CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

A literature review may be purely descriptive, as in an annotated bibliography or it may provide a critical assessment of the literature in a particular field, stating where the weakness and gaps are, contrasting the views of particular authors or raising questions. Such a review will not be just summary but will also evaluate and show relationships between different materials, so that key themes emerge. Most often associated with academic-oriented literature, such as theses, a literature review usually precedes a research proposal and results section. A well-structured literature review is characterized by a logical flow of ideas, current and relevant references with consistent, appropriate referencing style, proper flow of terminology and an unbiased and comprehensive view of the previous research on the topic. This chapter aims to provide a general overview of the literature relevant to the present study. The reviews are arranged under two heads. viz

1. Theoretical background

2. Empirical studies

Theoretical background

Migration from one area to another in search of improved livelihoods is a key feature of human history. While some regions and sectors fall behind in their capacity to support their growing populations, there are others, which move ahead and people migrate from these areas to have a better access to these emerging opportunities. Industrialisation widens the gap between the rural and the urban
areas, inducing a shift of the work force towards the industrializing areas. There is
an extensive debate on the factors that cause populations to shift, from those that
lay an emphasis on individual rationality and household behavior to those that cite
the structural logic of the process of capitalist development. Theories on migration
are essential to identify the causes of migration. Theories pertaining to the study on
migrations are given below.

**Ravenstein’s laws of migration (1875-89) and Zipf’s inverse distance law (1949)**

The volume of migration is inversely proportional to the distance travelled
by migrants, and directly proportional to the populations of the source and
destination. Most migration travel short distances and with increasing distance
the numbers of migrants decrease. Migration occurs in a series of waves or steps.
Each significant migration stream producers, to a degree a counterstream. Urban
dwellers are less migratory than rural dwellers. The major causes of migration are
economic.

**Stouffer’s theory of intervening opportunities (1940)**

The volume of migration between two places is related not so much to
distance and population size, but to perceive opportunities that exist in those two
places and between them.

**The Lee model (1966)**

It introduced the idea of intervening obstacles’ that need to be overcome
before migration takes place. Source and destination are seen as possessing a range
of attributes; each would-be migrant perceives these attributes differently, depending on personal characteristics, such as age, sex and marital status.

**Harris and Todaro’s (1970)**

“Migration, unemployment and development: A Two sector a analysis” is a model on rural-urban migration in underdeveloped countries. The main idea of the Harris-Todaro model is that labour migration in underdeveloped countries is due to rural–urban differences in averages expected wages rather than actual wages. The migrants consider the various opportunities of employment available to them in rural and urban sectors and choose the one that maximizes their expected wages from migration. The minimum urban wage is substantially higher than the rural wage. If more employment opportunities are created into the urban sector at the minimum wage, the expected will rise and rural-urban migration will increase. Expected wages are measured by the difference in real urban income and rural agricultural income and the probability of a migrant getting an urban job. In fact, a migrant compares his expected income for a given time horizon in the urban sector with his prevailing average rural income and migrates if the former is more than the latter.

Thus migration in the Harris-Todaro Model is viewed as the wage or income gap between the urban and the rural sector, but all migrants cannot be absorbed in the urban sector at high wages. Many fail to find a job and get employment in the informal urban sector at wages which are even lower than in the rural sector. Thus they join the queue of the underemployed or disguised unemployed in the urban sector.
L. Willian Arthur lewis (1979) “Dual labor market theory”

Dual labor market theory states that migration is mainly caused by pull factors in more developed countries. This theory assumes that the labor markets in these developed countries consist of two segments: primary, which requires high-skilled labor and secondary, which is very labor-intensive but requires low-skilled workers. This theory assumes that a migration from less developed countries into more developed countries is a result of pull created by a need for labor in the developed countries in their secondary market. Migrant workers are needed to fill the lowest rung of the labor market because the native laborers do not want to do these jobs as they present a lack of mobility. This creates a need for migrant workers. Furthermore, the initial dearth in available labor pushes wages up, making migration even more enticing.

Marxist Theory (1980)

Migration is seen as the inevitable outcome of the spread of capitalism. Migration is the only option for people once they are alienated from the land.

Standing gay (1981)

Theory of materialism, the size and level of migration are determined by the production of society, nature of wealth, land ownerships system and factors controlling the growth of forces of production in a society. He drew attention towards migration accruing during the transition period between the ends of the feudalistic production beginning of the capitalistic production. In ancient times, whatever migration took place was in a particular group, while migration in the modern capitalist system is largely of personnel type. In the feudalistic system
there was no major migration because the cultivated were under the control of feudal lords. During this period, there was no special development of the cities and the rural push migration did not occur.

**Veena Thandani Todaro Model on gender and migration (1984)**

Men and women differ in their response to migration factors and that sex discrimination in the labour market has an important impact. The independent movement of women (unattached) is characterized as ‘autonomous’ female migration by Veena Thadani and Michael Todaro. But according to them what distinguishes female migration from that of men is the factor of marriage. More women than men migrate to marry or to marriage. More women than men migrate to marry or to marriage. They talk of three distinct types viz.,

a) Marriage migration where migration of women takes place because of marriage,

b) Marital migration where women migrate for better marital prospects and

c) Mobility marriage where marriage is seen as a way to climb the socio-economic ladder.

**The stark model (1989)**

This extends the Todaro model by arguing that there is more to migration than the optimizing behavior of migrants; risk spreading in families is one such factor.

**Duncan theory (1990)**

He presented a theory regarding the mobility of population engaged in agriculture. His theory is the combination of microscopic and micros coping active
forces in the process of migration. According to Duncan, whatever effects are created by changing in structural factors of the country the same effects are caused by the migration thus, achieving many structural aims, migration is the functional alternative to social change.


This theory of migration states that the main reason for labor migration is wage difference between two geographic locations. Theses wage differences are usually linked to geographical labor demand and supply. It can be said that areas with a shortage of labor but an excess of capital have a high relative wage while areas with a high labor supply and a dearth of capital have a low relative wage. Labor tends to flow low-wage areas to high-wage areas. Often, with this flow of labor come changes in the sending as well as the receiving country. Neoclassical economic theory is best used to describe transnational migration, because it is not confined by international immigrations laws and similar government regulations.

**Tarek at Tayeb-(2010)" Relative deprivation theory”**

Relative deprivation theory states that awareness of the income difference between neighbors or other household in the migrant- sending community is an important factor in migration. The incentive to migrate is a lot higher in areas that have a high level of economic inequality. In the short run, remittances may increase inequality, but in the long run, they may actually decrease it. There are two stages of migration for a worker, first, they invest in human capital formation and then they try to capitalize on their investments. In this way, successful migrants may use their new capital to provide for better schooling for their children.
and better homes for their families. Successful high-skilled emigrants may serve as an example for neighbors and potential migrants who hope to achieve that level of success.

2.1 REVIEW OF LITERATURE

A study of the past literature would help us to understand the various dimensions of the present research problem clearly and would act as a guideline for carrying out the present study. The review of studies covering recent literature has been classified under the following heading.

