CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

INTRODUCTION

The proportion of women in global migration flow is increasing rapidly and they have become the pioneers of human migration chain. Migration has provided larger opportunities for women to improve their own living situation and their contribution to national development is enormous. When women from a given culture and economic situation migrate, their motivation to move, the migration process and the conditions in destination country are entirely different. “The expansion of women’s capabilities not only enhances women’s own freedom and well being but also has many other effects on the lives of all. An enhancement of women’s active energy can in many circumstances, contribute substantially to the lives of all people-men as well as women, children as well as adults” (United Nations, 2004 a).

Migration is an empowering process for women in terms of high self-esteem and economic independence in the family and society. Migration provides an economic lifeline for millions of women and it is a strategy for them to offer better living conditions to their families. Migrant women have to face dual vulnerability as migrant and woman during the first phase of migration, during transit and while enter into the receiving country (ILO, 2002). Unskilled and poorly paid women migrants have to engage in works which are very disadvantageous for them.

Migrant women’s contribution to economic development has often been ignored because they are considered as dependent and migrating for family reunification. Due to lack of proper opportunities at home country, economic social and political expectations of women can be met through international migration. Globalization with communication opened a range of opportunities for women abroad. Women overcome poverty by international migration, which is an effect of globalization.
Review of literature includes various theories related to international migration of women. Economists put various theories forward from time to time, in order to explain the causes of migration and the mechanism of migration. So theoretical analysis of migration is imperative. In this chapter review of literature is divided into three categories: international migration of women- global perspective; international migration of women from India and international migration of women from Kerala. These three categories are again divided into trends and patterns, costs and benefits, push and pull factors and status.

Theories of migration:

The phenomenon of migration can be explained through different theories. There are two approaches in migration studies developed by two schools of thought. The neo-classical micro theory focuses on the level of individual rational actors who made decisions to migrate based upon a cost benefit calculation that indicates a positive net return to movement. In this approach, human capital characteristics that raise the potential benefits of migration, and individual social or technological factors that lower costs, will lead to increased migration. Differences in earnings and employment rates are key variables and governments influence migration through policies that affect these.

Macro theory views geographic differences in the supply and demand for labour in origin and destination countries as the major factors driving individual migration decisions.

Among the assumptions of this model are that international migration will not occur in the absence of these differential, that their elimination will bring an end to international movements and that labour markets (not other markets) are the primary mechanisms inducing movements. Government policy interventions affect migration by regulating or influencing labour markets in origin and destination countries (Russel, 2006: 5-6).
Historical approach:

It was Karl Marx who analyzed migration on the basis of historical approach. To Marx dialectical materialism is the main determinant of migration. Capitalist expansion in production results in the simultaneous conversion of labour force into a marketable commodity ready to be sold and at the same time facilitates the formation of different categories of surplus labour floating latent and stagnant out of the working population. Workers are therefore compelled to migrate in search of employment. Pauperization of the working class as a result of capitalist expansion is the basis of all forms of migration. Marxian economists fail to take into account such migration as brain drain. The weakness of this theory is its bipolar approach towards the evolution of capitalism from a pre-capitalist society. The Marxian line of thinking is to visualize the possibility of the transformation of the pre-capitalist social relationship into that of a capitalist social relationship only.

Ravenstein’s theory of migration:

E. G. Ravenstein was the first to explain the process of migration. For, him, migrants move from areas of low opportunity to areas of high opportunity and every stream of migration produces a counter stream, particularly in rural to urban migration. Migrants move to centers of trade and commerce from nearby towns through different stages. The locomotion facilities will encourage migration. People of rural areas have more tendencies to migrate than that of urban areas. Material well-being is the objective of migration (Clark, 1986:51-54).

Stouffer’s theory of opportunities:

Some theorists looked migration in terms of opportunities. The most important among them was Stouffer (1940) who looked migration on the basis of “intervening opportunities”. The number of persons migrating in a given distance is directly proportional to the number of opportunities at the place of destination and indirectly proportional to the number of intervening opportunities.
Lee’s theory of migration:

After Ravenstein there was no theory of migration except some feeble attempts in the thirties of the last century. It was Everett Lee who formulated a theory of migration in 1966. The factors that affected migrations are factors associated with the area of origin, factors associated with the area of destination, intervening factors and personal factors. According to him there are certain push and pull factors which determine migration in the economy. The push factors repel people from one area. The pull factors attract people to the country of destination. Migration depends on the relative strength of these factors. Migration increases with time and the state of progress of the society. Lee’s theory has little application because he does not make any trade off between plus and minus factors.

Lewis model of development:

Arthur Lewis (1954) connects migration with the process of development. It is a two-sector model with transfer of labour from rural sector to urban sector. As a result of transfer of labour from surplus to deficit sector the equality of wages will be attained. The model is based on dual economy, comprising a subsistence agriculture sector characterized by underemployment and a modern industrial sector characterized by full employment.

Lewis –Fei-Ranis model:

The Lewis model was formalized and extended by Gustav Ranis and John Fei. The model explains the expansion of the modern sector as a result of transfer of labour from traditional low productivity sector by means of investment expansion. Investment is a function of profit. It is assumed that capitalists always reinvest their profits. To induce the transfer of labour from rural area, the urban wages should be fixed at a premium level. When all the labourers are withdrawn from the subsistence sector wages will increase, profit declines and automatically the process will be stopped. The theory has many shortcomings. Migration is induced not solely by low wages and underemployment in rural areas (Cherunilam, 1987:10).
Larry S Sjaastad’s human investment theory:

Larry S Sjaastad (1962) explained migration by means of a human investment theory. An individual or household move to add to its human capital. Its ability to generate an income stream over its lifetime depends on its migration decision. The migrant moves because his gain will be greater than costs. Sjaastad’s approach assumes that people desire to maximize their net rural incomes over their productive life and can at least compute their life time income streams in the present place of residence as well as in all possible destinations.

Mincer’s theory of family behaviour:

A new theory of family behaviour was viewing migration from a family perspective. To Mincer, the family gains rather than net personal gain are the motivation of households for migration. Migration is seen as a family investment on human capital and is undertaken if family benefits exceed family costs. If one spouse works and the other is not going, the costs and benefits of migration to the family will be approximately to the working spouse. If there are two working spouses, there is the need for enlarging the human capital model of migration. Two family members add new elements of costs and benefits of migration for the family, so there are combinations of monetary and non-monetary costs and benefits for families. Mincer asserts that returns will be less than costs with increasing family size.

