

CHAPTER-ONE

INTRODUCTION

1.1 Background of the Study

Human beings are the most widely distributed social animals on the earth surface. Right from the dawn of civilization, human groups have spread out to occupy the major land areas of the earth. Migration is a phenomenon which seems to be a human necessity in every age. Man has a tendency to leave the areas in which life is difficult and to move to areas to which life is easier and to move to areas where life is easy and better. Migration is ordinarily defined as the relatively permanent movement of people over a significant distance.

“Migration is a form of geographic mobility between one geographic unit and another, generally involving change in residence from the place of origin or place of departure to the place of destination or place of arrival” (UN, 1973 :1)

The definition coined by UN almost 40 years back is still in fashion to discuss and cite by many scholars which also proves on study on migration is one of the most sustained issues of the social sciences. Defining migration as movement of human beings in search of resources, for food and shelter is as old as the history of origin. The social mobility denotes any long term change in the social position of an individual or family. Both of these definitions carry almost the same meanings.

Migration in general refers to geographical or spatial mobility between “one geographical unit and another.” It involves a change of place of residence from the “place of origin” to the “place of destination”. One who migrates is a migrant (CBS Nepal, 2011a).

Migration being one of the factors of population change may affect socio-economic conditions at both place of origin and place of destination. It influences the size, composition and other characteristics of population (Subedi, 1993).

Migration is diverse in nature. In fact, it may be international, interregional, interurban, rural-urban or intra-urban. On the basis of time criterion, migration may be temporary or permanent. If we take into consideration the distance, migration may be long or short. On the basis of number

migration may be individual or mass. On the basis of causes, migration may range from natural calamities to socio-economic, cultural and political. The population census of Nepal defined migration as “a change of residence for six months or more either within the country or outside the country” (CBS, 2001a).

Migration being one of the factors of population change may affect socio-economic condition at both the place of origin and place of destination. It influences the size composition and other characteristics of population (Niroula, 1995). Migration balance the distribution of population and the supply of resources, people’s movement always has been high in early reach resources area had low in poor resources areas. It always reflect population and resources relationship (Sharma,1999). Whenever migration takes place in whatever form, it modifies the area of origin, the area of destination as well as the way of life of migrants (Chandana,1986).

As Pressat (1985) rightly pointed out that movement of individuals or groups which involves a permanent or semi-permanent change of usual residence is termed as migration .According to him , three dimensions are normally considered while defining migration: performance of move, distance and time duration (pressat, 1985:144). Migration is one of the defining global issues of the early twenty- first century. The number of people moving from the rural to urban centers within the country and from one country to the other in search of employment ,income opportunities ,knowledge and skill enhancement is unprecedented today than any other point in history .According to the International Migration Organization, there are how about 192 million people living outside their place of birth, which is about three percent of the world’s population .This means that roughly one in every 35 persons in the world is a migrant employed overseas. Between 1965 and 1990 alone, the number of international migrants increased by 45 million representing an annual growth rate is about 2.1 percent. The current annual growth rate is about 2.9 percent. (Cited in khatiwada, 2011).

At present, foreign labour migration has become an important sector in Nepal. Numbers of foreign labour migrants in Nepal have rapidly increased of population and lack of industrialization, lack of employment etc. Lack of employment or opportunities has made most of the rural migrants go for foreign labour migration.

Lee's laws divides factors causing migration into two groups of factors: push and pull factors. Push factors are things that are unfavourable about the area that one lives in, and pull factors are things that attract one to another area. Push factors: Not enough jobs, few opportunities, primitive conditions, desertification, famine or drought, political fear or persecution, slavery, poor medical care, loss of wealth, natural disasters, death threats, lack of political and religious freedom, pollution, poor housing, landlord issues, discrimination, poor chances of marrying and war. Pull factors: Job opportunities, better living, political and religious freedom, enjoyment, education, better medical care, attractive climates, security, family links, industry and better chances of marrying.(Cited in Khatiwada, 2011).

Nepal Government has institutionally opened one hundred and eight countries for abroad employment , though Nepalese are found going around the world in one way or the other. Unemployed youths are making Arab countries (Qatar, Malaysia, Oman, Saudi Arabs, United Nation Emirate, Bahrain, and Kuwait etc.) as well as some European countries to seek job by knitting the golden dream as the main place of destination. There 2394127 Nepalese people who involved in aboard employment until 30th Baishakh, 2069 BS (DOFE, 2069)

In general, migration refers to geographical area to another. In this mobility is from one state to another, this is called foreign migration or abroad migration. Foreign labour migration is defined as the crass-border movement or geographical mobility or spatial mobility of people. From one state to another for the purpose of employment or when unemployed labour force of one area or country goes to another area or country for employment such conditions creates foreign employment .Thus, when the labour force of a labor market of one state systematically goes to work to labour market of another state such is known as foreign labour migration. However, there is no universally accepted definition of labour migration.

1.2 Statement of the Problem

International labour migration is gaining momentum and will continue to do so in the years to come. Looking at the present scenario excluding India, around 500 Nepali youths are leaving Nepal by air daily. The destination most likely is West Asia and South East Asia. No doubt numerous causes are responsible for the external movement of people. With the passage of time the cost of living has really gone up. Everything is expensive namely education, housing, food

fuel. Survival and maintaining a decent lifestyle in order to earn extra income is attractive. Moreover, the salary in foreign currency is perceived as a healthy reward which in turn attracts attention. Foreign employment is not easy. It is associated with various procedures which sometimes can be miserable. Numerous manpower agencies are entrusted with the responsibility to supply labourers to the respective countries. Sometimes these agencies charge high amount or provide wrong information to the emigrants which adds up to the sorrow and hardships. There are numerous cases where emigrants have ended up bankrupt because of brokers/agents.

In the process of globalization people started to move one place to another place. Due to the growing population, increasing manpower and the lack of the employment opportunities within the country labours migrated to other countries. Especially the main cause of foreign migrant are to improve the quality of life. Remittance is “the portion of international migrant workers earnings sent back from the country of employment of the country of origin”. Depending on the exact definition adopted remittance are usually calculated as the combine value of “worker’s remittance and” ”labor income” (or compensation of employees) for migrants working abroad for either more or less than one year. Besides this remittance reflect the monetary dimension in the complex web of linkages that exists between migrant diasporas and their home countries. The term remittances are normally limited to denote monetary and other cash transfer, transmitted by migrant workers to their families and communities (CBS,1996).

About 3 percent Nepalese live abroad for different purposes (CBS 2001b). , many of them are temporary labor migrants. The National Living Standard Survey (2004) conducted by CBS estimated that the proportion of households receiving remittance has increased from 23 percent in 1995-96 to 37 percent in 2003-04. Nepal had received Rs. 139 billion remittance in the same time of the previous fiscal year 2067/ 068BS but within the seven month of current fiscal year 2068/069 BS. ,Nepal has received Rs 188 billion as remittance. This remittance is 36 percent more than the same time of previous fiscal year 2067/068BS (Gorkhapatra, 29th March 2012)

However, the cause and effects of labour migration with specific reference to a particular micro socio – cultural setting may be different from that generalized at the macro level. In this context, some pertinent question could be raised with regard to the labour migration in Nuwakot district, khanigaun VDC Ward No 3 and 4. The pertinent questions were:

- What are the socio-economic and demographic characteristics with labour migrant?
- What are the causes of labour migrant?
- What are the effects of the migration on the households?
- What is the socio-economic status of migrant households?

1.3 Objectives of the Study

The general objective of this study is to assess the effects of labour migration on the socio-economic conditions of the households. To accomplish the overall objective, the specific objectives of the study are set as follows:

- To describe the socio-economic and demographic characteristics of labour migrant households.
- To analyze the details of labour migration.
- To assess the effects of labour migration on socio-economic conditions of the households.

1.4 Significance of the Study

The important of the research study can be presented into two broad categories. Firstly, the theoretical significance of the study is that it describes the causes and consequences of labor migration with specific reference to a particular social setting at micro level. Secondly, it also provides basic information about labor migration which would be useful to researches, policy makers and other development agencies.