1. Studies related to the causes(determining factors) for migration

2. Studies related to the consequences of labour migration;

3. Studies related to the issues of the migrant workers;

4. Studies related to Gender and migration

5. Studies related to the protective measures for migrant workers.

1. Studies Related to Causes for Migration

Standing, Guy, (1981) conducted a study on “migration and modes of exploitation: The social origins of immobility and mobility” had expressed that population mobility had taken many forms but in recent decades labour migration had become a major phenomenon in the low-income countries. With the commercialization of agriculture, and the growth of wage labour as also the tendency for the urban-industrial growth to exceed that of the rural agricultural growth, unpopulation mobility had increased enormously. Migration facilitates the concentration of the work force, in particular areas the development of a domestic
market for consumption and production goods have all contributed to the migration of the labour force.

**Gordon, F. Dejong et al., (1981)** have studied the migration decision-making process in a few selected developing countries. The study had revealed that in Korea, 55 percent of the urban immigration was due to seeking better jobs (for unaccompanied males) and 63 percent in respect of males who were accompanied by their household members. In Indonesia, 41.7 per cent of the men migrants had migrated to get better jobs. In Java, 54.9 per cent of the men migrants had moved to cities to get better jobs. In Iran, 63.7 per cent of the men migration was for getting better jobs and 13.5 percent had migrated in search of employment. In Thailand, 28.1 percent had moved to the urban areas to get better jobs and 36.9 percent had migrated in search of jobs. The overall analysis had shown that the economic motive was the most important motive for rural urban migration in all the developing countries where the surveys were conducted. The other reasons such as job transfers, education and joining with the family members and the like were found to be much less important. The analysis had further revealed that potential migrants who wanted to migrate for economic reasons were found to be males in the working age-group and there was found to be a strong economic motive for migration in all the developing countries.

**Baines (1993)** examines some of the factors influencing the direction of migration in nineteenth century Britain, and show that much of this migration comprised predominantly short distance, sometimes temporary, moves this is followed by a discussion of the contribution which migration made to urban growth. The latter part of the paper focuses on overseas migration, including the
economic effects of Jewish and Irish immigration. The origins of the substantial number of British emigrants and, finally the relationship between emigration and internal migration.

Gupta, A.K. et al., (1998) in their article entitled “Sociological analysis of Migration of Agricultural Labourers from Eastern to North Western Region of India” have studied the causes for migration in the Ludhiana and Hoshiarpur districts of Punjab and observed that the migrant males were up to 40 years of age and 75.6 percent of them were illiterates. They were mostly married and the majority of the migrants (86.2 percent) had a family size of five or more numbers. An analysis of the causes for migration had shown that nearly 89.0 percent of the migrants had migrated to get better employment; 82.8 percent had migrated for getting better wages. Job security, better food and better living conditions were the reasons that were given next and they came in that order. Among the push factors, unemployment or under employment was pointed out as the most important reason and low wages, poverty, lack of irrigation facilities, flood and droughts, small land holdings or landless situation, indebtedness, malnutrition and social conflict were given as the reasons and in that order of ranking.

Ronald Skeldon (1999) in his article entitled “Migration and Poverty” had stated that migration is often seen simply as a flight from poverty; and when there are no opportunities available locally people migrate in order to survive. In Asia such cases although still found in small pockets across that vast area, have become less common due to the rapid economic development witnessed in the latter half of the twentieth century in Asia. Examples within living memory include the “Great Hunger” in China in 1959-1960, when millions of people migrated in their
desperate attempts to find food, although millions more were prevented from moving away by the Chinese authorities. Another, more limited but more recent examples could be found in South Asia such as in Orissa in India in 2001. Migration may be an avenue for avoiding some cases whereas it contributes to an extension of poverty in some other cases. Migration is thus both the creator and also the product of poverty.

**Todaro (2001)** says that the factors influencing the decision to migration are varied and complex. Because migration is a selective process affecting individuals with certain economic, social, educational, and demographic characteristics the relative influence on economic and non-economic factors may not only between nations and regions but also within defined geographic areas and populations. Much of the early resources on migration tended to focus on social, cultural, and psychological factors.

**De Haan, A and Rogaly, B (2002)** In their article on “Migrant Workers and Their role in Rural Change” had stated that migration from one area to another in search of improved livelihood is a key feature of human history. While some regions and sectors fall behind in their capacity to support populations, others moved ahead and the people migrate to access these emerging opportunities. Industrialization had widened the gap between the rural and the urban areas, inducing a shift of the workforce towards the industrializing areas. In the past few decades, new patterns have emerged challenging the old paradigms. First, there have been shifts in the work force towards the tertiary sector in both the developed and developing countries and urban congestion and the growth of communication infrastructure has slowed down the migration to the urban areas. Thirdly, in the
developing countries, the workforce shift towards the secondary and the tertiary sector has been slow and has been dominated by an expansion of the ‘informal’ sector, which has grown over a period of time. In countries like India, permanent shifts of population and work force co-exist with the ‘circulatory’ movement of populations between lagging and developed regions and between rural and urban areas, which are mostly being absorbed in the unorganized sectors of the economy.

**Li Giang (2003)** finds in his study on the labour market for peasant workers that, as in many developing countries, such workers are largely employed in the informal sector and listed under “Informal unemployment”. Informal employment refers to all kinds of employment involving short term or temporary employment with unstable jobs and the self-employed engaged in small-scale production, business or services. Without a perfect labour contract system and the social security system in its present unfinished state, this form of employment is a reality in China and in many other developing countries. At present, the policy followed by some local governments to avoid rural urban migration is dominated by the desire to drive out informal employment and to impose strict norms and standards on them. However, at the present level of economic development in China, it is impossible to provide jobs solely in the formal sector and any attempt to develop only the latter would not only retard but might even strangle economic development.

**Tan Shen (2003)** had analysed the motive forces for migration from the rural to the urban centres in China, and had pointed out the following motives. Firstly, leaving home for elsewhere was a question that was decided by the migrants whole family rather than by the individual alone. Secondly, the Chinese
peasants migrate with the main aim of earning more. Thirdly, based on the theory of manpower capital, it had been argued that exodus is a kind of manpower capital investment in which the expectation is related to the conditions of the manpower in issue such as age, gender, educational level and the like. Fourthly unlike the view, which was once very widespread namely that peasants were leaving home “blindly”, researchers have studied from various perspectives about the reasons for migration such as economic, migration and the like and have concluded that exodus is a choice of interest maximization and cost minimization.

