable to the data at the national level published by the Ministry of Labor, Employment, and Social Security's 2020 Nepal Labor Migration Report (MoLESS, 2020). Using the 2018–19 data, it can be shown that the median age of the migrant workers was 28, while their mean age was 29. The median age was 27, while the mean age was 28 in 2017–18. Young people (18 to 24 years old) made up 39% of all migrants in 2017/18, but 36% of all migrants in 2018/19. The least percentage of the total number of migrants were over the age of 45. 25–35 was the age range where the majority of men and women were employed (MoLESS, 2020).

4.5.5 Destinations of the migrants

Generally, the volume of migration is high in the short distance (Revenstein, 1989). The destination of migration is different parts of the world. Basically, the migrants from Kirtipur were migrated to Dubai, Korea, Qatar. Japan, Malaysia, USA, Saudi Arab, India, Portugal, UK, Spain, and Oman.

Table 4.8*Destination of the migrants*

Destination of the migrants	Number	Percent
Dubai	68	27.2
Korea	45	18
Qatar	48	19.2
Japan	26	10.4
Malaysia	20	8.0
USA	13	5.2
Saudi Arab	9	3.6
India	7	2.8
Portugal	4	1.6
UK	4	1.6
Spain	4	1.6
Oman	2	0.8
Total	250	100

Note. Field Survey, 2020, by this researcher himself.

Table 4.8 makes it obvious that 50% of the emigrations from the study area were made to the Gulf Cooperation Council (GCC), specifically Dubai, Qatar, Saudi Arabia, and Malaysia (27.2%, 19.2%, and 3.6% respectively). These numbers are consistent with the national data shown in the Nepal Labor Migration Report 2020, which was issued by the Ministry of Labor, Employment, and Social Security. According to national-level data, Malaysia and the GCC countries—Malaysia 4.2%, Saudi Arabia 19.5%, and Qatar 26.5%—have dominated Nepal's migration trends. Because of their poor educational attainment, as shown by the statistics in Table 4.8, Nepalese migrants gave established economies like the US and Europe less preference (9.33%).

4.5.6 Reasons to migrate

Gulati (1983) found that migration from Kerala was mainly due to high density of the population and high unemployment rate. Prakash (1998) found that the high rate of growth of population and industrial backwardness led many people to migrate to other parts of Kerala, other parts of India, and abroad. Nair (1991) found that 45% of the migrants moved due to lack of employment opportunities in the state. The main purpose of their migration was to get job. Twenty-seven per cent of the migrants moved because they wanted to discharge the family obligations. The augmentation of the income level for raising the households' living standard was the third important cause of their migration. He further found that accumulation of savings for investment and economic growth was non-significant factor, as tiny proportion of 0.4% of the migrants moved due to this reason. Thus, it is clear from this study that main motives dominating the decision of migration were consumption and maintenance, rather than savings and growth. Nair further found that there were variations in the reasons reported by the migrants belonging to different educational and income groups. Upper-middle group and better educated migrants moved for securing job and improving the households' living standards. The poor illiterate households were seen migrating for discharging family responsibilities.

The Economic Survey 2017/18 revealed that, despite ongoing attempts for development, the country still has high poverty rates, poor economic growth rates, high economic inequality, and high unemployment rates, despite numerous encouraging signals and many areas of achievement, notably in the social sector. Two thirds of the active working population are employed in agriculture, which is still mostly a subsistence industry. Additionally, the state of industrial development is less favourable. Migration is also fuelled by tertiary education's shortcomings. There are currently 11 universities in Nepal, however they do not offer scholarships or post-graduate possibilities related to research, and the number of Nepali students enrolling at universities outside of the country is rapidly increasing.

There is also an opinion that migration has nearly become a rite of passage for Nepali youth, and that it is associated with status, prestige, and cultural transformation. Sharma says:

Although economic gains are frequently mentioned as a motive for migration, experiencing the larger world of consumption and modernism concepts are frequently the main reasons why young adults migrate and what they bring back with them. When we look at the returnee migrants, this becomes clear. Whether it's a tape-recorder brought by a far-west migrant from Mumbai, a flat-screen television

brought by a Gulf returnee, a sophisticated mobile phone brought by a skilled migrant from the United Kingdom, or gold ornaments brought by Nepali women workers working in Kuwait and Saudi Arabia, they all demonstrate that migrants are more than just workers. Learning new languages and skills, establishing new social networks, and developing a better grasp of the world are all part of the migrating experience.

Table 4.9

Reasons to migrate

Reasons to Migrate	Number	Percentage
Looking for Work	168	67.2
Follow the family	46	18.4
Rising the standard of living	27	10.8
Education	9	3.6
Total	250	100

Note. Field Survey, 2020, by this researcher himself.

The majority of respondents went abroad due to a lack of job possibilities in their home country. This is corroborated by data in Table 4.9, which reveals that the majority of respondents (67.2%) travelled in pursuit of job, both directly and indirectly, to support their family members. Similarly, 3.6% of respondents migrated for educational reasons.

The following interview with R. Bhujel of Bhajangal featured quotations from diverse migration reasons, implying a more nuanced migration tale than that provided by push and pull reports. Bhujel shared examples on the complicated circumstances for the migration:

Because we were in a bad economic situation, I chose to get into labor migration. We had ceased working in agriculture due to decreased output. Even though, I passed Bachelor from Tri-chandra College. I could not get a job. My father was carpenter. And I have one married younger sister living with us. Now I have to take care of six family members: me, my father, mother, wife, and two children. My father and mother frequently became sick. My children are growing day by day. My family expenses are increasing. So, I decided to go to labor migration at Qatar. Now

I am saving Thirty thousand per month. And I am happy with my job and my family (R. Bhujel, personal communication, July 26, 2020).

Despite the fact that educated persons in the study region were compelled to migrate because they could not find work in their associated sector. Joblessness became a motivating factor for educated people to migrate.

Another respondent K. Singh said anecdotally

I might claim that it was a psychological as well as an economic reason. For example, I was a student, and both of my parents worked. I had no immediate need to work. But at the moment, everyone was going, and that was the end of it. And we students can face the same fate in the future; when we graduate, there will be no employment, no nothing. As a result, we decided to depart. (K. Singh, personal communication, July 26, 2020).

People from the study area migrated for psychological reasons. Fears about their future also led people to migrate day by day.

Another unmarried respondent K. Budathoki from Charghare stated in anecdotes like

this:

The primary reason is that some of my friends had visited Dubai before I did; relatives, people from my village, and friends all stated Dubai was amazing. I wondered why I hadn't tried my luck there; I was single and unmarried, so I told my mother, "I'm going to Dubai." (K. Budathoki, personal communication, July 25, 2020).

Among all, some people from the study area migrated abroad by the attraction as their friends and relatives told them. Because of the pull factors, people were found leaving their birth place.

Similarly, one of my respondents from Charghare said in anecdotes this way:

There were several reasons for this, but the most important was that I wanted to transform myself and my life. Because I could see that things were not going to improve there, and I was young, I decided to try my luck elsewhere. And then I had another thought to come to Portugal, make some money, and then leave for somewhere else; basically, I didn't want to come to Portugal in particular. (R. Budathoki, personal communication, July 25, 2020).

All the above-mentioned cases described multiple reasons for migration: Not only economic but also psychological factors played an important role in people's migration. But most people were seen migrating to look for work.

4.5.7 Person help to migrate

Role of social networks

Sociologists have proposed that social networks play compensating and enabling roles. In the process of international migration, social networks function in a variety of ways (Cloeman, 1912; Portes, 1998). In other words, social networks operate from the beginning of migration preparation until the end of settlement and assimilation in the destination country. In fact, there are three major stages in the international migration process where social networks play a role:

1) The decision making process of migration

Migration literature (e.g., Hugo, 1981; Ritchey, 1976) posited that social networks are useful in initiating the potential migrants to move by providing useful and relevant information and guidance relating to opportunities and conditions in the destination. Thus, the social networks make the migration process easier and comfortable.

2) The migrants' choice of destination countries.

Social networks play an important role in the choice of destination of various categories of migrants. For permanent legal migrants, the choice of destination depends upon the availability of sponsorship for a particular destination country. Social networks play an important role in the choice of destination of illegal migrants by mitigating their hazards of crossing the border (Massey et al., 1987). Relatives and friends having migration experiences often accompany new migrants to cross the border. Sometime, they help migrants by arranging smugglers to cross border for the desired destination. Thus, it can reduce their transaction costs of their migration.

3) The adaptation and assimilation of migrants in host societies

Gurak & Caces (1992) argued that social networks are useful during settlement stages of the newly arrived migrants, who often have minimal or no host country-specific skills. By staying with friends or relatives, these migrants can lower

their initial costs of staying and accommodation. Such contacts frequently expedite the process of finding a job, either in identifying a job vacancy to which migrant is called or in aiding job search after reaching. Furthermore, visiting a familiar neighbourhood reduces the migrant's sense of alienation and facilitates social and economic assimilation in the destination.

Table 4.10

Channels to migrate

Channel to migrate	Numbers	Percent
Agency	168	67.2
Self-Accessed	61	24.4
Relative	15	6
Friend	4	1.6
Neighbor	2	0.8
Total	250	100

Note. Field Survey, 2020, by this researcher himself.

Furthermore, social networks can provide important and relevant information and recommendations about the destination's opportunities and conditions. Table 4.10 lists individuals and organizations that assisted people in migrating. Because of the low level of education among migrants in the research area, the agencies supported the majority of migrants (67.2%) in obtaining international employment possibilities. However, it is worth noting that 24.4% of migrants accessed international employment prospects on their own. However, the importance of relatives, friends, and neighbours as a source of overseas employment (8.4%) cannot be overstated. The outcome is consistent with national data.

According to national data, recruitment agencies are the most widely used modes of employment. Individual labor accounted for around 10% of all labor approvals issued. In 2018/19, around 52% of recruitment agencies deployed fewer than 100 workers, while only 9% deployed more than 500 people. Almost 12% of recruitment agencies assigned 100 to 149 people, while 27% assigned 150 to 499 personnel (MoLESS, 2020).

Social networks give access to jobs, especially for people who have lived in other countries for extended periods of time and have ties with locals. Some responders were mentioned in interviews as saying the following:

When I first arrived in India, my neighbours were quite helpful. I knew that several folks here had been quite helpful in helping me find this [first] job. (R. B. Thapa, personal communication, July 28, 2020).

Because I was already working there (in the United States), I could ask the manager, "I have a friend, he's a nice guy, can he also work here?" So my guy would begin working, and then he may invite two, three, four, or more of his friends to work there as well. (K. Dangol, personal communication, July 28, 2020).

Narration presented above suggests that the role of relatives, friends, and neighbours also helped people to migrate and to get jobs in the destination country.

4.5.8 Types of migrants' jobs

The majority of migrants' decisions to migrate were motivated by the desire to overcome immediate economic troubles rather than to save money for future income-generating pursuits. Their major goal was to earn enough money to cover immediate consuming demands (such as food, clothing, and other home basics). In other words, their primary goal is to fulfil their household responsibilities. As a result, they completed jobs that had previously been established by the agents or that were available in the target country. Table 4.11 depicts the occupations of migrants in their destination countries.