CHAPTER -TWO

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

This section of the proposed study was the review of literature on the International labour migration with focus on the causes and the consequences of the migration. The review section is divided into three subscriptions. They are : review of the theories and concepts, review of previous studies and conceptual framework for the proposed study.

2.1 Review of Theories and Concepts

2.1.1 World System Theory and Migration

The world system theory stresses that the world system and not the nation states should be the basic unit of social analysis. World system refers to the international division of labour which divides the world into core countries, semi-periphery countries and periphery countries. Core countries focus on higher skill, capital-intensive production and extraction of raw materials. This constantly reinforces the dominance of the core countries. Nonetheless, the system is dynamic, and individual states can gain or lose the world hegemony. This status has been passed from the Netherlands to the United Kingdom and most recently, the United States.

The world systems theory is based on the contention that capitalism is a historical social system. Wallerstein (1983) defines historical capitalism as the system in which the endless accumulation of capital has been the economic objective or law that has governed or prevailed in fundamental economic activity. The drive behind capital accumulation forced the capitalist countries to search for new natural resources, new low-cost labour and new outlets. It was within this context that capitalist countries also started to colonize overseas area in order to stimulate economic exchange between colonies and the mother country. However, these two types of exchange were not equal. With respect to economic exchange a large net flow of capital from the colonies into the mother countries resulted. After decolonization political dependencies disappeared but the economic dependencies of former colonies, which are regarded as the peripheral countries in the world system, remained and were often even strengthened. Those peripheral countries produce predominantly primary commodities and their export base is often dependent on only a few products. In this way peripheral countries suffer instability of world producer prices. Since the

world producer prices are determined by the core countries, peripheral countries deal with unfavourable terms of trade whose result is slow economic expansion and growing economic dependence on core countries. (Amankwaa, 1995)

This view of international trade is highly controversial. According to modern economic thinking, international (true) free trade can reduce migration between developing and developed countries (Gosh, 1992; Moonhound, 1997). Free trade leads to an increase in the export of labour-intensive goods from low-wage to high-wage countries. This increase in export of labour-intensive goods causes an increase in the employment of unskilled workers in low-wage countries. Further, this export increase results in a decrease in the income of unskilled workers in the high-wage countries when there is wage flexibility or an increase in unemployment when there is wage rigidity. The export of capital-intensive goods from capital-rich to capital-poor countries also equalizes income and employment conditions between countries. Decreasing income and employment differences between countries in turn, decrease international migration.

World system theory sees migration as a natural consequence of economic globalization and market penetration across national boundaries. (Wallerstein, 1974)

2.1.2 The Marxist Theory

The Marxist theory is based on the “dialectical materialist in which the system of production determines the institutional and ideological structure of society.”¹² For this Marxist perspective, the economics is first and the politics second which will define the state’s migration policies. Under this, the classes play the main role. For Marx capitalism is not seen as retrogressive from feudalism. He sees it as an advance in the sense that labour is free to sell its labour power to who they want and seek out the best possible pay. Capitalism, as a system of production, has a natural linkage with international migration because it is a natural consequence of capitalist development and their expanding markets are needed to alleviate periodic crisis of under-consumption and excess of saving over investment.

So, in consequence, migration will continue cross borders as a class conflict is not confined to the states. The capitalist expansion and their market will always be unequal. Thus, the employers, with the implicit approval of the capitalist state, can use foreign workers to their beneficial

economical profit. It is the bourgeoisie class against the proletarian class. Also according to Mallifield, and based in this theory, “migrants represent a surplus pool (an industrial reserve army) which help capitalist economics overcome periodic crisis. This manpower is eminently exploitable. It can be mobilized in periods of rapid growth ad disbanded in periods of slack demand.” In this way, they accept the utilitarian value of immigration under this theory.

2.2 Review of Previous Studies

Subedi (2003) viewed that labour migration from Nepal is imperative and will continue to grow with the growth rate of over 2.2 % per annum. More than 200,000 young adults are entering the labour market every year.

He further says a prominent feature of Nepalese International Migration in the recent years has been the increase in the proportion of people going to the West, East and Southeast Asia. This is mainly because of foreign employment promotion program by His Majesty’s Government of Nepal since the late 1980’s. However, it is the Indian Subcontinent which absorbs a huge chunk of Nepalese international labour migrants.

According to him apart from poverty, lack of employment opportunities within the country and the rise in the number of active population encourage migration. The political instability in the country is compelling the youths from the villages to look for opportunities elsewhere.

Kansakaar (1974) is of the opinion that the main reason for migration is poor economic condition of the hill in comparison to the Tarai. He suggested the need for the development of hilly region. The tarai was the destination of internal migration.

Lee (1966) defines migration as a result of ‘push’ and ‘pull’ factors at both origin and destination and cost to overcome the obstacles lying between the individuals as well as possible alternatives. The process of migration is influenced by factors associated with the area of origin and destination, intervening obstacles and personal factors. This model is within the framework of push-pull obstacles model summarizing the contribution to migration. There are usually two sets of factors which influence the decision to migrate. One set of factors attract people to it. Other set of factors on the other hand, repel people from it. There may be also other set of factors to which people are indifferent.

Bista's study (1977) has devised two types of migration: permanent and seasonal. The major factors for permanent migration are population pressure, natural calamities, food scarcity, land availability and employment. And due to the lack of employment opportunities, marginal labourers of low economic status migrate to the Tarai seasonally in search of seasonal employment.

Stalker (1994), stated that the major causes of labour migration are the poor economic condition of the self-country, pressure of population, lack of employment, political instability. All these compel people to go in search of foreign employment. Major part of international migration is to eradicate poverty and scarcities.

2.2.1 Causes of migration

Everest S. Lee (1966) reformulated Ravenstein's theory to give more emphasis to internal (or push) factors. Lee outlined the impact that intervening obstacles have on the migration process. He argued that variables such as distance, physical and political barriers, and having dependents can impede or even prevent migration. Lee pointed out that the migration process is selective because differential such as age, gender and social class affect how persons respond to push-pull factors, and these conditions also shape their ability to overcome intervening obstacles. Furthermore, personal factors such as the person's educations, knowledge of a potential receiver population, family ties and the like can facilitate or retard migration.

<http://family.jrank.org/pages/1170/migration-theories-migration.html>).

Lee's laws divides factors causing migration into two groups of factors: push and pull factors. Push factors are things that are unfavourable about the area that one lives in, and pull factors are things that attract one to another area.

Some push factors are not enough jobs, few opportunities, primitive conditions, desertification, famine or drought, political fear or persecution, slavery, poor medical care, loss of wealth, natural disasters, death threats, lack of political and religious freedom, pollution, poor housing, land-lord/tenant issues, discrimination, poor chances of marrying, war etc. Some pull factors are job opportunities, better living conditions, political and religious freedom, enjoyment, education,

better medical care, attractive climates, security, family links, industry, better chances of marrying.

Sharma(2005) highlighted the main cause for migrating abroad was economic. Because of the push factors it was essential to look for supplementary occupation. The pull factors were easy availability of work and presence of friends and relatives. Foreign employment brought in awareness of their ignorance abroad so more attention was paid towards children education.

Dahal et.al. (1997) has points out to the issue of migration in Nepal as a challenge for today its impact on the economic reasons for migration it describes the effects of out-migration on the social and economic level of the people in the area under study i.e. hills and Terai of Far-Western development region

There are certain undesirable factors in the place of origin, which stimulates or compels the individual to migrate to the other places, and likewise, there are certain desirable factors in the destination that attracts the migrants. In these words, the former factors are 'push' factors and the latter are the 'pull' factors causing the events of migration. Moreover according to him, the distance between the origins determines the volume of migration between place of origin and destination. Higher the distance, lower the volume of migration and vice versa(Revenstein,1885).

2.2.2 Effects of Migration

Iqbal and Mohyudddin (2014) analyzed the impacts of male's labour migrations from Pakistan on their families left behind in Pakistan. They found that absence of male members from household, the role and decision-making autonomy of women who stay behind were changed. They found that women invested remittance on economic and business activities. Remittance contributed to improve the quality of life and brought happiness in their family. The left behind women were left more independent and autonomous in the absence of their male members. Although left behind generally feel much comfortable to live their parents period, they can easily decide where they live- parents house or husbands' house. Left behind women were freely visited their friends and families when they want. The left behind women had a participate in the social obligations where male members were required.