Anup K. Karan (2003) had examined the socio-economic factors behind labour migration from the rural areas of Bihar. Migration was fairly distributed across all castes and classes. Muslims, landlords, middle class peasants and the non-agriculturist classes had reported more of long-term migration as compared to the other social groups. The two classes among whom migration had increased substantially were found to be the landlords and the non-agriculturists. While for laborers and the poor peasants migration had for long been a coping up mechanism, with a desire to earn more. Also, many people nowadays prefer to work outside their homes as it enables them to slowly break among from the caste taboos that exist in their villages. While the upper caste people do not indulge in any manual wage work in their villages because of the caste taboos, the lower caste people undertake all kinds of work for wages. The upper caste youth migrate to avoid low wages on low self-employed work. In the case of the people belonging to the lower castes also, many people migrate to avoid the situation of becoming the victims of the prevailing system of caste discrimination in the village.
Md. Abdullah Al Masum (2004) in his research work on “Bangladeshi Migrant Laborers in Overseas: A Case Study of Middle East 1971 – 1992” had stated that the Bangladesh laborers got an opportunity to work in the Middle East mainly after the price of oil increased in 1973. The migration of laborers was not in significant numbers for a couple of years from the period of oil price increase. It was known only after a survey that there were 6087 Bangladesh migrant laborers in the Middle East till the year 1976. This limited number of migrant laborers could not play any significant role in solving the problem of unemployment in Bangladesh. In such a situation the Bangladesh government took the formal approach towards manpower treating it as a commercial commodity. The government of Bangladesh, keeping in view the immediate gains from the export, felt the necessity of institutionalizing the process and formally established the Bureau of Manpower, Education and Training (BMET) and the Bangladesh Overseas Employment Services Limited (BOESL) to co-ordinate with the migrant laborers abroad for taking initiatives by the government and the situation took a new turn and the number of migrants had increased from 6087 in 1976 to 11,42,555 in 1992. At that time the percentage of the Bangladeshi migrant workers in the Middle East was 98 per cent of the migrant workers in overseas.

David Mosse, et al., (2005) have examined the seasonal labor migration for casual work in urban construction and related industries was an irreversible and painful and socially disrupt element in the livelihood of the hill advises in Western India. The expansion of the urban – industrial corridor extending from Ahmedabad to Mumbai, provides an opportunity for casual workers in construction work. The hill migrants were more likely to be found laboring in the distant urban
construction sites rather than in the timber yards or the irrigated paddy fields. A recent survey (1996-97) of 42 hill villages had revealed that a conservative estimate of around 65 percent of the households (up to 95 percent in some villages) and 48 percent of the adult population were involved in seasonal migration overwhelmingly for casual urban construction work which had become the primary source of cash income for hill families (contributing to 86 percent of their cash income) with an average of half of the adult population in the hill villages migrating for one half of the year, leaving only the old, the sick or the disabled, and thus migration has become a major massive event in the rural life.

**Vikhas Jha (2005)** in his article on “Migration of Orissa’s Tribal Woman; A New Story of exploitation” explains the causes for the migration of the tribal women workers. In Orissa’s poverty stricken tribal areas, recent shifts in migration trends have revealed an increasing movement of young women towards urban centers in search of work. During the period 1950 to 1980, tribal people had migrated to the rural areas of Bihar and West Bengal mainly to work as agricultural laborers. But from 1980 onwards, they had started migrating to bigger cities also in search of employment. This was obvious from the large concentration of the tribal people in metropolitan cities like Delhi, Kolkata and Mumbai. The tribal families nowadays are driven by poverty and send their unmarried girls to cities in search of work. Yet the Orissa government can do very little to stop the process of migration, as migration is not a matter of choice, but it is more often a matter of compulsion to avoid death due to starvation.

**Amitab Kundu (2007)** In his paper on “To Migrate or not to Migrate” indicates that a rural labourer will be ready to take the risk of migration to the
urban area if the distance between the rural and the urban area is small. Again if
the distance is large, it will be more beneficial to the rural labourer not to migrate.
If the distance is not large then the labourer might prefer to migrate, as the
probability of getting a job in the urban informal sector with higher wages will be
high while the traveling cost might be low. But with an increase in the distance, the
worker becomes less and less interested in migration due to the lower probability
of getting a job in the urban informal sector due to lack of information about the
jobs and due to higher traveling expenses.

II. Studies related to the Consequences of Labour Migration

Colin Macandrews et al., (1975) had studied about the internal movement
and its effects in Malaysia. In Malaysia rural urban migration had also worsened
racial tensions. The rural population was basically Malays while the urban
population was basically Chinese so that the rural urban migration would mean the
movement of the Malays into the Chinese-dominated urban areas and in business
activities. Under normal circumstances a Malay migrant would have more
difficulty than a non-Malay resident in obtaining a job because of the structure of
the urban market. Where the rate of urban labour unemployment is already high
the problems and the frustrations of the Malay migrant would get accentuated.

Vatsala Narain and K.B. Gotpagar (1983) their study “Bombay and its in
migration” had stated that the age of the migrant at the time of arrival to the city
was 18 years for men. The work participation rates of migrants (males only) appear
to be higher for migrants than for non-migrants. The stream of migration had
shown that for males, the rural to the city moves were more than that of the city to
city migration. The analysis on the unit of migration had shown that more than half of the men migrants were not accompanied by any one else when they had arrived in Mumbai. The study also had revealed that 59.91 percent of the men migrants had migrated to Mumbai in order to get a job; 20.69 percent for education, 12.93 percent had migrated due to their marriage’ 1.51 percent for business purposes 3.88 percent for joining their family members and 1.08 percent for other reasons.

Biswajit Banerjee (1988) in his study on rural to urban migration had found that the migrants had continued their contact their place of origin. Over four fifths of the migrants in the sample, in his study had reported about their having family members in the rural areas and their, familial ties were also manifested through regular their visits and remittances to their place of origin. Three quarters of the sample had reported visits to their place of origin and two-thirds of the sample members were rendering remittance. On an average the migrants had sent 23 percent of their monthly urban earnings to their family members. The needs of rural family members had played a significant role in the determination of the amounts remitted by the migrants. About 93 percent of the migrants had sent money for “household expenses”.

Philip Martin et al (1996) have summarized the important benefits that flow through labour migration. The number of jobs and the economic activity had increased in Asian countries, as also the trade between the labor exporting and labor importing countries. It is very hard to weigh the costs and benefits of labor migration, because there is no agreement as to what the costs and the benefits are. For example some consider integrating foreign migrants to provide the benefit of increased diversity within the immigration country, and the opportunity to forge
links to the migrants’ countries of origin as a benefit. For others coping with another language and culture has a high cost. Perhaps the most important lesson from migration experience is that things change quite often. Some of the changes wrought by labor migration are predictable. For example, migrants become less and less flexible in the host country. The Hispanic civil rights movements, led in the Western U.S by the united farm workers union, could be cited as an example.

**M.J. Mohan Rao (2000)** in his study on migration of labor and school dropouts had analysed the dynamics of wage determination and employment generation in Indian agriculture the observed that two major changes had taken place in recent years. First, the labour absorption capacity in Indian agriculture as a whole had declined; and second, the real wages of agricultural labour have at last begun to rise upwards. This had brought out the importance of investing in the creation of more productive non-farm jobs, which had contributed to the migration of labour from one place to another.