Todaro’s model of rural-urban migration:

Michael Todaro (1969) views migration as a result of rural urban difference in expected income rather than actual earnings. The process of migration will continue up to the point where expected rural income is equal to the expected urban income. The expected earnings is a function of (a) the existing rural urban real wage differential that prevail for different skills and educational categories of workers and (b) the degree of probability of obtaining urban job. Migrants consider the various labour market situations and choose the one, which gives them maximum expected gain from migration. This model has originated in the context
of rising unemployment. For maintaining rural-urban equilibrium in the economy migration is necessary. This theory challenges the neo-classical approach, as migration decisions are not made by isolated actors but by typical families or household. Yet Todaro’s is a partial approach because wide socio-economic conditions under which individuals take decisions are not taken into account.

Because of the shortcomings of neoclassical equilibrium model, a new alternative approach known as historical approach has been evolved. Migration is a class phenomenon or a stream rather than an individual decision. In the migration stream social factors rather than individual motives are getting priority. The perspective pays scant attention to the factors that motivate especially individual factors because no attempt is made to examine the nature of the decision-making process where the various elements enter in to the calculus. It is evident that there is no integrated theory of international migration and different theories concentrate on different viewpoints.

Thadani – Todaro model of migration:

The models discussed above are based on the assumption that mostly men migrate for reasons of employment. Such assumptions have flourished because female migration is considered as something that is marriage related. According to 1981 census preliminary report, marriage and associational migration accounts for over 80 percent of female migration from rural to urban areas. But this is not true. Even if marriage was the cause of migration, women were employed prior to marriage and continue after marriage also. It also determines whether a woman will migrate with her husband or migrate on her own, or decide to stay on in the village. While considering marriage and migration, the factors such as sex-role constraints as well as costs, distance and modes of transportation have to be taken into consideration. In Todaro’s model the chief determinant of migration is expected income differentials; it operates in the case of women migrating on their own, as well as for those wives who move with husbands and contribute to the family income. Women are no longer passive movers following husbands.
From an early age itself, girls migrated to cities, living by their own income, economically independent. They send home income for supporting the family. This type of migration has been characterized by Veena Thadani and Michael Todaro as autonomous female migration and has resulted in Thadani-Todaro model of migration. The motive behind migration is to escape from the patriarchal familial form, working for wage and become economically independent.

**Dual market theory:**

Dual market theory holds that demand for low-level workers in more developed economies is the crucial factor shaping international migration. In this model, international migration is demand based and initiated by recruitment policies of employers or governments in destination areas. Wage differentials between countries of origin and countries of destinations are not a necessary condition for migration. The options for government policy intervention to affect migration are limited (Russel, 2006:17).

**New economic theory:**

The New economic theory views migration as a family (i.e., group) strategy to diversify sources of income, minimize risks to the household and overcome barriers to credit and capital. In this model international migration is considered as a means to compensate for the absence or failure of certain types of markets in developing countries, for example, crop insurance markets, future markets, unemployment insurance, or capital markets. In contrast to the neoclassical models, wage differentials are not seen as a necessary condition for international migration and economic development in areas of origin or equalization of wage differentials will not necessarily reduce pressures for migration. Governments influence migration through income distributional policies that affect the relative deprivation of certain group and thereby their propensity to migrate (Russel, 2006:7).
Network theory:

Network theory stresses that migrants’ net works serve to reduce costs and risks of international migration and thus to increase the likelihood of movement. The development of such net works is often facilitated by government policies towards family reunification and once started migration net works can make international flows relatively intensive to policy interventions. Migrant pioneers find it difficult to migrate. Things are easier for those who follow. The immigrant communities provide invaluable source of advance information and practical help and accommodation. One of the important things that network can do is to suggest employment. These people who are linked by telephone and email have now created new kinds of transnational communities (Stalker’s Guide, 2004).

These theories regarding the initiation or perpetuation of international migration need not be viewed contradictory or mutually exclusive. Rather it is possible that individuals engage in cost-benefit calculations; the households act to diversify labour allocation; and that the socio-economic contact within which these decisions are made is determined by structural forces operating at the national and international levels.

Incorporating gender into international migration theory:

Traditional theories failed to incorporate gender into international migration theories. Without clear theoretical underpinning, it is difficult to explain the conditions under which women migrate, and the predominance of women in certain labour flows different from what one observes in other areas. The development of new economic concepts and theories that emphasize the importance of family or the household as the primary decision making unit is being criticized for substituting the rational calculating individual with a rational calculating household. Household decisions and actions do not represent unified and equally beneficial outcomes for all its members. There is the need for a general theoretical framework that helps to explain the unique experiences of both males and females at all stages of migration process. There are three distinct stages where gender relations, roles and hierarchies influence the migration process (Grieeco and Boyd, 2003).
• Pre-migration stage: There are many factors that help or do not help the migration decision of women. They are gender-relations and hierarchies, status and roles and structural characteristics of the country of origin. These factors should be considered on individual, familial and societal grounds.

• The transition across boundaries. In this stage through policies, the national states are major actors. The countries of origin can influence migration through selective, permissive and promotional rules. Women should be given their own independent status.

• The experiences of migrants in the receiving country: Women are considered as dependents. This may affect the ability of migrant women to obtain those rights entitlements in their own right. In the gender hierarchy women are given traditional occupations. Migration may lead to greater autonomy and decision-making power of women.

Though these theories cannot fully explain the international migration of women, the theories can be used to study international migration of women from Kerala to some extent.

Lee’s theory helps in identifying the push and pull factors and also the significant factors that influence the migratory decision.

Sjaastd’s human investment theory can be applied for comparing costs and benefits of migration. Non-monetary costs and benefits can be compared by preparing the percentages of migrant women who have the positive and negative effects of migration.

Network theory: Most of the migration from Kerala is the result of networks all around the world.

New economic theory: New economic theory asserts that the individual and the family, spread benefits and risks of migration among them. Parents calculate the benefits they are going to receive as a result of the migration of the daughter.
**Dual market theory:** This depends on the demand for the migrants. As a result of the demographic changes in other counties there is a great demand for labour in 3D jobs.

**International Migration-Global Perspective:**

(United Nations, 2006b) Panel Discussion related to international migration of women was conducted in 2006. Members from 45 countries discussed issues related to international migration of women. They discussed about the experiences of migrant women in general and the experiences of migrant women of their own countries.