Table 4.11

Types of migrants' jobs

Types of migrants' jobs	Frequency	Percent
Salaried Job	150	60.0
Wage in non-agriculture	89	35.6
Wage in agriculture	11	4.4
Total	250	100

Note. Field Survey, 2020, by this researcher himself.

Table 4.11 demonstrates that about 60% of migrants did their salaried Jobs, such as a work in motor translation office, filling and accountant in supermarket, cook, and waiter in star hotels. About 36% were engaged in wage in non-agriculture sectors, and less about 4% did their wage works in agriculture sectors.

The following extracts from interviews with respondents demonstrate both the variety of job kinds performed by migrants:

I now work in this office and assist with translation. I usually handle administrative tasks. I work as a secretary at a translation business and am paid. (R K.C., personal communication, July 28, 2020).

I work as a packer in a garment factory. I've been a manufacturing worker there for a year and two months. (K Thapa, personal communication, July,28, 2020).

As a management graduate, I work in the field that I studied. An aluminium factory's machines section employs roughly fifty people. People work eight hours a day, five days a week, and my pay is adequate: accountant in a supermarket (D. Magar, personal communication, August 03, 2020).

I work as a talented cook in a five-star hotel. I learnt the job here; at first, I was merely a waiter, but I needed to learn the job; I needed to make some money. Waiter and cook at five-star hotels (S. Bhujel, personal communication, August 05, 2020).

I am now in control of that bakery. There are three workers; the boss comes in the morning and says, "We have to prepare this, and that, bread," works in a bakery (K. Bogati, personal communication, August 05, 2020).

I drive around to all of the building sites and buy the materials needed for each. I also supervise some Indian and Filipino workers whom I train on the job. It's a significant responsibility: A huge construction company's driver and foreman (R. Bista, personal communication, August 06, 2020).

I do a variety of things, including gardening, painting, stone-setting, door keeping, and informal manual labor. (K.G. Maharjan, personal communication, August 06, 2020).

The above accounts illustrated the work diversity of migrants in the destination country. The majority of the migrants were found working in salaried

jobs as they worked as employees in translation offices and as accountants in supermarkets. And some worked in non-agriculture sectors, such as a cook and waiter in star hotels, baker, driver, and so forth. Their main objectives behind these types of works were to make money to meet his present consumption needs and to uplift his family members' living standards.

4.5.9 Migrants' involvement and duration in migration

Migration frequently entails the transfer of one of the most valuable economic resources, human capital, from a poor to a rich country. The costs of raising migrants to young adulthood have been paid by the family, local community, and state of origin. The immigrant country will benefit from this investment, and the migrant will frequently return home after completing his or her task in life. It is only worthwhile for the emigration country if the increase in human capital (improved skill and productivity) from working abroad can be productively used upon return, and if the transfer of money from the migration country exceeds the cost of the migrant's upbringing. Short-term goals are frequently pursued by both labor-exporting and labor-importing countries. The former are interested in obtaining a versatile, low-cost work force. The latter are primarily concerned with creating jobs for an underutilized labor force and obtaining the greatest potential inflow of worker remittances.

Table 4.12

Migrants' involvement in migration

Involvement of migration (In years)	Numbers	Percent
1–3	41	16.4
4–6	77	30.8
7–10	78	31.2
11 and above	54	21.6
Total	250	100

Note. Field Survey, 2020, by this researcher himself.

It was found from the information of Table 4.12 that those respondents who were migrating over the last 1–3 years accounted for 16.4%, those migrating over

the last 4–6 years 30.8%, those migrating over the last 7 – 10 years 31.2%, and those migrating over the last 10 years and above 21.6%. The result from Table 4.12 can be compared with the age of the migrants in Table 4.11. Overall, the respondents with up to 6 years of involvement in migration was 47.2 %, which was almost similar to the respondents with age group of 18-34 (63%). Likewise, the respondents with more than 7 years of migration were 52.8%, and the respondents in this category fell under the age group of more than 35 (37.2%) as depicted in Table 4.11. In conclusion, there seemed a positive relationship between age group and involvement of migration.

One of my respondents, B. Rimal, who recently came back his home for holiday after six years said anecdotally:

I am working in a department store in Dubai over the last six years. Working environment, attractive salary, and the necessity of my job for my family living in Nepal made me work for six years in the same job. The reason for not coming Nepal is, I think, I won't be able to get such high paid salaried job here again (B. Rimal, personal communication, August 10, 2020).

Another respondent K. Bhujel told an anecdote about migration this way:

I have been working as a truck driver in Qatar for the last seven years. The reasons behind working seven years in the same profession and in the same company are the salary they provide me, less dangerous work, no pressure of work, and my family's necessities as well. Basically, I cannot support my family if I come back. Because my three children are doing computer engineering at private colleges, their college fees and other expenses are so high. Till the completion of their education by the next two years, I have to work there (K. Bhujel, personal communication, August 11, 2020).

Looking at the examples above, the reasons for six and more years of job engagement in destination nations are as follows: their appealing compensation, better working conditions, less dangerous work, no work pressure, and the need for their jobs for the people living in the study area. Another explanation for such a long duration of migration could be that they do not get as well-paying jobs in their home country as they do in the destination country.

4.6 Remittances and its uses

The choice to migrate is a significant indicator of the households of migrants and recipients' ability to save and invest. Lack of enough employment possibilities locally to meet the fundamental needs for food, education, health, and other essentials is a major factor in the decision to migrate. Additionally, some people relocate in order to build up their financial resources (Maharjan et al., 2020).

People must go through a preparation process before moving, which includes creating a travel document, obtaining an employment contract with an employer, and attending pre-departure training. All of these solutions have associated expenses, which have an impact on the outcome of the migration, the remittance earnings, and their use in the future. After the first step is over, the population moves; this involves tasks including managing travel and transportation, relocation, and resettlement. People start making money after they begin working in their new location. They could choose to use a wire-based device or bank-based remittance services to transmit a portion of their earnings as remittances to their families back home.

As an alternative, they pay the money back when they go home. The amount of money earned, spent, and remitted back home depends on how easy or difficult it is for migrants to settle down and find job at the destination. In turn, this implication affects the recipient households' ability to save. After completing their migration, the migrants then go back to their home country, remigrate there, or go to another, more desirable location, and the cycle repeats.

According to data from 2015, migrants made up just more than 3% of the world's population, yet their remittances were responsible for 9% of the world's GDP. Over 200 million of the total migrants sent money home, with a total estimated worth of USD 480 billion. Remittances in the Asia-Pacific area reached USD 256 billion in 2017, which is ten times the region's net official development assistance.

According to the World Bank's 2018 Nepal Development Update, Nepal has the highest ranking among all nations in terms of remittance recipient countries as a percentage of GDP in 2018. It received the most from the SAARC nations. Remittances increased by 10% in the fiscal year 2018 to reach USD 7.2 billion, although their percentage of GDP decreased from 26.3% to 25.1%. Remittance

inflows increased by 7.8% to \$ 7.8 billion in the FY 2018/19, and their share of the GDP increased to 25.4% (the WB, 2018).

The receiving households were seen using the remittances for a variety of objectives. According to the Nepal Living Standard Survey 2011, just a small portion (less than 2%) of remittances are used for investment in the productive sector; the majority are used to pay for household daily consumption needs and to settle debts.

This is not unexpected given that the findings highlight a key justification for the initial migration choice. Other factors that contribute to low investments, such as low earnings, low savings, a lack of institutions and policies encouraging remittance investment, a lack of investment-related products, a lack of knowledge and skills, and a lack of effective policies to encourage rural investment, should also be taken into consideration. More than half of households get remittances from abroad, therefore even tiny amounts that are invested could have a big influence on the local and global economies. Given that remittance recipients are dispersed across the nation in rural, urban, and emerging market towns, it is crucial to find ways to use savings and investments from remittances in macro, meso, and microeconomic activities. In particular, remittances should be used to invest in rural areas.

Table 4.13

Use of remittances sent by the migrants

Use of remittances	Responses		Percentage of cases
	Numbers	(%)	
Daily consumption	213	24.45	86.0
Education	207	23.76	82.8
Health	169	19.40	67.6
Repay loan	154	17.68	61.6
Savings	128	14.69	51.2
Total	871	100.00	349.2

Note. Field Survey, 2020, by this researcher himself.

Multiple-choice questions were presented to the respondents to ask about how they used remittances. Table 4.13 shows that, similar to the Nepal Living Standard Survey 2011, the highest proportion of remittances (24.45%) were utilized to satisfy household daily consumption, the lowest (17.68%) for loan repayment, and the lowest (14.69%) for savings. The outcome demonstrates how crucial migration and remittances are to helping households in the study area maintain their basic standard of living. In contrast to the Nepal Living Standard Survey 2011, roughly 51.2% of remittances were invested in the various industries in the study region after being used as savings. This discrepancy can be further investigated in future studies.

A migrant wife, living with her father and mother in-law and with her one son and two daughters, proudly said the following:

My husband has worked in Korea for 5 years and in Dubai for 3 years; before that, I am collecting remittances from Global IME Bank. I divide that money into four parts: daily consumption, education for our children, medical expenses for in-laws, and some for saving. First, I spent more on daily consumption; second on education; and third on medical (when they get sick); and finally, I kept the remaining very few sum as savings (K.K. Dangol personal communication, August 13, 2020).

Another migrant's mother, living with her two daughters mentioned this following anecdotally:

After my husband's death in 2072 B. S., my son went Korea, he worked in agriculture field, every three months he sent us remittances in Global IME Bank, Kirtipur branch. We used that money for daily consumption, the repayment of loan, and some in saving. We did not spend it in education because my two daughters left their study as they both held Bachelor degree in management and they are now working in a salaried job in Sahakari (B.Thapa, personal communication, August 14, 2020).

Almost all of the women with whom I spoke while conducting field research said they created a list of priorities before using the remittances. They placed everyday needs first, followed by their children's education and then medical care. They were able to save money at last.

CHAPTER- V

MIGRATION, REMITTANCE, AND SOCIAL CHANGES IN KIRTIPUR

This chapter deals with social changes caused by migration: the changes in a gender role of women before and after migration.

5.1 Social changes in Kirtipur

Theorists and writers on social affairs have historically been roughly split between those who stressed stability and order and those who stressed transformation. Parmenides and the Eleatics were Greek philosophers who highlighted the permanence and unity of beings while denying that anything could move. Heraclitus, on the other hand, used the never-the-same river metaphor to illustrate the idea that everything is always changing.

According to medieval scholastic thinkers who held the same view of the terrestrial social order as a reflection of the immutable heavens and, consequently, of a natural hierarchy, every human-created disruption of historically sanctioned norms and patterns of behavior was to be denounced as a violation of the divine plan.

