

CHAPTER - I

INTRODUCTION

1.1 General Background

Simply, people process of moving from one place to another is called migration. In general, it refers to geographical or spatial mobility between one geographical area and another. It involves the (more or less) permanent movement of Individuals or groups across symbolic or political boundaries into new residential areas and communities. Sociological studies of migration are diverse and usually form part of larger problems in (for example) research into kinship, social networks (relationship links include kinship, communication, friendship, authority and sexual contact); or economic development (Marshall, 1994:415). Similarly, the conclusion of many economic studies is that migration is one of the important ways people can improve their lives and those of their families. It is a simple notion. Perceived differences in expected income between source and destination induce migration until movement reduces the differentials and a new equilibrium is attained (Shrestha 1990:20). In the view of Kansakar (1985), 'It has become a safety valve to maintain equilibrium between population growth and employment opportunities'.

This process (migration) came into practice from the early age of human life. People have been moving towards places where comparatively good facilities are available. Birth, death and migration are three major factors to change the population of any area but migration plays a key role. So migration is said to be a barometer of changing social, economic, political circumstances at the national and international levels.

Migration is broadly categorized as internal and international. Internal migration is change of places within a country. It may be between village, district or any other political boundary within a country. International migration is the change of place between countries. It is further classified into immigration and emigration. Immigration is the entrance into a country of individual or groups who have left their nations to

establish a new place of resident (Bhushan, 1994). And emigration refers to the departure of individuals or groups from their home country to take of resident in another country. (Thompson, 1996)

In Nepal, the migration of youth for foreign employment has speedily increased especially after the restoration of multiparty democracy (B.S. 2047) and induction of liberalization policy. In recent years remittances emerged as one of the premier sources of foreign exchange through foreign employment that will have significant bearing on the economic development of Nepal, especially in the context of poverty alleviation (Shrestha, 2004:403).

After the "Sugauli Treaty", impressed by the martial quality of Gorkhalis, even through vanquished at the hands of the British, the British government encouraged Nepalese to join the British-Indian army. After India's independence (1945 AD), both Britain and India have made separate arrangements for continuity of Gorkha requirement (Baral, 1990:20).

With the enactment of Foreign Employment Act, 1985 Nepalese started to migrate beyond India particularly to the Gulf (Saudi Arabia, UAE, Qatar, Kuwait, Oman, etc.) where oil boom has created massive demand for foreign labour (Shrestha, 2004:405). Similarly, in February 2001, the Malaysian government officially "opened" its labour market to Nepali workers. Within six months, over 12,000 labour migrants had left for Malaysia, and a year later Malaysia was hosting some 85,000 Nepali migrant workers (Seddon,2005:4).

Going to the foreign countries for the employment is not considered to be the good indication in long term thinking. The studies conducted in the 1970s (Blaikie, Cameron and Seddon, 1980, Connell, 1975) also reached similar conclusions regarding the importance of 'outside earning' in maintaining livelihood in the hilly regions. But questions were raised as to its impact in the future and its sustainability. For example, Blaikie et al. (1980:281) argued that the existence of this 'safety valve' was in the long run harmful to agrarian change. They wrote the existence of a variety of non-

agricultural income sources (employment in foreign armies and the civil service, business and sources of employment in India in a variety of jobs such as watchman, coolies, labourers on public works projects, etc) has tended to postpone the necessity of responding to the pressure of population by transforming the basis of farm production. They predicted "further out migration of individuals and households." On the other hand, Connell et al. (1975: 21) forecast "increased destitution in the hills of Nepal and the emergence of landless and near landless agricultural labourers wandering across the country in search of work." (Quoted from Seddon et al., 2001: 122-123)

After 1930s onward, Nepal's population started to rise and from 1952/54 onwards, the growth rate increased dramatically. Until 1911-20 the population growth rate was constant or on the decline. The growth rate was -0.13 percent. In between 1920-30, the growth rate was -0.07 percent. After 1930s to the recent time, Nepal is experiencing rapid population growth. Between 1930-40 the growth rate was 1.16 percent and in 1940-52/54 the rate was 2.27 percent.

Table 1: Population Growth Rate During, 1911-2001

Census Year	Population	Growth Rate (%)
1911	5638749	-
1920	5573788	-0.13
1930	5532574	-0.07
1940	6283649	1.16
1952/54	8256625	2.27
1961	9412996	1.64
1971	11555983	2.05
1981	15022839	2.62
1991	18491097	2.08
2001	23151423	2.25

Source: CBS, 2004.

In 1961, the growth rate was 1.64 percent and in 1971, the growth rate was 2.05 percent. In the census of 1981, the growth rate was to be 2.62 percent which is the highest growth rate ever recorded in the history of Nepalese population. But in 1991 census, the growth rate decreased to 2.08 percent only. And in 2001 census, again the growth rate

increased to 2.25 percent. If the growth rate continues as such, Nepal's population will double in the next 32 years.

Table 1 show that the growth rate of population of Nepal is increasing rapidly. Similarly, migrant or absentee population of Nepal is also increasing rapidly; which show the following table:

Table 2: Changes in Absentees Abroad by Destination

Census	Total Population	Absentee Population	Absentee Percent	Destination	
				India	Other
1981	15,022,839	402,977	2.70	375,196 (93.10)	27,781 (6.90)
1991	18,491,097	658,290	3.56	587,243 (89.20)	71,047 (10.80)
2001	23,151,423	762,181	3.30	589,050 (77.30)	173,131 (22.70)

Source: Gurung, 1998.

In 1981, the census enumerated 402,977 persons or 2.7 percent of the total population being absent from the country, of which 375,196 or 93.1 percent went to India. The 1991 census recorded 658,290 absentees abroad, an increase of 63.4 percent over 1981 absentee population. In 2001 census showed 762,181 persons or 3.3 percent of the total population being absent from the country of which 173,131 or 22.7 percent went beyond the India.

The open border between Nepal and India has been one of the main contributory factors to the increasing magnitude of the international migration. Table 2 also shows that the number of absentees out of India by destination is increasing day by day.

In the census of 2001, emigration data were collected for a large number of countries of the world. Emigration data is available for 17 individual Asian countries, 3 European countries and Australia, whereas some of the countries were lumped together such as Russia and other; and USA including Canada and Mexico (Table 3).

Table 3: Population absent from Nepal and destination of foreign countries by Sex 2001.

Countries	Total	Percent	Male	Percent	Female	Percent
Nepal	762181	100.00	679469	89.15	82712	10.85
India	589050	77.28	520500	88.40	68550	11.60
Pakistan	552	0.09	466	84.40	92	11.60
Bangladesh	952	0.12	784	82.40	168	11.60
Bhutan	610	0.10	511	83.80	99	16.20
Sri Lanka	201	0.03	176	87.60	25	12.40
Maldives	370	0.06	334	90.30	36	9.70
China	1354	0.18	1018	75.20	336	24.80
Korea	2679	0.45	2433	90.80	246	9.20
Russia and Others	747	0.10	633	84.70	114	15.30
Japan	3726	0.63	3087	82.90	639	17.10
Hong Kong	12001	1.57	8143	67.90	3858	32.10
Singapore	3363	0.44	2679	79.70	684	20.30
Malaysia	6813	0.89	6742	99.00	71	1.00
Australia	2491	0.42	1991	79.90	500	20.10
Saudi Arabia	67460	8.85	66629	98.80	831	1.20
Qatar	24397	4.14	24208	99.20	189	0.80
Kuwait	3688	0.48	3044	82.50	644	17.50
UAE	12544	2.13	12298	98.00	246	2.00
Bahrain	2737	0.36	2616	95.60	121	4.40
Other Asian Countries	3849	0.65	3130	81.30	719	18.70
United Kingdom	7221	0.95	5997	83.00	1274	17.00
Germany	1638	0.28	1420	86.70	218	13.30
France	250	0.03	197	78.80	53	21.20
Other European Countries	1998	0.34	1640	82.10	358	17.90
USA Canada and Mexico	9557	1.25	7227	75.60	2330	24.40
Other Countries	1877	0.32	1566	83.40	311	16.60

Source: CBS, 2001.

In the census of 2001, the total number of emigrant from Nepal has slightly increased from 587243 persons in 1991 to 589050 in 2001; an increase of 1807 persons or 0.3 percent only, and the Nepalese emigrants to India as percent of the total emigrants has decreased from 89.21 percent in 1991 to 77.28 percent in 2001(See Table 2). This indicates the increasing trend of emigration of Nepalese beyond India to other countries. The second largest destination of the Nepalese emigrants was Saudi Arab,

which accounted for 8.85 percent of the total emigrants followed by Qatar and United Arab Emirates. The total number of Nepalese emigrants to Gulf countries including other countries like Kuwait, United Arab Emirates and Bahrain accounted for 16 percent of the total. Hong Kong is the fourth largest destination of the Nepalese emigrants followed by Japan, Korea and China and the Nepalese emigrants to these East Asian countries together accounted for 2.83 percent of the total emigrants. Malaysia represents the sixth largest destination of Nepalese emigrants and United Kingdom (UK) represents the fifth largest destination.

Until now (fiscal year 2062/063) one hundred and five countries all over the world have been given permission by the government of Nepal for destination countries (Labour Market Bulletin, 2005/06:8). About 693 foreign employment agencies have been registered (until May, 2007) under the Department of Labour to facilitate foreign employment.

1.1.1 Trends in Foreign Labour Migration of Nepal

Until now no attempt has been made to derive an integrated data comprising of all forms of foreign labour migration in Nepal. The available data, therefore, are fragmented and can depict part and partial of the different aspects of foreign labour migration. Part of the problem in deriving reliable data on foreign labour migration also lies on the nature of the phenomenon, as it is very difficult to derive reliable data on illegal migration and trafficking due to its hidden nature (Adhikari and Suwal, 2007).

This section utilizes two types of data to describe trends in foreign labour migration from Nepal. They are census data on emigration (absentees population), and guesstimates on the number of Nepali workers in foreign countries derived by research scholars. It is to be noted that data available from different sources considerably vary and not comparable due to difference in the approaches in data collection and estimated and varying time points of the estimation.

Table 4: Number of Nepali Workers in Foreign Countries from Different Sources

Year	Number of Nepali Workers in Foreign Countries	
	Census ^a (total emigrants)	Guesstimates
1952/54	198,120	
1961	328,470	
1981	402,977	
1991	658,290	
1997 (2053 BS)		India = 1 million ^b Others= 100 T ^b Total= 1.10 million
2001	762,171	
2006		India= 1.50 million ^c Others= 858 T ^d Total= 2.40 million

^aKansakar (2003: 85-119). ^bSeddon et al. (2001:51). ^cAdhikari et al. (2006: 20).
^dAdhikari et al (2006:24).

Source: Adhikari and Suwal, 2007.

These sources indicate that emigration as well as number of Nepali workers in foreign countries increased tremendously over time. Number of emigrants during 1942-2001 increased by about five-folds from 163,000 in 1942 to 762,000 in 2001 (1.4-3.4% of the total population) (Kansakar,2003) (Table 4). Compared to this, the guesstimates data indicate that as many as 1.1 million Nepali workers would have been in foreign countries in the year 1997 and 2.4 million (2,385,000: 1.5 million in India and 858,000 in other countries) in 2006 (Table 4). This indicates that census data on emigration tends to greatly understate the migration of Nepali workers to foreign countries. Obviously, part of the problems in the census data lies on the omission of seasonal migrants to India as census generally do not enumerate those persons as emigrants who have gone abroad for less than six months. Another reason might be exclusion (undercount) of those families in the census who have permanently shifted to overseas countries but their inclusion in the guesstimate. At the same time it is also to note that the guesstimation particularly on the number of workers in India is totally based on a "subjective judgment" (Adhikari et al., 2006:27) and reliability of the guesstimated data needs to be tested.