**Satish Sharma et al., (2000)** have focused on the life of the Ethiopian migrants in the United States had stated that there were many opportunities as well as adjustment problems. Ethiopian migrants had attained high educational, economic and social mobility. But they had experienced feelings of loneliness, social isolation and loss of intimate touch with their family members, relatives and friends at home. They had also missed traditional Ethiopian cultural practices and their relaxed way of life. Most of the Ethiopian migrants had felt that they are stuck up in the United States for ever. With this feeling, no amount of material comfort or well-being would help them to resolve all their issues and concerns of migration or make them adjust to the American way of living. The paradoxes and
dilemma accordingly persist over which the migrants have neither any control nor any solution. In the future also, it appears that many of these paradoxes and dilemmas would continue to remain and no amount of material accomplishments would fill all the gaps for these migrants.

**Barry Dalal – Clayton et al., (2003)** had analysed the impact of labour migration in two aspects like rural to urban and urban to rural return migration. Internal migration is often seen as essentially a rural to urban feature contributing to uncontrolled growth and related urban management problems in many cities. This has resulted in many policies to control or discourage migration which, generally, have very little impact on migration. Most of the growth of population in the urban areas is due to a natural increase, and the rural to urban migration is fastest where economic growth is highest, as migrants tend to move to places where they are likely to find decent employment. The reverse migration from the urban to the rural areas had also become increasingly, frequent and is often due to economic decline and increasing poverty. In sub-saharan Africa, many retrenched urban workers were motivated to return to their rural home areas due to the lower cost of living in their rural areas. Migrants returning from the urban to the rural areas might have acquired new skills. However their ability to put them into practice and contribute to the development of the rural non-agriculture sector is linked to their access to essential assets such as land, capital and labour and also to social networks, which may be crucial in determining access to and information about, market.

**Choudhary J.N. (2004)** In his case studies about seasonal labour migration in Bihar have focused on the problems of migrant workers at their place of
destination. On an average each migrant has remained unemployed for nearly 14 days in between their arrival at the destination area and their finally getting employed. Nearly 89.61 per cent of the migrants had reported that the behaviors of the employers were quite good with them. However, there were some migrants (nearly 10.39 per cent) who had reported that they were cheated by the employers in regard to wage payment, duration of the working hours, and they were also treated badly. On an average, nearly 35.06 percent of migrants were provided with accommodation and the remaining 64.94 percent had to stay jointly in rented places of accommodation. Moreover, those who got employed in the agricultural sector, were generally provided free accommodation in the farm houses, huts, go downs pump houses and such other places.

Justin Paul et al., (2005) have focused their attention on the positive dimensions and possibilities in the migration development relationship. The consequence of the migration of workers from Kerala has been identified with the huge size of inward remittances, the use of sophisticated household gadgets, the enormous NRI deposits in banks, the palatial houses and all electronic equipment’s in their homes. But along with this migration there have been social consequences for both men and women. Women migrating without husbands are infrequent, but men migrating without wives have become common. Few married men are left behind by the migrating women, but many married women are left behind by their migrating husbands. Women have greater problems in dealing with the trauma arising from separation. Women are less equipped to handle them alone without help from their spouses. Migration from Kerala is essentially a men centered phenomenon. In 1998, female emigrants were 1, 26, 000 out of a total of 13, 62,
000 migrants (9.3 percent). Among the returned migrants female accounted for only 81 thousands out of a total of 739 thousands. Thus whether it is emigration or return-emigration only one out of 10 was accounted for by women.

Bharati Bas (2005) had identified the implications of labour migration in the Western European Countries. The influx of foreign labour was not really a brain drain from the developing areas of the world. Most of these immigrants join the unskilled labour market. This happens even when these European countries face a high level of unemployment in the unskilled workers’ market. The potential migrants from the Asian and African countries found it lucrative to move to the western European countries, as the unemployment benefits in those countries were much higher than their earned wages in the home country. The usual belief is that resident unskilled workers lose their jobs and face reduced wages because of huge inflows of workers, while the wages of the skilled workers tend to increase. This creates a sense of wage disparity, not only between the unskilled resident and the unskilled migrant workers, but also between skilled and unskilled workers.

Li Minghuan (2005) In his field study had found that there had been social consequences due to Chinese migrant workers to Israel. The emigration of Chinese workers towards Israel had resulted in a series of social consequences in the relevant Chinese villages. In TT village, the author had noticed that a remittance of 10000 yuan from Israel by a migrant Chinese worker had enabled his niece in China to continue her University studies in China.

Yet another field study conducted in ZN village, had disclosed that the money sent back by the Chinese migrant labourer had been used to build a five-
strored house for his family, which required about 25000-30000 yuan. About 30 percent of the migrant Chinese labourers in Israel had earned money after clearing their debt fully in their Chinese villages. Thus remittances by Chinese migrant workers from Israel have helped a large number of families in the Chinese villages to clear off their debts and to educate the children in chase families.

Pong – Sul Ahn (2005) In his study had analysed the economic impact of labour migration. Migration from South Asia had been a significant factor in the economic growth of individual countries, in reducing unemployment, in helping to earn foreign exchange and in enhancing migrants’ skills. In India, remittances have rapidly increased from US$ 3,587 million (Rs.94.18 billion) in 1991-1992 to nearly, US$ 12,215 million (Rs.578.21 billion) in 2001-2002. In the state of Kerala, remittances had amounted to 22 percent of the state income in the second half of the 1990s. In the northern state of Punjab, the districts of Jalandhar, Kapurthala, Hoshiarpur and Ludhiana from where significant out migration had taken place, there have been a lot of development in the rural areas funded by remittances.

III. Studies Related to the Issues of the Migrant Workers

Quoted by Prabha Shastri Ranade (1990) had observed that due to a high degree of urban migration in India as well as due to a high natural increase in the urban population, it will be more and more difficult for the rural population to find jobs in the urban areas and therefore the rural to urban migration would slow down both in volume and velocity. Moreover, it is the widely published policy of the
government to completely terminate or decelerate the rural urban migration of the population.

Nigel Harris (2003) had analysed the impact of remittances on developing countries which is much disputed. At its worst, in the context which is economically unfavourable, remittances go simply for sustaining local consumption (and perhaps out of imports), and to sustain economic stagnation; though the welfare impact is in itself, in a poor area, would be of some considerable importance. A much greater benefit would accrue if the migrant workers returned with enhanced skills and savings to invest in their home country. Low skilled workers who travel abroad without their families have always tended to return; as they work abroad primarily to strengthen their position at home. This tendency is much reduced, with tighter controls on migration, with higher costs of getting access to work, and due to the greater tendency to settle down in the foreign country in order to have a secure and continuous access to work.

Uday Kumar Varma (2003) in his article on labour mobility and insecurity had stated that there is no direct link between migration and HIV / Aids. Mobility and migration are not risk factors in themselves for HIV, but they can create the conditions in which people become more vulnerable to AIDS. Separation from the spouse and the family and socio-cultural norms, together with the isolation and loneliness, and a sense of anonymity, can lead to situations, which make migrants and mobile workers more susceptible to the exposure of HIV. In most settings, the living and recreational environments for migrants and mobile workers are almost exclusively men oriented. Coupled with attitudes relating to expected men behavior and peer pressure this could lead to the development of
commercial sex services. Further this could also lead to increase in the use of alcohol and drugs, which in turn increases the vulnerability and susceptibility to HIV infection. In many remote and rural areas in Asia and elsewhere. HIV incidence could often be directly linked to migration.