According to the American representative, women are the main receivers of foreign remittances and received more money than men. While men sent predominantly to their spouses and children, women sent predominantly to their children and parents. Men sent more money to their families because men are earning more money than women. Educating women is a critical life saving investment and it provided women with life saving opportunities and women can climb the social ladder and benefit from globalization, according to Thailand’s representative.

In Elsalvador most of the women are voluntarily moving on their own as a part of workflows and principal wage earners of their families. Women are also forced to migrate due to conflict, persecution, environmental degradation, natural disasters and other situations that affected their habitat, livelihood and security. In Canada, women are actively participating in internal and international migration. Half of all migrants are females. But gender inequality exists during entry and in experience. Gender permeated every aspect of migration-decision to migrate, in the process of migration and in the consequences of migration. Poverty may be one of the reasons of migration. In Philippines, there are about 6.3 million to 7 million migrants residing in East and South East Asian countries and women constituted 2.5 percent of them. There is the need for co-operation between country of origin and country of destination. Female migrants are doing domestic and childcare work of more affluent women.
According to the representative of International Organization for Migration (IOM) facilities must be given to the women leaders in Diasporas and to support the development efforts using their skill, knowledge and experience. Women in the Diaspora are agents of change both in the country of origin and the destination and play an important role in promoting universal values and human rights.

Gender and remittances show that women are migrating as economic providers and remittances are used for household’s improvement, education and health. By sending and receiving remittance women’s autonomy has increased and leads to empowerment of women (International Research and Training Institute for the Advancement of Women).

Nearly 77 percent of migrants from Indonesia are females who are working in informal sector abroad. There are legislative measures in Indonesia to protect these women. In Bangladesh women migrants are few compared to male migrants. Their contributions are enormous both in sending and receiving countries. Many women are mistreated, sexually abused and beaten and many returned home with empty hands. In Zambia, migration is relatively a new phenomenon. There is a huge migration of professionals to developed countries from Zambia. Migration in Botswana resulted in the depletion of its professional workers to industrialized countries. Due to poverty, lack of resources and employment women and girls are migrating in search of employment in Kenya. Sometimes they may be trapped in modern day slavery and girls and children are treated as commodities.

**History of international migration:**

Stalker’s Guide (2004) gives a systematic picture of international migration – history of migration, theories of migration, migration flows, causes and consequences of migration, remittance etc. Women related study is not included in it.

**Stages of International Migration:**

Grieco and Boyd (2003) explain that most of the theories deal with male migration. For understanding migratory process it is necessary to incorporate gender into migration theories. For theoretical clarity it is found that there are
three distinct stages where gender relations and hierarchies influence the migration process and produce different outcomes for women. The three stages are the pre-migration stage, transition across state boundaries and the experiences of migrants in the receiving country.

**Trends and patterns of international migration:**

All the factors behind migration can be explained through trend of female emigration. Trends and pattern may change due to changes in socio-economic conditions both in receiving and sending countries. Due to the social needs and lack of sufficient population and to implement development programes, developed countries receive cheap labour force from the sending countries (IBRD/World Bank, 2008) Nearly 200 million people, 3 percent of the world population lives outside their country of origin. The top migrant destination countries are United States, the Russian Federation, Germany and Ukraine (Docquier, Frederic B., et. al., 2008: 4-6). Female international migration had increased from 46.8 to 49.6 percent in 2005. In most developed countries their stock had increased to 52.2 percent from 49.6 percent.

Today 60 percent of world’s immigrants are in developed nations, 33 percent in less developed nations and 7 percent in least developed nations (Coe, 2007). Youth constitute a higher share of migrants especially in developing countries. The share of females among youth migrants is 39 percent in South Africa, 42 percent in U.S., 65 percent in Argentina, and on an average of 50 percent across all countries. Female youth migrants are usually married and accompanying the spouse (Mckenzie, 2007).

World Bank conducted a study related to international migration of women. This report reviews recent trends in international migration and explores their implications for the Bank. Female migrant workers are subjected to various forms of abuses and exploitation. The study reveals that 40 to 60 percent of the international migrants are women and girls (Russell, 2006:2-3).
Women who are the breadwinners of the family are left behind. In 2000, the migrant women exceeded the number of migrant men in Latin America and the Caribbean, North America, Oceania, Europe and the former Soviet Union. In Africa and Asia migrant men were the majority. There are 200 million international migrants in 2005, those who are living outside their country of origin. This is equivalent to the population of the 5th largest country--Brazil. About 51 percent of the migrant women live in the developed world and 49 percent in the developing world. Today 60 percent of the international migrants live in developed world (GCIM, 2005).

The survey by the UN gives an elaborate history of international migrants between the periods 1820-1914; and explains the trend of international migration at global level, (not gender perspective) and the distribution of international migration on the basis of Asia, Africa, Latin America, Europe, Gulf countries, Caribbean countries etc. The survey projected that over the next half century net migration will reduce natural increase in the developing regions by about 5 percent. Over the last 40 years global stock of international migrants are more than doubled, but not in all regions. Most of the international migrants remain concentrated in the comparatively small number of developed countries. The survey also gives labour force participation by nationality and sex, which shows that work participation rates of male migrants are higher than that of female migrants (United Nations, 2004 a: 1-54).

Asis analyses the trends and pattern of female migration in Asia. There is a feminization of migration in Asia. Because of the gendering of the labour market, women get concentrated in domestic works (2003: 2-7).

There is a feminization of migration in the world. The population movements are highly gender- specific. Men and women are migrating for different reasons, along different routes and with different result. Migration can empower and help to emancipate migrant women. New opportunities and financial independence give status within the host country and within the home country. In 2000, Philippines migrant women constitute 70 percent of migrant workers and Sri Lankan women constitute 65 percent in 1999 (IOM, 2003:7).
The findings of the Eighth United Nations inquiry on international migration are as follows (2001a): 1990’s have been a period of intense movement of refugees particularly in Africa. The traditional countries of migration have tended to facilitate the naturalization of immigrants. Certain Asian labour exporting countries have imposed restrictions on the out migration of female workers due to exploitation abroad or prevented women from engaging in certain activities abroad mostly in Western Asia. Brain drain is the major concern for exporting countries. Certain countries have stimulated the return of high skilled persons.