1.1.2 Official Labour Migration of Nepal

Official data on foreign labour migration represents the annual number of Nepali workers who got final approval from government to go to overseas countries for employment i.e. Contract Labour Official labour migration takes place in two distinct processes; through manpower recruitment companies and individual contacts. Workers intending to go abroad through recruitment companies have to apply through the companies and get final approval from DOLEP and those going with individual (own) contact apply and final approval from the Zonal Labour Office, Bagmati. Till now, 107 countries have been officially opened for foreign employment. Annual data on the number of Nepali workers who got final approval from government to go to overseas countries until mid-2007 are presented in Table 5.

Table 5: Number of Workers Who Got Final Approval from Government to Go to Overseas Countries, Nepal

Year*	Number of Workers
Till 1993/94	3,605
1994/95	2,159
1995/96	2,134
1996/97	3,259
1997/98	7,745
1998/99	27,796
1999/00	35,543
2000/01	55,025
2001/02	104,736
2002/03	105,043
2003/04	106,660
2004/05	139,718
2005/06	177,709
2006/07	204,835
Total	975,967

Source: Adhikari and Suwal, 2007.

Migration of Nepali workers to overseas countries was officially opened up in mid 1980s as facilitated by the FEA 1985 and currently governed by existing rules and regulations. However, sources have indicated that Nepali workers had started to go to overseas countries (unofficially) for employment even before this (MOLTM, 2007).

Table 5 reveals that until mid 2007 nearly on million (975,967) Nepali workers have gone abroad for employment through official channel. In the initial years, official labour migration was not very common. Annually some 2-8 thousands Nepali workers went to overseas through official channel during the 1993/94-1997/98 period. After that it continuously increased and reached to 104,736 in the year 2001/02 which stabilized not exceeding 106,660 in the year 2003/04. Therefore, a sharp increase in the number of workers going overseas through official channel has been observed and it exceeded 204,835 in the year 2006/07. In the recent years (2007/07), about 600 Nepali workers are getting government approval daily to go overseas countries for employment.

1.2 Statement of Research Problem

Migration is one of the most obvious events and Nepal is not an exception. Modern communication and transportation system have eased both internal and external movements reducing costs and risks. So, migration is increasing day by day.

One of Nepal's major exports is labour, and the majority of rural households now depend on at least one member's earning from employment away from home and often from abroad. The 10th plan of Nepal also remarked that the government would direct its efforts towards poverty alleviation through promotion of foreign employment. An estimate about 550,000 youths will be sent in different countries in this period (2002-07) for employment (NPC, 2002: 222).

During the last decade, foreign labour migration has become a major feature of Nepal's economy and society. About 700,000 Nepalese work 'overseas', meaning beyond India, mainly in the West and East Asia, and South Asia. About five percent (35,000) of these are women. At least another 700,000 Nepalese work in the private sector in India, and 250,00 in India's public sector (Seddon,2005;1).

Most of the jobs in which Nepali migrants are employed fall into the general category (low paid) of the 'three Ds' (Difficult, Dirty and Dangerous). One bitter reality is that,

Nepali women who are employed as commercial sex worker in the brothels numerous Indian cities (including Mumbai, Delhi, Calcutta, Lucknow, Vanaras, Banglore, etc.) tend to work in conditions that are degrading to say the least and often involve considerable personal danger (physical violence and infection with STDs and HIV/AIDs) (Seddon et al., 2001:55-57).

A major cause of Nepalese people going abroad for employment is the limited employment opportunities and the weak economic status of the country. The scale of foreign migration has created a shortage of skilled manpower, loneliness and helplessness. And the majority of the migrants are found generally male (Table 3)

The Study area, Kohabara is also affected by enormous scale of emigration. However, no migration records are available in the VDC. No past study has been conducted regarding emigration issues in this area. In this regard, the study mainly attempts to address the following research questions.

- a) What are the socio-economic characteristics of emigrants of the study area?
- b) What are the major causes (push and pull factors) of foreign employment?
- c) What are the socio-economic effects of foreign employment?

1.3 Objectives of Study

This study mainly have there broader objectives to address the aforementioned questions.

- a) To analyze the socio-economic characteristic of emigrants of study area.
- b) To describe the causes (push and pull factors) of foreign employment.
- c) To know the socio-economic effects at the VDC level (study area) due to the foreign employment.

1.4 Signification of the Study

Some of the significations of this study are as follow:

- i) The problem of foreign employment is serious in Nepal. This type of study is the first attempt ever made in Kohabara VDC. It may be useful to some extent for the researchers, students and for those who want to have further study in detail. Similarly, this study may be fruitful to government, planners, policy makers, social workers and others.
- ii) This study may help to supplement source of information to understand foreign employment, its cause and effect in Nepal.
- iii) It is also hoped that this study may also be able to explore the socio-economic and cultural characteristics of foreign migrants.

1.5 Limitations of the Study

This study is based on Kohabara VDC of Jhapa district.

This study is the result of the ideas of foreign returned migrants. There is no any participation of other members of the family.

This study tries to know the causes of foreign employment, why people decided to migrate for employment.

This study also tries to picture out foreign employment and its effects on development activities and household management.

CHAPTER - II

LITERATURE REVIEW

Migration is a movement of human being, which cannot be controlled by the government. Migration is the result of the different causes; Population pressure, small size of land, increase in the subdivision of houses by the laws of inheritance, economic problems, indebtedness, natural calamities, job opportunities, health, communication, transportation and religious war are the main causes of migration. The migrants constitute of different groups with conservative, innovative, temporal and spatial characteristics. Therefore, economists, geographers, sociologists, demographers etc. have studied the history of migration. Researchers and other specialist have also developed the theory and literature on migration.

2.1 Theoretical Literature Review

2.1.1 Historical Perspective on Migration

In a stimulating historical treatment of migration, McNeil (1978) discusses the pivotal role that the geographical movement of human population has played in the process of socio-economic formation and transformation. Martin (1999) reveals that 'Migrants from the developing countries have been a source to fill up the labour shortage in the developed nations under the guest worker policies during the post war period' (1999; 64). Labour migrates mostly from developing to developed countries as guest, seasonal or contract workers. After the oil boom in the Gulf, the destination of migration from Asian developing countries changed. The oil boom fuelled the demand for the labour in the Gulf countries, particularly from Pakistan, Yemen, Bangladesh, India, Philippines, Thailand, Turkey, Sri Lanka, etc. Every year, on average, 6-7 million people migrate from one country to other countries particularly from developing to developed countries in search of foreign employment (Shrestha, 2004: 404).

Foreign labour migration has a long history in Nepal. It started even before the first Nepali men traveled to Lahore in the early 19th century to join the army of Sikh ruler, Ranjit Singh (earning themselves – and all those subsequently employed in foreign armies abroad – the nickname 'Lahure') and even before the recruitment of the first Nepalese to the British 'Gurkhas' in 1815/16 (Seddon et al., 2001)

Since, this labour market for soldiers from Nepal and their off-springs (particularly Hong Kong and Great Britain), has remained of importance until today. The number of recruits to the British army has declined over the years, although many people still join into the Indian army. Today, the majority of Nepali migrants seek civilian employment abroad (Graner and Seddon 2004: 32).

2.1.2 Related Theoretical Literature

The essence of the Push-Pull Model was defined in a paper presented by Ernest George Ravenstein to the Royal Statistical Society on 17 March 1885, and a subsequent paper presented in 1889. Both were titled ambitiously 'The laws of Migration' and represented a major attempt at providing some principles to explain the mechanisms of the migration process as he saw it in both an internal and international context. He also showed that although some migration was directly to large urban centre of attraction there was also a movement by stages. Setting in the direction of the centre of attraction. Another important factor that Ravenstein noted was the existence of a Counter-Stream or Counter-Flow in any migration situation. Perhaps the most significant of his findings however lie in his assertions, first that the development of technology and commerce leads invariably to an increase in migration, and secondly that of all the motives producing currents of migration the economy was parameter; ' the desire inherent in most men to 'better' themselves in material respects.'(Jackson: 1986). He noted a relationship between migration and distance, distinguishing long and short distance migrants. Ravenstein said that longer the distance the lesser would be the volume of migration, and shorter the distance greater would be the volume of migration. According to his laws, migrants move from low opportunity areas to high opportunity

areas. The people of countryside are more migratory rather than those who are natives of town. It assumes a set of factors associated with area of origin and the area of destination. The push factor of migration are land tenure system, pressure of rural poverty, wide dispersion of poverty and income. Likewise, employment opportunities and other economic opportunities, facilities, amenities, glamour of city life, etc. are the pull factor of migration.

Lee (1966) has proposed the 'Push-Pull obstacles' model of the migration on the basis of Ravenstein theory. In this model also the 'pull', 'push' and 'neutral' factors are analyzed. According to Lee, the decision to migrate and the process of migration are determined by the following four factors which include: Factors associated with the area of origin (push), Factors associated with the area of destination (pull), Intervening obstacles (distance cost or lack of transport and communication etc.), and Personal factors (age, sex, education and race).

Todaro (1976) has given the most significant contribution on the large volume of migration literature. According to him, migration mechanism can be explained by the differences in 'expected' rather than those 'actual' earnings between two places. He has formulated migration model where he explains that, migration is stimulated primarily by rational economic considerations of relative benefits and costs, which are mostly financial and also psychological. Similarly, the decision to migrate depends on expected rather than actual wage differentials and, migration rates in excess of new employment opportunity are not only possible but also rational and even likely in the face of wide, new or old expected income differential. Likewise, the probability of obtaining a job in the new sector is inversely related to the unemployment rate in the new sector. He also explains that migration rates in excess of new job opportunity growth rates are not only possible but rational and even likely in the face of wide new-old expected income differentiations. High rates of unemployment in the new sector are therefore inevitable outcomes of the serious imbalance of economic opportunities between new and old areas of most underdeveloped countries.

Ter Heide (1963) expressed his view on migration as "migration may be influenced not only by absolute geographical distance but also by technical distance in terms of communication and transportation facilities and by social distance in term of cultural, linguistics and religious differences between place of origin and destination".

Lewis (1954) described to its macro level analysis international migration is caused by geographic difference in the supply of and demand for labour and countries with a large endowment of labour relatives have a low equilibrium market wage, which is depicted graphically by the familiar interaction of labour supply and demand curves.

Neo-Marxist Dependency authors conceive migration as a socio-economic process rather than as an amalgamation of individual movements with specific reasons and motives (Portes, 1978; Breman, 1979). Migration is conditioned by the externally superimposed structure and material forces. To use Wallerstein's (1974) reasoning migration is a form and mechanism of "labour control" by capital within the capitalist social formation, as such, its intensity intrinsically tied to capitalist expansion. The key to capital utilization and accumulation was labour exploitation which required "the expropriation of the mass of the people from the soil.