The one-to-one correlation between celestial and terrestrial societies, a significant intellectual advance at the time, had to be abandoned in order for Enlightenment thinkers to start considering the idea that other systems of organizing life-in-common might exist. These concepts were put into effect by the French Revolution, which is undoubtedly the most significant event of the modern era. By demonstrating how this might be done, it consigned divine rights to the annals of history (Dodd, & Faraone, 2013).

The French Revolution caused Western social philosophy to evolve from a state of stability. The Enlightenment-era discipline of sociology set out to understand how European societies had changed from Theological and Philosophical Thought to Scientific Thought (Comte), from Mechanic to Organic Solidarity (Durkheim), from *Gemeinschaft* to *Gesellschaft* (Tonnies), and from tradition to modernity (Simmel; Spencer). Political economy and philosophy later underwent a similar reorientation, with the exception that instead of merely outlining the stages of society evolution as the majority of sociologists did, they sought to identify the overarching mechanism that explained historical change (Mandel, 1995).

Philosophers discovered the secret in the theory of dialectics, where the

dominant idea engaged in conflict with a burgeoning anti-thesis. The conflict finally gave way to a new synthesis, which in turn became hegemonic and sparked an endless cycle of new opposite theses. Marx, a trained philosopher, adopted this Hegelian master concept before challenging his master by arguing that it was material forces of production, not ideas, that clashed repeatedly, resulting in the emergence of novel and previously unthinkable forms of economic and social organization (Marx & Engels 1848). According to Dodd, & Faraone, (2013), dialectical materialism served as the theoretical foundation for a school of sociology and political economy that has had an impact on modern society.

With the benefit of hindsight, we can see that the idea of dialectics, whether ideal or material, is more of a meta-theoretical assumption pitched at such a high level of abstraction as to render it unfalsifiable than a causal master mechanism. Although it is feasible to build dialectical narratives after the fact, it can be challenging to predict what the thesis and antithesis will be or when the eagerly anticipated synthesis will arrive in today's culture. Because of this, Hegelian and Marxist dialectics are ultimately sensitizing conceptions, broad viewpoints whose significance resides in spotlighting specific realities as important, without specifying specific causal chains or mechanisms (Stinchcombe, 1987).

To reestablish some harmony between conceptions of social stability and change and, in the process, reconnect to some of the long-forgotten issues of medieval scholastic thought, sociology had to wait until the arrival of the Parsonian synthesis in the twentieth century. The old nineteenth-century exercise on the stages of societal evolution was repeated by Parsons' pattern variables, but this time they were divided into five subsets, ranging from ascription/achievement to particularism/universalism (Parsons & Shils, 1951). However, the main focus of his intellectual endeavor was to build a conceptual structure that was isomorphic to society as a whole and prioritized pattern preservation and equilibrium. This system restricted social change to a marginal position where internally-driven transformation occurred only gradually and where external shocks to the system were to be firmly confronted in order to restore equilibrium (Dahrendorf, 1958; Parsons & Shils, 1951).

The debate between post-Marxists and post-Parsonian supporters, or, to put it another way, between modern-day actors of the historical contest between ideas of stability and change, makes up a significant portion of contemporary social theorizing,

arguably with the exception of postmodernism and other nihilist currents (Bourdieu, 1990; Kincaid, 1996). Leaving these arguments aside, we might consider what practical resources these ancient traditions have left for the study of current events. What, then, have we discovered? Such lessons can be summarized, in general terms, in five ways: Stability and change co-exist. While it is true that *change is ubiquitous*, it is also the case that it could not happen if there was nothing tangible, no established structure to *change* in the first place.

1. Change comes from a variety of sources and is not just dependent on the internal dialectics of the social order.
2. Social change has a wide range of effects. They can be classified into three categories: macro-processes that have an impact on entire societies and even the global system; meso-processes that have an impact on entire communities and regions; and micro-processes that have an impact on individuals and their immediate surroundings.
3. Change at each of these levels must be equally prioritized into processes taking place at the surface and creating just minor adjustments to the social order and those producing fundamental systemic changes of the type referred to as revolutionary in ordinary parlance.
4. Existing institutions and the social groups that support them show stability at the level of social life that is observable. Institutionalizing their effects is precisely how large processes of social change are stabilized.

5.2 Migration and social changes

To better understand the social and cultural changes, an effort was made to the comparative situation of different socio cultural factors that existed in the study area before and after migration.

5.2.1 Occupational involvement of household members

An effort was made to understand the occupational involvement of household members in different economic activities before and after the migration of their family members. The data obtained from the field shows that their dependency on agriculture as a wage labor decreased, and the dependency on salary and business increased, after their family members' migration.

Table 5.1

Occupational involvement of household members

Occupational involvement of household members	Before migration		After migration	
	Number	Percent	Number	Percent
Agriculture	138	55.2	112	44.8
Salary	56	22.4	102	40.8
Wage labor	45	18	21	8.4
Business	11	4.4	15	6
Total	250	100	250	100

Note. Field Survey, 2020, by this researcher himself.

The study attempted to capture the change in dependency of the households on different sectors after migration. The result in Table 5.1 exhibits that there was a decrease in dependency on agriculture by 10.4% (55.2%–44.8%). Likewise, there was decrease in dependency in wage labor as well by 9.6%. Information obtained from the field shows that their dependency on agriculture and wage labor decreased because of agriculture low productivity, absence of agricultural workers as their able-bodied sons were migrating abroad for laboring activities—to replace human power, they could not operate modern technology in agriculture sectors—their old age, sell of land, and so forth. However, the dependency on salary of the household in the study area increased by 18.4% and this rise can be justified by the remittances received from their migrants’ members. Interestingly, the study also observed the rise of dependency on business by 1.6%. and this rise can be justified as the entrepreneurship initiation of the households in the study area is at a slow pace.

During my field visit, a 63 years old resident of Itagol told the following anecdotes on the decrease in dependency on agricultural and wage labor as follows:

I have 4 ropani kheth (paddy cultivable land) and I have four sons. Before my sons’ migration, we did domestic labor and some time we hired labor during our agriculture activities. And beside that, we also worked as a carpenter as our side job; for this, my two sons also helped me. From this income, we were living a hand-to-mouth existence. First, my elder son went for labor migration. For that purpose, I sold some land. After my elder son’s labor migration, my other sons also wanted to

go abroad as a labor migrant. For my others son's migration, I also sold other land. Now, I have 2 ropani of land left. The land is bajho. I can't work in that land, I can't operate modern agricultural machine, and production is also decreasing. Now, I and my wife are living by the remittances sent by our four sons (G. Maharjan, personal communication, August 16, 2020).

When comparing my quantitative and qualitative work with the dependency of migrants' family on different sectors before and after migration, the dependency of respondents on agriculture was found decreasing because of the shortage of worker, the left-behind people's lack of knowledge on the operation of machine, and low productivity of agriculture. More important, the dependency on salary/remittances was observed increasing in the study area.

5.2.2 Monthly income of households

During the field investigation, the household heads were questioned about their monthly incomes both before and after their family members migrated. The information in Table 5.2 demonstrates that the households' monthly incomes were discovered to be greater than the incomes prior to migration.

Table 5.2

Monthly incomes of households

Monthly incomes of the households (in Rs. '000)	Before migration		After migration	
	Number	Percent	Number	Percent
less than 20	186	74.4	17	6.8
20–35	35	14	109	43.6
35–50	21	8.4	86	34.4
Above 50	8	3.2	38	15.2
Total	250	100	250	100

Note. Field Survey, 2020, by this researcher himself.

As Table 5.2 reveals, around 74% of respondents (186 out to 250 respondents) were found earning less than Rs. 20,000 per month before the migration (i.e., the only 26% respondents earning more than Rs. 20,000 before the

migration); however, the only around 7% (17 out of 250) respondents earned less than Rs. 20,000 per month after the migration (i.e., a vast majority of respondents, 93%, earning more than Rs. 20,000 after the migration)—indicating a dramatic rise in respondents’ monthly incomes after the migration in the study area. The reason could be that those households whose family members were in Dubai, Korea, and Japan earned more money received more remittances from the migrants. Their dependency on remittances was found growing day by day because most of the family members seemed migrating for international labor.

5.2.3 Food sufficiency of households

It has been found that migration brings about change in the food sufficiency of migrants’ households. The self-produced food sufficiency decreased, but food sufficiency through their own incomes (remittances) increased after the migration.

Table 5.3

Food sufficiency of households

Food sufficiency of households	Before migration		After migration	
	Number	Percent	Number	Percent
Self-produced	179	71.6	13	5.2
Bought with own incomes	71	28.4	237	94.8
Total	250	100	250	100

Note. Field Survey, 2020, by this researcher himself.

As Table 5.3 reveals, the dependency on agriculture for food self-sufficiency declined dramatically after migration because the migrant-sending households began to buy food with the remittances instead of their self-production of food in their farms: The households shifted away from an active food producer (before outmigration, 71.6% households found self-producing food in their farms) and towards an active food buyer (after outmigration, however, 94.8% households found buying food with remittances, not self-producing the food in their farms). Put differently, the households’ self-production in their own farms was found dropping from 71.6% (before outmigration) to 5.2% (after outmigration); on the contrary, the food self-sufficiency through the remittance-dependent purchases rose sharply from

28.4% (before outmigration) to 94.8% (after outmigration). Table 5.3 therefore shows that migrant households were seen preferring to buy goods and services from the market places after outmigration: The households were observed changing their patterns of food self-sufficiency towards goods available at markets.

I conducted interviews with women who lived in agricultural homes while conducting fieldwork. When men left the country in this family, the women would either put in longer hours to take over the male labor force or hire workers to help out in the fields. Women who continued working in agriculture said that they had drastically reduced productivity because they lacked the means to do so in a way that would allow them to sell their products in the market. Remittances were the primary source of income for the majority of these households, and agriculture was only considered a secondary economic resource to meet household consumption demands. This incident was related by a 35-year-old migrant woman from Lachi, Panga:

Although we still work in agriculture, we primarily do it for our own consumption. We are unable to generate excess food for market sale. I'm alone in the fields with no one to assist me. I can only manage to do as much as I can because I have to manage domestic tasks, take care of the kids, and work in the fields. (C. M. Dangol, personal communication, August 24, 2020).

Low agricultural incomes, the arduous physical labor necessary to work in the farms, lack of infrastructure development, dependence on rainfall, and other factors all served as significant deterrents to continuing with agricultural work. The lack of male labor needed to operate machinery and till fields was emphasized by women. The women who employed labor to assist them in farming also emphasized that it was costly to engage workers, challenging to monitor them, and possible to incur a net loss after investing all of the time and money if it didn't rain enough. Anecdotally, one of my responders from Chovar characterized these concerns regarding carrying out agricultural work in the absence of men as follows:

We employ individuals to labor on the fields during the growing season as men are absent. I recently recruited several laborers and gave them Rs. 500 for growing crops and Rs. 200 per hour for plowin' the land. In addition, I had to feed all of the employees for lunch and dinner. I need to rehire personnel to chop the crops and

deliver the goods to my house; the whole cost could exceed Rs. 10,000, and there is no assurance that crop outputs would be sufficient to cover the costs of production. I put in all this work because I don't like to see the land fallow; nonetheless, the agriculture industry does not bring me a lot of money. We heavily rely on rainwater for irrigation; occasionally, it pours for days; other times, there is sweltering heat without rain. What are our options if the weather is bad? Nothing! Just money is lost. Perhaps earning money is simpler in other occupations, such as running a business, serving in the government, selling land, and creating structures to be rented out. (K. Thapa, personal communication, August 24, 2020).