Gugler (1995: 541-542) gives a picture of migration pattern in Asian and African countries. Men dominate in net migration in South Asia and in many Middle Eastern and African countries. But in Latin America, the Philippines, Thailand and Ethiopia there is a predominance of women. Women outnumber men in the urban population of every Latin American country, whereas men outnumber women by a substantial margin in the cities of every country in South Asia. The new emerging trend is that women migrate on their own. Because of several modern developments there seems to be a decline in patriarchy. Late marriage, reduced fertility and greater independence make women free. These women seize the opportunities of cities and transform the gender composition of net rural urban migration. The migration of single women reflects the expansion of opportunities open to them.

Miller (1995: 8-9) observes certain tendencies comparing the migration movements around the world (1) globalization of migration (b) acceleration of migration (c) differentiation of migration (d) feminization of migration i.e., women play a dominant role in all regions of migration. Since 1960s women had played a major role in migration. Turkish women preceded their men to Germany. Some refugee movements including those from former Yugoslavia are marked by majority of women.

Tyrce and Donato (1986: 22-26) Most of the migrants were men who sought temporary work that was more lucrative than that obtainable at home. This gives a demographic overview of recent female international migrants. In the Post-
war period men dominated women in Europe and North Africa. The U.S.A, Israel
and Argentina attract more women than men. Women are becoming an integral
part of migrants and older women are more likely than older men to return to the
country of their birth.

United Nations (1979) made a study about international migration in
Europe. By 1970s Europe became a region of net immigration. During the period
1970-75 the net immigration was 1.5 million people. Among the different regions
of Europe, Western Europe has consistently been a net importer of population i.e.,
25 million during these 25 years. There is a reduction of natural increase of
population due to low fertility. The countries with the largest volume of net
emigration during this 25-year period were German Democratic Republic (2.5
million), Italy, (2 million), Yugoslavia (1.6 millions) Portugal and Spain (1.4
million) each.

Reasons of International Migration

An important dimension of a research is to find out the causes of migration
by analyzing the factors behind migration. The factors are varied according to the
differences in situations, place and time.

Omelaniuk (2006:2) explains that women are sources of poverty reduction
in developing countries because women are receiving a major proportion of the
remittances and these remittances lead to poverty reduction. Female migration can
also help to reduce poverty indirectly by raising productivity, education and health
of females and their families.

Bureau meeting (2003) in Italy discussed women migration. Sometimes
women are forced to migrate because of natural and ecological disasters, war,
political oppression, gender related discrimination and violation of their human
rights and for improving their lives in another country. The conditions of female
migrants are vulnerable because they are usually employed in under paid and non-
specialized works with poor legal protection. Discrimination against women is the
root cause of poverty worldwide. Poverty is one of the important reasons behind
migration.
Public Service International (2003) gives a brief account of push and pull factors behind the migration of health workers. It explains the stark choices that health workers must face as they are leaving their family and country. Poor economic condition is the basic reason for migration of health workers.

To Jordan and Duvell (2003:62-64) migration is the result of insatiable demand for low paid service workers. Migration is not directly related to poverty. Migration is not an isolated decision, but a collective action by the involvement of families and kinship groups, and the use of social capital. Migrants travelled to join with the established group of settlers, who provide bridgeheads and transnational arrangements for them in receiving countries.

Waddington (2003:2-3) predicts that international migration in Asia will continue because some countries offer more wages and employment opportunities. The book gives an overview of labour migration from Asia, its trends and patterns, remittances sent by migrants etc.

Committee on Equal Opportunities for Men and Women, Council of Europe (2003) had prepared a report on migration linked to trafficking in women. Prostitution is one of the dark features of lack of equality between men and women. The report suggests general measures, migration policies, improvement measures, preventive measures, legal measures and victim protection measures to prevent trafficking in women migration and prostitution.

The study by Najjar (2002:6-37) identifies and assesses legal and administrative arrangements in hiring domestic workers. Social changes in the family, entry of women into the labour market, social prestige, economic situations in labour exporting countries etc are the factors that contributed to increasing number of household workers in the Gulf region.

The Commission on Human Rights (2000) studied the problem of migrant women. Large numbers of women from developing countries are migrating in search of a living for themselves and their families because of poverty.
Dunning (1985) in his paper presentation gives definition of migrant workers. Trade Unions can play an important role in the integration of migrant workers to the host country. The migrant workers’ main problems are related to housing, education, employment, health, safety and separation from the family.

To White and Wood (1980:51) the basic impact of migration is population movements between countries and this population movement is influenced by age, sex, employment characteristics, social attributes etc.

**Status of migrant women:**

The status of women in the family and society has changed as a result of migration (Kaur, 2004). Globalization changes the economic role of women in the society. In this period of globalization developing countries are contributing labour. There is a mobilization of reserve army of labour in rural regions to industrialized centers and are labour intensive manufacturers for global market. As a result of globalization the role of women in the society has shifted from traditional sectors to the modern sector. Changing role of women helped the integration of South East countries to the international economy.

Compani (1995:546-547) explains women as agents of change inside the family. They combine home culture and culture of the destination in their houses. Now woman migrate not only for family unification but also for employment purposes.

United Nations (1995:1-9) gives an overview of international migration of women. Migrant women are key actors in the migration process. Women are agents of change in the country of origin and country of destination. Data related to international migration of women are less because in the international migration, migrants are usually considered as male and so sex is not recorded. Migrant women face problems because they are women and at the same time migrant. The need for income is the most compelling factor for women to migrate.
International migration has changed the status of women, especially married women in the family and society. Status of women in the economy refers to women’s position in relation to men, within a particular socio-economic cultural and political context. When a married woman migrates on her own, it is liberation for woman because of her contact with new socio-cultural context. Women left behind by migrant husbands are in a dependent situation.

**Problems related to international migration of women:**

Before, during and after the period of migration the problems faced by emigrant women are numerous. United Nations 2004 World Survey (2006a:1-19) focuses on women and international migration and migration trends and dynamics in a globalized world. Women are mostly migrating on their own, principal wage earners and remit money to their families of their own countries of origin. If women are leaving from the situations of patriarchal authority, migration is an empowering experience for them. Women are usually engaged in traditional female occupations. In the host country they faced the problems as migrants and as women. The survey addresses both the opportunities for empowerment of migrant women and the challenges and vulnerabilities women face in the context of migration. Migration leads to empowerment and autonomy of women. Demand, supply and networks are the factors linking them in the process of migration.

United Nations (2004b) explains about the feminization of migration in South Asia. The sustainability of female migration depends on the demand for domestic workers, care givers and entertainers. These women are vulnerable to exploitation because they work under isolated conditions. Women are under bad working conditions- violence, long working hours and various abuses.