As noted by Mark and Engels, the colonial economy also systematically destroyed local handicraft industries, the backbone of both the local forces of production and primitive capital accumulation, to ensure its monopoly and a regular flow of labour (Amin, 1974). Similarly, Harvey (1982) carries Mark's argument one step further: " The more mobile the labourer, the more easily capital can adopt new labour processes and take advantages of superior locations."(1982: 381). Brinkerhoff and White (1991) claim that the end result of foreign-capital penetration is that a small local elite and the state all themselves with foreign capital against their own people. Both the local elites and the foreigner are likely to invest their profits in American or European banks rather than indigenous industries. Thus, investment in the nation may actually decrease (1991: 620).

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Thus migration is not only a product of unequal development, but also perpetuates it as it undercuts the development of local productive forces by removing the most productive segment of the population. Further, the neo-Marxist perspective shows that migration is a direct result and cause of the peripheralization of underdeveloped societies and the international division of labour orchestrated by monopoly capital.

The contemporary literature on migration is replete with both theoretical and empirical studies. Study reveals that, the shape of migration is determined due to factors associated with migrants and place of both (origin and destination). Push-Pull model of Ravenstein outlined relation to distance and volume of migration, and the flow of migrants from low opportunity area to high opportunity areas. Some neo-Marxist authors (Brenan, Wallerstein) have emphasized that migration is a socio-economic process and a mechanism of 'labour control'. A few scholars (Martin, Shrestha, etc) stress on the historical perspective. One common feature of most of these studies of migration is that they are largely focused on the process and determinants of rural to urban flows.

Based on above mentioned theoretical literature review, this study comes close to Ravenstein's Push-Pull model of migration.

2.2 Empirical Literature

Ravenstein (1889), discussed migration from a behavioral perspective as an individual decision-making process. Probably, the most characteristic tenet of his "laws of migration" and analytical approach is that no migration "currents can compare in

volume with that which arises from the desire inherent in most men to better themselves in material aspects" (1989: 286). Migration was viewed as a free choice to maximize utility out of "scarce resources."

Sowell (1996) notes that migrants differ not only in their respective points of origin and destination and in the skills they bring, they differ also in their reason for migrating and in such demographic characteristics as age distribution and sex ratios. Further, he urges that migration tends to be selective rather than random in terms of skills and ambition as in origin and destinations.

K.C. (1998) studied international migration and noted that it has positive impacts in both the countries of origin and the destination, providing former with remittance and the latter with needed human resources. International migration also has potential of facilitating transfer of skill and contribution to cultural enrichment. It enacts the loss of human resources for some countries of origin and give rise to political, economic and social tension in countries of destination (1998: ii) .

Seddon et al., (2001) in *The New Lahures*, attempted to reveal and to consider in a systematic and holistic way the main features and dimensions of foreign labor migration today and the contribution of remittances from abroad to the country of Nepal. It examines the patterns and process involved and the significance of labour migration and remittances for the development of Nepal at the national, regional and local level. While its major focus is what might be termed 'the big picture'(the macro), it also examines in a preliminary fashion, the dynamics and the impact of foreign labour migration and remittances at the village level. And begin to focus their attention on the crucial issues economic, social and political associated with foreign labour migration and the remittance economy of Nepal.

According to Nepal Living Standard Survey II (CBS, 2004) about 37 percent of the enumerated population aged five years and above are found to have been migrated from another VDC or municipality or from outside the country. The rate of migration is

higher for females (50%) than for males (22%) (This is mainly due to marriage migration). Most of the movements form the rural areas (81%) as against from urban areas (6%) and from other countries (12.70%). A large majority reported 'family reason' (75%) as the primary reason for their movement followed by easier for life style (12%) and looking for job (6.80%) (2004: 105).

India is one of the major destination countries for foreign employees from Nepal. The great advantage of labour migration to India is that there is no need for expensive air travel, any passports or visas required and there is at least officially no restriction on access to employment.

New ERA (1981) studied migration situation in Nepal categorizing migration into three parts. According to this study, the migration for certain period like on seeking of job, on purpose of business and trade are categorized in temporary migration. And seasonally, people joining foreign employment like service in the Indian and British armies are categorized as seasonal migrants and those permanently settled in new destination, leaving place of origin are categorized as permanent migrants.

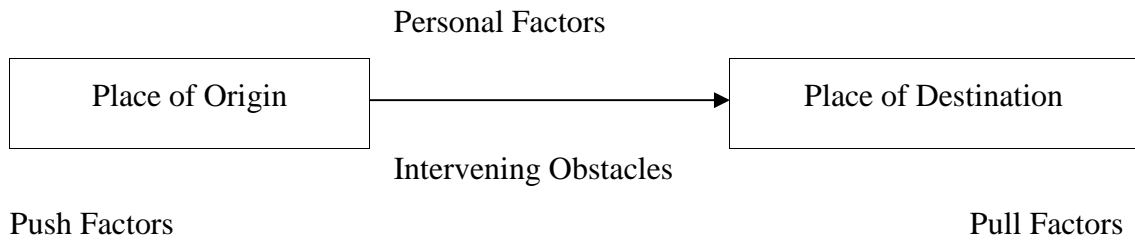
Alam Macfarlane (1976) in an anthropological study of the Gurungs of Nepal in Mohoria village in Kaski district revealed that cash in one of the two major economics sectors along with food stuffs for which people migrate to work, mainly in the army, and their pay and pensions are used to buy gold, clothing, and certain luxuries and households necessities. He further stated that almost exactly half of the income of the households comes from foreign services abroad which pay a crucial role in the Gurungs' economy of the cash flooding from migrant labour. About two-third of the amount brought back from abroad is usually in cash, the rest is in gold, clothes, radios, watches, with gold as the predominant item. He also argued that almost every family involved in foreign employment is heavily indebted, often for very large sums of more than a lakh in Nepalese Rupees. One of the main reasons of borrowing such amounts is for 'agent' to facilitate work abroad. He stated that to go to South Korea or Hong Kong or Japan, families often borrow up to 10 lakhs, on which they pay interest up to ten

percent to seventy percent per year. Frequently the money is lost through theft or police corruption in the country where, often illegally, the migrants are working.

2.3 Conceptual Framework

The framework shows the causes and effects of foreign employment (emigration) and how these link to each other. The push factors or the causes of emigration (unemployment, economy, politics etc.) are taken as factors associated with the area of origin, for pull factors or reason factors or reasons for emigration (easy availability of work, presence of friends etc.) are taken as the factors associated with the area of destination. Similarly, the effect of emigration is categorized into the major area, Social effect and economic effect.

Conceptual Framework of the study is presented below;



CHAPTER –III

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

3.1 Introduction to the Study Area: Kohabara VDC

Nepal is a small landlocked country located between two major Asiatic civilizations: India to the South and Tibet, an autonomous part of China to the North; it has an elongated rectangular shape with roughly north-west to south-west orientation. For political and administrative regions, Nepal is structured along hierarchical lines. Administratively, Nepal is divided in 75 districts. The districts have been regrouped into 14 Zones and 5 development regions to promote development of the country. Jhapa is one of the terai district of Mechi zone of the eastern development region. It is joined with India in the east, Morang in the west, Ilam in the north and India in the south. The headquarter of the district is 'Chandragadhi'. East-West highway stretches from the north of the district. There are 7 election constituencies, three Municipalities called Damak, Bhadrapur and Mechinagar Municipalities, and 47 VDCs. The total population of Jhapa district is 633,042 with 314,627 males and 318,415 females, the proportion of the males and females is 49.70 percent and 50.30 percent, respectively. The total households are 125,947 with an average household size is 5.03 persons per household of the district. The total population of the Kohabara VDC is 10589 with 5137 males and 5452 females; the proportion of males and females is 48.51 percent and 51.49 percent respectively. The total households of Kohabara VDC are 2100 with an average household size is 5.04 persons per household. Literacy rate of the district is 75.6 percent which is the higher than VDC figure (58.04) and the VDC figure is slightly higher than national figure (53.74%). The economically active population (10 years and above of the VDC is 69.17 percent. CBS, 2002).

Kohabara Village Development Committee lies in the terai region and in the Central-West direction of the district. This VDC is surrounded by Maharanijhoda, Juropani, Khajurjachhi VCD in the east, Morang district in the west, Khajurgachhi VDC in the south, and Lakhanpur VDC and Damak Municipality in the north direction. The VDC

is also surrounded by two big rivers, 'Chandu Khola' in the east and 'Ratuwa Khola' in the west. Kohabara VDC's total area of approximately 51 sq.kms. The VDC consists of 100 percent plain land.

3.2 Research Design

Research design in demographical or sociological project can be said to be the plan of action, the strategy and the structure. The basic purpose of research design is to provide answer to research question and to control variance, i.e. to control the experimental, extraneous, and error variances of the particular research problem under study (Kerlinger, 2005:300)

The present design is exploratory (to some extent, explore the new things/ideas about research problem) as well as analytical (to describe the facts related to research problem) in nature, while studying the social, economic, cultural and other aspects relation with foreign migration. It explores the income trend of sample households, uses of remittance and other characteristics of migrant workers in terms of education, age, sex, caste/ethnicity etc.

3.3 Selection of Sample size

This study is based on Kohabara VDC of Jhapa district. Those people who have gone for foreign employment for at least six months within last five years has been taken not as per the national/international standard measure, but, for the case of analysis of their earning (on foreign employment) on their living standards. Longer period has not been considered because the effect results due to involvement in other employment, professions within the country or completely expended foreign earning.

Initially, a pilot survey was conducted in all wards of Kohabara VDC, and a list of respondents who fall under the above mentioned criteria was derived. This survey shows that there were a total of 89 migrants; out of which 42 had returned from India

and rest 47 were from other countries. And surprisingly, not a single woman did fall within our study criteria. During the study, only 7 females were found, who had returned from India, but they were only accompanied their husband for roaming. None of the females were found return from foreign other than India.

For the achievement of study objectives, all respondents listed in the pilot survey were interviewed personally in detail. Due to the rainy season (August/September), most of the villagers were busy in their farm for rice cultivation, and some respondents were out of village and did not return till the end of the field study period (i.e. August 25 – September 30, 2008). Out of 89 total respondents, 75 were, however, met and necessary information was gathered. Of the 75 respondents, 30 had returned from India and rest had returned from countries other than India, especially Gulf, and Malaysia. Information taken from about 84 percent respondents (in this case 75 respondents, out of 89) can be generalized with rest 16 percent because those left were represent not a single ward but overall wards, castes, age groups etc. Thus, it can be claimed that, our study is close to a census survey.

3.4 Nature and Source of Data

This study is based mainly on the primary data although it depends on secondary data for general information regarding study area problem.

Primary Data: In terms of the aims and objectives of the study we needed information on the movements of migrants, their occupational history, the causes of their movement and so on. Such information was not readily available in any of the secondary sources of information. As such it was necessary for us to generate such primary data directly from the field by contacting the mobile men and their family personally. Accordingly, the primary data of this study was collected by means of intensive field investigation carried out at the micro level of village of Kohabara. Selected respondents were interviewed and required data collected.

Secondary Data: However, data on certain other aspects of our study was readily available in some secondary sources. Thus, for example, much of information needed to present a 'Profile of Kohabara VDC: the study setting' was available in such diverse secondary sources as the census reports, Village Development Committee, District Development Committee, printed books, booklets, published articles by researcher and other scholars etc.