The migration of Nepalese people for other employment purpose, such as working in the tea state of Darjeeling and the forest of Assam, began in the second half of the 19th century. Economic migration to the middle East from south Asia and other parts of the world was spurred – on by the oil boom in the early 1970s. International labour migration, mostly to Gulf states, Malaysia and other South East Asian countries is a new phenomenon of migration in the Nepalese context with about a 30 year long history. Unexpectedly, foreign labour migration has developed in such a way that it has shifted the agricultural based economy towards remittance based economy (Aryal, 2006)

Currently young people from the village are in Hongkong, Malaysia, India, the Arab States, Europe, and elsewhere, If they are lucky enough to make any money, they will invest their savings in buying land and building houses in towns and cities, not in the village (Macfarlane, 2001).

The proportions of households that receive remittance are 56 percent in Nepal. The average income transfer in the form of remittance is RS 80,436 (in nominal terms) per recipient household. Per capita nominal remittance of whole population stands at NRS 9,245. Majority of remittances (58 percent) come from within the country, and 19 percent from India and 23 percent from other countries (CBS Nepal , 2011b).

Common Nepalis’ access to basic facilities has improved in the years. Despite political upheavals and unrest, average household income of Nepalis has increased by more than four-fold to Rs 202,374 over the span of 15 years due to rise in the number of employed population, switch from agricultural to non- agricultural jobs and increased receipt of remittances. Remittance is widely spent on daily consumption, followed by loan repayment and household property instead of capital formation. Some 78.9 percent of the remittance is used on daily consumption, whereas 7.1 percent of the remittance is used to repay loans followed by 4.5 percent on household property, 3.5 percent on education and only a minimal 2.4 percent is used on capital formation. However, percentage of household receiving remittances has also more than doubled from 23.4 percent 15 years ago to 55.8 percent in 2010 (NLSS, 2010-11c).

The most important feature of the labour emigration is migrants’ remittances along with all other potential material and immaterial the entire sending nations. On the positive side, out- migration

brings about improvements to the well-being of migrants and their families, reduction of poverty in the sending regions, much needed capital in the form of money and goods, a safety net for households, increasing local savings and investment, and alleviation of unemployment pressures (Aslan,2008).

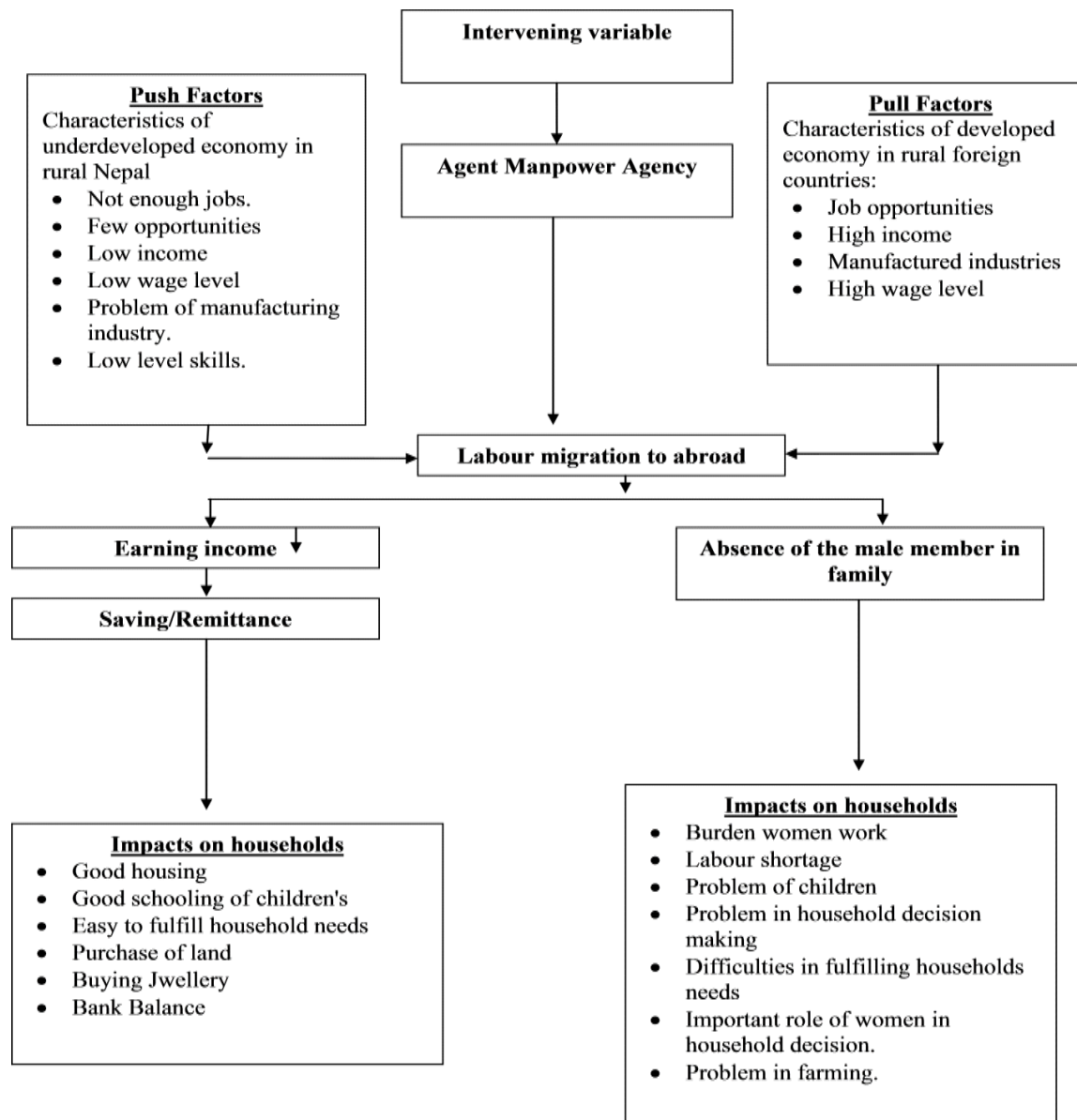
Wyss(2004) in the studied on organization and finance of international labour migration has found that there is a range of different uses of the remittance from short- term to medium or long- term purposes. How the remittance are used depends primarily on the financial circumstances of household most households spend on their money for more on thing.Parents of the migrants mostly decided he has found the role of mother.If the migrant has a wife and children,this family has its own budget.In such the wife can decide how to spend the money he sends.At least he concludes that how crucial the process or institutions involved in international migration process influence the propensity to migrate and the potential contribution of labour migration to the livelihood of people.

Ale (2004) also studied the causes and impacts of international labour migration in pumdi - bhumdiVDCofkaski district. Though the field study he has found that remittances of foreign migrants have improved economic condition of households .The used of remittances depnds for the needs of the households. Generally, most of the houses use the remittances manly three purposes : (1) the short –term purpose(to maintain immediate needs like cloth, fuel and other expenses), (2)mid –term purposes (investment on the business, buying cattle and other mainly productive works, and(3) long – term purpose (to invest on land and purchasing properties to construct new house and to invest on the children’s education etc.

2.3 Conceptual framework

Based on the review of literature as given above, a conceptual framework has been developed for the proposed study. The conceptual framework is presented in a flowchart given in figure 1.

Figure 1: Conceptual framework for the analysis of the effects of labour migration on households.



As envisaged in the flowchart, labour migration from a village of Nepal to the abroad countries is determined by a number of factors. Push factors (characteristics of underdeveloped economy in rural Nepal) and pull factors (characteristics of developed economy abroad) are main causes of migration. Push factors are things that are unfavourable about the area that one lives in. They are: not enough jobs, few opportunities, low income, low wage level, problem of manufactured industry, low level of skills etc. Pull factors are things that attract one to another area. They are: Job opportunities, high income, manufactured industry, high wage level. This flowchart indicates that agents like manpower agencies play important role in the migration process as they are intervening variable. Emigrants, when they are working, earn money as income which is sent to Nepal. This money, sent as remittance, is very important, especially impact on households. They are: good housing, good schooling of children, purchase of land buying of ornaments, easy to fulfill household needs, bank balance etc. On the absence of the male member in the family, some impact on households are seen due to labour migration to abroad they are: burden of women work, labour shortage, problem of caring children, loan problem, poor housing, problem of household decision, problem of farming etc.