Angello’s (2003:38) work studies the problems of migrant women by personalizing the experiences of migrant women. By working with migrant workers and teaching them IT skills, they enable women to make a space for themselves in which they will be able to tell their stories.
Dios Javate (2001) presents feminization of migration in Philippines. Now a days the women migrants are increasing in Philippines, Indonesia, Sri Lanka and Bangladesh. Female migration from Asia is characterized by gender specific jobs that are menial, low paying with poor working conditions and limited upward career opportunities. These jobs are vulnerable for women because they work in the context of individualized service, isolated and not protected by labour and other social and health polices accruing to nationals. The migration of women is demand driven and terms and conditions are set by receiving countries.

Grandea and Kerr (1998) explain about Philippine domestic workers in Canada. Long working hours, substandard lodging facilities, inadequate food, lack of privacy, loneliness and isolation and abuses by the employers are the major problems faced by them.

Davrueng and Yamin (1998) focus on women workers in Indonesia and Thailand. Women’s throwing out of work leads to prostitution. When a man and a woman enter a factory at the same time, man will be trained and promoted, while woman remain in the same job.

Anwar’s study deals with ethnic minorities in Britain. During 1960s Britain received unskilled workers from New Common Wealth countries. These workers were economic migrants and they filled the gaps of unskilled works and poorly paid jobs. Women migrants constitute more than that of men here (1995:275-277).

Collins explains about Asian migrants in the Australian society. Indo-China women are working in the struggling manufactured industries. For the first 10 years of settlement, employment rate was high among Asian born women than that of men. Many of the women were refugees and they suffered traumas during migration. Many women from Indo-China and South East Asia were employed in low-paid unregulated ‘out work’ because of the breakdown of clothing and textile industries (1995:376-377).
Networks and international migration:

Most of the migrations these days are the result of networks that spread all along the world. The OECD (2007:26-27) report makes detailed proposals in four general domains: policies for European labour markets, polices for integration of immigrants in Europe, development co-operation policies that affect migrants’ countries of origin and initiatives encouraging and mobilizing Diaspora net works.

Migrant net works can help immigrants for finding jobs and for economic integration. Currently there are 40 million expatriates in the EU 27 countries. Around 74 percent of them are lower or medium skilled and 26 percent only highly skilled. Immigration has risen sharply in certain European countries like Spain, Italy and U.K. and deteriorated in other countries like Germany, France and Portugal and the largest proportional increase observed in Czech Republic, the southern European countries, Ireland, France and Netherlands.

Migrants are more and more able to construct their lives across borders, creating economic, social, political and cultural activities, which allow them to maintain membership in both their immigration country and their country of origin. This study is about ambivalence and contradictory feelings migrant women in Italy expresses towards the fragmentation of their life between two countries (Salih, 2002:52).

Globalization leads to mass communication and it opened the way to life abroad. Network acts as agents of migration. Now women are migrating independently. There is a demand for female labourers in certain sectors, which are created by social needs, and in these sectors only the immigrant women are prepared to work. Women migrants face degradation due to stereotypes that devalue women and women’s work (Hefty, 1977:3).

Lim and Oishi’s (1996) work on women migration in Asia, explains the peculiarities of Asian migrant women. Asian women migration is characterized by concentrating in a very limited number of women dominated occupations. Socio-cultural attitudes in South East Asian countries are very liberal and have the permission for unmarried women to travel overseas to work. Social net works are
determining the migration flow. The supplies of women are very flexible related to men in their own countries and women from other countries of the world. There is feminization of migration in Asia and women are migrating by their own and not as dependents.

Peach (1994:38) deals with South Asian overseas migration, which has two main periods of direct outflow and a third period of secondary movement. The first period movement is indentured system. Second period was the post-war period of free market and migration and third period overlaps with the last and shares with it many of the destinations. This is the secondary migration, often forced of the descendants of the first phase of migration. The important one among these is the expulsion of Asians from East Africa, Burma, and Sri Lanka.

The vast majority of the Indian immigrants who came in the first decade of the 1900s were from Punjab and most of them were Sikhs. Asian Indians took the advantage of immigration through the law of family unification, leads to chain migration. The author also explains about their moral life, earnings etc (Daniels, 1994:85-96).

**Remittances and international migration:**

There are many studies related to remittances. Ziesemer (2008) deals with immigration, remittances and economic growth of national economies and explains impact of remittances in the sending economy.

Feminization of migration is the result of feminization of poverty. They earn less but have high propensity to save. It deals about Nepal women migration (Bhandra, 2007).

International remittances have a greater influence on reducing the depth and severity of poverty in Ghana and other African countries (Adams jr., 2006). It examines the demographic, economic and financial determinants of international remittance. It is determined by the skill composition of migrants. Low skilled migrants remit more to the country.
Dodson (1997) presents a South African migration project which explains the experiences of women in relation to cross-border migration and compares these experiences with those of men and the findings reveal that the experiences of migration of men and women are different. South Africa is still male based with low migration experiences among women. Women visit South Africa for shorter periods.

**Costs and benefits of international migration:**

The remittances sent by migrants are important to adjust balance of payment problems, to implement development programs and to eradicate poverty in the national economy. In migration, balancing of cost and benefit is important. Future economic gains and present and future loss due to various costs also should be taken into account. The decision to migrate depends on the costs and returns overtime.

Indians are the third largest ethnic group of immigrants in USA and in U.K. Female Indian immigrants get larger absolute gains and wage gains in U.K rather in U.S.A. (Coulon, et. al., 2008:3-19). All the migrants try to balance costs and benefits before international migration. Migration of doctors and nurses results in "Medical Brain Drain". India is the main source country of supplying nurses to U.K. In U.S.A. also top source country is India (36634) as per the 2002 statistics. Health workers are usually from high-income households, who need less remittance and who were staying permanently. Nurses migrate for temporarily and remit more income (Rutten, 2007:1-17).

UNFPA (2006) states that millions of women are migrating overseas and millions of dollars are sent to their homes and communities. For many women, migration offers a new world of greater equality. Migration transforms the quality of women. Migratory trends in developing and developed countries, globalization and migration of women, the migratory experiences of women, the socio-economic implications of women migration etc. are explained here. There is a feminization of migration after 1960.
U.N. High Level Dialogue (2006) on international migration and development discusses the international migration puzzles and paradoxes. Half of the international migrants are women. Women’s motives behind migration, constraints, concerns and impacts on sending areas are different from those of male migrants. Migrant women get a higher degree of autonomy and independence and that is not available at home. Immigrants in both developed and developing countries consist of more women because they can migrate for family unification.