In cases where male migrate and start to send remittances, women alone cannot afford the time or resources to continue agricultural works; the fields were therefore left barren, or production becomes costly. Another 61-year-old widow mother of migrated married son told this anecdote:

We used to work together in our field until a few years ago, but it got increasingly difficult for us to continue our works after my husband died and after my son migrated abroad. So, we quit this farm work. It is extremely difficult to find workers because most men have migrated. I am old and my daughter in-law had to take care of the house and the kids. We are running our family by remittances sent by my son (B. Basnet, personal communication, August 24, 2020).

Both these quantitative and qualitative analyses reveal that the migrant-households' food self-sufficiency was found shifting away from the self-production and more towards the remittance-driven purchases of food from markets, leading this study to make one of the conclusions that the study area's respondents after migration were found playing a role of food consumers, rather than a role of food producers.

5.2.4 Health status of migrant-households' members

During the field visit, the household heads were asked to furnish information about their health status. It appears from the data in Table 5.4 that household-heads' health status was found poor before migration but good after migration.

Table 5.4*Health status of migrant-households' members*

Health status of migrant-households' members	Before migration		After migration	
	Number	Percent	Number	Percent
Good	7	2.8	157	62.8
Poor	162	64.8	64	25.6
Bad	81	32.4	29	11.6
Total	250	100	250	100

Note. Field Survey, 2020, by this researcher himself.

Table 5.4 depicts that a large majority (64.8%) of household-members' health was seen poor, around the three-in-ten (32.4%) bad, and only a very small percentage (2.8%) good when it came to the post-migration health status of the household members. After outmigration, however, the health scenario was found running in reverse: A large majority (62.8%) of household-members' health was found good, around the only one-in-ten (11.6%) bad, and an about quarter (25.6%) good.

Most of the respondents talked about their bitter experiences even in the government hospitals. Before outmigration, they could not receive proper treatment and care in the hospitals, and they could not pay private hospitals bills due to the lack of money. But after migration, they can afford private hospitals. This income rise helped them to lead a healthy life after migration.

A respondent from Jhulpokhari anecdotally stated his wife's health status like this:

My wife used to fall ill after my younger son's birth. She had a lung problem. I took her Bir hospital so many times. After taking medicines, she became ok for one week; after second week, however, her health status remained same. I didn't have enough money to take her to private hospitals. But after my elder son's migration, he began to send money for his mother's treatment at private hospitals. Now, she is fine and I also check my health two times a year at Vayoda Hospital, Balkhu (S. K. Adhikari, personal communication, August 28, 2020).

The above anecdotal evidence therefore shows the change in their health status after their son's migration. By receiving remittances, there were the increases in the affordability on the treatment of chronic diseases even in private hospitals and in the frequency of their health check-up of the left-behind family in the home country. Thus, the health figures in Table 5.4, as well as the anecdotal evidence, led this study to another conclusion. The household-members' health status was seen improving dramatically thanks to the use of the remittances in their treatment.

5.2.5 Frequency of health check-up of migrants' households

The frequency of health check-up also determines by after migration. The Table 5.5 shows the frequency of health check-up before and after migration in the study area.

Table 5.5

The frequency of health check-up of migrants' households

The frequency of health check-up of migrants' households	Before Migration		After Migration	
	Number	Percent	Number	Percent
Thrice a Year	23	9.2	86	34.4
Twice a Year	41	16.4	162	64.8
When Sick	206	82.4	2	0.8
Total	250	100	250	100

Note. Field Survey, 2020, by this researcher himself.

Table 5.5 illustrates the frequency of health check-up before and after migration. Before migration, a vast majority of respondents (82.4%) checked their health only when they were sick and 16.4% checked their health twice a year. But after migration, a fair majority (64.8%) of respondents checked up their health twice a year, and only 0.8% respondents checked up their health when they were sick. This information in Table 5.5 therefore shows the increase in the frequency of their health check-up after outmigration, largely because of remittances sent by their family members.

Another respondent, a resident of Baghbhirab, told an anecdote about his health check-up like this:

Before my sons' migration. I didn't care about my health. I did visit hospitals when I was sick because I didn't have enough money. I can hardly fulfil my family's needs from the earnings of carpentry. Now, my son sends separate money for me and for my wife's health check-up. From that money, we check-up our health twice a year at Star Hospital, Sanepa (B. K. Shrestha, personal communication, August 28, 2020).

The above statement displayed the increase in the frequency of health check-up after migration: This case showed the change in health check-up parents. Those households who did not care about their health previously only because of lack of money now seem to check up their health twice or thrice a year in private hospitals largely thanks to remittances sent by their children abroad.

5.2.6 Money receivers of households

An effort was made to understand a gender role in receiving remittance and managing household affairs even in the delays in receiving remittance by their members of the family. The views expressed here by the respondents show that the gender role of remittance-receiving households was found changing before and after migration.

Table 5.6

Money receivers of households

Money receiver	Before migration		After migration	
	Number	Percent	Number	Percent
Male	193	77.2	13	5.2
Female	47	18.8	79	31.6
Both	10	4	158	63.2
Total	250	100	250	100

Note. Field Survey, 2020, by this researcher himself.

The study also attempted to study the women empowerment in the study area through the migration process. Interestingly, the study shows the negative

association between gender and money-receiving pattern before and after migration. As Table 5.6 reveals, there was a significant decrease in remittance-receiving males in the study area in the home country—from 77.2% of pre-migration to 5.2% of post-migration. By contrast, there was a significant increase in the remittance-receiving females in the study area in the home country—from 18.8% of pre-migration to 31.6% of post-migration, indicating that a positive change in some level of women empowerment in the study area when it came to the remittances received by women.

It is a prevalent belief that migration has aided in the emancipation of women. Women's responsibilities, independence, and power are stated to increase without their husbands (Hamza, 2015). This is one of the important impacts of migration for bringing about changes in the male and female roles in household affairs: the change in male attitudes towards female capabilities to bring money from financial institution.

Women who assumed the position of home heads while their husbands were away and had no one to assist them with these responsibilities were more likely to increase their participation in going to the market and banks. These responsibilities fell on the shoulders of the other family members for women who resided with their in-laws or a close male relative, such as a brother, uncle, or brother-in-law.

One married woman from Jakha whose husband was migrated four years ago and who relied entirely on remittances sent by her husband proudly described her situation this way after her husband left:

Most of the work is handled by my husband's father-in-law. He controls everything around the house and receives the remittances. He receives remittances and offers me some cash for personal costs. He also pays the tuition at the school where my kids attend. All I do is cook, clean, and look after the dependents. (A. Karki, personal communication, August 29, 2020).

One migrant wife said that even after years of not living with her husband, all of the domestic labor was mostly managed by him, even though he had been in Saudi Arabia for the past three years and in Malaysia for four years.

It was challenging for me to handle every aspect of home administration (ghar byawastha ko kaam) on my own when he initially departed. Even going to the

markets or the bank alone would have required too much guts for me. I used to be reluctant to engage in conversation with people who came to chat to me. I no longer experience that emotion. The women in this community go out together, but if I'm by myself, I may collect remittances whenever and wherever my husband sends them. Taking care of everything here is alright with me (S. Bista, personal communication, August 29, 2020).

Hence, the two cases reflect different situations of migrant family regarding remittances. The first case shows the unchanging role of male members even after the migration, but the latter case shows women empowerment after their husbands' migration. The quantitative and qualitative information also depicts the same scenario in the study area about the gender role in receiving remittances and managing household affairs.

5.2.7 Money spending decision in the household

Regarding the decision making on money before and after migration is concern it is radically being changed. Before migration less percentage of women were decision maker of the money but after migration decision of female in remittances spent was increased.

Table 5.7

Money spending decision in the household

Decision on money spending	Before migration		After migration	
	Number	Percent	Number	Percent
Male	176	70.4	50	20
Female	53	21.2	108	43.2
Both	21	8.4	92	36.8
Total	250	100	250	100

Note. Field Survey, 2020, by this researcher himself.

For the robustness check of the result obtained from Table 5.6 about women empowerment in the study area, the study also analysed the data about the decision-making households before and after migration. Table 5.7 apprehends the negative

association between gender and decision on spending remittances before and after migration. In fact, there is a 50.4 percentage-point decrease (= 20 – 70.4) in male role on spending the remittance money after migration; however, there is a 22 percentage-point increase (= 43.2 – 21.2) in female role in making decision on spending remittance incomes. The result was similar to the female dominance in receiving the remittance.

In over 36.8% of the women I spoke with, I heard that they regularly sought their husbands' advice when making significant decisions, particularly ones involving money. Given that the migrant family member was the one making the family's living, they emphasized the importance of sharing information with him about how and where money was being spent. A migrant wife from Khashi Bazar, age 31, made the following comment:

I talk to my husband before making any choice, big or little. I have to ask him because he sends the money. He will ask me what I did with the money if I use it without his permission. (S. M. Napit, personal communication, September 10, 2020).

Another respondent from Layaku whose husband had been in Dubai since the last three years, gave a similar response:

Before making any decisions, I used to talk to my husband. He would be very upset with me if I didn't gain his approval on how and where to spend the money; it wouldn't be right to use the money he makes without asking him. (M. Nakarmi, personal communication, September 10, 2020).

Women's financial dependence on males may help to explain why they feel insecure handling their finances. As evidenced by the following statement made by a 30-year-old married Guth respondent who operated a tailoring shop: "Women who had access to alternative sources of income seemed to have greater say over the use of remittances.

"He sends the money, but I have the discretion over how to spend it. Because the money I generate from this shop provides enough income for my family and me, I keep the majority of the remittances in savings. I decide most things on my own. Such obligations are not something my husband enjoys doing. (G. M. Maharjan, personal communication, September 11, 2020).

These narratives imply that men's migration has expanded their participation in public areas and compelled women, despite fear of social criticism, to resist gendered cultural expectations and old structures that restricted them to domestic responsibilities.

5.2.8 Private land of the migrants' households

As a result, data on remittances are frequently not consistently gathered (Hamza, 2015). Remittances are typically utilized for conspicuous consumerism (e.g., luxury homes, films, television, satellite dishes, and vehicles). They normally are based on general perceptions, which typically tend to only capture the most obvious form of status-related expenditures, including automobiles, ornaments, and houses. They are more likely to overlook or undervalue other consumption and investment activities that are less obvious but not necessarily less significant. Because they are rarely subjected to reliable empirical testing, claims that immigrants spend their money foolishly on luxury items and unproductive investments (Hamza, 2015) have the potential to become facts in and of themselves. Table 5.8 shows the ownership of private land before and after migration in the study area.