CHAPTER –THREE

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

Research tools was used in a systematic manner. Research was carried out with a set of techniques and procedures. This chapter basically deals with the methods that will be employed by the researcher on the research topic. Methods are guidelines which aid the researcher to research in a scientific and systematic way.

3.1 Rationale for the Selection of Study Site

Khanigaun VDC of Nuwakot district was selected for the investigation. Unemployment is a burning issue. There is an increase in the number of youth going abroad for foreign employment from this VDC. Moreover, emigration is viewed as a livelihood strategy. Moreover, the researcher hails from this VDC and is very much aware of the trend of international labour migration within this VDC.

3.2 Nature and Sources of Data

The study utilizes two types of data, primary and secondary. Primary data was collected from the field survey and secondary data was collected from various books, journals, articles, thesis and the internet.

3.3 The Universe and the Sample

Universe of the proposed study was all the households of Khanigaun VDC having at least one international labour migrant as family member. The number of such household in the VDC is above 1000. A multi-stage sampling procedure was adopted to select the sample of 60 households of the universe.

At the first stage, 9 wards of the VDC was treated as 9 clusters and cluster sampling was adopted in selecting Ward No. 3 and 4 purposively.

At the second stage, the household with labour migrants was identified and listed. The study of households was selected purposively by multi-stage sampling method. Sub- Samples of 40 households from Ward No. 3 and 20 households from Ward No. 4 was selected to make a total of 60 households.

3.4 Techniques of Data Collection

Present study is mainly based on primary source data. Primary source data were collected by using various tools and techniques. The details of the data collection techniques are given below.

3.4.1 Structured Interview

The primary data was collected by conducting structured interview in the sample households. For the interview, a semi-structured interview schedule was prepared and then administered at the door-steps of the sample households. The study was focused of Ward No. 3 and 4 from Khanigaun VDC with in Nuwakot district. The researchers applied structure and unstructured questions for interview to the members of the migrant households. Households head of family was the major source of information. The migrant households questionnaire includes the socio-economic and demographic compositions of the households like relation, age, sex, marital status, education, occupation, caste etc. There was divided three section for interview schedule (See, Annex: Interview Schedule). Interview schedule was prepared in Nepali language. The time duration for the each interview was about 30 minutes.

3.5 Limitations of the study

The study was confined to a sample of 60 households in Khanigaun VDC of Nuwakot district. The study findings will have the following limitations:

- Since the study was confined to Khanigaun VDC, the findings of the study may not be applicable to other social setting of rural Nepal.
- Although the universe of the study is defined as the Khanigaun VDC as a whole, the study was confined to Ward No. 3 and 4. Since these wards was selected as samples purposively, the findings derived from the study cannot be generalized to the whole VDC.
- Even in the sample wards, sample of the households was selected using non-random sampling technique.
- The sample size of 60 households may be too small to represent the whole universe

CHAPTER–FOUR

CHARACTERISTICS OF SAMPLE HOUSEHOLDS

This chapter describes selected demographic and socio-economic characteristics of sample households. The information about caste/ethnicity, family structure, ownership of land, landholding size, food sufficiency status, education status of family members, occupation status of family members and main sources of household income etc.

4.1 Caste/ethnicity

The Nepalese caste system is complex and continues the traditional system of social stratification of Nepal. Nepal is a multicultural country and its societies reflect the composition of different unities of ethnic groups. Even today the structure of Nepalese society is based on hierarchy of cast. The cast system and its manifestation in social hierarchy possess different status within societies. The following table gives all the details of the caste/ethnicity of the sample households.

Table 4.1: Distribution of sample households by caste/ethnicity

Caste/ethnicity	Households	
	No	%
Brahmin	10	16.66
Chhetri	9	15.03
Tamang	26	43.33
Magar	5	8.33
Newar	4	6.66
Rai	1	1.66
Kami	5	8.33
Total	60	100.00

A large majority (59.98 percent) of the sample households belong to hill ethnics such as Tamang, Magar, Newar and Rai. Brahmin and Chhetri together constitute nearly one third (31.69 percent) of the sample. Dalits constitute the lowest proportion (8.33 percent).

4.2 Family structure

Family Structure is an important characteristic of sample households. Family structure is analyzed in terms of family size and family type .

Family size refers to the number of persons living in the sample households. Family size plays an important role in migration as those whose family is big can easily go away for labour migration but those whose family is small may face problems in doing so.

There are broadly, two types of families. One of them is nuclear and another is joint. Nuclear family consists of a couple and their unmarried children. This is regarded as a basic social unit. Joint family was regarded as a social institution since time immemorial. It is a huge social group in which the father, mother, their mature and immature children, their brother and parents live together.

C.H. Colley, a famous American Sociologist, describes joint family as the primary social institution of Indian Social System. The following table gives distribution of sample households according to the size of their family.

Table 4.2. Distribution of sample households by family size

Family Size	Households	
	No.	%
Up to 4	19	31.67
5-8	39	65.00
9 and above	2	3.33
Total	60	100.00
Average family size	5.46 persons	

The family size of the sample households ranges between 3 to 10 members. Majority (65 percent) belongs to medium sized family (5-8 members), nearly one third (31.37 percent) belongs to small-sized family (up to 4 members) and the rest (3.33 percent) belong to large-sized family (9 or more than 9 members). Average family size is 5.46 persons. According to the nation population census (2068 B.S.), the average family size is 4.1 person. Therefore, average family size of the sample households was found to be 5.46 persons, which was higher than the national total family size (4.1 persons) (CBS 2011).

Table 4.3 Distribution of sample households by family type

Family type	Households	
	No.	%
Nuclear	29	48.33
Joint	31	51.67
Total	60	100.00

Of the total 60 sample households, 48.33 percent sample households, belong to nuclear family such families husband and wife, husband and wife with their unmarried children, mother with her unmarried children, and father with his unmarried children and 51.67 percent households belong to joint family. Majority of the households belong to joint family such families have husband and wife with their married children, father and his married children, mother and her married children, grandfather and grandmother with their married children.

4.3 Ownership of land

Land gives economic security to people. It is a fixed asset which also gives employment and job security. Those who have more land have a high status in the society.

The distribution of each sample household according to their land ownership is given in Table 4.4.

Table 4.4: Distribution of households by ownership of land

Landholding size (Ropani)	Households	
	No.	%
No Land	1	1.67
0 to 5	22	36.66
6-10	17	28.33
11-15	4	6.67
16-20	10	16.67
21+	6	10.00
Total	60	100.00
Average landholding size	9.7	

Of the total 60 sample households, 59 households own some land and the remaining one household does not own land. Landholding size of the land owner households ranges from 2 ropanis to 26 ropanis. Majority (65.00 percent) own 10 ropani or less and the remaining one third (33.34percent) own above 10 ropani. Average landholding size if 9.7 ropanis.

4.4 Food sufficiency status

Food sufficiency period of a household is the time period for which the harvest made by that household lasts to feed the household. Food sufficiency is committed to empower the hungry and to eradicate hunger. It is envisioned that each family in a community empowered to produce their own food augment their needs.

The distribution of sample households according to their food sufficiency status is given in the Table 4.5.

Table 4.5: Distribution of sample households by food sufficiency status

Food sufficiency Period in months	Households	
	No.	%
<3	3	5.00
3-6	13	21.67
6-9	11	18.33
9-12	5	8.33
>12 (Surplus)	28	46.67
Total	60	100

The food sufficiency period in months of the sample households ranges from 2 to 12 months. Largest proportion (46.67 percent) produce surplus food, while 26.67 percent produce food which is sufficient for only less than 6 months and the rest (26.66 percent) produce to meet their food requirement for a period of 6 to 12 months.

4.5 Education status of family members

Education is one of the major indicator of development of any nation. Education teaches knowledge, skills by which we can successfully perform our work and earn money using the skills acquired. The process of receiving or giving systematic instruction at a school or university is a course of education.

The Table 4.6 gives the distribution by education status of family members of the sample households.

Table 4.6: Distribution by education status of family members of age 5 years or above

Level of education	Male	%	Female	%	Total	%
Illiterate	6	3.89	21	13.30	27	8.65
Basic Literacy	12	7.80	29	18.24	41	13.10
Primary	43	27.92	25	15.73	68	21.72
Secondary	29	18.83	31	19.5	60	19.16
SLC	27	17.53	14	8.80	41	13.10
Intermediate	27	17.53	30	18.87	57	18.21
Bachelor's	10	5.60	8	5.03	18	5.75
Master's	-	-	1	0.63	1	0.31
Total	154	100	159	100.00	313	100.00

Of the total 313 members in the sample households, 91.35 percent are literate and the remaining (8.65 percent) are illiterate. Such the sample households male literacy (96.11 percent) is higher than female literacy (86.70 percent) .

Basic literacy (simply able read and write only) rate is 13.10 percent in the sample households. Basic male literacy rate is 7.80 percent while basic female literacy rate is 18.24 percent. Primary level literacy is 21.72 percent. Primary level male literacy is 27.92 percent whereas primary level female literacy is 15.73 percent. In the sample households, 19.16 percent are literate up to secondary level. Secondary level male literacy is 18.83 percent whereas secondary level female

literacy is 19.5 percent. Up to 13.10 percent members have only completed their SLC. Around 17.53 percent of male have only completed SLC while 8.80 percent females have only completed their SLC. In the intermediate level, 18.21 percent of the household members are literate. Among males, 17.53 percent completed their intermediate whereas 18.87 percent females passed intermediate. Only 5.75 percent of the total sample population completed bachelor's. Male population of 5.60 percent while female population of 5.03 have completed bachelor's. Only 0.31 percent of total population have completed master's. No males have completed master's but 0.63 percent of females have completed master's.

4.6 Occupational status of family members

Occupation leads a human being's way in a certain direction and it can make their more comfortable. Occupation plays a vital role of promotion and protection of family, an individual as well as society.

Family member's occupation is categorized into groups like agriculture, business, labour, service, and students all of which are shown in Table 4.7.

Table 4.7: Distribution by occupation status of family members

Occupation	No	%
Agriculture	101	32.79
Business	14	4.55
Foreign employment	64	20.77
Service	39	12.67
Student	90	29.22
Total	308	100.00

Nearly one-third (32.79 percent) are engaged in agricultural activities, while 37.98 percent are engaged in non-agricultural activities, such as business, salary job and foreign employment and the rest (29.22 percent) are students.

Fourteen persons engaged in business have undertaken the activities such as tea shop, cosmetic, parlor, furniture industry, hotel and contractor. The salaried jobs (39 persons) includes primary

level teacher, secondary level teacher, +2 level teacher, marketing, army official, police and banking. Those who have reported foreign employment (64 persons) reported Qatar, Malaysia, Korea, India and Japan as the countries of where they have been employed.

4.7 Main sources of household income

Most important source is the main source of household income. Household income is the money received into a house on a consistent basis, either through work or investments. Household income is an important factor that can affect labour migration as well. Distribution of the households according to their main income source is give in the Table 4.8.

Table 4.8 Distribution of the households by main source of income

Sources of income	Household	
	No.	%
Remittance	25	41.67
Sale of cereal product	20	33.33
Salary/Job	6	10.00
Sale of animal	3	5.00
Others	6	10.00
Total	60	100.00

The largest proportion (41.67 percent) of the household's reported remittance as their main source of income. One third (33.33 percent) reported sale of cereal product as their main source while 10 percent reported salaried job (teacher, army, and marketing). Only 5 percent reported sale of animals or animal products, such as milk and goats, while the remaining household (10 percent) reported other sources of income such as pension, sales of furniture, contractor, sale of vegetables, tea shop, parlour and hotel.

CHAPTER-FIVE

DETAILS OF LABOUR MIGRATION

This chapter describes details of labour migration of the simple households globalization, conflict, and income inequalities may have encouraged ever more workers and families to cross borders in search of employment and security. Migrant workers contribute to growth and development in their country of destination while countries of origin greatly benefit from their remittances and the skills acquired during their migration experience. Some points are important in describing details of migration. They are: number of persons in foreign employment, reasons for foreign employment, amount spent, and sources of amount spent for foreign employment, type of work and preparation etc.

5.1 Number of labour migrants

Number of labour migrants from each household in the sample area is not the same for every households. The distribution by number of migrants from each household is given in the Table 5.1.

Table 5.1: Number of labour migrants from each household

Number of labour migrants abroad	No	%
1	56	93.33
2	4	6.67
Total	60	100.00

Most of the households (93.33 percent) have one person in foreign employment while the rest of the households (6.67 percent) have two persons in foreign employment.

The respondents reported various reasons for opting foreign employment. The reasons are given in Table 5.2.

Table 5.2: Reasons for foreign employment

Reasons	No	%
To seek employment	36	60.00
To improve economic conditions	22	36.67
To repay loan	2	3.33
Total	60	100.00

Large majority of households (60 percent) reported the migration of the family member abroad for seeking employment such as hotel work, packing goods, painting, guard and driving. One third households (36.67 percent) had migrants abroad to migrants abroad to repay the loan. There were the reasons for foreign employment in the sample households.

5.2 Amount spent for foreign employment

Many people are going for foreign employment. Those people who are going for foreign employment needs to spend some amount of money. As Nepalese people are poor. They try to spend low money for countries like Qatar, India, Malaysia, Japan and Korea. But in comparison with other countries Japan and Korea needs more money for foreign employment.

As they are lower or middle class they do not have enough money. So they take loan from bank, co-operatives, money lender and relatives. They pay interest for their loan. The amount spend for foreign employment ranges from Rs.50,000 to 3,00,000. amount of money spend for foreign employment is shown in the table 5.3.

Table 5.3: Amount spent for foreign employment

Amount spent in Nepalese rupees	No	%
50,000	1	1.67
50,000-100,000	28	46.66
100,000-200,000	25	41.67
200,000-300,000	4	6.67
No idea	2	3.33
Total	60	100.00

Of the total 60 sample households, 58 households reported different amounts spent for foreign employment and 2 households had no idea about the amount spent. Among the 58 houses, one

half (29 households) reported 1 lakh or less while the other half reported one lakh or more spent for foreign employment. The amount spent ranges from Rs. 50,000 to Rs. 300,000.

5.3 Arrangement of amount for foreign employment

Source of amount plays a vital role in labour migration because many people do not have enough money. The source of amount spent for foreign employment is shown in the Table 5.4.

Source	No	%
Themselves (households)	17	28.33
Loan	41	68.34
No idea	2	3.33
Total	60	100.00

High majority (68.34 percent) of the sample households took loan from banks, co-operative, money-lenders/persons and relatives, for the amount spent for foreign employment. 28.33 percent of the total 60 sample households managed the amount themselves and remaining 3.33 percent of the households had no idea about where they got the amount from.

The respondents (41 persons) reporting loan as the source of the amount for foreign employment were inquired about the source of loan. The distribution of the respondents by source of loan is given in table 5.5

Table 5.5: Source of the loan

Source of loan	No	%
Bank	11	26.83
Co-operative	5	12.19
Person/money lender	20	48.79
Relatives	5	12.19
Total	41	100.00

As shown in the table 48.79 percent of the households who took loan got it from a money lender whereas 12.19 percent got it from a relative such as brother-in-law, Uncle, grand father and Maternal uncle. Around 26.83 percent of the households took loan from a bank and the rest (12.19 percent) got it from co-operatives.

The respondents (41 persons) reporting loan as the source of amount for foreign employment were further inquired about the amount of the loan. The distribution of the respondents by amount of loan is given in Table 5.6.

Table 5.6: Amount of loan

Amount in Nepalese rupees	No	%
50,000-100,000	28	68.29
100,000-200,000	12	29.27
>200,000	1	2.44
Total	41	100.00

In the 41 households taking loan, the amount of loan ranges from 200,000 to 500,000. Majority (97.56 percent) took 200,000 rupees or less in loan while the rest (2.44 percent) took greater than 200,000 rupees in loan.

The respondents (41 persons) reporting loan as the source of amount for foreign employment were also inquired about the rate of interest of loan . The distribution of the respondents by rate of interest of loan is given in Table 5.7.

Table 5.7: Rate of interest of loan

Rate of interest	No	%
24 %	24	58.54
18 %	14	34.15
No intrest	3	7.31
Total	41	100.00

As illustrated in the 5.7 the majority (58.54 percent) took loan at the interest rate of 24 percent While 34.15 percent took loan at the interest rate of 18 percent and the rest (7.31 percent) did not have to pay interest for their loan.

The respondents (41 persons) reporting loan as the source of amount for foreign employment were also inquired about the duration of loan . Duration of the loan refers to the time period

within which the loan amount has to be paid back. The distribution of the respondents by duration of loan is given in Table 5.8

Table 5.8: Duration of loan

Loan duration	No	%
6 month to 1 year	16	39.03
1 year to 2 years	20	48.78
>2 years	5	12.19
Total	41	100.00

As described by the table 5.8 the majority (48.78 percent) of household took loans that were payable within 1 to 2 years while 39.03 percent of the total household that took loan had to pay the loan back within 6 months to a year whereas the rest (12.19 percent) took loan that was payable after 2 years.

The respondents (41 persons) reporting loan as the source of amount for foreign employment were inquired about use of collateral. Collateral is defined as property (like a house or land) or something valuable (like jewellery) that to promise to give the money lender if you are unable to pay back the loan within the duration of the loan. The distribution of the respondents by collateral is given in Table 5.9

Table 5.9:Use of collateral

Collateral	No	%
Yes	17	41.46
No	24	58.54
Total	41	100.00

Of the 41 households that took loan, majority (58.54 percent) did not set up any collateral to take loan while the rest (41.46 percent) had to set up collateral such as land onwership paper, jewellery and house.

5.4 Country of destination

Labour migration abroad has been increasing in Nepal day by day. A recent study shows that about 1,000 Nepalese youths on average are going abroad everyday especially in Malaysia and

Gulf countries (UNIFEM and NIDS, 2006). The Table 5.10 shows the distribution by countries of destination of the labour migrants in the sample households.

Table 5.10: Distribution of labour migrants by countries of destination

Countries of destination	No	%
Qatar	32	50.00
Malaysia	21	32.81
Korea	5	7.81
India	4	6.25
Japan	2	3.13
Total	64	100.00

Among the various destinations of labour migrants in the sample households, Qatar tops the rank with 50 percent labour migrants from the selected households in the international labour market. Malaysia also occupies an important place with nearly one third (32.81 percent) labour migrants whereas Korea occupies third rank with 7.81 percent migrants from the sample households. India and Japan comprise 6.25 percent and 3.13 percent migrants respectively.

5.5 Types of work

The movement of people from one country to another country is mainly in search of job opportunities. There is little job opportunity in our country which is why people migrate to another country. The Table 5.11 illustrates the distribution of labour migrants by the types of work they do.

Table 5.11: Distribution of labour migrants by the types of work they do

Work	No	%
Hotel worker	18	28.12
Packing goods	11	17.19
Painting	7	10.93
Guard	6	9.37
Driver	5	7.82
Agriculture	4	6.25
Rearing children	3	4.69
Others	10	15.63
Total	64	100.00

Large proportion of migrants (28.12 percent) from the sample households are working for hotels abroad. Over one third (37.49 percent) of the migrants are involved in packing goods, painting, and guard. The lowest proportion (18.16 percent) is involved in driving, agriculture, rearing children, and the rest are involved in other jobs (15.63 percent) like contractor, business, lighting garden, and banking .)

5.6 Preparation for foreign employment

Preparation for foreign employment is one of the most important steps before migrating abroad. There are various kinds of preparations that a labour migrant must make. The distribution of labour migrants by their preparation for foreign employment is given in the Table 5.12.

Table 5.12: Distribution of labour migrants by their preparation for foreign employment.

Preparation	No	%
No preparation	22	34.38
Language training, insurance and medical check	11	17.18
Language training and medical check	7	10.94
Only medical check	7	10.94
Language and training	5	7.81
Only training	3	4.69
Only language	4	6.25
Insurance and training	2	3.12
Language and Insurance	3	4.69
Total	64	100.00

Of the total 64 labour migrants, 42 labour migrants are prepared for labour migration and 22 labour migrants had no preparation for labour migration. 11 labour migrants prepared for all language training, insurance and medical. The rest prepares for any two of the three things mentioned.

5.7 Trainings for foreign employment

Training and training institution are very important things before going abroad. Training helps to prepare better for life abroad. The distribution of labour migrants in the sample households by training is given in the Table 5.13.

Table 5.13 Training distributes of sample households by possession for foreign employment

Training	No	%
Yes	28	43.75
No	36	56.25
Total	64	100.00

In the sample households, a high majority (56.25 percent) of labour migrants had no training for foreign employment and the rest (43.75 percent) had training for foreign employment.

The respondents (28 persons) who reported training as the preparation for foreign employment were further asked about the time period of their training. Training period is the time periods over which labour migrants received training. The distributes of the respondents by duration of training received given in Table 5.14.

Table 5.14: Distributes of sample households by training period

Training period	No	%
30 days	7	25.00
45 days	8	28.57
>60 days	13	46.43
Total	28	100.00

28 labour migrants had taken the training, over a period ranging from 30 days to 120 days. Majority (53.57 percent) of them took training for 45 days or 30 days. The rest (46.43 percent) took training for more than 60 days.

The respondents (28 persons) who reported training were further inquired about the institution of their training. The distribution of the respondents by institution of training received given in Table 5.15.

Table 5.15: Distribution of respondents by training institute

Training institutios	NO	%
Private	14	50.00
Government	2	7.15
No idea	12	42.85
Total	28	100.00

Only 28 labour migrants had taken training from an institution. One half (50.00 percent) of them took training from private institution while 42.85 percent who took training had no idea of the institution was private or governmental. The rest (7.85 percent) of the migrants took training from a governmental institution.

5.8 Access to manpower company

Manpower Company plays a very important role in labour migration in the sample households. Many people, even if they do not have access to Manpower Company, get help from agents, relatives and others they know. Brokers or middlemen called “agents” in Nepal are entrenched players in the foreign employment sector. The Table 5.16 shows the different ways the migrants in the sample households got access to Manpower Company.

Table 5.16: Distribution of labour migrants by ways of access to manpower company

Access to manpower company	No	%
Themselves	25	39.06
Agents (Middlemen)	22	34.37
Relatives	17	26.57
Total	64	100.00

One third (39.06 percent) of the labour migrants accessed the Manpower Company through themselves while 34.37 percent of the migrants did it with the help of an agent. The rest (26.57 percent) went to the relatives such as brothers, sisters, Uncle and brother-in-law to gain access to Man Power Companies.

The respondents who approached the Man Power company through a middleman (22 persons) were asked about the amount spent for the middleman. The migrants in the sample households spent money on middleman as shown in the Table 5.17.

Table 5.17: Amount spent on the middleman

Amount spent in Nepalese rupees	No	%
7,000	2	9.09
10,000	4	18.19
12,000	5	22.72
15,000	7	31.81
20,000	4	18.19
Total	22	100.00

In the sample households, 22 migrants had to go to middlemen to access Man Power companies. Of those, one half (11 labour migrants) spent 12,000 rupees or less on the agents while the other half spent more than 12,000 on the agents.

The respondents were further asked about reliability of agents and manpower companies with regards to matters like type of work, salary and duration of work. The number of labour migrants who found their agents and Man Power Company reliable is given in the Table 5.18

Table 5.18: Distribution of labour migrants by reliability of manpower companies and agents.

Reliability of man power companies and agents	No	%
Yes	62	96.87
No	2	3.13
Total	64	100.00

As demonstrated by the table 5.18, most of the labour migrants (96.87 percent) from the sample households declared they found their agents and Man Power Companies reliable whereas only 3.13 percent of the labour migrants declared they were not reliable.

CHAPTER–SIX

EFFECTS OF LABOUR MIGRATION

This chapter describes the effects of labour migration on the households of the labour migrants. Some of the effects discussed in the chapter are: Shortage of labour in agricultural activities, problems in family affairs, problem in major decision making in the family, duration of foreign employment, status of remittance, use of remittance, surplus of remittance and changes in economic status etc.

6.1 Problems due to absence in the family

Many people in Nepal are engaged in agricultural activities and the migration of labour workers abroad creates a shortage of labour in agriculture in Nepal. Agriculture is the science of practicing farming, including the cultivation of soil for the growing of crops and the rearing of animals to provide food, wool and other products. The Table 6.1 shows the effects of migration in agriculture in the sample households.

Table 6.1: Shortage of labour in agriculture activities

Shortage of labour	No	%
Yes	51	85.00
No	9	15.00
Total	60	100.00

Of the total 60 sample households, majority (85.00 percent) faced a shortage of labour in agriculture. Only 15 percent of the households did not experience a shortage of labour in agricultural activities.

Also, most of the households of the labour migrants are poor and face various problems related to family affairs from time to time. The absence of labour migrants (often the head of the family) can cause a lot of problems for the households. The sample households that faced problems are discussed in the Table 6.2.

Table 6.2: Problems in family affairs

Problem in family affairs	No	%
Yes (during sickness, guided by children's education and children's upbringing)	51	85.00
No	9	15.00
Total	60	100.00

The table above shows that 85.00 percent of the sample households faced various problems in family affairs such as during sickness, guided by children's education and children's upbringing. Only 15 percent of the households said they faced no problems. A high majority of the sample households experience problems from time to time.

Not having a family head in a family due to labour migration can also cause problems in the major decision making in the family as the family head is responsible for making such decisions. The Table 6.3 shows the number of sample households that are facing problems in this regard.

Table 6.3: Problems in major decision making in the family

Problems in decision making	No	%
Yes	43	71.67
No	17	28.33
Total	60	100.00

A high majority (71.67percent) of the sample households said that they faced problems in making major decisions such as purchasing of land and building of house in the family whereas 28.33 percent of the households said that they did not have any problems in this regard.

6.2 Duration of foreign employment.

Duration is an important indicator of the foreign employment. People who stay for long period in foreign employment has good job. People who stay for long time in abroad send remittance. So, we can say that duration is decided by remittance. It has good impacts of Socio-economic status.

It is also negative effects of family problems during sickness, children's upbringing and decision making. The emigrants stay in the foreign labour market for time periods shown by the table 6.4.

Table 6.4: Duration of foreign employment

Duration of foreign employment	No	%
6 to 12 months	21	32.81
2 to 3 years	29	45.31
3 to 4 years	7	10.94
>5 years	7	10.94
Total	64	100.00

For the 64 labour migrants from the sample households, the duration of migration ranges from 6 months to 15 years. Majority of the migrants (78.12 percent) migrate for 3 years or less. The remaining (21.88 percent) of migrants migrate for over 3 years.

6.3 Status of remittance

Remittance is defined as the money transferred by a foreign worker to an individual in his or her home country. The remittance from labour migration contributed to at least 20 percent of decline in poverty in Nepal between 1995 to 2004 (Lokshin et.al, 2007). Money sent home by migrants competes with international aid as one of the largest financial inflows to developing countries like Nepal. Worker's remittances are a significant part of international capital flows, especially with regard to labour-exporting countries. In the sample households most of the respondents respond that the households depends upon remittance sent home by migrant workers. The status of remittance from the household's view is given in the Table 6.5.

Table 6.5. Status of remittance

Remittance	No	%
Better than before	58	96.67
Worse than before	2	3.33
Total	60	100.00

Of the total 60 sample households, 96.67percent of households agree that remittance is better than before which includes good housing, fulfill basic needs and quality of education for their children. While 3.33percent of the households think that it is worse than before which includes not paying loan and not paying interest for their loan.

Remittance is a very important source of income in the migrant households. The report reveals a positive impact of remittance at the household level. Families receiving remittance are enjoying a comparatively better quality of life now than they did in the past. The different ways in which the households use remittance is given in the Table 6.6.

Table 6.6: Uses of remittance

Uses of remittance	No	%
To pay loan	22	36.67
To buy seeds and fertilizers for farming and to pay for farm workers	14	23.33
To pay for workers and loan	12	20.00
Stationary, daily needs	7	11.67
Miscellaneous	5	8.33
Total	60	100.00

Of the total 60 sample households, 36.67 percent use remittance money to pay back loan, 23.33 percent use it to buy seeds and fertilizer for farming and to pay farm workers and 20 percent use it to pay for workers as well as to pay loan. A small proportion (11.67 percent) use the money to fulfill daily needs like stationary items and clothing etc. The rest (8.33 percent) use remittance money for miscellaneous purposes like entertainment.

6.4 Usage of savings of remittance

The remittance money can be said to be in surplus amount if it is enough to fulfill all the basic needs and is still left over which can be used for purposes like entertainment, jewellery or saving. Most of the households respond that area of surplus depends upon the amount of remittance sent by the migrant worker. Many households in the sample area are in surplus of remittance. The Table 6.7 gives a distribution of households by their usage of savings of remittance.

Table 6.7: Distribution of sample households by their usage of savings of remittance

Use of savings of remittance	No	%
Deposit in a bank	30	50.00
Building a house	11	18.33
Buying land	9	15.00
Buying jewellery	3	5.00
Buying jewellery and depositing in a bank	4	6.67
Buying T.V, radio and depositing in a bank	3	5.00
Total	60	100.00

Of the 60 sample households, one half (50 percent) of the households deposit surplus remittance in a bank while 18.33 percent use it to build a new house and 15 percent of the households use it to buy land. Up to 5 percent of the households said they use extra remittance to buy jewellery and 6.67 percent responded that they buy jewellery as well as deposit extra money in a bank. The rest of the households (5.00 percent) use surplus remittance to buy T.V. radio and also deposit in a bank.

6.5 Change in economic status

Economic status of a household related to the economic and financial situation of that households. Many labour migrants' household reported a positive change in the economic status of the household due to labour migration. The following table shows the change in economic status in the households of the sample area.

Table 6.8: Change in economic status

Change in economic status	No	%
Much better than before	3	5.00
Better than before	55	91.67
Worse than before	2	3.33
Total	60	100.00

High majority (91.67 percent) of the migrant households reported that their economic condition was better than before while 5 percent of the households said that their condition had improved significantly and was much better than before such as all needs are easily fulfill Only 3.33 percent of the households said that their economic condition was worse than before such as low income and not repay loan.

Major effects of labour migration and remittance on the households includes positive and negative effects. Remittance is very important which have impact on households which includes: good housing, good schooling of children, purchase of land, buying of ornaments, easy to fulfill households needs, bank balance etc. So that many migrant households are reporting positive change in the economic status of households due to labour migration. Due to the absence of labour migrants in the family, some negative impact on households and they are: problem of caring children, problem of seeking, labour shortage , loan problem, poor housing, problem of households decision and problem in farming etc. Therefore, these are the effects of migration and remittance into the households.

CHAPTER–SEVEN

SUMMARY AND CONCLUSION

7.1. Summary

Present study is concerned with effects of labour migration on socio-economic conditions of the sample households. Labour migration is a very complex phenomena for every society and nation. Especially in developing countries, the external movement of people consists of very high number of labour migrants caused due to unemployment, poverty, low industrial development, poor technology, and sustaining agricultural system. In order to improve their economic status and living standard, especially youths are interested to flow out by migration process, from their original place, crossing different barriers and countries. The present stream of abroad migration from Nepal had indirect or direct effects in different aspects of society in positive as well as negative ways. That is why this study had tried to investigate the effects of labour migration.

The specific objectives of the study were to describe socio-economic and demographic characteristics of labour migrant households, analyze the details of labour migration and assess the effects of labour migration on the socio-economic status of the households.

This study was a micro level analysis of labour migration in KhanigaunVDC of Nuwakot district. Both primary and secondary source of information were used in the study. Universe of the study comprised all the households of the VDC with at least one international labour migrant. The number of such households in this VDC is above 1000. A multistage sampling procedure was adopted to select the sample of 60 households from the universe. In the first stage, 9 wards of the VDC were treated as 9 clustered and Ward No. 3 and 4 were selected purposively. In the selected wards, the number of households with at least one labour migrant is 100 in Ward No.3 and 90 in Ward No.4. Sub-samples of 40 households from Ward No.3 and 20 households from Ward No.4 were selected to make a total sample of 60 households.

The primary data were collected by conducting structured interviews with the sample households. For the interview, a semi-structured interview schedule was prepared and then administered at the door-steps of the sample households.

Major findings

The sample households belong to different caste/ethnic groups, such as Brahmin, Chhetri, Tamang, Magar, Newar, Rai and Kami. The Tamangs constitute the largest proportion (43.00 percent). The family size of the sample households ranges between 3 to 10 members. Majority (65.00 percent) belongs to medium sized family (5-8) members. Average family size is 5.46 persons. Majority (51.67 percent) belongs to a joint type of family.

Of the total 60 households, 59 households own some land. Maximum size of land-holding 26 ropani. Majority (65.00 percent) own less than 10 ropanis. The households produce food grains from their land to meet their food requirements of their family for 2 to 12 months. Largest proportion (46.67 percent) produce surplus food. The literacy rate of family members of the sample households is 91.35 percents. Family members of the sample households are engaged in different occupations such as agriculture, business, foreign employment, service and student. One- third (33.79percent) are engaged in agriculture activities. Sample households reported remittance, sale of cereal product, salary/job, sale of animal and others (pension, sale of furniture, contractor, sale of vegetables, tea shop, parlour and hotel) as the main source of family income. Among these remittance was reported as the source of family income by the largest proportion of households (41.67 percent).

The sample households reported 64 persons in abroad. Most of the households (93.33percent) have only one labour migrant. To seek employment, to improve economic conditions and to repay loans are the reasons for foreign employment in the sample households. Large majority (60.00percent) of labour regarded to the details of labour migration of the sample households, one or two persons in foreign employment. Large majority migrants has gone abroad to seek employment of the total 60 households, 58 households reported different amount spent for foreign employment. The amount ranges from Rs. 50,000.00 to Rs. 3,00,000.00. One half (29 households) reported one lakh or less spent for foreign employment of the total 60 households, 58 households reported the source of amount spent for foreign employment. Large majority (68.34percent) of the sample households took loan from bank, co-operatives, money lender/persons and relatives for the amount spent for foreign employment of the total 60 households, 41 households reported about the source of loan from bank, co-operative,

persons/money lender and relatives. Nearly one-half (48.79 percent) of the households took loan from money lender/person. About 41 households has took loan and the amount of the loan ranges from Rs. 50,000. to 5,00,000. Majority (97.56%) took Rs. 2,00,000 or less as loan. The respondent (41 households) reported loan as the source of amount for foreign employment were also inquired about the rate of interest of loan. Thirty eight households took loan respectively at the interest rate of 24 percent and 18 percent. he majority (58.54percent) took loan at the interest rate of 24 percent of the total 60 households, 41 households reported the duration of loan for foreign employment. Duration of loan period is 6 month to 3 years. The majority (48.78%) of household took loans that were payable within 1 to 2 years. The respondents (41 households) reported loan as the source of amount for foreign employment were inquired about the collateral. Majority 58.54 percent did not set up any collateral to take loan.

The countries of destination are mainly Qatar, Malaysia, Korea, India and Japan. Seeking jobs such as hotels, packing goods, painting, guard, driver agriculture, rearing children's and others (contractor, business, lighting, garden and banking). Large proportion of migrants (28.12 percent) are working for hotel in abroad. Of the total 64 labour migrants, 42 labour migrants are prepared for foreign employment such as language, training, insurance and medical check, only medical check, language and training, only training, only language, insurance and training, language and insurance. If(17.18 percent) labour migrants prepared for all language, training and insurance and medical check for training for foreign employment. For 28 migrants to take training, the period ranges from 30 days to 120 days. Majority (53.57 percent) of them took training for 30 days to 45 days. Only 28 labour migrants had taken training form an institution such as private, government and no idea. One-half (50.00 percent) of them took training from private institutions. The different was the migrant in the sample households get access to manpower company by themselves, agents (middleman) and relatives. One-third (39.06 percent) of the labour migrants access to manpower company by themselves. Of the total 64 labour migrants, and 22 spend money for middleman and this cost between Rs. 7,000 to 20,000. One half which is 11 labour migrant spends Rs. 12,000 of less for agent whereas the other half spends more than Rs. 12,000. The respondents were further asked about reliability of agents and mane power companies with regards to matters such as type of work, salary and duration of work. Large majority (96.87 percent) From the sample households declared they found their agents and manpower companies.

The households have reported some constraints in the family due to the absence of the family members. The problems include shortage of labour for agricultural activities (51 households) during sickness (51 households), educating and upbringing of the children (51 households) and taking major decisions such as purchase of land and home(43 households).The duration of migration ranges from 6 months to 15 years.Majority of the migrants(78.12percent) migrate for three years or less.Of the total 60 households, 58 households reported that remittance is better than before which includes good housing, fulfill basic needs and quality of education for their children. The remittance is also used to pay loans, to buy seeds and fertilizer for farming and to pay for farm workers, to pay for workers and loan, stationery daily needs and miscellaneous as the use of remittance. One-third (33.67 percent) use remittance for paying loan. Sample households reported deposit in bank, to build a house, for buying land, buying jewellery and deposit in bank, buying television, radio and deposit it in bank helps to save remittance. One-half of households (50.00 percent) deposit surplus remittance in bank. The sample households reported that their economic condition is much better than before , better than before and worse than before. Most of the households (91.67 percent) that their economic conditions was better than before.

7.2 Conclusion

Remittance is one of the best sources of family income. It is effects for migrate abroad for employment. Most of the households are including one or two person in foreign employment. Qatar, Malaysia, Korea, India and Japan are place of destination of labour migrants in the sample households. Hotel workers, packing goods, painting ,guard, driver, agriculture ,rearing children and others(contractor, business, lighting, garden and banking) are involving in working for abroad. The duration of migration is ranging from 6 month to 15 years. The amount is spending for foreign employment. Sample households are taking loan got it from a money lender, bank, co-operative and relatives. Many sample households are using remittance money to pay back loan. Many migrants households are reporting a positive change in the economic status of households due to labour migration. So foreign employment is attractive and popular phenomena of sample households.

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- a. Government Institute
 - b. Non Government Institute
 - c. No idea
- 2.17. Did he/she find a job abroad?
- a. Yes
 - b. No
- 2.18. Through whom did he/she access the manpower?
- a. Agent
 - b. Self
 - c. Relatives
- 2.19. If he/she had gone through an agent, how much did he/she spend on him?
- a. Rs. 10,000
 - b. Rs.12,000
 - c. Rs. 15,000
 - d. Rs. (Specify)
- III. Effects of labour migration
- 3.1. Is there a shortage of working manpower in the house-hold because of labour migration?
- a. Yes
 - b. No
- 3.2. If 'yes' what have to done to compensate for the shortage?
- a. by hiring workers
 - b. by exchanging labour work with other household
 - c.(Specify)
 - d.(Specify)
- 3.3. Have you felt a lack of help at the time of sickness?
- a. Yes
 - b. No
- 3.4. Have you felt any difficulties in making decisions in your household?
- a. Yes
 - b. No
- 3.5. If difficult, how do you make decisions in household?
- a. Ask for decisions through phone.
 - b. With the help of a husband's brother who lived separately.
 - c. Self
 - d.(specify)
 - e.(specify)
- 3.6. What is the duration of his/her stay abroad?
- a. One year
 - b. 2 year