IOM (2005:233-260) gives details about international migrants in different countries with a gender perspective. There is a feminization of migration in the Middle East countries. Migration brings both costs and benefits for receiving country and sending country and these are often shared by different groups. A gender dimension of costs and benefits of skilled migration is also given. Skilled women frequently sacrifice their own career for the sake of their family or they may be disadvantaged in the recognition process due to gender bias. The push factor behind female migration is poverty.

Staab (2004) focuses on specific differences between men and women migration. Labour market is one of the spheres where inequality and discrimination affect women most starkly. Women’s migrations differ from men in terms of its features and implications.

A study conducted by ILO (2002) relates to gender and migration. It explains the importance of considering gender issues in migration. Poverty is the main push factor for migration of men and women. The wage differences in sending and receiving countries compelled women to migrate. Due to the unemployment of male at home and because of the reduction in demand for male workers in recession in receiving countries as well as economics shift to serious spun female migration. Women and men follow different migration pattern and women suffer human abuses and violence due to their dual vulnerability as women and migrant.
Taylor (1996:87) shows direct and indirect effects of changes in the economic returns to international migration on migrant sending areas in Mexico, Kenya and Java. An increase in the returns to migration produces lost labour and remittance effects that generally are large and positive for household incomes but negative for village production activities in the short run.

United Nations (1999:1-5) gives female migrants trend in international migration. Migration and development are closely related. Remittances act as an important mechanism through which development takes place. The theory ‘New Economics of Migration’ is true while considering remittances and economic development. Female migration leads to empowerment of women.

**International migration of women - Indian experience:**

**Trends and Pattern**

Among the four types of migration streams rural to rural, rural to urban, urban to rural and urban to urban migration, rural to rural migration has been dominant in India. It accounts for about 54.7 percent of total migration within the country. With respect to distance of migration intra state migration (82 percent) is predominant (Mitra and Murayama, 2008:3032).

India was one of the first countries to respond to the demand for lower skilled labour in the Gulf countries. UAE has the highest numbers of emigrants 1,94,412, followed by Saudi Arabia 99,879. Emigration from India for employment during 2005 was 5.49 lakhs. Private remittances for the year 2005-'06 is Rs. 52563 crores. The migrant workers belonged to semi skilled, unskilled categories and come from poor economic and social backgrounds. Many of them are landless poor from the lower social orders and indigenous communities that migrate for survival (AMI, 2005).
Irudaya Rajan (2003) divides the emigration flow from India into four phases. First phase covered the period between 1985 to 1991 contains the migrant population of 0.11 to 0.2 million Indians, second phase from 1992-1997 involved a migrant Indian population of 0.4 million, third phase 1998 onwards with a very heavy fall in emigration and last phase from the beginning of the 21st century i.e., 0.4 million in 2002. No statistics is available by gender at an all India level.

Umadevi (2002:4421-4427) explains about the movements of Software professionals from India to U.S. especially Asian Indian women in the U.S. They can be classified into three groups: the high profile successful entrepreneurs; the software professionals on H-1B work visa and the dependent wives of male software professionals. Indian women became very successful in their I.T. area and they transcended gender. They kept dichotomy or behavior duality at home and at work.

About 27 percent of the Indian population were migrants. About 77 percent of the migrants in India were females. They out number males both in rural and urban areas. Nearly 99 percent of the migrants are internal migrants. The main reason for rural and urban migration of women is marriage (rural 89 percent and urban 59 percent) (Department of Economics and Statistics, 2001:1-329).


Roy Guha (2001:1-8) studied about the Asian workers in the Middle East. Half of the international migrants are women and they were typically young and not married and moving alone in search of work. In 1994, 97 percent of the Asian workers in the Middle East belong to India and Pakistan. The international migrant women population in India consists of nearly half of the migrants. The migrant male-female ratio in India is 53:47.
Vertovec (1995:57-61) study discusses about the Indian indentured laboures in Caribbean. From 1820 onwards-indentured labourers from India were working in Mauritius. Between 1838 and 1917 more than half a million Indians were brought to the Caribbean. From the second half of the 19th century Indian peasants faced famines due to the demise of Indian industries and there was widespread unemployment. So there was the migration of indentured labour. In migration the sex ratio was three males to one female. Males have to pay half the cost of return passage and females have to pay one-third. Indians had uneasy relationships with Whites there.

In the beginning of 1980s as many as 75000 persons of Indian origin lived in the United Kingdom, 365000 in the United States, 250000 in Canada, 168000 in Western Europe and 420000 in Australia (Nayaar, 1989:96-97).

**Reasons for international migration of women:**

Thiara (1995) explains Indian indentured workers in Mauritius, Natal and Fiji. During the second half of the 19th century the need for unskilled and cheap labour was high and indentured labour filled the gap. Famine and unemployment were the main reasons for migration. Indian indentured labour was an ‘exile into bondage’. That was a change from one form of poverty and servitude to another. Assaults on both men and women by overseers and Sirdars were common; women were forced to do sexual service and were considered as a burden by employers. Indian women were doing hoeing, planting, weeding, cutting and tea picking. They worked 8-10 hours per day and were paid a fraction of the male wage and received half of the rations allotted to men.

**Pull factors and international migration:**

Willoughby’s (2005) studies on Gulf countries’ female emigrants especially from Kerala highlights that the Arab countries with less per-capita GDP employ more local labour and countries with high per-capita GDP employ more expatriate workers. One of the reasons for the employment of female migrants is the increase in demand for health and educational services, information technology and leisure services, more labourers’ especially female labourers were needed.
Consequences of international migration:

Thomas Isaac (1992) discusses the economic consequences of Gulf war in terms of loss of assets and income. There was a problem of return emigration due to Iraq-Kuwait war. There was a reduction in remittances due to return emigration and had its impact on domestic employment, income, consumption, saving and balance of payments. Those who returned from Kuwait, particularly the unskilled migrants and those who had less than two years of experience resulted in indebtedness and problems of destitution in India especially in Kerala.

Status of migrant women:

Percot Marie (2005:1-6) studies about Indian Nurses especially from Kerala in the Gulf region and points out that the migration opportunity has changed the status of nurses, which used to be rather low in India. Migration to the Gulf is an intermediate step to the west. Migration gives women more economic and social status and more economic autonomy. It is a study about Indian Diaspora nurses in the Gulf Countries.