3.5 Sampling Method

Purposive sampling method was the main sampling method of the study. First of all, 75 sample sizes were determined purposively and the respondents were male only.

3.6 Method of Data Analysis

Most of the questions in the questionnaire were pre-coded and close-coded but some semi-coded questions were also included. At first, filled questionnaire were manually checked (scrutinized) for the further errors and then all data were entered into computer using Dbase and SPSS (Statistical Package for Social Sciences). Based on responses, open-ended and semi-closed questions were post-coded. Then after, carefully edited to find out the entry errors and maintain data quality. Further, mean and cross tabulation were generated by the very software program of computer.

For the analysis of data, quantitative data has been analyzed by using different statistical tools i.e. percentage, average number etc. and for this purpose mostly simple tabulations are used.

3.7 Instrument of Data Collection

For the collection of necessary primary data researcher has used mainly the following tools/instruments.

3.7.1 Household Survey Questionnaire: For interview with the respondents, structured household questionnaire were used to meet the above mentioned objectives. Structured questionnaire are those which pose definite, concrete and pre-ordinate on the spot during the questioning period. (Young, 1998: 190).

3.7.2 Observation: Some information was collected through observation. Non participatory observation method was used to obtain qualitative information in which the livelihoods of the households are included. Observation of physical and cultural environment, especially the details of the respondent's house structure, furnishing, clothes and surroundings were observed.

3.7.3 Case Studies: For a deeper understanding of returned migrants and their family, some case studies were done. Through the case studies, we can gain insight into how a migrant and his family cope with the problem caused by foreign employment and what kind of changes occurred in their lives as a consequence of foreign employment. Here, there case studies have been presented.

CHAPTER - IV

DEMOGRAPHIC AND SOCIO-ECONOMIC CHARACTERISTICS

4.1 Demographic and Socio-Economics Characteristics of Kohabara VDC

Agriculture is the main occupation of the village and it is largely supplemented by animal husbandry and, nowadays, by Foreign Service. According to the VDC office record of 2001, it has 10589 populations with 5137 males and 5452 females and 2100 households. The average household size is 5.04, which is slightly higher than the district average (5.03) and the slightly lower than the national average (5.44). Male and female population comprises 48.51 percent and 51.49 percent respectively of the total population. The literacy rate (6 years of age and above) of the Kohabara VDC is 58.04 percent, which is lower than the district figure (75.6%) and slightly higher than national figure (53.74%). Likewise, the economically active population (10-60 yrs.) of the VDC is 69.17 percent. The highest portion of the population by caste is Bramin-Hill (30.20%) and Hindu (80.88%) by region. The detail demographic and socio-economic settings of Kohabara VDC are analyzed below.

4.1.1 Age and Sex Structure

The proportion of male and female is 48.51 percent and 51.49 percent, respectively. The age and sex structure is categorized into 5 years of age group and among these groups 5-9 years has the highest percentage i.e. 12.76 and 70-74 years has the lowest percentage i.e. 1.25.

Table 6: Age and Sex Composition

Age groups	Male		Female		Total	
	Population	Percentage	Population	Percentage	Population	Percentage
0-4	616	5.82	568	5.36	1184	11.18
5-9	659	6.22	692	6.54	1351	12.76
10-14	690	6.52	642	6.06	1332	12.58
15-19	632	5.97	690	6.52	1322	12.48
20-24	427	4.03	560	5.29	987	9.32
25-29	335	3.16	444	4.19	779	7.36
30-34	319	3.01	350	3.31	669	6.32
35-39	277	2.62	282	2.66	559	5.28
40-44	221	2.09	283	2.67	504	4.76
45-49	227	2.14	252	2.38	479	4.52
50-54	196	1.85	195	1.84	391	3.69
55-59	162	1.53	140	1.32	302	2.85
60-64	130	1.23	123	1.16	253	2.39
65-69	104	0.98	80	0.76	184	1.74
70-74	70	0.66	62	0.59	132	1.25
75 above	72	0.68	89	0.84	161	1.52
Total	5137	48.51	5452	51.49	10589	100.00

Source: CBS, 2001.

*Jhapa is the affected district in 2001 Census.

Likewise, 10-14 and 15-19 age groups are the second and third highest proportion having 12.58 percent and 12.48 percent respectively.

Age group is an important aspect of demography which shows the potential growth and economically active population. As defined above, the population of age group 0-14 (young) and 60 and above (old) is dependent and population of age group 15-59 (adult) is active. The ratio of dependent and independent population directly affects the economy as well as other development work. Here, the dependency population of Kohabara VDC is compared with Nepal. Table 7 shows the comparison.

Table 7: Dependent Population of Kohabara and Nepal

Type	Kohabara*		Nepal**	
	Population	Percentage	Population	Percentage
Child (0-14)	3867	36.52	8948587	38.65
Old (60 and over)	730	6.89	1477379	6.38
Total Dependent Population	4597	43.41	10425966	45.03
Total Population	10589	100	23151423	100

Source: *CBS, 2001.

** CBS, 2004.

Table 7 presents the lower child dependency population (36.52%) in Kohabara VDC than that of Nepal (38.65%). The old dependency population of Kohabara is slightly higher proportion than that of Nepal having 6.89 percent and 6.38 percent respectively. Hence, in aggregate the dependency population of Kohabara is slightly lower (43.41%) than that of Nepal (45.03%).

4.1.2 Caste/Ethnic Composition

The VDC is inhabited by various castes and ethnic groups. Therefore, Kohabara is characterized by multi-ethnic and multi-lingual character. Table 8 presents the population of the VDC on the basis of caste/ethnic composition. The table shows that Bramin-Hill constituted major portion of the VDC population which is 30.20 percent of the total population. After, Bramin-Hill, Chhetri occupies second major portion of the total population that is 21.00 percent or 2223 persons of the total population.

Table 8: Caste/Ethnic Composition of Kohabara VDC

Castes	Population	Percent	Castes	Population	Percent
Bramin-Hill	3198	30.20	Yadav	48	0.45
Chhetri	2223	21.00	Gurung	29	0.27
Tajpuriya	836	7.89	Kayastha	28	0.26
Limbu	661	6.24	Chamar/Harijan	28	0.26
Rajbanshi	613	5.79	Bramin-Terai	26	0.25
Newar	414	3.91	Majhi	18	0.17
Kami	293	2.77	Nuniya	17	0.16
Gangai	229	2.16	Sunuwar	16	0.15
Rai	187	1.77	Yakkha	16	0.15
Santhal/Sattar	183	1.73	Koiri	14	0.13
Damai/Dholi	167	1.58	Unidentified Dalit	14	0.13
Mushahar	150	1.42	Churaute	12	0.11
Tamang	133	1.26	Sarki	11	0.10
Tharu	127	1.20	Tatma	11	0.10
Barae	123	1.16	Sanyasi	9	0.08
Unidentified Caste	116	1.10	Dadhae	9	0.08
Halwai	87	0.82	Kalwar	7	0.07
Magar	71	0.67	Kanu	7	0.07
Dimal	68	0.64	Hajam/Thakur	5	0.05
Jhangar/Dhagar	56	0.53	Other	5	0.05
Kurmi	56	0.53			

Source: CBS, 2001.

Likewise, Tajpuriya comprises 7.89 percent of the total population. After these, Limbu, Rajbashi and Newar come with 6.24 percent, 5.79 percent and 3.91 percent of the total population, respectively. Likewise, Kami constitutes 2.77 percent; Gangai constitutes 2.16 percent of the total VDC's population, respectively. Kanu and Hajam/Thakur have the lowest proportion (0.07% and 0.05%) in the VDC.

4.1.3 Literacy Status

Literacy status of Kohabara VDC is satisfactory in comparison with the nation. More than 58 percent of the total population (6 yrs of age and above) falls in the category that can read and write (Table 9). The portion of can't read and write is 34.86 percent of the

total population. On the other hand, only 7.10 percent of the total population can read. Below, table 9 shows the literacy status of Kohabara VDC.

Table 9: Literacy Status 6 Years of Age and Over

Castes	Population	Percentage
Can't read and write	3212	34.86
Can read only	655	7.10
Can read and write	5348	58.04
Total	9215	100.00

Source: CBS, 2001.

4.1.4 Marital Status

According to table 10 married (with single spouse) population has the highest portion in the Kohabara, which is 53.67 percent of the total 10 years of age and over population.

Table 10: Marital Status: Population 10 Years of Age and Over

Status	Population	Percentage
Single	2985	36.98
Married (Single Spouse)	4333	53.67
Married (More than one spouse)	247	3.06
Remarried(Single spouse)	204	2.53
Widow/Widower	245	3.03
Divorced	8	0.10
Separate	42	0.52
Not Stated	9	0.11
Total	8073	100.00

Source: CBS, 2001.

Likewise, the population of unmarried of single is 36.98 percent, which is the second highest percentage regarding the marital status of population, married (More than one spouse) and Widow/Widower populations are 3.06 percent and 3.03 percent, respectively. Remarried Separate and Divorce constitute 2.53 percent 0.52 percent and

0.10 percent, respectively. Marital status is not stated by 0.11 percent of the total population.

4.2 Demographic and Socio-Economic Characteristics of Respondents

During the field survey questionnaires were filled from 75 respondents. According to information recorded from the 75 respondents, it has total population of 250, female 50.91 percent and male 49.09 percent. Out of the total 75 respondents, all were male. The details of demographic and socio-economic characteristics of respondents are analyzed below.

4.2.1 Age Composition

Age is an important demographic variable that affects the population mobility. Table 11 presents about 92 percent of respondents have emigrated in between 16-36 age groups, which is an economically very active population.

Table 11: Age Breakdown of Respondents at the Time of Their First Move

Age Group	Respondents	Percentage
Below 16	4	5.33
16-21	15	20.00
21-26	30	40.00
26-31	19	25.33
31-36	5	6.67
36 and above	2	2.67
Total	75	100.00

Source: Field Survey, 2008.

Above table shows that age between 21-26 has the highest proportion (40.00 %) when the emigrants were in their first move for foreign employment. Age groups 26-31 and 16-21 have the second and third highest proportion (25.33% and 20.00% respectively) when the emigrants were in their first move for foreign employment. Study also reveals that below 16 years of age groups were also emigrated. The proportion is 5.33 percent.

Specially, those who have been emigrated to India comprise this age group. 2 emigrants are found in 36 and above age group having 2.67 percent of the total respondents. Generally, the age of 36 and above, man's physical capacity goes on decline, but responsibilities and burdens start to increase.

4.2.2 Caste/Ethnic Composition

The population of Kohabara consists of the various ethnic groups. Similarly, among the respondents various caste/ethnic groups are observed.

Table 12: Caste/Ethnic Composition of Respondents

Caste/Ethnic groups	Respondents	Percentage
Bramin	25	33.33
Limbu	15	20.00
Dalit	10	13.33
Chhetri	9	12.00
Tharu	8	10.67
Dimal	6	8.00
Rai	2	2.67
Total	75	100.00

Source: Field Survey, 2008.

Of the total 75 respondents, Bramin constituted the largest group. This group comprised about 33.33 percent of the total respondents which is more similar to VDC's population figure (Table 8). Limbu, Dalit and Chhetri rank second, third, and fourth, comprising 20.00 percent, 13.33 percent and 12.00 percent of the total respondents, respectively. Likewise, Tharu comprised 10.67 percent and Dimal is 8.00 percent. Rai is 2.67 percent of the total respondents which is the lowest group of all.