Table 5.8

Private land of migrants households

Private land	Before migration		After migration	
	Number	Percent	Number	percent
Yes	70	28	205	82
No	180	72	45	18
Total	250	100	250	100

Note. Field Survey, 2020, by this researcher himself.

Table 5.8 demonstrates the status of migrant's private land before and after migration. Before migration, only 28% migrant's family had private land, and a majority of migrants did not have private land. After their family members' migration, 82% migrant's family had their private land, and only 18% migrants family did not have private land. They did not have private land before migration

because the acquisition of their ancestral land was made by Tribhuvan University, Horticulture Development Centre and Himal Cement Company, even if the resistant of the local people at that time and their income is only sufficient for consumption. But after their family members' migration, they got some extra money for saving and bought some land near their residence. The result reveals the positive impact of migration in acquiring the private land by the respondents in the study area.

A respondent resident of Baghbhirab, Kirtipur, stated this about the land acquisition by Tribhuvan University and Horticulture Development Centre:

During that time, we were not ready to give our land to the government because our economy was totally dependent on agriculture. Some people worked as carpenter and a wallmaker as their additional works. But their economy was also dependent on agriculture. We fought a lot. People from Kirtipur height, Chovar Height, and Panga even slept on the road as the part of protest, but we could not do anything. Finally, the government proposed to provide us with land in terai (Chitwan and Heduda) as a compensation, gave some of that land in government rate and provided jobs to us after the establishment of Tribhuvan University and Horticulture Development Centre. In this way we became land less (K. K. Shrestha, personal communication, September 12, 2020).

A migrant male's wife from Panga, explained this anecdotally about their land holding pattern:

Before my husband's migration, we had only one old home inside the panga. After my husband's migration in Korea, we bought land and built a concrete house (B. Dangol, personal communication, September 12, 2020).

Another migrant male's wife from Guth also explained similar thing about their land status as following:

Before my husband's migration, we had old house here and we lived in a joint family. After my husband's migration in Qatar, we were able to buy four ana land in 48 Lakhs Nepali rupees, and now we are planning to build a house on this land by this month house (K. Maharjan, personal communication, September 12, 2020).

These statements of respondents about the land acquisition by Tribhuvan University and Horticulture Development Centre shows that the respondents were

forced to migrate abroad. Wife of migrant male from Panga and Guth explains positive impact of their land holding pattern after migration.

5.2.9 Private houses of the migrants' households

According to all surveys, building homes is the migrants' top priority when making investments (see Fellat, 1996). According to Hamdouch (2000), 83.7% of all migrant investors' investments were in real estate, as opposed to 7.5% and 8.8% of initiatives in agricultural and other industries. According to De Haas' 2003 analysis, households in his sample invested 71.1% of their total financial resources in real estate, 11.3% in agriculture, and 17.5% in non-agricultural businesses. The development of new, frequently concrete homes and the ensuing decrease of the conventional adobe or stone homes became the most obvious spatial effects of foreign migration. This building frenzy has turned certain villages into cities in Morocco's migrant-sending regions, where migrants also opt to locate additional investments (Fadloullah et al., 2000).

Table 5.9

Private houses of the migrants' households

Private house	Before migration		After migration	
	Frequency	Percent	Frequency	Percent
Yes	179	71.6	209	83.6
No	71	28.4	41	16.4
Total	250	100	250	100

Note. Field Survey, 2020, by this researcher himself.

Table 5.9 demonstrate the ownership of respondents' private houses before and after migration in the study area. Before migration, only 71.6% respondents were found having old private houses inside and outside their traditional settlement and 28.4% of respondents did not have any forms of private houses. But after migration, the majority (83.6%) of respondents had their own new, especially concrete, private houses outside their traditional settlement. This result (as shown by the data in Table 5.8) confirms the positive impact of remittances on respondents' acquiring private assets in the study area.

During my field survey, the father of a migrated son from Khasibazar, Kirtipur stated in anecdotes that:

We have an old house inside the Newari settlement. This old house cracked—not crumbled—due to the 2072 B.S. earthquake. My son worked in Japan at that time. We had our private land at Dhalpa. After that, my son sent some money from Japan and we built a new house with that money. Now, we are living in this house at Dhalpa and renovating the old house from this month. It is all about the remittances sent by my son from the last seven years (B. Napit, personal communication, September 14, 2020).

Another mother of migrated sons and daughter in-law from Bhajangal explain about her house like this:

I had old house made of unbaked brick and tile roof in this place. After my sons' migration, I have built this concrete structure house but in typical newari style (C. M. Adhikari, personal communication, September 14, 2020).

The anecdotes, told by these two respondents from Khasibazar and Bhajangal, are evidence of positive uses of remittances. And it is also evidence of a changing pattern of their house structures.

5.2.10 Gender role

Based on the surveys, building homes is the migrants' top priority when making investments. According to Hamdouch, & Wahba, (2015), 83.7% of all migrant investors' investments were in real estate, as opposed to 7.5% and 8.8% of initiatives in agricultural and other industries. The majority of household chores are performed by women in a normal Nepalese home, while males go to work outside to provide for the family. Women handle chores like carrying water, gathering firewood, cooking, cleaning, and taking care of the young and old. On the other hand, men predominate in public areas and engage mostly in activities that generate revenue away from the house (Kasper, & Bajunirwe, 2012).

In addition, women are more involved in family-based agriculture than males are because they perform over 70% of the labour in subsistence farming (Weiss, 1999). In fact, as a result of the poor returns from farming, males are increasingly looking for alternate professions, and more and more jobs in agricultural and animal farming are moving to women. Women's share in agriculture increased from 44% to 52% between 1991 and 2011, despite a decline in overall employment in agriculture from 83% to 64%. As a result, women have been displacing male labor in the

agricultural sector, a phenomenon known as feminization of agriculture (Acharya & Leon-Gonzalez, 2012).

Women typically work longer hours and have shorter leisure times than men, according to study on women's labor in Nepal (Weiss, 1999). In a research conducted in the Yarsha Khola watershed region of Nepal, Schreier, et. al. (2003) discovered that women there work an average of 3.8 hours more per day than men do.

Another study by Joshi (2000) compared the time spent by men and women in the cultivation of rice, wheat, maize, and vegetables (the four main crops in the area), and it found that women's responsibilities are higher than men's in each of the four cases. This study was conducted in the Lubhu village of Nepal's Lalitpur district. Women almost solely perform the remaining tasks, such as leveling, adding fertilizer, transplanting, weeding, harvesting, winnowing, and storing food products, while men mostly perform the plowing, irrigation, and threshing. The survey also revealed that women spend more time caring for livestock because they are typically in charge of chores including gathering feed, caring for animals, milking, cleaning the shed, and processing dairy products. Contrarily, men spend less time raising animals than women because they are primarily responsible for grazing animals, transporting them to veterinary clinics, and purchasing or selling animals and animal products.

During my field work, a 27 years old married Newari woman, having one baby girl child, told anecdotes this way about her daily routine household activities to be done from early morning to late night before her husband's and brother-in-law's migration:

I, an eldest daughter-in-law, held a bachelor degree in English, got married at 22 to a middleclass Newar family in Kirtipur. Soon after my marriage, I had to work as a beast of burden. I entered the kitchen and took all the responsibility of the family's domestic activities. I woke up early in the morning at 5:30 a.m. in the winter and 5 a.m. in the summer and started doing my daily household activities. After finishing my bathroom activities, I cleaned kitchen floor and puja kotha and did some worship. After entering the kitchen, I prepared tea to family members, milk for my little daughter, and served each of them. After that, I started preparations for

morning meal to be cooked for 11 people. I made rice, dal, tarakari, and achar ready, cleaned it, and cooked it. And I needed to bring water from a nearby well. This food had to be ready by 8:30 a.m. because my father-in-law, her brother-in-law, and husband had to go outside to do carpentry in a nearby village. Then, I had to feed my daughter, and other family members who stayed at home ate food till 10:30. After serving morning food to her family members, I and my mother-in-law ate together. I then cleaned the kitchen and washed dishes. By 11:30 to 12 noon, I finished my morning duty. Thereafter, I carried my baby for breast feeding; if my daughter was asleep, I also got some time to take a rest; otherwise, I had to take care of her daughter. After 2 p.m., I entered the kitchen to feed bottle milk to my daughter and khaja and tea to other family members; I served them by 4 p.m. During 4 p.m. to 5 p.m., I needed to take water. And then, I started to do my evening duty: preparing evening meal and serving them. After having finished this work by 10 p.m., I went to the bed with my daughter and husband. All these were daily routine household activities before my husband's outmigration.

But after my husband's migration, all the responsibilities about these household activities have changed considerably. Other family members now also help me to do certain works like serving foods and preparing morning and evening meal and sometimes even cooking morning food. When this researcher asked her about the reason for the change in the responsibilities, her reply was like this: Remittances, sent by her husband and brother-in-law, were invested in these household activities on the one hand, and their husband and brother-in-law also knew about women's freedom and the job responsibilities of all people within the family on the other (S. Shrestha, personal communication, September 16, 2020).

After male outmigration, therefore, women's responsibilities in their home country seemed to have increased considerably because their compulsion to carry out dual roles of both men and women: Women were found doing all the domestic activities, farming activities, and caring their child-and-old-age people the roles inside and outside their houses. Even though women could breathe a sigh of relief in terms of undertaking domestic tasks through the use of remittances in buying household facilities, such as drinking water, gas stoves, rice cookers, washing machines, and pre-school and elder-caring services.

5.2.11 Gender participation in household works

Similar to most Nepalese houses, the majority of household work in the study region is performed by women, while males work outside to provide for the family. Women handle chores including cooking, cleaning, and taking care of the elderly and children, as well as fetching water and gathering firewood. Table 5.10 depicts the cross tabulation between gender participation in household works before and after outmigration; Table 5.11 shows the chi-square test of the association between gender participation in household works and before-after migration in the study area.

Table 5.10

Cross tabulation between gender participation in household works and before-after migration

Before-after migration		Gender participation			Total
		Male	Female	Both	
Before	Count	26.00	131.00	93.00	250.00
	Within before after (%)	10.40	52.40	37.20	100.00
After	Count	36.00	87.00	127.00	250.00
	Within before after (%)	14.40	34.80	50.80	100.00
Total	Count	62.00	218.00	220.00	500.00
	Within before after (%)	12.40	43.60	44.00	100.00

Note. Field Survey, 2020, by this researcher himself.

Table 5.10 depicts cross tabulation between gender participation in household works and before-after migration. Table 5.10 shows the evidence in terms of frequency and percentage of gender participation in household works before-after migration. It is clear that the male participation in household works prior to migration was found 10.4%, which became comparatively lower in terms of female participation (52.40%). However, the male participation in household works increased 14.40% and the female participation decreased 34.80%, showing male were observed supporting the female family members in their household works.

Table 5.11

Chi-square test of the association between gender participation in household works and before-after migration

Statistics	Values	df	Asymp. significance (2-sided)
Pearson chi-square	15.748 ^a	2	0.001
Likelihood ratio	15.838	2	0.001
Linear-by-linear association	2.477	1	0.116

Note. Field Survey, 2020, by this researcher himself.

^a0 cells (0.0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 31.00

To test the association between gender participation in household works and before-after migration, the study also applied chi-Square (χ^2) test. The chi-square value (15.748 at 2 degree of freedom) was significant at 0.001 level, indicating a significant association between gender participation in household works and before-after migration.

5.2.12 Gender participation in outside-household employment before and after migration

The majority of income-generating employment activity among men, on the other hand, is valued for the family's financial security. Therefore, by making women's job more apparent, higher wage-employment could elevate women's status in the home. An increase in the visibility of women's labor may help them earn social respect. If women are able to work and contribute to household incomes, the distribution of resources may be less biased against them.

Furthermore, women may benefit from increased rights and financial independence if the work has some type of legal protection. Therefore, by lessening a woman's reliance on other family members and by giving her some degree of financial security, market work may enhance a woman's breakdown status. The view of the woman's contribution to the family may change if she is able to raise the family's financial security, which may also increase her perceived interest and contribution (Sen, 1990).

As more women enter the workforce, social and institutional changes might take place that make it easier for them to participate in the workforce. Gender-based hurdles to pursuing specific professions may gradually fade away as women's wage

employment becomes more socially accepted. Due to the growing acceptance of women as productive members of society, bias against girls may be lessened as a result of the increase of women's employment opportunities. In the long run, these adjustments would help to eliminate structural disparities between men and women by reducing women's reliance on men (Sen, 1999).

However, having to do so may also add stress to their lives. This is partly because taking on wage-employment does not liberate women from unpaid household duties (de la Rocha, 1994). In general, the greater participation of women in market job is seen as a symbol of their empowerment.

While gathering data to examine changes in gender participation in outside-of-household employment before and after migration as the researcher examine changes in women's work obligations as a result of men's migration. Table 5.12 depicts the cross tabulation between gender participation in outside-household employment and before-and-after migration. Table 5.13 shows the chi-square test between gender participation in outside-household employment and before-after migration in the study area.

Table 5.12

Cross tabulation between gender participation in outside household employment and before-after migration

Before-after migration		Gender participation			Total
		Male	Female	Both	
Before	Count	159.00	5.00	86.00	250.00
	Within before after (%)	63.60	2.00	34.40	100.00
After	Count	82.00	119.00	49.00	250.00
	Within before after (%)	32.80	47.60	19.60	100.00
Total	Count	241.00	124.00	135.00	500.00
	Within before after (%)	48.20	24.80	27.00	100.00

Note. Field Survey, 2020, by this researcher himself. χ^2 -value = 139.549; $df = 2$; $p = 0.001$; $\lambda = 0.01$

Table 5.11 depicts cross tabulation between gender participation in outside employment and before-after migration. Table 5.11 shows the evidence of the

association between gender participation in outside employment and before-after migration in terms of frequency and percentage. It is clear from Table 5.11 that the male participation in outside employment prior to migration was 63.60%, which was comparatively higher in terms of female participation (52.40%). However, the male participation in household works increased 2%, and the female participation increased 47.60% after migration, showing that females were supporting the family members in fulfilling the household needs by engaging themselves outside employment.

While going through chi-square test, the chi-square value (χ^2 -value = 139.549) at $df = 2$ was found significant ($p = 0.001 < \alpha = 0.01$) at a 0.01 level of significance, proving enough evidence to say that there was an association between the time (before and after) and gender roles. Therefore, migration was found playing a role in changing gender roles.

5.3 Migration and cultural changes

Migration process makes people to acculturate with one another languages, dresses, ornaments and food habits, celebrating and festivals, rituals, and other occasions.

5.3.1 Language

Migration has brought a drastic change in linguistic behaviour. The loss of the mother tongue within just one generation has increased dramatically in cities. Language, to start with, is a crucial issue. Apart from the necessity of speaking and communicating, many migrants' family tried to learn other languages. Kirtipur area are also undergoing such a process of cultural changes. Based on this study in the Kirtipur area, this researcher would concur with Nani miss, who notes that language attrition is changing faster in Kirtipur. After all, until around eighty years ago, Kirtipur was isolated and heterogeneous, but some Newari settlements were homogeneous. Some Newars and other caste ethnic people prefer to use to communicate their own mother tongue with their community members. Nevertheless, it is true that the elder people from Newari settlement do not understand and speak languages other than Newari. But young and children can speak and understand Nepali and other languages; interestingly, some children of Newari people even cannot understand and speak Newari language as their parents

do not speak Newari language within their households. In the same way, other caste people and their children can speak Nepali; due to the influence of television, they can speak Hindi language.

5.3.2 Dress, ornaments and food habits

As people in the other parts of Nepal, people living in Kirtipur are rich in culture. Their dress, ornaments are very popular around the country and abroad. Specially in Newari community, Newar prefer to wear Haku Patashi (Black Sari with red border), Chhoyela, Samay Baji, and so on are trademarks of Newari culture. Newars, especially, have been preserving their culture, tradition, and their identities with all possible efforts. Jyapus still celebrate Samay Baji Punhi, Yomari Punhi, and lots of other feasts and cook foods according to the days. For example, in Maghe Sankranti or Ghya Chaku Salhu, Jyapus still eat Ghya & Chaku; in the Janai Purnima, Jyapus cook Kwati and eat it. In preserving dress too, Jyapus in the festivals or during different occasions use their traditional Haku Patasi and Daura Suruwal. But beside these special days, the use of Daura-suruwal dhoti-cholo in a daily life is felt impossible. New dress patterns (e.g., paint, shirt, and t-shirt by male members but kurta-suruwal, paint, t-shirts, and tops by female member) are now popular among Newars and Non-Newars of the study.

Similarly, traditional ornaments are rare nowadays: Traditional ornaments are outdated. Due to lack of redesigns of ornaments—except during marriage ceremonies or different traditional rites and dances—traditional ornaments are no longer used.

Food patterns are also changing. Food patterns, like eating *Chyura* (beaten rice), Gundruk, and so forth are changed into eating Momo, Burger, Pizza, and so on. Fast food culture has affected the study area due to migration and remittances.

One of the Newar mother respondents from the study area, whose son is in Korea for the last five years, stated an anecdote about their change in dresses, ornaments, and food habits like this:

Even though Newars are quite orthodox in their culture, we are slowly and gradually leaving our traditional dresses, ornaments, and food habits. My daughter-in-law and grandchildren rarely wore Newari dresses; they prefer to wear kurtha-suruwal, trousers, and t-shirt. Nowadays, we rarely prepare Newari food at home.

My daughter-in-law and grandchildren prefer to eat junk food. If we want to eat, they bring it from restaurant. Recently, I am wearing Newari ornaments, but my daughter-in-law is not wearing them: She thinks it is an old fashion (K. K. Napit, personal communication, September 19, 2020).

This is obvious that wives of migrant husbands, and sons, as well as people in the study area, prefer to wear and eat some modern dresses. This shows the changes in food habits and dressing patterns in the study area after migration.

5.3.3 Celebration of festivals, rituals, and other occasions

The celebration of festivals and Jatras differ among different people in the study area. But these people have been celebrating festivals, jatras traditionally for centuries. The rites or rituals in the festivals and jatras are now changing slowly and gradually, largely due to the influences of outmigration and remittances. There is a famous proverb in Nepal: *Thakuri bigriyo Mojle, Newar bigriyo Bhojle* (Thakuris deteriorated due to their lavish lifestyle; Newars deteriorated due to their feasts). People living in the study area assert that they have been spending a lot of money on never ending feasts, festivals, and luxury goods. Due to social pressure and prestige, however, people cannot change the traditions. Although they fear the social gossips, most of the people are in favour of changes in the celebration of festivals and jatras.

Festivals and jatras are famous for excitement, drinks, fight, and so on. Nowadays, different social groups and *guthis* in Newars are trying to make festivals secure and fight free. But lavish expenses on the festivals are increasing day by day. In recent days, people prefer imported liquor instead of local *raksi* (alcohol) and feasts are organised in party palaces.

5.3.4 Life cycle ceremony

Life cycle ceremonies are essential part of any society or community. It is the ceremonies that determine who belong to which society or community. Like other parts of Nepal, the people living in Kirtipur also have different ceremonies throughout their lives and even after death. Most of the people still find it necessary to accustom those ceremonies to their lives. Nonetheless, gradual changes are being seen in the study area under the influences of migration and remittances: Most of the life cycle ceremonies—such as rites and rituals—are undergoing gradual changes.

Most of the people believe that life cycle ceremonies lead to extra—particularly lavish and unnecessary—spending of families.

In response to the changes in their life-cycle ceremonies, one of the respondents in the study area said anecdotally like this:

Before my sons' migration, we used to celebrate different life-cycle ceremonies in a simple way because of lack of money; but after my son's migration, we now spend a large sum of money on these ceremonies. We all family members buy new clothes even if in a simple ceremony. Last time in my grandson's rice feeding ceremony, we all seven family members bought new cloths, invited all the relatives, and then organized a grand party in Panga Party Palace (K. K. Dangol, personal communication, September 19, 2020).

Another respondent from Newar community told this way how life-cycle ceremonies were affected by migration and remittances:

Before my husband's migration, we used to organise "Suku Bhoey," which needed more man power and which was difficult to arrange. But now, we prefer buffet dinners because buffets are easy and less burdensome because they can be bought directly from markets. Nowadays, people are spending less on religious activities—for example, people now prefer to do Ihi and Bratabana in groups—but more on feast at Party Palaces. Earlier, death rituals were very long, but now shortcut mediums are most often used. In short, the life-cycle ceremonies seem on the verge of a change in terms of religious activities and expenses of money (P. Maharjan, personal communication, September 19, 2020).

Because of male migration and remittances, people in the study area prefer to do a short-cut method to the feast and festivals, mainly because of the shortage of manpower to do traditional *Bhojs* and other ritual activities; at the same time, people want to spend money on luxuries rather than in the feast and festivals.

CHAPTER -VI

SUMMARY, CONCLUSION, AND THEORETICAL REFLECTIONS

This chapter includes summary, conclusion, and theoretical reflections of the study. The summary is focused on introducing concepts, migration, remittance, and social changes, followed by research questions and methodology. This chapter focuses on the major changes taking place in the study area due to foreign labor migration. Similarly, it emphasizes the conclusions drawn from major findings on social changes. Finally, it presents the theoretical reflections of theories on migration and social changes in the study area.

6.1 Summary

A permanent or semipermanent shift of residence is referred to as migration (Lee, 1966). Demographers and policymakers have focused their attention on internal or external migration, one of the most significant demographic concerns facing all nations and a significant contributor to the process of urbanization and social changes. Migration is the only force changing a region's demographic characteristics, other from the natural growth in population brought on by changes in birth and death rates.

One of the main sources of external financing for poor nations, which received \$338 billion in 2008, is money sent home by migrants. The actual amount is probably substantially higher, taking into account unreported remittance inflows from unofficial sources (Ratha, et.al. 2009). In relation to the size of their economies, smaller and poorer countries receive even bigger flows as a percentage of their GDP. The international community is increasingly considering remittance as a key policy tool in fostering development as a result of the quantity and significance of these new monetary inflows, which have replaced the migration pessimism of the previous few decades with rising optimism. To better comprehend the long-term sustainability of these flows, as well as for economic development, it is important to understand the true drivers of remittance behavior.

A social change is a transformation of cultures, institutions, and functions. Most changes are not instantaneous. In society, the change is a very slow and gradual process. All societies go through these types of changes at one point. You do

not need to be an avid student of history to know about that matter. We have to consider a modern society and reflect on what it looked like hundreds of years ago.

This study's purpose is to examine the uses of remittances, to investigate the migration-induced social changes, and to explore the difference in gender roles of women before and after migration. This study's summary was explained in detail in earlier chapters, and an overview is presented here.

Kirtipur municipality lies in the southern part of the capital city, Kathmandu, Nepal. Though this municipality is seven kilometers south of the capital city, people of these areas depend heavily on subsistence agriculture. People started emigrating to India, Qatar, Dubai, Korea, Japan, and so forth in search of incomes to fulfill the various demands of their family members

The migrant-related households of all 10 wards in Kirtipur municipality were used as a sampling frame (a target population) of this study. A stratified random-sampling method was adopted at the first stage to divide the entire municipality (a target population) into 10 strata (10 wards) and to draw a sample from the sampling frame for their proportionate representation. Then, a simple random sampling method was adopted, and 230 households as a sample size were selected proportionately from all strata. Thus, the sample size ($n = 230$) was selected by using a probability (random) sampling method.

Analytical and descriptive both research designs were used in this study. Both primary and secondary sources of data were used for research information. Interview schedules and nonparticipant observation techniques were adopted to collect information for quantitative analysis. Case studies were conducted for qualitative analysis. To collect primary data, interview schedules, nonparticipant observations, and case-study methods were used. For interview schedule, structured questionnaires were prepared to collect the information about the various aspects, such as family background, education status, place of migration, caste/ethnic groups, the volume of remittances received, and their uses of remittances, religion, and gender. Beside the interview schedule, nonparticipant-observation method was also used to collect the information about their living standards, physical structures, and hygiene. Finally, five case studies were conducted to verify the general information collected from the migrants.

Secondary information was collected from various libraries of Nepal, published and unpublished research reports, various bulletins and publications of the municipality, similar types of various publications of Nepal government, journals, and websites. Open- and closed-ended interview schedules, case studies, and nonparticipant observation were administered to collect primary data.

To better understand social and cultural changes, an effort was made to compare different sociocultural aspects, or factors, before and after migration.

This study found about four fifth of the total sample respondents as males in the study area the proportion that was almost equal to the overall proportion of male-headed households in Nepal (89%). However, the remaining one fifth (11%) were females, the proportion that was almost similar to the national figure of female-headed households. This result is almost similar to the figure of male-headed (74.1%) and female-headed (25.9%) households from Nepal, which must be due to the high proportion of male labor migration (CBS, 2015-16). Therefore, the genderwise migration pattern in Kirtipur seemed similar to that of Nepal. About two third of the respondent were from Newar community which was almost similar to the population of Newar community in the study (64.8%). This study also exhibits magars represented very few numbers in the study area. The representations of these ethic groups seemed similar to the caste demographics of Kirtipur municipality. Due to the dominance of Newars in the study area, the majority of the respondents were Buddhist. (54%), followed by Hindu and Christians (36.4% and 9.6%). Some dalits from Hindu and Buddhist religion change their religion into Christian. Dalits and magar change their religion from Hinduism to Christian. The highest population of migrants' family members was of 15–60; the population of 66 years and above was relatively very low (0.55%). It is noticeable that the average life expectancy was lower in the study area.

As regards the sex composition of the migrants in study area, 89% of the migrants were male from 250 sample households, and the rest (11%) were female migrants. While analysing the marital status of 300 migrants from the study area, the majority (81.33%) of the respondents for foreign employment were married as opposed to unmarried ones (18.66%). The proportion of the migrants with Intermediate and Bachelor level education was high. And there was no migrant who was illiterate. The 25-35 age groups of people seemed the majority of the migrants

from the study area. Whereas the people of age group 18-24 were also observed in supporting their family members financially by engaging them self in the foreign employment activities (5.66%). The clear majority (58.32%) of migrations from the study area was found in Gulf Cooperation Council (GCC)—that is, Dubai (29.33%), Qatar (19.33%) Saudi Arab (3%), and Malaysia (6.66%). The majority of the respondents from the study area were migrated due to lack of employment opportunities in their country. The majority of the respondents (66.33) migrated in search of work which directly and indirectly can be the motivation to support their family members. Likewise, 3% of the respondents migrated for the education purpose.

Furthermore, social networks became useful in providing useful and relevant information and guidance relating to opportunities and conditions in the destination. Table 4.14 presents persons and institutions helping to migrate people. Due to low level of migrants' education in the study area, the majority of the migrants were assisted by the agencies for their foreign employment opportunities. However, it is interesting to present the fact that 26.66% of the migrants self-accessed the foreign employment opportunities. However, the role of relatives, friends, and neighbors cannot be underestimated as the pool for foreign employment opportunities (7%). About 57% of migrants did these types of their salaried Job: workers in motor factories, filling and accountants in supermarket, cooks, and waiters in star hotels. About 40% were engaged in wage in nonagriculture sectors and less about 4% were doing their wage work in agriculture sectors. Regarding the duration of migrants, 20.33% of the respondents were found migrating over last 1–3 years, 32.33% over the last 4–6 years, 29.33% over the last 7–10 years, and 18% over the last 10 and more years.

Similarly, the respondents were given multiple choice questions to identify their uses of remittances. Similar to the Nepal Living Standard Survey 2011, Table 4.17 reveals that the maximum remittances (about 68%) were used for meeting household daily consumption, education, and health needs, and 17.68% of remittances for repaying loan. The result shows the importance of migration and their remittances in living the basic life of the households in the study area, But, unlike the Nepal Living Standard Survey 2011, about 15% of remittances were used as savings and investment in the different sectors in the study area.

The study attempted to capture the change in the dependency of the households on different sectors after migration. The dependency on agriculture decreased by 10.4 percentage point (55.2%–44.8%) and the dependency on wage labor decreased by 9.6 percentage point (18%–8.4%) after migration. The information obtained from the field shows that their dependency on agriculture and wage labor decreased because of low productivity, the absence of agricultural workers because of their able-bodied sons migrating abroad for laboring activities, the inability to replace human power with modern technology in agriculture sectors, their old age, and the sale of land. But the households' dependency on salary increased by 18.4 percentage point (40.8%–22.4%)—the percentage point that can be justified by the remittances received from their migrants' members. Interestingly, the study also observed the rise of dependency on business by 1.6 percentage point (6%–4.4%)—the percentage point that can be justified by a slow pace of entrepreneurship initiation of the households in the study area (see Table 5.1).

The study reveals approximately 50% of the migrant's family monthly income became more than Rs. 35,000, indicating a 38% rise in people's living standard in the study area. Likewise, 28% of the respondents in the study area saw their monthly incomes rising in the range of Rs.20000–Rs.35000. Finally, approximately 68% of respondents' monthly incomes were less than Rs.20,000 a good indicator that majority of the people in the study area were having better quality of life in the study area. The reasons seemed obvious: Those family whose family members were working in Dubai, Korea, and Japan were found earning more money and remitting more to their family members in their home country. Their dependency on remittances were found growing day by day because of most family members migrating abroad for international labor.

The negative consequences of the decline in the dependency on agriculture due to outmigration is that remittances have also reduced the food self-sufficiency of migrant's families. The dependency of migrants' families on self-production for food sufficiency decreased from 71.6% to 5.2%; on the contrary, the dependency on the food purchase with remittances increased to 94.8% from 28.4% (see Table 5.3). This result demonstrates how the families in the research area were shifting away from self-sufficient food production and toward the purchase of food from markets, indicating that households were discovered to prefer purchasing goods and services

from the market place. A major barrier to continuing agricultural work was the lack of infrastructure development, reliance on rainfall, poor agricultural income, and the taxing physical labor necessary to operate on farms. Women complained that there wasn't enough male labor to operate equipment and till fields. Women who hired labor to assist them in farming also noted that it was expensive to engage workers, difficult to monitor them, and that they could still incur a net loss even after investing all of their time and money if it did not sufficiently rain.

The study also attempted to study the women empowerment in the study area through the migration process. Interestingly, the study showed the negative association between gender and money receiving pattern before and after migration. There was a significant decrease in males receiving the remittances from the migrants from 77.2% to 5.2%, whereas there was a significant increase in females receiving the remittances from the migrants, an indication of a positive change in some level of women empowerment in the study area.

For the robustness check of the result, about women empowerment in the study area, the study also analysed the data about the decision-making households before and after migration. Table 5.7 displays a negative association between gender and decision on spending remittances before and after migration. In fact, there was a 49.6% decrease in male role on spending the remittance money after migration, and these was an 22% increase in female role in making decision on spending remittance income. This result was similar to the female dominance in receiving the remittance.

Before migration, only 28% migrants' families had private land, and a majority migrants did not have private land. After their family members' migration, 82% of migrant's family had their private land, and the only 18% migrants' families did not have private land. Total 18% migrants' families did not have private land before migration because Tribhuvan University and Horticulture Development Centre made an acquisition of their ancestral land even if the local people' resistance at that time—and their income is just sufficient for consumption. But after their family members' migration, they got some extra money for saving and buying some land near their residence. The result therefore revealed the positive impact of migration in acquiring the private land among the respondents in the study area.

In the same way, the majority (71.6%) of respondents had old private houses before migration inside and outside their traditional settlements, and the minority (28.4%) of respondents did not have any forms of private houses. But after migration, the majority (83.6%) of respondents had their own new or concrete private house outside their traditional settlements. This result confirms the positive impact of remittances on acquiring private houses by the respondents in the study area, as shown by Table 5.8.

The gender division of labor in the study region was found to be similar to that in other Nepalese houses, with males working outside to provide for the family while women handled the majority of the household chores. Women handled chores like carrying water, gathering firewood, cooking, cleaning, and taking care of the young and old. Before their husbands' migration, women conducted all the household works from morning to the late night. Interestingly, the women's works were reduced radically after their male migration. Even in some households, people were able to arrange servants to do such works. This indicates that women's roles in the study area were found changing day by day after their male members' migration.