Remittances and international migration:

India is the leading recipient of remittances in the world. In 2005 India received $ 23.5 billion. He explains the relative importance of remittance and the strength of the Indian economy. In India mainly remittances flow through formal channels and an increasing number of remitters have moved from being pure savers to investors (Chishti, 2007:1-10).

International migration in Kerala State:

Trends and Patterns:

International migration had remained stationary during 2003-07 and it was 18.5 lakhs in 2007. The number of return emigrants had been 8.9 lakh in 2003 and 8.9 lakh in 2007. In 2007 Kerala emigrants to Gulf region has comedown to 89 percent from 90 percent in 2004. UAE has the first rank of
receiving number of emigrants from Kerala (42 percent), while Saudi Arabia’s share declined to 24 percent. The average age of male migrants has been 26.8 years and that of females 22.7 years in 2007 (Economic Review, 2007:523).

Zachariah and Rajan’s (2007b) work gives most recent migration monitoring studies (MMS) conducted by CDS. This is also based on 10,000 household selected from 14 districts and 63 taluks of the state. The proportion of female migrants deceased to 14.4 percent in 2007 from 16.8 percent in 2003. The proportion of unmarried women also decreased to 13.2 percent in 2007 from 25.1 percent in 2003.

Keralites remained an immobile class up to the beginning of the 20th century. Then there was internal migration, that is, migration to other states and international migration. There were Malayalees in different parts of the world, but few in number only (Joseph, 2006:8-23).

A suggestion was made in the Migration study of Kerala undertaken in 1999 that there should be a migration monitoring system for the periodic assessment of migration situation in the State. For this purpose the State had undertaken a study, mainly concentrating on the economic consequences of migration. The major finding of this study is that only 26 percent of the households are the direct beneficiaries of migration (Zachariah and Rajan, 2004a).

In 2004, the female migration had gone up to 16.8 percent. Migration to the Gulf went down to 90 percent in 2004. Migration to other countries except Gulf countries went up to 10 percent, Pathanamthitta district has the highest Migration Prevalence Rate (MPR) (99 percent), while the state average is 59 percent. Non Resident Indians deposits with scheduled Banks in India had increased from Rs. 23.04 crore in 1991 to Rs. 28.87 crore in June 2003 and again increased to Rs. 30100 crore in March 2004 (Economic Review, 2004:429-430).
Irudaya Rajan’s (2003:3-22) paper on the trends in migration and about the major destinations and remittances received by Kerala, indicates that one of the positive outcomes of Kerala model of development is emigration, which leads to remittances, which leads to socio-economic changes in the economy and which leads to emigration. There is also a study about women migrants. Most of the women are married at the time of migration and women are more educated than male migrants.

According to the survey conducted by the State Government in 1999 there do 2.18 lakh female emigrants in the state constituting, 15.72 percent of the total emigrants. Out of these total female emigrants 65 percent are unemployed and 35 percent are employed. The married female emigrants constitute 60 percent. Out of the total employed female emigrants, 17.3 percent are from Kottayam district and 13.9 percent are from Pathanamthitta district. Employed female emigrants from Malappuram constitute only 1.75 percent (Economic Review, 2003:372-373).

Kurien’s (2002:10) work on the differences in migration pattern, remittance use and migration induced social change reveals that three communities in Kerala - Mappila Muslims, Ezhava Hindus and Syrian Christians dominated the migration stream. The large-scale migration from Kerala leads to ethnic transformation. Author studied their villages each one dominated by Christians, Hindus and Muslims. In the Christian village there are many female migrant nurses and migration leads to empowerment of women.

Between 1988- ‘92 and 1993-‘97 the number of emigrants increased by 120 percent. Nearly 95 percent of the migrants migrated to Middle East countries. Saudi Arabia alone accounted for 40 percent of the total migrants. Outside the Gulf the principal destination are USA with 2.2 percent of the total migrants. By the second half of 1998 emigrants from Kerala constituted 1.55 million. The principal source of emigration from Kerala is Malappuram – Thrissur area. An average emigrant from Kerala spent Rs. 44000 for going abroad. In 1998 there were 739000 return emigrants. One eighth of the households have a return emigrant each (Zachariah, K.C., et. al., 2002b:17-19).
According to a study by Zachariah, K.C., et. al., (2002c:135-159) there is a decline of emigrants to Gulf countries especially to UAE. The main reason for this is the immigration policies of the host countries. Among the states in India, Kerala accounted for the largest number of migrants to Gulf countries. The study found that 67 percent of the returnee emigrants are from two countries Saudi Arabia and UAE. The total number of emigrants in UAE in 2001 was about one-lakh persons.

Another study by Zachariah, K.C., et. al., (2001) concentrates on three important aspects of Kerala emigrants in United Arab Emirates: changes in labour demand for different categories of emigrant workers, educational and training requirements of future emigrants and problems of Kerala emigrants regarding wages and working conditions. The data was collected from 361 sample emigrants in UAE from Kerala. The sample constitutes just 8 female emigrants and the rest were males. This is not a good representation of samples to study the female emigrants.

The study by Zachariah, K.C., et. al., (2003:309-381) gives a small description of gender migration in Kerala. The migration from Kerala is a male affair because in the case of migration and return emigration one out of 10 is a female. The proportion of female emigrants among all migrants is highest in Kottayam district. The difference between economic status among males and females are 45.3 percent at the country of origin, 41.6 percent at the destination and 76.3 percent after return. The first systematic study on international migration from Kerala state of India was done by Center for Development Studies. About 10,000 households were selected from 14 districts. The important findings of the study were: 95 percent of the migrants had migrated to Gulf countries. Nearly half of the migrants were Muslims and the highest number of migrants is from Malappuram district. Nearly 9 percent of the migrants were women. The highest proportions of female migrants were from Kottayam district. One out of every 10 migrant was a woman in Kerala. Highest number of female migrants is from Christian community and Muslims have the lowest proportion of female migrants. Around 83 percent of the women are married/divorced /widowed.
A survey conducted by the Department of Economics and Statistics (Kerala) (1994:5-11) reveals that out of the total migrants in the state, 56.09 percent of the total migration was to foreign countries and 43.9 percent of the migration to other states and Union territories of the country. Gulf countries alone accounted for 95.89 percent of the total emigrants. Total male migrants to Gulf countries constitute 94.8 percent and female migrants constitute 5.2 percent. To other countries male migrants constitute 74.28 percent and female migrants constitute 25.72 percent. Majority of the migrants were youth.