Harishwar Dayal and Anup K. Karan (2003) in their research paper on labour migration from Jharkand had studied about the health and disease conditions of the migrant workers. Most of the migrants had reported that when they fall sick at the destination of migration, the employer takes care of their medical treatment at his own cost. If they stay back in the village they do not enjoy such a facility. But many of the migrants feel that the frequency of the disease and sickness used to be higher in the place of migration than in their home village. This was probably because of the heavy work load and the unhygienic living conditions in the place of migration. Usually they work for 10 to 12 hours a day. The men migrants of Karma village going to the rice mills had said that they usually have to work in the night shifts from eight in the night to eight in the morning. The migrants of Maheshpur village (Kundhit block dumka district) going to Bardman had said that they have to work there from early morning till late in the evening for about 11 hours a day. Because of this hard long duration work they ultimately fall sick. They are usually accommodated in the make shift temporary huts, which used to be unhygienic and inconvenient for them. This also makes them disease prone.

Tripathy S.N. (2005) had analysed the problems of tribal migration in Orrissa’s poverty stricken districts of Kalahandi Bolangir and Koraput. The response of the sample migrant households had shown that the highest percentage of households (54%) had migrated to the destination place through the contractors
and unlicensed agents. It had also been observed that the Public Distribution System (PDS) had not delivered the essential commodities to meet the minimum food needs of the drought hit villages. An inevitable sequel to the insensitivity and absurdity of the food security system had resulted in distress migration from the drought hit areas of Kalahandi, Bolangir and Malkanagiri districts to the urban areas. Unable to find a source of living in their native places, the tribal youth have migrated to the developed states like Andhra Pradesh, Gujarat, Karnataka as well as to the relatively less prosperous states including Chattisgarh, Rajasthan and Meghalaya.

**Manola I. Abella (2005)** had studied about the cross-border movements of the workers from and within the Asian region and found that it had grown rapidly during the past three decades, largely due to labour shortages in the more dynamic economies of the regions. The migration’s dominant characteristic feature is the role played by the commercial intermediaries and the admission of workers under the temporary guest worker schemes. While most of the people consider the phenomenon as mutually beneficial to the origin and the destination states, as well as to the majority of individual migrants, the fact that migration is largely market driven and official policies are anchored on purely temporary admission basis have had predictable consequences on the conditions of the migrants. Migrants were not allowed to enjoy equal rights with the native workers in order to discover age the new settlements, the growth of population of the undocumented migrants who were unable to have access to legal protection and were exposed to social and economic consequences.
Praween Agarwal’s (2005) study had revealed the consequences of immigration in Delhi. In-migration in the mid-1990s had enabled urbanization and a faster rate of population growth in the Delhi city. The rapidly growing population and the accompanying diversification of the socio-economic structure had driven the government to procure land from the surrounding villages. Delhi has been accommodating population through international and internal migration. So much that, in 1991, two-fifths of the city’s population consisted of lifetime migrants. Migration for economic and political reasons for example, refugee has played an important role in Delhi’s population growth. Most of the developing nations have experienced a shift in their population from one region to another. Urban population is growing as a result of its unprecedented growth in the past and creating a situation of urban crisis like slums, overcrowding, and unemployment as well as under employment. The contribution of migration is increasing and enhancing these problems day by day.

Gary Younge (2006) in his study had analysed as the how the migrant labourers were crucial to the U.S Economy. Yet xenophobia among a militant minority of the public allied with opportunism among a majority of the politicians had conspired to degrade them. President Bush has not stooped to racism on this issue, and had said that once illegal immigrants have paid their fines and back-taxes they should be allowed to stay for a fixed period of time. Under this proposed “guest worker” programme, they would then have to return home. No long-term solution to this problem existed without addressing the problem of global inequalities exacerbated by the U.S trade policies. Some unions have begun to organize migrant workers to ensure that they do not breed resettlement by undercutting wages. For decades, black women would stand at the corners in the
northern cities, waiting to be hired for domestic work by the whites and it has been a constant element of the immigrant’s experience. But recently their presence has sparkled ugly antagonism.

Mayumi Murayama (2006) had identified the emergence of migrant issues in the form of ethnic conflicts. Migration is one of the prominent factors that have mounded the relationships among the countries and the regions of the eastern South Asia. The movements of people on various grounds across cultural linguistic and ethnic regions have been taking place since times immemorial. In the multi-ethnic societies of the developing world, migration tends to create establishing effects and could arouse intense conflicts among the various regions. In developing countries the multi-ethnic society conflicts stem not from inequality between ethnic groups but from competition for control over or access to, economic, political and social resources, for power and for status. He further outlines some of the conditions under which competition between migrants and non-migrants take place. One such condition is that when the ethnic division of labour between the migrants and the non-migrants parallels class relationships; another condition is when existing ethnic divisions of labour are questioned by non-migrants because of changes in their ability or aspirations and yet another condition is that of a change in power structures enabling non-migrants to strengthen their political economic and social positions.

IV. Gender and Migration

Jean-Christophe Dumont et al. (2007) in their study pointed out that the two trends in international migration flows have attracted much attention recently: (i) the growing feminization of migration flows; and (ii) the increasing selectivity
of migration towards the highly skilled, which in turn has given rise to renewed
corns concerns about the “brain drain” consequences for the sending countries. The two
issues have not been considered jointly, however, mainly due to the lack of
relevant data. This paper addresses this shortcoming by looking at the gender
dimension of the brain drain, based on a new comparable data set that has been
collected by the OECD and which allows us to identify people by country of
residence, place of birth, gender and level of education. The evidence summarized
in this paper shows that female migration to OECD countries has been increasing
significantly in recent decades, so that migrant stocks are now more or less gender-
balanced. A more surprising result is that this is also true for the highly skilled.
Taking into account the fact that women still face an unequal access to tertiary
education in many less developed countries, it appears that women are over-
represented in the brain drain. This result is reinforced by econometric estimates
showing that emigration of highly skilled women is higher; the poorer is their
country of origin. This effect is also observed for men but to a lesser extent. It is
not observed, however, at lower educational levels, where the
traditional migration hump is identifiable. Econometric estimates also report a
negative impact of emigration of highly skilled women on three key education and
health indicators: infant mortality, under-5 mortality and secondary school
enrolment rate by gender. These results raise concerns about a potentially
significant negative impact of the female brain drain on the poorest countries.