4.2.3 Educational Status

Education is one of the most important social characteristics of population. It is a vital and key factor foreign employment. The quality of work and wage depends upon the

emigrants' skill and education. But, unfortunately, still most of the emigrants are unskilled and lowly educated in Kohabara.

Table 13: Educational Attainment of Respondents

Educational level	Respondents	Percentage
Illiterate	1	1.33
Literate	22	29.33
Primary	24	32.00
Secondary	26	34.67
Higher	2	2.67
Total	75	100.00

Source: Field Survey, 2008.

Table 13 presents, more than 98 percent of the total respondents are literate which is very high proportion than that of VDC's ratio (Table 9). This is because foreign goings is generally young of 16-35 years age group. Their literacy rate also remains higher comparatively to other age group of population, however the total population of VDC consists child and old aged people. Table also shows that the respondent having higher level education (SLC and above) is very poor. Only two respondents (2.67%) of the total respondents. Likewise, 34.67 percent of the total respondent has secondary level education and 32.00 percent respondent has primary level education. The figure proves that the school dropout situation is quite high in Kohabara due to the foreign employment.

4.2.4 Marital Status

Marriage is an institution of society which can have very different implications in different clusters. Its purpose functions and forms may differ from society to society, but it present everywhere as an institution (Rao 2005: 327). Marital status affects the migratory movement of people. It is found that married are more migratory than unmarried because they are compelled to look after their family.

Table 14: Marital Status of Respondents at the Time of Study

Caste/Ethnic groups	Respondents	Percentage
Married	58	77.33
Unmarried	17	22.67
Total	75	100.00

Source: Field Survey, 2008.

Table 14 shows that 77.33 percent of the total respondents are married. The figure is very high than that of VDC's marital status (Table 10). Only 22.67 percent respondents are reported that they are unmarried.

4.2.5 Family Type

Families of migrants selected of Kohabara are categorized into two distinct classes. First class is nuclear; a nuclear family is one which consists of husband, wife and their unmarried children. The second one is joint also known as 'undivided family'. It normally consists of members who at least belong to three generations: husband and wife, their married and unmarried children; and their married as well as unmarried grandchildren (Rao, 2005: 356-358). Family type of selected households is shown in table 15

Table 15: Family Types of Respondents

Family Types	Respondents	Percentage
Nuclear	34	45.33
Joint	41	54.67
Total	75	100.00

Source: Field Survey, 2008.

Table 15 shows that the family compositions of selected respondents are dominated by joint family. The proportion of joint and nuclear family are 54.67 percent and 45.33 percent of the total respondents, respectively.

This study found Bramin and Chhetri Castes have more joint family comparatively to other castes (Table 12). Out of 25 Bramin respondents, 15 were found living in joint family.

4.2.6 Landholding Pattern

Agriculture being the main source of livelihood of the population, attachment to land has got psychological, social and economic values in Kohabara. Table 16 shows the land holding pattern of the respondents. The land in table is divided into three categories namely; irrigated (wet), non-irrigated (dry), and grassland (Kharbari). Firstly, more than 98 percent respondent has any dry land but not wet land and grassland. Secondly, grassland is considered unproductive land for agriculture production. And lastly, in regards to livestock population and its effects on family, especially women, it is necessary to mention about grassland separately. Every respondent has livestock population, but all of them do not have grassland. They have to manage fodder for their animals, from other means, that is jungle, for which they have to spend more time for searching and collecting grass than those who have grassland of their own. The distribution of land among respondents is so uneven that is important to categorize the land.

Table 16: Distribution of Landholding Pattern (in Kattha)

Wet land			Dry land			Grass land		
Size	Respondents	Percentage	Size	Respondents	Percentage	Size	Respondents	Percentage
Landless	26	34.67	Landless	1	1.33	Landless	54	72.00
1-5	31	41.33	1-5	29	38.67	1-5	14	18.67
6-10	14	18.67	6-10	31	41.33	6-10	3	4.00
11+	4	5.33	11-15	5	6.67	11+	4	5.33
			16-20	3	4.00			
			21+	6	8.00			
Total	75	100.00	Total	75	100.00	Total	75	100.00

Source: Field Survey, 2008.

Table 16 presents that about 34.67 percent of the total respondents have no irrigated (wet) land. Similarly, only 1.33 percent and a large portion 72.00 percent of the total

respondents have not any dry land and grassland, respectively. Majority of the respondents have 1-10 kattha land.

From our field observation and survey it was found that one respondent belonging dalit does not have any type of land. It is also observed that families occupying irrigated land are taken as prestigious. In conclusion, it can be said that majority of the people have small size of landholding.

Table 16 shows that 41.33 percent of the total respondents have 1-5 kattha wetlands, 38.67 percent have dry land and 18.67 percent of the total respondents have grassland. Likewise, 18.67 percent, 41.33 percent and 4.00 percent of the total respondents are occupying 6-10 kattha wetland, dry land and grassland, respectively. Only 5.33 percent of the total respondents have more than 11 kattha wetland and grassland. Whereas, 8.00 percent of the total respondents have more than 21 kattha dry land. Among them, one respondent belonging Bramin caste has more than 36 kattha dry land.

4.2.7 Food Sufficiency

Food grain requirement of the individual households varies according to family size as well as consumption behavior. Likewise, food grain production of the households also varies due to various causes such as types of land, landholding pattern etc. A large proportion of the populations in Kohabara are unable to fulfill food requirement of their family by their own production. Food sufficiency of respondents in the study area is presented in table 17.

Table 17: Duration of Food Sufficiency

Duration (in month)	Respondents	Percentage
Less than 3	2	2.67
3-6	17	22.67
6-9	32	42.67
9-12	11	14.66
Whole year	13	17.33
Total	75	100.00

Source: Field Survey, 2008.

Of the total respondent 75, only 17.33 percent could fulfill their food requirement for whole year. Large portion of respondent reported that their own production is sufficient for six months only. Likewise, the sufficiency period of 3-6 and below 3 months have reported 22.67 percent and 2.67 percent of the total respondent, respectively.

From above analysis, we can conclude that most of the families have to face food deficit. They buy their foods from shops or borrow from neighbours and relatives for rest of the months. Limited land ownership, low productivity and high dependency on monsoon rain are some of the prominent causes for the food deficiency in Kohabara for migrant

4.2.8 Animal Husbandry

Animal husbandry is an integral part of the agriculture of this area. Most of the households keep some animals. Cow, ox, buffalo, goat, pig, and chicken/dusks are the main live stocks. Majority of the households do not graze their animals in the pasture due to lack of Charanland. The productivity of the animals is also low due to the lack of proper care. Most of the livestock kept by households are of local breed. Basically, cow and buffalo are kept for milk while oxen for ploughing field. Similarly, goats, chicken, pigs for meat and money. Pigs are generally raised by households of lower caste group.

Table 18: Number of Livestock by Households

Types	Respondents	No. of livestock	Average number
Buffalo	66	148	2.24
Ox	41	78	1.90
Cow	29	46	1.60
Goat	63	315	5.00
Duck/Chicken	66	572	8.66
Pig	20	32	1.60

Source: Field Survey, 2008.

Table 18 presents that the majority of households have kept buffalo, goats and chicken/ducks. Likewise, cow and pig have kept only 29 and 20 households of the total 75 households, respectively and, the average number of livestock is 1.60 only. Of the total 75 households 66 households have kept buffalo with an average number 2.24. The average number of ox, goat and duck/chicken was 1.90, 5.00 and 8.66, respectively.

4.2.9 Duration of Stay Abroad

Based on our field survey, we can say that foreign employment has relatively success in Kohabara, because, about 95 percent emigrants have more than one year duration of stay abroad. According to table 19, the duration of residence of stay abroad is not similar among the emigrants. The highest proportion (46.67%) is captured by 2-4 years duration. Most of the emigrants who fall in this category have gone to Gulf States and Malaysia. Within 2-4 years duration, most of them return home for vacation or for good.

Table 19: Duration of Stay Abroad

Duration (in year)	Respondents	Percentage
Below one year	3	4.00
1-2	11	14.67
2-4	35	46.67
4-6	14	18.66
6 and above	12	16.00
Total	75	100.00

Source: Field Survey, 2008.

Likewise, the second highest duration is 4-6 years with 18.66 percent. Duration of 6 years and above has the third highest position with 16.00 percent. Most of the emigrants from India exist in this category. Generally longer period stay in abroad was reasoned to be clearverness of their wives. They expressed that they are not worried to stay longer period on abroad due to their wives effective household management as compared to themselves. Some unsuccessful emigrants returned their home spending one year's duration.

CHAPTER - V

CAUSES AND EFFECTS OF FOREIGN EMPLOYMENT

5.1 CAUSES OF EMIGRATION (Foreign Employment)

Access to employment abroad is determined by a variety of factors both at home and abroad. Personal network and linkages, the structure of access to employment, manpower agencies, etc. are the variety of factors which determined emigration in Nepal.

The number of Nepalese migrant workers seeking jobs in countries other than India has been growing rapidly (Table 2) for three main reasons. Firstly, Nepal's population has been growing at a rapid rate (Table 1). Secondly, the agricultural sectors providing employment to bulk of the population has not been able to grow and expand fast enough to absorb growing manpower. Thirdly, wages both in Nepal and India are too little to support a family.

International migration are primarily caused by what M. Weiner calls "Cluster variables" – Wage differential, distance and transportation cost, "affinity variables" such as religion, culture, language, and kinship networks and "access variables" that usually belong to the domain of economics (quoted from Baral, 1990:4). Annual outflow of international labour migration has been increased about 90 percent between the years 1981 to 2001 (Table 2). It is believed that this increase has been associated with both an increase in demand of worker in West Asia (where oil boom has created massive demand for foreign labour) and South Korea. Lately (February, 2001), Malaysia government officially opened its labour market to Nepali worker. The increase of number of agencies together with increase of semi-skilled worker looking for work outside the country has further contributed to this increase. With rapid population growth (2.25 percent per annum in 2001), economic stagnancy, limited employment opportunities and increased insurgent activities in the rural areas together

with state's increased security operation, more and more young adults are looking for employment opportunities outside the country.

In the case of Kohabara VDC several causes of international labour migration have been traced out during the field survey. The causes are categorized in two groups, factors associated with the area of origin and factors associated with the area of destination. In the study, these factors have been analyzed quantitatively and qualitatively on the basis of its priority.

5.1.1 Factors Associated with Origin (Push Factors)

The information obtained from 75 emigrants currently present at home, was understood that push factors are quite salient for emigration from this VDC. The following reasons are identified on the basis of priority as factors associated with origin only for foreign employment in Kohabara. During the field survey causes were asked on the basis of priorities. So, at first following causes are analyzed as main causes or on the basis of first priority. Later reasons of emigration are analyzed on the basis of second and third priorities.

Table 20: Main Reason of Emigration: Factors Associated with Origin

Causes	Respondents	Percentage
Unemployment	48	64.00
Indebtedness	13	17.33
Lack of agricultural land	5	6.67
Family pressure	4	5.33
Present political situation	5	6.67
Total	75	100.00

Source: Field Survey, 2008.