6.2 Conclusion

The migrant households seem to be using remittances mainly in daily consumption, including food, followed by education, health, purchasing housing plot, land, and repaying the loans. Remittances appear to be used primarily in food items, the expenditure that is almost half of the remittance received by the households. The second priority area of remittance use seems to be given to education, which holds one third of the remittances. Similarly, health is seen as the third important area for the remittance use. The health expenditure includes the money spent in general check-up and purchasing of medicine, basically on the health of children and elderly people. Very low amount saved from the total remittances tends to be invested by the households in purchasing housing plot and land, and very limited amount of money received by households to be used in repaying loans, because the remittances received by the households at the beginning of foreign labour migration (about one year period) seems to be used in paying back the loans they incurred for moving out of the country. This study's conclusion about the remittance uses is consistent with the previous studies' arguments mentioned in reviews that remittance is basically used to fulfil the basic needs of households, such as food consumption, education, health, the

repayment of loans, and meeting other social obligations in a priority (Rogaly et al., 2001; NLSS, 2010/11).

While talking about the changes taking place in the study area in relation to migration, major changes seem to be observed in the field of language, dress, ornaments, food habits, celebrating festivals, rituals, other occasions, children's education, and importantly the views towards women. Due to the contact with the members of community with different languages, religions, and cultures, the migrants appear to have learned and brought in new ideas on modern consumption cultures, such as food, dress, education, and health.

The migrant workers living abroad are found communicating with other people there by using languages other than their mother tongue, such as English and Hindi. Because of remittances in kind, it seems that modern dresses are being used by household members of migrant households. Instead of traditional food items such as *chiura*, *gundruk*, *chhyala*, *kachila*, *makai*, *bhattmas*, the sample households tend to consume junk foods hugely such as noodles, bread and jam, and cookies. Although this kind of consumption behavior is common to all parts of Nepal, it has been easier to the migrant's households to consume them.

Even in small occasions such as rice feeding, *gufa basne*, *bel marriage* the households seem to be preferring to organize buffet parties in party palace, mainly because of the rise in their consumption capacity, not because of common practices. The children of migrants' families are now studying in English medium schools due to easy access to paying a fee which is received in the form of remittances. Women are getting the freedom to go outside the households and participate in different economic activities, such as working in tailoring shops, opening beauty parlors, working in the microfinance companies. The conclusion of this study is almost in line with Reyes' (2001) study—which says modern societies are more productive, children are better educated, and needy people receive more welfare—and with Tipps' (1976) arguments that modernization is a Europeanization or Americanization process under which low developed traditional societies become modern and civilized.

The migration from the peripheral urban settlement is also contributing in bringing a change in gender roles. Major changes in gender roles were observed in both domestic and public spheres. Because of the absence of their male members, women are found empowered in various dimensions. Primary observations have showed that gender roles are changing with regard to a decision making role. All of

the women heads of the migrants' households seem to be taking decisions about domestic affairs, including their children's education. Some women are also seen running their own businesses, such as tailoring shops, beauty parlor, meat shops, and grocery/kirana shop with the help of remittances to further support their male members. Another interesting change is on mobilizing the remittances received. Females are taking decisions over where to use and how to use.

In addition to that, females' domestic works seem to be declining because of use of modern appliances and in some case with support of returnee migrants. Returnee migrants seem to be helping their female counterparts in various activities in both domestic and public spheres. Now, women in the study area are participating in different income generating activities; few inbound migrants are also helping their wives in domestic activities; and the uses of washing machine, gas stove, induction, and microwave oven in their kitchen make it easier for women to do household activities. Women' decision-making power is increasing because they can collect remittances by themselves, because they can use remittances by their own will, and because women are seen taking decisions on sending their children to English medium schools. The elderly members and sick people are getting better care after migration. Thus, the remittance received by the households is contributing to the overall living standard of people of migrants' households, including women's role, status, and capability in the study area.

This type of conclusion in this study is consistent with Srivastava's (1999) conclusion that male outmigration has been seen to increase the level of their interaction with the outside world and to influence women's participation in the directly productive areas of the economy as workers and decision-makers—as well as some other studies' conclusions that migration has aided in the emancipation of women (Hamza, 2015). One of the significant changes brought about by outmigration on the gender roles in the studied area is claimed to be an increase in women's autonomy, responsibility, and power in the absence of their spouses. There have been important changes in males' attitudes towards females on their working capabilities, including where to use the remittance, from the gender perspective. Thus, foreign labour migration is contributing to changing individual capability, household level consumption, living standards, and gender roles.

6.3 Theoretical reflections

This study about migration, remittance, and social changes has explored a

number of social facts in the study area. A significant social fact that was noticed concerned the motivations for migration, or the reason people migrated even from communities close to urban areas or the nation's capital. The empirical investigation led to the conclusion that there were a variety of reasons for migration, including a lack of employment prospects within the country, a propensity to uphold family traditions, an increase in living standards, education, and the hunt for better career chances outside. Remittances were sent home by migrants after they left for other parts of the world. These remittances became an essential part of household economies and were crucial for raising people's living standards and women's capabilities so that they could effectively manage household tasks, including decision-making roles in private, domestic, and public affairs.

In the context of the study area, remittances received was used to access children quality education, to obtain independent income sources, to use money in consumption purposes, to create a status of food self-sufficiency, to achieve a good health status, to change gender roles. Beyond that, remittances were also used in increasing land ownership, house ownership, and gender participation in both domestic and public sectors. Out of many theories reviewed, a modernization theory and a rational-choice theory in relation to network theory are found relevant here to understand the reality behind migration, remittance, and social changes in the study area.

The modernization theory emphasizes a changing nature of societies and culture through the adoption of modern culture and civilization from the modern societies of the destination countries. Because migration is mostly taking place in the modern society, migrants were influenced by modern cultures and civilization of the destination countries the cultures and civilization that they usually wanted to practise in their home countries. As argued by this theory, the migrants' households are observed to be more productive, civilized, and self-sufficient, and their children to be better educated. Previously, the households in the study area depended on agriculture, salaried job, and business. But today, most of the households depended on remittances that is based on labor contributed in a foreign land. The migrant households' monthly income in the study area was also found increasing from Rs. 20,000 to up to Rs. 50,000, and their incomes contributing to food self-sufficiency. The remittances were contributing to improving the health status of the migrant's family members because of frequent health check-ups increasing respondents' land and house ownership,

enhancing women empowerment, and influencing traditional societies through the cultures of the destination countries' modern societies. This finding is in line with the theoretical arguments made by the modernization theory. This study here would also like to link the earlier-discussed substance to other relevant theories and discussions.

This study establishes a connection, or rather, contrasts similarities between its findings and the ideas regarding migration examined in this study, particularly King's (2012) theory. The majority of migrants working in agricultural sectors move to industrial areas, according to King's (2012) theory. Large towns grow more by migration than by natural increase. Migration increases along with the development of industry, commerce, and transport. Each migration stream produces a counter-stream. Females are more migratory than males, at least over the past few decades. In cases of international migration, men predominate; economic factors account for the bulk of cases. No matter what the causes are, migrants are contributing to social changes in the study area. The social changes taking place in the study area can be explained as theoretical reflections of migration.

King (2012) highlighted the laws on migration with an intensive review and interdisciplinary analysis. Of many dimensions, this study is highlighting and emphasizing the social dimensions of migration taking place in Nepal in general and in the study area in particular. The ancestral lineage of Ravenstein's laws which, in their unspoken way, combined individual rational-choice theory (King, 2012) with the broader structures of rural-urban areas, and developmental inequalities is found in a much-vaunted push-pull framework.

This straightforward, even simplistic, model contends that migration is influenced by both a set of pull and push factors, which include factors operating from the country of origin such as higher incomes, better job prospects, quality education, and welfare systems, land to settle and farm, good environmental and living conditions, and political freedom. Examples of push factors include poverty, unemployment, landlessness, rapid population growth, political repression, low social status, and poor marriage prospects. Physical distances, travel expenses, cultural barriers (such as languages and different ways of life), and political barriers, such as open borders and immigration restrictions, are all intervening obstacles that must be overcome in Lee's (1966) version of this model (King, 2012).

In Lee's theory of migration, a person's economic condition, stage of life, and personality all play a part in how they respond to different combinations of pushes and pulls. As a typical illustration, a young adult who is unmarried and unemployed responds more immediately to work and income variables and is less concerned with a destination country's educational system, which would be more important to a family with children. The migrants in the study area likewise select their final destinations for their move in a similar manner.

14. Channel to migrate: a) agency b) self accessed c) relative
d) friend e) neighbor
15. Types of job of migrants: a) salaried job b) wage in non-agriculture
c) wage in agriculture
16. Involvement in migration by migrants:
17. Use of remittances by migrants: a) daily consumption b) education c) health
d) Repay loan d) savings
18. Household income, remittances and its use

S.N	Dimensions	Indicators	Before Migration	After Migration	Change/ Role of Migration / Remittance
I	Sources of Household Income	Agriculture			
		Salaried Job			
		Business			
		Wage labor			
II	Food sufficiency Self produced	Rice			
		Wheat			
		Corn			
		Vegetables			
		Fruits			
III	Food sufficiency Bought with own income	Rice			
		Wheat			

		Corn			
		Vegetables			
		Fruits			
IV	Education/Schooling	Enrollment			
	School	Public/Private			
	Grade completed/continued	Public/Private			
V	Health status	excellent			
		good			
		poor			
		Bad			
VI	Frequency of health check	Once a year			
		Twice a year			
		Thrice a year			
		When sick			
VII	Money receiver	Male member of the family			
		Female member of the family			
VIII	Decision on spend money	Male member of the family			
		Female member of the family			
IX	Private land	Ropani			
		Ana			

		Paisa			
		Dam			
X.	Gender roles				
	Daily activities morning to night	Sweeping/cleaning floor			
		Prepares tea			
		Serving tea			
		Preparing morning meal			
		Making ready food to cook			
		Bringing water			
		Cooking morning food			
		Serving cooked food			
		Making ready children to go school			
		Cleaning kitchen after meal			
		Wash dishes			
		Wash clothes			
		Outside working employment			
		Bringing cooking stuff			
		Prepare khaja			

		Serving khaja			
		Take care of children after school			
		Preparing evening meal			
		Cooking evening meal			
		Serving evening meal			
		Cleaning kitchen			

19. Questions related on socio-cultural changes

- I. Have you feel any changes on your Food habit? What are the major changes in food habit/practices? In relation to migration
- II. Do you perceive any changes on dress and dressing pattern? Majorc hanges in clothing? In relation to migration
- III. Do you think there is change in Language? Changes communicating language and other practices in language? In relation to migration
- IV. Is there any change in Celebrating different festivals and ceremonies? Changes in celebrating festivals? In relation to migration
- V. What types of facilities' do you have in your house and surroundings? Major new facilities? In relation to migration

The End

APPENDIX B: CHECK LIST OF NON-PARTICIPANT OBSERVATIONS

1. What were the gender roles of women?
2. What were the languages people use to communicate with them and with outsiders?
3. What type of dress and ornaments people wear in their ceremonies and day to day life?
4. What type of food do they consume in their feast and festivals and day to day life?
5. What were their traditional house structure and modern house structure?
6. What were their traditional settlement pattern and modern one?
7. What were the ways of celebrating lifecycle ceremonies?
8. What were their preferences to spent remittances?
9. What were their household facilities?
10. What were their market places?

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