Elke Holst et al., (2008) in their study stated their the gender-specific
determinants of remittances are the subject of this study based on German SOEP
data (2001-2006). In 2007, about 7.3 million foreigners were living in Germany.
While the total number of foreigners has decreased over the last decade, female migration to Germany has increased. Today, women constitute 48.6% of migratory flows to Germany, although the proportion varies significantly by country of origin. A feminization of migration is observable all over the world, and is changing gender roles in the households of origin as well. To date, research has failed to address the gender-specific determinants of remittances from Germany. Here we attempt to fill this gap, focusing on gender roles and network effects. They distinguish between three different groups of migrants: foreigners, Germans with migration background, and all individuals with personal migration experience. Our main findings show, above all, that gender matters. However, the gender differences identified disappear after controlling for transnational (family) networks. Taking interaction terms into account reveals gender-specific network effects. In addition, different groups of migrants show remarkable differences in international networking. We find that female foreigners, but not female migrants with German citizenship, remit less than male if their children live abroad. Female migrants with German citizenship send more money home if their siblings remain in the home country. The reverse is true in the case of female migrants with foreign citizenship. Our findings show that female migrants tend to support their children first and foremost, while men migrants tend to support a wider network of more distant family members and friends. This finding is in sharp contrast to previous studies on remittances. It makes clear that there is little evidence supporting the assumption that remittances simply follow income-difference based altruism or that women are more altruistic than men. Furthermore, there seems to be evidence that the gender-specific differences detected in
remittance behavior might be due to gender-specific migration patterns and the relative role of the migrant within the transnational network.

Julie Litchfield and Barry Reilly (2009) stated in their paper used the 2002 Albanian Living Standards Measurement Survey to model whether an individual has attempted to migrate conditional on having previously considered migrating. The study addresses the methodological concerns that arise from potential selection bias and empirical issues associated with gender differences. We test for the presence of selection bias using a bivariate profit and apply an Oaxaca-style decomposition technique to analyse gender differentials in the conditional probability of attempted migration. We focus on the roles an individual’s living standard, geographic location and local labour market conditions exert on the attempt to migrate. Our empirical findings suggest that there are significant differences in both the conditional probability of attempting to migrate and the relative importance of determining factors across gender.

Mariapia Mendola and Calogero Carletto (2009) in their paper examined the role of men-dominated international migration in shaping labor market outcomes by gender in migrant-sending households in Albania. Using detailed information on family migration experience from the latest Living Standards Measurement Study survey, the authors find that men and female labor supplies respond differently to the current and past migration episodes of household members. Controlling for the potential endogeneity of migration and for the income (remittances) effect, the estimates show that having a migrant abroad decreases female paid labor supply and increases unpaid work. However, women with past family migration experience are significantly more likely to engage in
self-employment and less likely to supply unpaid work. The same relationships do not hold for men. These findings suggest that over time men-dominated Albanian migration may lead to women’s empowerment in access to income-earning opportunities at the origin.

**Marcela Cerrutti (2009)** examined the process of feminization of South American intra-regional migration, with emphasis in the Southern Cone. It describes recent changes and trends, and addresses some of the most salient issues on the participation and experiences of female migrants. It deals with the social and economic reasons underlying the increasing autonomous migration of women, particularly on the interconnections between the South-American economic restructuring and the increasing demand of female migrants by the service and care sectors. Further issues are examined, such as the potential effects of the migration process on women’s empowerment; the emergence of global chains of care and its relation with long-distance motherhood; and the labor market experiences of female migrant. Finally, the report also deals with the dark side of the women’s migration: female trafficking.

**Jayati Ghosh (2009)** in his study pointed out that women are increasingly significant as national and international migrants, and it is now evident that the complex relationship between migration and human development operates in gender differentiated ways. However, because migration policy has typically been gender-blind, an explicit gender perspective is necessary. This paper attempts this, beginning with an examination of recent trends in women’s migration, internationally and within nations. It then considers the implications of the socio-economic context of the sending location for women
migrants. The process of migration, and how that can be gender-differentiated, is discussed with particular reference to the various types of female migration that is common: marriage migration, family migration, forced migration, migration for work. These can be further disaggregated into legal and irregular migration, all of which affect and the issues and problems of women migrants in the process of migration and in the destination country. The manifold and complex gendered effects of migration are discussed with reference to varied experiences. Women migrants’ relations with the sending households and the issues relevant for returning migrants are also considered. The final section provides some recommendations for public policy for migration through a gender lens.

**Lourdes Beneria et al., (2012)** in their research paper examined that the connections between gender and international migration around three themes: globalization, national economic development, and governance. First, it discusses the connections between globalization and the multiplicity of processes that have contributed to international migration and its feminization, arguing that gender awareness is crucial to understanding these processes. Gender analysis makes visible the increasing commodification of care work on a global scale and highlights how the organization of families is changing. Second, it analyzes the various avenues through which migration may contribute to or hinder economic development, highlighting why remittances, in particular by women, have featured very positively in the migration and development policy discourse. Third, it discusses how issues of citizenship affect the migrant population, showing how gender analysis highlights many challenges with regard to nation-based notions of citizenship, particularly in the receiving countries.
Sanjaya DeSilva (2013) pointed out that the utilizing a nationally representative sample of households from Sri Lanka, this study examines gender differences in the long-term impact of temporary labor migration. We use a propensity score matching (PSM) framework to compare households with return migrants, households with current migrants, and equivalent non-migrant households in terms of a variety of outcomes. Our results show that households that send women abroad are relatively poor and utilize migration to catch up with the average household, whereas sending a man abroad allows an already advantaged household to further strengthen their economic position. We also find that remittances from females emphasize investment in home improvements and acquisition of farm land and nonfarm assets, whereas remittances of men are channeled more toward housing assets and business ventures.

Thierry Baudassé and Remi Bazillier (2014) stated in their research is to provide empirical evidence relating to the linkages between gender equality and international emigration. Two theoretical hypotheses can be made for the purpose of analyzing such linkages. The first is that gender inequality in origin countries could be a push factor for women. The second one is that gender inequality may create a “gender bias” in the selection of migrants within a household or a community. An improvement of gender equality would then increase female migration. We build several original indices of gender equality using principal component analysis. Our empirical results show that the push factor hypothesis is clearly rejected. All else held constant, improving gender equality in the labor market is positively correlated with the migration of women, especially of
the high-skilled. We observe the opposite effect for low-skilled men. This result is robust to several specifications and to various measurements of gender equality.

Ilhom Abdulloev et al., (2014) in their study stated that women who want to work often face many more hurdles than men. This is true in Tajikistan, where there is a large gender gap in labour force participation (LFP). The authors highlighted the effects of two factors – international migration and education – on the LFP decision and its gender gap. Using profit and decomposition analysis, our investigation shows that education and migration have a significant association with the gender gap in LFP in Tajikistan. International emigration from Tajikistan, in which approximately 93.5 per cent of the participants are men, reduces LFP by men domestically; increased female education, especially at the university and vocational level, increases female participation. Both women acquiring greater access to education and men increasing their migration abroad contribute to reducing the gender gap.