The study by the Commerce Research Bureau (1978:6-9) deals with magnitude and extent of labour migration and brain drain from Kerala. Minor communities like Muslims and Christians and backward communities like Ezhava constituted major portion of migrants. Migration is a male phenomenon except in central Travancore region where a large number of female nurses had migrated. Nurses from Kerala are employed in different parts of the world. There is a ‘big market’ for nurses brides in Kerala and bridegroom preferred them because they are potential employees abroad. Majority of the Indians working in USA, including nurses earn high income and majority of them are accounted among the upper 25 percent of the income earners in the country.

**Costs and returns of international migration:**

Human Development Report (2005:77-79) points out that the high remittances from the migrants helped Kerala economy to breakout the stagnation trap prior to 1987. There is a revival of growth in the economy and increase in the per capita income as a result of remittances. There are two positive effects of remittances in favour of growth: (a) Consumption and saving of the people had increased and (b) there are new investment initiatives in Kerala. Acharyya and Karr (2004:67) argues that remittance flow reduces rural and urban poverty in Kerala.
**Consequences of international migration:**

Zachariah and Rajan’s (2005) paper measures the unemployment rate during 1998 and 2003. There was an increase in unemployment rate during this period 1998 and 2003. The important reason for unemployment is the influx of a large number of women into the labour force. Other reasons are aging of the labour force, large increase in the number of persons with secondary or higher level of education and emigration and inward remittances.

Prakash (2002b) study about the urban unemployment in Kochi city indicates that joblessness is the basic problem of educated youth and this leads to their migration to other parts of India and foreign countries.

Migration has been one of the positive outcomes of Kerala model of development. The elderly population in Kerala is increasing. The elderly population in 1998 is 3.4 million and the rate of growth during 1991-98 was more than 3 percent per year. The proportion of elderly was 9 percent in 1991 and it had grown to 10 percent in 1998. An excess of 75 females per 1000 males are there in the elderly person. Pathanamthitta and Kottayam have more old age homes than any other districts in the state. Migration caused loneliness among the elderly (Zachariah, K.C., et. al., 2002b:54-62).

The remittances of the expatriates are flowing through two channels—remittances through legal channels and remittances through illegal channels. The remittances through illegal channels dried since 1991 because of the liberalization of exchange rate. Remittances increased in absolute terms during the entire period 1972-73 to 1999-2001 but accelerated after the exchange rate liberalization. Net private remittances during the period 1999 was 8257.14 crores (Kannan and Hari, 2002:200-207).

Another study on the mental health of women and men in Kerala reveals that the well-being is highest among households with at least one migrant and lowest among non-migrant households. Women of emigrant or return emigrant families have relatively better mental health and gender differences also low for those households. Men of migrant families have relatively more mental distress.
Women of emigrant households have more orthodox gender ideology (Mohamed, et. al., 2002:17-29).

Banarjee, et. al., (2002) make a micro level study of the influence of emigration in Kerala economy. Emigration makes changes in Kerala economy and these changes have been analyzed in three different grounds: Physical changes, economic changes and socio-demographic changes.

The study by Zachariah and Rajan (2001:47-70) mainly concentrates on the women who have been left behind by their husbands as a result of migration. The data was collected from selected districts in Kerala. Separation of wives leads to loneliness, added responsibilities, worries about future and financial debt. But it leads to autonomy of females. Remittances from their husbands raised their authority and status. As a result of the migration of the working age population in the state, the dependency burden that is, the number of children and elderly persons have increased. Pathanamthitta and Kottayam districts have the highest proportion of elderly population and old age homes in Kerala. The younger generation has no time and money to care the elderly. Migration has a significant effect on the married women in the economy. One million married women, one out of eight living away from their husbands due to migration. A group of women who are not migrants or return emigrants have involved in the migration process indirectly and most of them are Muslims. According to Gopinathan Nair (1988) majority of the migrants migrated with the help of friends and relatives. Network acts as an important agent of migration in Kerala.

Return emigrants:

Usha (2006:145-157) gives a microanalysis of female emigration from Kerala, using two panchayats with 56 samples. The study mainly concentrated on returned female emigrants. Most of the returnees were below 35 years and married at the time of first migration. Majority of the returnees were Christians and there were no Muslim women in the survey.
Prakash (2004) examines the trends in emigration, return emigration, causes of the return and the status of the return emigrants. The total numbers of emigrants were 13.6 Lakhs in 1999. A break up of workers’ remittances received from all countries shows that 38.6 percent of the remittances were received from Saudi Arabia alone, UAE accounts for 27.2 percent and the countries other than Gulf accounts for 8.5 percent of the total remittances received in Kerala during the period 2000.

CDS (Centre for Development Studies, Kerala) study deals with return emigrants in Kerala- their occupational mobility, utilization of their material and human resources for the Kerala economy and their rehabilitation, the financial cost and benefits of migration, the problems faced by them in Gulf countries and problems faced after return to Kerala. Most of the return emigrants live in Malappuram district and most of them have returned from Saudi Arabia. A typical return emigrant is a married Muslim male, in his thirties with an incomplete secondary level of education (Zachariah, K. C., et. al., 2001a:1-24).

Conclusion:

Migration- interregional, interstate, national, and international has been a topic of serious study and discussion among the economists and sociologists. These studies highlighted the various aspects and implications of migration. As the world is growing or shrinking into a global village, migration studies have become more relevant now than ever before. In Kerala, even though international migration is a male phenomenon, no studies related to female emigration from Kerala has been undertaken. The Centre for Development Studies had conducted many studies related to migration. No study focusing on female emigration for Kerala state has been undertaken. The trends, patterns, push and pull factors, reasons, costs, benefits and consequences of female emigration are different from male emigration. It is said that parents have a special preference to female child and their education because of the benefits they are going to receive from the emigration of female child. This study deals with not only about female emigrants, but their husbands and children also. So far no study has been made seriously. A
study with special focus on female emigrants is more effective, more descriptive and more useful than a general study. This study also deals with female emigrants from all continents who had migrated from Kerala. A comparative description of Kerala female emigrants from all continents is also given. More importance is given to employment, costs and benefits. A holistic study about female international migration will throw light on the reasons of migration, solutions to the problems and suggestions for improvement.
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