5.1.1.1 Unemployment

In general, unemployment means the state of being unable to sell one's labour-power in the labour-market despite being willing to do so (Marshall, 1994: 679). The problem of

unemployment is a serious one and it leads to a number of consequences, like social disorganization, family disorganization, personal disorganization etc. Unemployment, if not checked or controlled, may ultimately prepare the way for social disorganization. Due to unemployment, people fail to live up to the expectations of society. Some of them may even resort to anti-social activities. It tempts or provokes them resort to begging, to indulge in criminal activities, to fall a prey to gambling, drug addiction, drunkenness, etc. Unemployment is not only a societal problem it is also an individual problem. An unemployed person losses self-respect and faces a discouraging and a disappointing outlook (Rao, 2005: 597-598).

The one and only highest cause is associated with origin for foreign employment is unemployment. The national problem also appears in this VDC as a vital issue. The nation's poverty reduction strategy under the Tenth Five Year Plan, 2002-2007 have accorded high priority to foreign employment as a source of labour absorption and poverty alleviation (Shrestha, 2004: 408). Unemployment was given first priority by 64.00 percent of the total respondents. Whereas, the national figure shows that the total estimated unemployment rate goes up to 17.4 percent by the end of the Ninth Five Year Plan (Ministry of Finance, 2003).

More and more cash is needed for people to consume different things of daily needs. Food production is not sufficient and people have to buy it from market and other villages. Furthermore, population is increasing and the consumption of services and need of education, health and others are increasing day by day in each household. It also needs cash. The source of cash income is scarce in the village expect few government services like teaching (due to these reasons, villagers are compelled to emigrate to India and other countries in search of job opportunities). Therefore, ultimately, unemployment has compelled them to seek employment abroad

5.1.1.2 Indebtedness

Incurring debt itself is not a good aspect. Nobody wants to be indebted. Generally, every person wants to be financially sound. Village area (small area), where every person's financial status is transparent; who has got the debt and how much? Who holds the bank balance and how much? And who has purchase land and house, where and how much? etc. is known to neighbour/villagers. If somebody is indebted then his social status is undermined and society's view towards him won't be better.

Indebtedness is the second highest cause (17.33%) of foreign employment in Kohabara VDC reported by respondent. Even in second and third priority columns it ranked in first and third position and proportion are 52.00 percent and 21.33 percent of the total respondents, respectively (Table 21). Indebtedness follows after the lack of cash income. There is not easily available source of income. It is compulsory to consume certain things like education, health facilities etc. which are the basic needs. Cash is borrowed from money lenders for it. Due to lack of employment opportunities or cash/income this debt continuous to be increased. Unfortunately, they aren't success to clear debt and compelled to go abroad for employment to clear it.

5.1.1.3 Lack of Agricultural Land

The importance of agriculture land for a farmer is as much as labour for any company or a factory. People returned from foreign employment in Kohabara are mostly (about 72%) farmers, thus for this area agricultural land is of immense importance. Agricultural land, specially irrigated land is taken as the symbol of social prestige.

In the first priority column lack of agricultural land has got the third highest position with 6.67 percent of the total respondents. But, the proportion is increased by 6.67 percent and 4.00 percent in the second and third priority column, respectively (Table 21). It reveals that most of the emigrated households haven't sufficient agricultural land (Table 16) to support their livelihood (it originate food self insufficiency as well as

unemployment situation). The VDC has unequal land distribution; most of these lands were unirrigated (Table 16) and highly affected by floods in rainy season. Agricultural land is badly affected by regular use of pesticides and insecticides as well as other poisonous chemicals. As a result, the agricultural production decreased day by day. So, the limited agricultural land became unsupportive for the dwellers of Kohabara and that compelled them to search another option for their survival as foreign employment.

5.1.1.4 Family Pressure

Family is the simplest and the most elementary form of a society. It plays the important role in society formation and operation. Every family wants to be respectful and financially capable in a society. As usual, any parents for their child, or any spouse to their partner wants to see respected in the society. Thus, to unkeep the social prestige and respect, some persons are compelled to decide for foreign employment against their own willingness.

According to the field survey, in the first priority column 5.33 percent of the total respondents have reported that they have gone abroad due to their family pressure (unwillingly). But, the third priority column reveals that, it is a dominant cause to push the youths from village. It takes second position and increased by 17.34 percent. Some youths aren't interested in foreign employment but, their family member pushed them to go abroad for work. Specially, some parents who have seen the good income of their neighbours from foreign employment compelled their sons to go abroad.

5.1.1.5 Present Political Situation

In the recent year (about 2 years ago), the country was highly affected by Maoist insurgent activities and the situation of peace and security were highly deteriorated (through the Maoist has come now in peace process. And until now this process has not been completed). However, Kohabara has not been badly affected by these activities. Despite this situation, few respondents 6.67 percent reported that the present political

situation as a main factor for foreign employment from Kohabara. But, in the second and third priority column the proportions are highly increased 6.67 and 30.66 percent, respectively. It reveals that to some extent people are affected by the present political situation.

Table 21: Reasons of Emigration in Second and Third Priority: Factor Associated with Origin

Causes	Second priority		Third priority	
	Respondents	Percentage	Respondents	Percentage
Unemployment	12	16.00	6	8.00
Indebtedness	39	52.00	16	21.33
Lack of agricultural land	10	13.33	8	10.67
Family pressure	4	5.33	17	22.67
Present political situation	10	13.34	28	37.33
Total	75	100.00	75	100.00

Source: Field Survey, 2008.

Table 21 presents, the proportion of factors associated with origin in second and third priority. Unemployment and Indebtedness are the first and second main reasons of emigration in Kohabara. In second and third priority, unemployment ranks in second and fifth position, respectively. Likewise, in second and third priority columns Indebtedness ranks, in first and third position, respectively. Similarly, present political situation in third priority column ranks in first position. Lack of agricultural land, family pressure is also main reasons of emigration associated with push factors.

5.1.2 Factor Associated with Destination (Pull Factors)

It has already being mentioned about the push factors. The pull factors are also responsible for emigration of Nepalese people. The majority of the people have chosen India as their destination as well as some to other countries. As we have seen that among 42.86 percent of the total respondents were returned from India alone and remaining others 57.14 percent from other than India.

The trend of emigration to India supports the 'Ravenstein's law', which states that migrants try to minimize distance. Ravenstein said that longer the distance lesser would be the volume of emigration and shorter the distance greater would be the volume of migration. Out migration from Kohabara VDC area reflects this situation. Returned migrants reported several reasons for choosing destination country. These reasons are as follows;

- Less costly (low investment).
- No need of special skills and higher education.
- Higher wage rate
- Rules of easy entry and exit.
- Demonstration effect, etc.

Table 22: Main Reasons of Emigration: Factors Associated with Destination

Causes	Respondents	Percentage
Low investment	23	30.67
No need of special skill and higher education	20	26.67
Higher wage rate	14	18.67
Rules of easy entry and exit	13	17.33
Demonstration effect	5	6.66
Total	75	100.00

Source: Field Survey, 2008.

5.1.2.1 Low Investment

One of the main criterions for the emigration is necessity of investment. The sum needed to get to a certain country, these cost include travel cost (bus or aero plane ticket), visa cost and also the commission of the recruiting agency or the broker.

These costs differ a lot for the distinct countries of destination. So, according to the investment view point obviously India has very low investment with compare to other countries. Migrants have to pay only bus ticket, which cost around 500 to 2000 Nepalese currency. Therefore, most of the respondents fall in this category. But, as we

have seen that India is not the favourite country for labour migration and it has decreasing trend (Table 2). In our study, 30.67 percent of the total respondents have assured that the low investment is a cause of pull factors for foreign migration.

5.1.2.2 No Need of Special Skill and Higher Education

As we have mentioned in previous chapter that most of the Nepalese who have gone abroad for work from Kohabara are employed in low paying, tedious and even dangerous and degrading work (much cited by migrants themselves). Most emigrants are unskilled and have low education status (Table 13). According to this study 34.67 percent and 2.67 percent of the total respondents have only secondary and higher level of education, respectively. This figure presents that youths, who have gone abroad are not skillful and have low educational status (more than 62% respondents are below primary level). During the field survey 26.67 percent of the total respondents reported that, 'no need of special skill and higher education' as factor associated with destination for their migration (Table 22).

5.1.2.3 Higher Wage Rate

Migrants see their jobs only as a means to earn money. The local jobs enable them to increase their social status and prestige at home. Those jobs, which are attainable to people of Kohabara, are mostly manual labour in construction of local houses, roads, agricultural labour etc. These jobs are poorly paid. Therefore, to seek the 'Dherai Paisa Kamaune', which is enough to feed their family, is possible through foreign employment for the youth of Kohabara. 18.67 percent of the total respondents are reported that the higher wage rate abroad was their main factor associated with the area of destination.

5.1.2.4 Rules of Easy Entry and Exit

Currently, flow of foreign employment in Kohabara is towards Gulf States and Malaysia. Visa and work permit are compulsory in these countries but Manpower Company works as a mediator between migrants and destination. In the case of India they don't need visa and work permit. So, for India people don't consider 'rules of entry and exit' as a cause associated with destination.

Since, Nepal and India share a common open border. Nepalese neither need a passport or visa nor a work permit to enter India, settle and work there. The geographical proximity allows migrants to reach India cheaply, by bus or train. Moreover, most people of Kohabara are familiar with Indian culture and understand Hindi language. There is long tradition of Nepalese seeking work in India, but the trend is decreasing especially when the emigration towards Gulf States and Malaysia emerged (Table 2). As a result, despite easy entry and exit, the emigration towards India is decreasing. In this study only 17.33 percent of the total respondents reported that "rules of easy entry and exit" as a reason associated with destination.

5.1.2.5 Demonstration Effect

It is not surprising that foreign employment is a subject of 'niyamit gaph' (regular talking) in Kohabara, both among men and women. Most of the returned migrants have a tendency to hide bad experiences and hence do not warn prospective migrants against risks, for example women whose husband have got a low status jobs abroad, do not speak about this with other women.

In opposite case, when migrant became successful he will be pride as a model for prospective migrants for the village. Everybody respects him and asks about the foreign life and work, entertainment and relaxation that he had done abroad. His new dresses and shoes as well as other household's assets such as TV; VCD; Cassette Player etc. really attracts the youngsters of village. So, they always dream about foreign

employment and demonstration effect is inspiring them every day for foreign employment. More than 6.66 percent of the total respondents ranked in this cause associated with destination. A best example of demonstration effect is described below.

CASE NO. 1

Purna Bahadur (fictitious name), now 32 years, father of one child, had gone to Malaysia in 2005. His agency had promised him a job with 16 thousands Nepalese currency per month in Malaysia. But, unfortunately, his entire dream swept away when he got a job of 9 thousands after 10 days of his departure from Kathmandu. It seems surprising that he had earned 9 thousands only but his expenditure was eight thousands per month. He further informed me that to manage his expenditure, he had to work overtime which paid an additional 2 thousands rupees per month. In this way, he worked for 16 months and saved 40 thousands for returning ticket.

Somehow, he arrived his house just empty handed and a couple of his old dresses. He lost his 75 thousands that he had managed by selling his land. When I asked him, do you want to go abroad again? He smiled and answered yes, why not? The one and only cause is the 'demonstration effect'. He further explained me that, he had bad luck at that time, but in his next attempt he will earn more money. Just a single failure is nothing. His several friends have earned money in second attempt.

Hence, we conclude that unemployment, Indebtedness and present political situation are three major reasons of emigration associated with origin. Likewise, low investment, no need of special skill and higher education, higher wage rate and rules of easy entry and exit are major reasons of emigration associated with destination.

5.2 EFFECTS OF MIGRATION (Foreign Employment)

In this part, we concentrate on the most important effects we observed in emigration area, which is in Kohabara. It was beyond our capacity, due to the lack of time and economy to study in detail the effects in the emigration area. Several factors affect the analysis of benefits and costs involved when people move from one place to another. In the first phase, we can not say that movements are always beneficial. Secondary, the advantages and disadvantages of moving along are not similar. Because of all these things, the study tries its best to analyze the true 'social and economic effects' of the movements of emigrants.

To answer some questions like, whether the emigration has demographic effects? How emigration is affecting social values? Whether emigration has favorable or unfavorable effect in the village life? Whether emigration has economically advantages or not?

5.2.1 Economic Effect

Emigration of the people from Kohabara certainly has some positives as well as negative effects on the economy of the households. Though, the VDC has economic deficiency cultivation is not neglected till now. It is the major occupation of villagers. The farmers of the VDC face the problem of irrigation and nature of land. Getting employment opportunities in the foreign countries youngsters are ignoring agriculture these days. But, emigration to India and other countries for employment is not a permanent solution. These people definitely have to come back to manage their lands and agricultural production. Let us analyze in detail some of the economic variables.

5.2.1.1 Structure of House: Before and After

House is one the basic need. However, socially it not only symbolizes the dwelling place, but also the social status. Attractive and facilitated house signifies a person's economic capability. In the case of Kohabara the situation is relatively satisfactory than

before, that means physical structure of migrant's houses are comparatively good than non-migrant's.

It is observed that most of the returned migrants were busy in constructing their house. Likewise, most of the prospective emigrants (youths) are also dreaming for a modern house. Some of them also reported that they would go abroad to earn sufficient money just to make a good house.

Table 23 presents clear changes regarding the physical structure of house before and after. Wooden houses having straw roof have reduced highly by 38.67 percent. The proportion was 82.67 percent before and the proportion is just 44.00 percent now.

Table 23: Changes in Physical Structure of Dwelling of migrants

Types of house	Before		After	
	Respondents	Percentage	Respondents	Percentage
Bamboo	1	1.33	0	0.00
Wooden with straw roof	62	82.67	33	44.00
Wooden having zinc roof	12	16.00	38	50.67
Concrete	0	0.00	4	5.33
Total	75	100.00	75	100.00

Source: Field Survey, 2008

Likewise, increased number of wooden houses having zinc roof are seen clearly. Number has been increased from 16.00 percent to 50.67 percent of the total respondents. Similarly, numbers of concrete houses have increased by 5.33 percent. Number has been increased from 0.00 percent to 5.33 percent. The above analysis suggests that foreign employment has raised the life standard of emigrant households in Kohabara. During the last 5-7 years, structures of houses have changed rapidly with increase in foreign employment.

5.2.1.2 Household Assets: Before and After

A 'good house' is incomplete without modern household assets. Because of this, emigrants have collected some assets in Kohabara. Parents and wives of migrants wear golden ornaments made in foreign countries. Their dresses are from abroad.

Table 24: Household Assets

Types of Assets	Before		After	
	Respondents	Percentage	Respondents	Percentage
Radio/cassette	58	77.33	74	98.67
Television	1	1.33	10	13.33
Electricity	1	1.33	23	30.67
Motorbike	0	0.00	3	4.00
Jeep	0	0.00	3	4.00
Toilet	3	4.00	19	25.33
Telephone	0	0.00	5	6.67
Cell phone (Mobile)	0	0.00	31	41.33
Biogas	1	1.33	2	6.67

Source: Field Survey, 2008

Table 24 shows, that the clear changes are seen in the ownership or some household's assets. More than 98 percent of the total respondents have at least a radio/cassette. An outstanding change is observed in number of the ownership of electricity energy between past and present. The proportion has increased by 29.34 percent, which were simply 1.33 percent of the total respondents before. At present 25.33 percent of the total respondent have modern toilet facility which was only 4.00 percent in the past. Similarly, telephone, mobile phone, motorbike, and jeep were found in 6.67 percent, 41.33 percent, 4.00 percent and also 4.00 percent of the total respondents, respectively. These were non in the past. It has been symbol of foreign employment and obviously earns prestige in the society.

5.2.1.3 Income and Expenditure

Foreign employment is considered as the second major way of earning livelihood after agriculture in Kohabara VDC. In case of Gulf States and Malaysia, 28 respondents said

that, they have relatively low paying (average 12,000 – 15,000 NRs.) jobs and had gone abroad by taking loan. So, obviously, they give the first priority to pay debt. Large portion of the remittance is used for meeting daily expenses such as food, clothing, festivals, entertainment, education etc.

Table 25: Area of Expenditure (In Rupees)

Particulars	Average expenditure (annual)	Percentage
Food	27,000	32.53
Cloths	9,000	10.84
Festivals	8,000	9.64
Medical treatment	11,000	13.25
Education	15,000	18.08
Entertainment (others)	13,000	15.66
Total expenditure	83,000	100.00

Source: Field Survey, 2008

Table 25 presents that 32.53 percent amount of the total expenditure is used only for food. Likewise, education ranked in the second highest position with 18.08 percent amount of the total expenditure. It is a good symbol for long term prospective for the VDC. Entertainment (traveling, smoking, playing cards etc.) comprised 15.66 percent amount of the total remittances. Likewise, medical treatment and festivals have 13.25 percent and 9.64 percent proportion amount, which is in rupees 11,000 and 8,000 per year.

5.2.2 Social Effect

We can say that foreign employment has brought some change on social setting of Kohabara. It is difficult to draw up a measuring scale for analyzing the changes in the social background of the VDC. Still some data obtained from interview, observation, case study shows that the social effects of emigration on the society has been both positive and negative.

5.2.2.1 Positive Effect

People have definitely responded towards good education. In the field interview more than 50 percent respondents have reported that they had faced many problems abroad due to their illiteracy and low level of skill and 'ignorance'. They also explained that due to this, they are promoting their child to read and write. They have invested large amount (18.08%) of their remittance in education (see Table 25). Study also reveals that about 47.73 percent respondents have reported that their children getting better education due to their emigration.

Emigration seems to change the beliefs of the people. This is evident from interview and observation that only 11.42 percent respondents have faith in exorcism or magical practices. Study also found out the only 12.8 percent respondents has faith towards the system of 'untouchability'.

In the field interview, about 67.14 percent respondents reported that have no plan for leaving their residence in future permanently. They proudly say; we must do new things/ works and implement our skills which we learned from abroad in our birth place.

During field visit most of the returned migrants have reported that they have got an opportunity to know the real value and importance of hard labour. Their attitudes have changed regarding hard labour and now, they are ready for any types of work. Hesitation and shyness towards the work are changed. Similarly, as said by the some respondents, their hooligan and hoodlum sons who had gone abroad have also changed their habit and come to the right track. Some have also reported that, they wanted to work hard after their return. But at the same time, they also expressed their anxiety with the present unemployment at some stages in my field visit.

CASE NO. 2

Netra Prasad (fictitious name), now 28, is a recently married carpenter. He had gone to Kuwait four year ago as a wage worker. Fortunately, there he got job in a furniture factory and gradually learnt skill of carpentry. He came home after three years and did not return again. Netra Prasad started his career as a carpenter in his village and now, owns a small furniture factory there. He has given employment to there boys of his neighbourhood. He earns good enough money for his livelihood.

5.2.2.2 Negative Effect

Though there have been some improvements, yet negative aspects can be seen. One common scenario is that many people pick up the habit of drinking alcohol and playing card. This is common not only in our area under study but in most places. The migrants coming from foreign countries as well as other local places are habituated to drinking and gambling. It is only a source of relaxation for them.

Some youngsters of non-migrant families have adopted the prodigal and wasteful behaviour. Their parents have limited source of income. Therefore, they are unable to fulfill the demand of their sons that brings the dispute between parent and sons. So, they adapt the several bad activities such pick pocking and burglary. Sometimes, they even steal the household assets. During the field visit, some such cases were noted down.

Cases of illegal (In Nepalese society and culture which is not accepted until now) sexual relationship with other men in the absence of husband were also found. It creates family conflict, disintegration and social problems also and some of the respondents and their wives were affected by STDs and HIV/AIDS after returned from abroad.

5.2.2.3 Changing Social Role of Women at Home

Foreign employment has brought several changes inside or outside home regarding the role of women. They have to play the role of the head of the house during the absence of their husbands. All the responsibility goes to the women. The absence of emigrants for a long period creates social problem and sometimes also psychological anxiety (loneliness, sexual harassment etc.) to women/ wives at home.

The responsibility begins from the very first day of emigration on the shoulder of women. They have to look after their parents, children and prepare their children for school. Periodically, they have to go to the school to receive their children's progress report and to pay school's fee. Nowadays, women are even seen in the market and banks. During our field survey, some elderly (60⁺) men reported that whenever they get ill their daughter-in-law would take them to the hospital. Hence, women are playing a role of son/head of household in the absence of their husband. Some women also reported that they have got several opportunities to go outside (another village, DHQ and capital) from home as the head of household. The opportunities have made them quite open, dynamic and bold. They become aware of the society beyond the home. Now they have to be more practical with the society and family in the absence of their husband. One case of women's situation in family is mentioned below. Though, this case is not directly concerned to our objectives (since, women are not our respondents).

CASE NO. 3

Mrs. Pabitra Devi Karki, now 33, is a housewife and a woman social worker. Her husband had gone to Qatar 10 years ago. Currently, she is living with her two children and there are only four members in her family. She has to deal with all responsibilities of the house. At the time of her husband's departure to Qatar, she had been nervous and helpless. But, now she has become bold. Her husband sends remittance at regular interval. He also comes home frequently. "I feel myself more active and a more dynamic woman among the other women in my community", she now says. Recently, she has been selected as a member of Gramin Mahila Samuha (Rural Woman Group) and School Sanchalak Samiti (School Handling Committee). She further says that she is very happy of her husband's foreign employment and her increasing responsibilities.

CHAPTER - VI

CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

6.1 Conclusion

The present research study has endeavoured to examine how foreign employment influences and contributes to the households of Kohabara VDC (Eastern Nepal). The study has stressed on the inclination of foreign employment as well as their process, source of investment, decisions making, chance of living standard before and after, use of remittance and their skills before going and the development to new skills after returning from foreign employment.

The theory of international labour migration touches many activities and purposes, but this study has mainly focused on the people's living standard that has been changed by foreign employment. The occupations that people embrace to survive and the income generate for the livelihood are the result of their economic condition for foreign employment, it, however, depends on longing and willingness and individual decision to go foreign employment, because all individuals with similar economic condition may not necessarily migrate. The investment cost may be different in accordance with the destination of the migrants. It has been found that the main reasons behind the distressed migrants are low level of education and lack of skill. Various reasons have created the respondents to go for foreign employment like lack of sufficient land for cultivation, lack of job opportunities, poverty, present political situation, family pressure, indebtedness, etc.

Similarly, destinations of the migrants are governed by the decision of the individuals or households as well as their economic status. But in Kohabara VDC, there are many castes/ethnic groups who have first priority and try to join the Indian army because job of Indian army service or 'Lahure' is permanent and secured with different facilities and benefits with provision of pension after retirement and some respondents join in private sectors as a security guard in India.

Most of the respondents of Kohabara VDC want to go India because they can go without high investment, no need of special skill and higher education, rules of easy entry and exit, etc. and the second major destination of respondents is Gulf countries and Malaysia because respondents can go there in low investment, rules of find visa easily, higher wage rate, etc. In Kohabara VDC, migrants have the choice for the following countries for foreign employment.

- a) India: Due to open border, an overwhelming majority of the low income group chooses India as destination. Most of the migrants organize the migration from the support of their friends and relatives.
- b) Gulf Countries and Malaysia: Especially, the middle income group migrants choose the Gulf and Malaysia as their destination for foreign employment. Some low income group also migrates to these countries by taking loan, selling land, borrowing money on interest, etc. The broker and various foreign manpower agencies mainly organize their migration.
- c) Other Asian Countries: The Asian countries include South Korea, Japan, Israel, Singapore, Hong Kong and Iraq. The investment cost of these countries is higher than that Gulf Countries and Malaysia. Therefore, very few migrants, especially those from the high and middle income group have chosen countries as their destination.

Most of the foreign migrants of this VDC have a low level of skill; therefore, they have worked as an unskilled labour abroad. Due to low level of education most of them lack training. As such, these migrants tend to go to India, Gulf Countries and Malaysia where there is demand for unskilled labour for 3D works. The skill learnt abroad by the foreign migrants has not been found in this VDC. Most of the uneducated people of this VDC go abroad so they do not have the capacity to learn any skill abroad. However, some migrants have got knowledge of carpentry, cook, waiter, vehicle driving, etc.

At last, in case of Kohabara VDC, several causes of foreign employment have been traced out during the field survey. The causes are categorized in two groups; **factors associated with the area of origin** which includes unemployment (64.00%), indebtedness (17.33%), lack of agricultural land (6.67%), family pressure (5.33%) and present political situation (6.67%) (Table 20) and **factors associated with the area of destination** which includes low investment (30.67%), no need of special skill and higher education (26.67%), higher wage rate (18.67%), rules of easy entry and exit (17.33%) and demonstration effect (6.66%) (Table22). Hence, we conclude that unemployment, indebtedness and present political situation are three major reasons of emigration associated with origin. Likewise, low investment, no need of special skill and higher education, higher wage rate and rules of easy entry and exit are major reasons of emigration associated with destination.

Several effects of foreign employment have been observed during the field survey in Kohabara VDC. The effects are categorized into two groups; **economic effect** and **social effect**.

In economic effect, most of the respondents have wooden houses with straw roof (82.67percent) before and it is decreased after (44.00 percent) and few respondents made after returned from foreign employment concrete houses also (5.33 percent) and increased proportion of wooden houses with zinc roof before (16 percent) and after (50.67 percent).

Respondents have collected some assets in Kohabara VDC. Parents and wives wear golden ornaments and dresses made in foreign countries. Foreign employment is considered as the second major way of earning livelihood after farming in Kohabara VDC. Large proportion of the remittance is used for meeting daily expenses such as food, cloths, festivals, medical treatment, entertainment, education, etc.

Social effects of emigration on the society have been both positive and negative effect.

Positive effect: During field visit most of the respondents have reported they have got and opportunity to know the real value and importance of hard labour. Their attitudes have changed regarding hard labour and now, they are ready for any type of work. Hesitation and shyness towards the work are changed.

Negative effect: During the field survey one common scenario is that many people pick up the habit of drinking alcohol and playing card. The migrants coming from foreign countries are habituated to drinking and gambling. Cases of illegal sexual relationship with other men in the absence of husband were also found, it creates family conflict, disintegration and social problems also but we can conclude that the living standard is better of respondents than non-migrants people of Kohabara.

6.2 Recommendations

The government should promote and encourage people of rural area to establish the cottage industries and this will help the policies to decrease unemployment as well as migration from the rural areas. Appropriate mechanism should be developed for the easy availability of inputs for the cottage and small industries as well as for markets for the products must be for its gradual development and as part of national economy.

The Department of Lahore and manpower agencies should open their offices at district level so as to avoid the difficulties of going to Kathmandu.

The youth power is the backbone of the nation building. It should be utilized in development of the country itself. Government must look at the youth as the asset of the country and avoid looking at emigration as solution to the unemployment problem of the country. Therefore, the policies of the government must focus on developing this sector so that they may stay within the country and actively participate and contribute in the nation building culturally, socially, economically and politically for the overall development of the country.

The remittances have resulted in the inflow of a large amount of foreign currencies into the country, but so far it has not been mobilized for productive utilization and employment generation. Therefore, government should create suitable environment as well as policies that may encourage foreign migrant workers to invest their remittance in the productive works.

The government should have a policy of providing loans on low interest rate to the aspirant migrant workers. At present, the migrant workers have to bear a very high interest rate to borrow money from the local moneylenders.

The government should also make plans and policies to give security to Nepali migrant workers abroad. In this context, the government must establish embassies in the major countries where Nepalese migrant workers are in large number. These embassies must have proper reporting with the concerned countries and also keep in touch with the association of the Nepalese migrant workers in these countries to safeguard and look after the interest of the Nepalese migrant workers. The brokers have ruined many people by giving many allurements of the foreign employment. Therefore, they should be punished and the amount of the people should be rescued or refunded.

Technical and skill training centers must be established in the district headquarters and important towns for the local rural people. This will contribute in the production of skilled manpower that might work within Nepal or might go abroad for better work and salary. The migrant workers of these villages as well as most of the migrant from Nepal are unskilled and as a result they are mostly employed in 3D works with low salary. Therefore, government should pay enough attention in producing skilled manpower in the country and for that private institutions should be encouraged to open up technical and skill training centers in different parts of the country.

Unhealthy competition between local recruitment agencies and cheating of the individual workers are not uncommon. So, government should establish a reliable system of supervising the manpower agencies.

The people, who have been cheated in connection with foreign employment, should be employed in our own countries country. The government, through its representatives, should make the people aware of how brokers cheat and ruin in innocent people.

VDC should provide supports for job seekers, keep records f emigrants to know the actual supply of labour force and support constructive use of remittance.

Several manpower agencies have been established legally (registered) and illegally (unregistered) in Nepal proper monitoring of both of these agencies by the Labour Department is lacking and in absence of monitoring by the Labour Department such agencies usually cheat the aspirant as well as the migrate workers and have ruined the illiterate, ignorant and innocent people of the rural areas. Therefore, the government must have effective monitoring stem to control on opening of unregistered agencies as well as to avoid cheating the manpower agencies.

6.3 Recommendations for Further Research

The scope of the study of foreign employment is both wide and vague. So, due to limitations of time and sources, this study has covered only the limited topics like demographic and socio-economic characteristics of the returned migrants' households, causes and effects of foreign employment, income and expenditure of migrants, role of foreign employment in changing the economic environment of the households and household assets, etc. It is hoped that this study will be an important contribution in the field of foreign employment of Nepal for further studies.

Despite, there are many issues which can be studied like comparatively study of the migrants and non-migrants household, use of remittance and socio-economic status of the migrants' households before and after going abroad.

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Implementation – Migration in Nepal

<Http://www.nids.org.np/current-cactivities.htm>.

APPENDIX

(Questionnaire for Migrant)

(In Case of the Migrant return back the home country)

A. Preliminary Background

Employed Country:

Return Date:

Ward No:

1) Respondent's Name:

2) Age:

3) Sex:

4) Caste/Ethnicity:

5) Martial Status:

6) Education Level (I.L.P.S.H.):

7) Occupation:

8) Family Size:

9) Type of Family:

a) Nuclear

b) Joint

B) Economic Condition

1. Do you have Land?

[]

a) Yes

b) No

2. If yes, Landholding Pattern (in Kattha)

Type	Own	Others	Given to other
Wet Land			
Dry Land			
Others			

3. The production from land is enough to feed your family for

a whole year?

[]

a) Yes

b) No

4. If not, then how much it last? _____ months.

5. Livestock

Type	Own	Others	Given to other
Buffalo			
Ox			
Cow			
Goat			
Others			

6. Other Source of income?

- a) Service b) Business c) Agriculture
d) Livestock e) Wage labour f) Others_____

C) About Respondent's Migrate Period

1 Particulars of the respondent at the time of Migration.

- (a) Age_____ (b) M.S. _____
(c) Education_____ (d) Occupation_____

2. What was the cause that motivates you to go abroad? Priority: 1st 2nd 3rd

- (a) Unemployment (b) Landlessness (c) Indebtedness
(d) Present Political Situation (e) Business (f) Family Conflict

3. Why do you select that place (Country)? []

- (a) Easy availability of unskilled work (b) Less costly
(c) Easy entry and exit (d) High wage rate
(d) Gossip of return people (f) Others_____

4. What type of work did you found there? []

- (a) Factory worker (b) Driver (c) Doorman
(d) Hotel boy (e) Others_____

5. Did you get job immediately when you reached there? []
(a) Yes (b) No

6. If not, how long did you wait. For _____months. []

7. How long did you work there? Month _____ year_____ []

8. How much was your salary amount per month? In Rs. _____ []

9. How much was you saved of your salary per month? []
(a) Less than 50% (b) 50-75% (c) More than 75%

D. Respondent's Attitudes/Conditions after return back

1. Do you have any plan to go again? (a) Yes (b) No []

2. If yes, in which country? (a) Same (b) Other []

3. If no, why? []
(a) I have run my own business (b) I should look after my family
(c) Othes_____

4. Have you made any investment from your saving? []
(a) Yes (b) No

5. If yes, in which sector? []
(a) Bought Built new house (b) Bought new lands
(c) Run new business (d) Others_____

6. Do you have any plan for leaving this residence in Future permanently? []
 (a) Yes (b) No
7. If yes, why? []
 (a) Remote and underdeveloped area (b) It lacked security
 (c) Entertainment with family (d) Others_____
8. What is the effects regarding children due to your migration? []
 (a) Social working (b) Playing Card
 (c) Entertainment with family (d) Others_____
9. What is the effects regarding children due to your migration? []
 (a) Getting better education (b) Getting bad habits
 (c) Do more labour at home (d) No effect (e) No child
10. Do you have any change towards the system of untouchability? []
 (a) Yes (b) No
11. If yes, in which level? []
 (a) Normal (b) Slightly (c) Sever
12. Do you have any change towards the exorcism/magician practice? []
 (a) Yes (b) No
13. If yes, in which level? []
 (a) Normal (b) Slightly (c) Sever

14. House type before and after:

Types of House	Before	After
a. Bamboo House		
b. Wooden with straw roof		
c. Wooden with zinc rood		
d. Concrete house		

15. Living Standard and other facilities:

Particulars	Before	After
a. Radio/cassette		
b. TV/CD		
c. Electricity		
d. Vehicles (name)		
Toilet		
f. Others		

16. Major areas of expenditure before and the migration (annual in rupees):

Areas	Before	After
a. Food		
b. Cloths		
c. Festivals		
d. Medical treatment		
e. Education		
f. Others		

17. Do you learn something new from abroad? (a) Yes (b) No []

18. If yes, specify _____ []

19. What do you think about foreign employment? []

(a) Good (b) Not so good (c) Bad (d) Neutral

20. Should other people be encouraged to migrate? Give you opinion.

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