V. Studies Related to the Protective Measures for Migrant Workers

Yoko Sellek (1992) had analysed as to how Japan had treated the illegal foreign migrant workers in Japan. Owing to the presence of illegal migrant workers it is true that the Japanese workers were largely exempt from unpleasant, dirty and dangerous work. The illegality of the migrants meant that there was little incentive provided to them even in respect of basic human rights, such as social security benefits and protection under the law and there was no fear of their building unsightly slums since have to live silently in small groups, constantly in fear of being found out and deported. In a way, the Japanese people and the Japanese
government have themselves been reaping the benefits of this illegality which might be considered to be an extreme case of institutional discrimination underpinned by common feelings among the Japanese people of discrimination against Asian people.

Joseph S. Lee and Su-Wan Wang (1996) in their article had examined the Taiwan’s foreign labour policy in that the foreign workers could come to Taiwan and work as long as they were supplementary to the domestic workers, as long as they were temporary and did not become permanent immigrants, as long as the undesirable social costs of their importation could be minimized, and as long as foreign labour does not hinder the upgrading of the Taiwan’s economy. Currently all major infrastructure projects, 15 occupations and 6 major industries had been given the right to import foreign workers. Today, a legally admitted foreign worker might work in Taiwan for one year. By the end of the two-year period, he or she must return home and cannot comeback to Taiwan to work again. The government also sets the maximum percentage of foreign labour a firm might have. Usually, this maximum is set at 30 percent of the domestic workers on regular jobs, 35 percent for the so-called 3-D jobs (dirty, difficult and dangerous) and 50 percent for the crew on fishing boats. With regard to the importation of social and health problems, the government requires all foreign workers to submit a certificate of good conduct from their government and a certificate of good health issued by a hospital recognized by the Taiwan’s department of health and the workers are also required to have a medical checkup which includes a pnerimonogough an HIV antibody test, syphilis serum test, malaria test, and the like.
Su Dol Kang (1996) had examined the Korean government’s policy with regard to the recruitment of foreign workers. Foreign unskilled workers in Korea are currently recruited through two channels. One is the recruiting of “technical trainees” through the Korean federation of small business (KFSB) and the other is the recruiting of “illegal” workers through illegal brokerage. In the process of employment of foreign workers in Korea, a number of problems occur from the point of view of globalization of the labour market. First, there was a high possibility for the so-called “intermediary exploitation” as the recruitment and management of the workers was under the control of the private manpower companies. Second, the government ministries did not hold a unified position in relation to the foreign workers. In order to overcome this problem, the government also tightened the immigration procedures at the ports and the airports in a bid to support the new “technical trainee” system. Since mid 1994 the recruiting, distributing and managing of the foreign “technical trainees” came under the control of the private enterprise, the Korean International training co-operation corps. (KITCO) under the Korean federation of small business.

Toshikazu Nagayama (2001) had examined the recruitment of the migrant workers in Japan. The Japanese policy towards the unskilled workers was very different them the policies pursued in the other receiving countries such as the United States of America and the extent of openness had gone through wide swings often associated with the prevailing economic conditions. In contrast, the Japanese government had always barred the entry of unskilled foreign workers, regardless of the economic cycles and quite apart from the long-running recession period. There are substantially divergent views within the country about the
policies pursued towards the unskilled workers. Some people were of the view that
the current stance lacked flexibility and that the treatment of unskilled workers
should vary depending upon domestic economic conditions a tightening of the
policy during periods of recession and a loosening of the policy during period of
recovery. Many Japanese employers would prefer the restriction on immigration to
be relaxed even further thereby allowing the flow of foreign workers to be
governed by the market forces namely the supply and demand for labour in the
labour market.

Siby Tharakan (2002) had examined the United Nations human rights
commission’s holistic approach to the migrants’ rights. Migrant workers are
considered as more than labourers and accordingly have more rights, including that
of their family reunification rights. It provides, for the first time, an international
definition of migrant workers’ categories of and their family members. It also
provides for the establishment of international standards of treatment through an
elaboration of the particular human rights of the migrant workers and the members
of their families. These standards would serve to uphold the basic human rights of
other vulnerable migrants as well as those of the migrant workers. It attempts to
establish minimum standards of protection for the migrant workers and the
members of their families that are universally acknowledged. It extends the
concept of the equality of treatment between nationals and non-nationals, between
women and men migrant workers and between documented and undocumented
workers.

Zhao Shukai (2003) had proposed in his paper on “New Generation of
Migrant Workers” to setup a new order of migration, to eliminate status
discrimination and realize equality in status for all migrants. Since early 2003 the Central Government in China has promulgated decrees demanding local governments to lift the bans on enterprises employing peasant workers in China, giving them free access to all professions, eliminating management regulations specifically aimed at them and launching initiatives to treat them equally with the urban residents. The free movement of labour and the free employment are the two basic conditions that have are satisfied for a market economy. After more than twenty years of reforms, China was at last starting to bid farewell to the status differences and attempting to put into operation a system of status equality. This is also an inevitable outcome of the efforts taken to promote a market-oriented system.

Rashid Amjad (2004) had examined Indonesia’s effort on targeting higher skilled jobs in the overseas markets. The Government’s policy in Indonesia is strongly in favour of the need to move away from the export of low-skilled household helpers to that of higher skilled workers. A shift in practice to implement this policy would remove from the migration stream the most vulnerable workers, while at the same time increase the remittance flows into the domestic economy.

While in principle, the aims of such a policy are understandable and well motivated, it does not take fully into account two factors. The first is that the gradual phasing out of unskilled and low skilled workers might not be practical in that it may just lead to an increase in the illegal migration of these workers. The second, and that is perhaps the most important in terms of translating this strategy into practice, is that migration is primarily a demand-induced phenomenon. While
it may be, possible to prepare the necessary supply of skilled workers for the overseas market, there is no guarantee that the law would hold, in that the supply would create its own demand. Only if such a demand exists in the labour – receiving countries and Indonesia can effectively compete with the other labour suppliers in securing this market, could such a policy be effectively put into operation.

**Heather Dryburgh (2004)** had examined the recruitment policy of immigrants in Canada, which was based on the Occupational and Area Demand Report, as a means of controlling the occupational composition and the immigration levels of the skilled workers. Those skilled workers whose occupations were not assigned at least one point would not be considered for permanent residency. At that time, immigrants who had arranged employment and waiting for them continued to be allocated 10 points and there was no penalty for not having arranged employment as had earlier been the case. However, being in a designated occupation (an occupation designated as having a shortage of workers) was no longer considered equivalent to having arranged employment. In 1991, the allocation of points for designated occupation was re-instituted, and in 1992 those immigrants with arranged employment or destined to designate occupation were given a higher processing priority than before. The knowledge of official languages was given five more points, which was the case prior to the year 1986, whereas a possible five points was allotted for settling in a location where the need for immigrants had been eliminated. Points for language ability were modified to reward the bilingual applicants and reduce the points previously given to those who could speak, write or read in an official language but only with some
difficulty. The 1993 changes meant what Canada was looking for highly educated immigrants with knowledge and ability in Canadian languages.

Henry de Lary (2004) in his article on Bilateral labour agreements concluded by France the management of labour agreements was truly central to the migration debate; on the one hand, as a host country, France wanted to have an appropriate labour force readily available, with it with the option of not committing itself to that resource if the economic situation deteriorated. On the other hand, the authorities of the sending countries were eager that their surplus labour in the domestic market should move abroad. Ideally, expatriated workers would keep their jobs or work entitlement after the end of the first one year contract, but would return as often as possible to their country of origin, where they maintained all their contacts, especially family ties. The fact that foreign workers also should continue to remain employed even after the first one-year contract was over was encouraged by the French national legislation. At that time, it was possible to obtain a three-year work permit after only one year of employment. Yet, with the break in immigration as of 1974, it became impossible to keep the work permit in the event of a prolonged absence from France, or to obtain a new one. This policy had serious consequences that have been highlighted for some-time. In fact, a number of sending countries were eager to negotiate new bilateral agreements in the form of amendments to the original agreements, either out of a concern that their nationals in France should maintain their preferential status compared to other foreigners, or simply to guard against a major shift in the French immigration policy.
Tayyaba Husain (2004) had explained the fifty–fifty formula of locals to expatriates which was one of the main slogans in the Kuwait National Assembly elections in 1985 and a central issue of the country’s 1985-90 Plan. The immigrant population had prompted the adoption of two different sets of population policies. Measures and regulations that aim at controlling the foreign settlements in the area and thereby reducing the number of immigrants. The stark reality could not be brushed aside that the interests of the powerful merchants, property owners and the labour recruiters would constantly attempt to encourage the influx of the immigrant population. Moreover, the general socio-economic development of the state depended on these immigrants.

Sukmadi et al., (2005) have analysed the policies and practices in regard to labour migration in Indonesia. Indonesian migrant workers have been forced to return to Indonesia from Malaysia. The reason was that Indonesia if it wanted to enjoy the benefits of migration should look into a number issues. These issues include the number and quality of the migrants, the procedures for sending and settling migrant workers in places which are legal, secure and guaranteed and the establishment of policies concerning workers’ rights and obligations while they were abroad. The number of Indonesian labourers working abroad had increased significantly during the past five years. The pros and cons of the arguments in respect of this increase had come up in the public discourse on whether the government should support or abolish the increase in the Indonesian labourers working abroad.

Nicola Piper (2005) had studied about the protection measures in respect of the migrant worker issues at the global confederation level. The International
Confederation of the Free Trade Unions (ICFTU) had advocated migrant rights in many ways. It had taken numerous solidarity actions for solving migrant issues all around the world and its affiliates in many countries have started considering and solving the problems of migrant labour, not only the problems related to the employment issues but also the problems related to the social fall-outs like racism and xenophobia. The ICFTU’s regional organization for Asia and Pacific (APRO) had also organized a few regional consultation forums on the role of the trade unions in the protection of the migrant workers. ICFTU APRO’s Action plan for 2003 included two major recommendations, (a) to establish a migrant worker’s desk or committee; and (b) to recruit migrant workers as union members. These were expected to eliminate the concerned discriminations and the wages disparities.

James P. Smith (2006) had examined the adjustment between the legal migrants and the illegal migrants for the sake of labour market development in America. Legal migrants appear on an average to be at least as skilled as the average American worker, and they are, at a minimum, keeping up with the native born Americans. The distinction between the trends for legal and the documented migrants is important, since, the policies that produce the flows are quite different. Explanations for the declining labour market quality of the immigrants have often been focused on ethnicity. This analysis had argued, that any decline was largely reflected in the increasing numbers of undocumented migrants, most of whom were latinos. This kind of policy leads to an understanding of the migration history and also for not confusing the policy response. For example, if this analysis is correct, then reducing the flows of legal immigrants could have the opposite effect.
This is both because of the restricted the more skilled component of the immigrants but also due to the encouragement of additional undocumented migration (the less skilled component).

**Maruya M.B Asis (2006)** had dealt with the measures adopted to manage migration in East Asia. On 31st of July 2003, the republic of Korea passed a law setting in place a work permit system that would allow employers to recruit migrant workers from the 1st of August 2004. It also granted foreign workers certain basic rights, such as minimum wage union membership and industrial accident insurance. The work permit system was expected to address the republic of Korea’s perennial problem of uncontrolled and unauthorized migration and to protect the migrant workers’ rights. In August 2004, the republic of Korea signed a memorandum of agreement with six countries, namely Indonesia, Philippines, Thailand, Vietnam, SriLanka and Mongolia for the recruitment of 25,000 workers under the work permit system.

**Wondwosen Teshome et al (2006)** have conducted a case study of the Ethiopian female migrants in Austria in order to protect and increase the position of their community members. The Austrian social policy also had encouraged the formation of such a kind of community associations. The only Ethiopian community association in Austria that was formed primarily to keep and promote the interests of the femen Ethiopian migrants in Austria was Austrian – Ethiopian women solidarity association.

**Manuela Florez (2006)** had analysed Switzerland’s labour market and a new direction for migration. In Switzerland, skilled and highly skilled workers are
given priority in its immigration policy. Highly skilled foreign workers account for a relatively small percentage of the foreign labour force. However, the characteristics for this category of foreign workers are hard to identify. This is because of the lack of detailed data on the permanent and temporary flows of migrants by socio-professional category which makes it difficult to assess their actual size and how they are employed. Yet the presence of such workers is crucial to the Swiss economy, which is similar to that of the Swiss enterprises. The majority of the foreign workers in Switzerland are permanent residents, and they are mostly from the European Union member states and they have an impact on the Swiss labour force. The Swiss immigration policy vis-à-vis this category of foreigners is governed by the rationale behind the bilateral agreements on the free movements of persons as agreed when with the European union. Thus eventually migration flows between Switzerland and the European Union member states will have to be fully liberalized, with no labour restrictions what so ever. In any event, the future challenges of immigration lie elsewhere, and concern more specifically the Non-European Union nations who are not covered by the freedom of movement provisions. A strict policy has been adopted with regard to this group of migrants and only the most highly-skilled workers in specific industries may theoretically enter the Swiss labour market. However, Switzerland has new challenges to meet, in the near future, and might have to adjust its migration policy to some extent.

**Research Gap and rationale of the present study**

From the above studies the researcher identified the research gap. The existing studies on migration implicitly assume that it is men who migrate in
search of employment and not women. Women’s migration is viewed mostly as marriage migration and not taken as employment migration. Further more studies on comparing men migrants and women migrants and their working conditions, nature of migration, income, expenditure, and savings, investments pattern are rare.

The present study has tried to find out the socio-economic profile of the sample migrant workers (men and women) who were residing during the study period in the study area. The study also has attempted to find out the direction of migration, the pattern of migration. That is whether migration had taken place individually or as nuclear families or as joint families and the factors that had influenced migration in respect of the socio-economic changes that had taken place among the migrants in terms of the changes in their income, their assets’ position, savings and outstanding debt and the changes in their employment pattern. The study area is a developing district in Tamil Nadu. The chapter on research design provides details regarding the study area.
CHAPTER III

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY