

Impact of Seasonal Labor Migration on Livelihood of Rural People

Tara Prasad Bhusal

bhusaltara82@gmail.com

Abstract

Seasonal labor migration for livelihood is one of the emerging issues in research in Nepal. Nepal has the long history of seasonal/circulatory movement of people for their livelihood, but it has been found very few numbers of literatures available in research. This paper focused on assessing the impact of seasonal labor migrations on five capitals of the livelihood. The volume of migration for labor work is rising over the year. Huge amounts of cash and kind remittances are entering regularly in the country that raised the national GDP and the awareness about quality of life. Improving quality of life is the reflection of changing their occupation at destination for better income. In the reverse, it created the shortage of labor force in agriculture and national industries, aged parents and children are staying at village/home, occurred unsafe migration occurred. In this sense, this study is highly concentrated on the study of the positive impact of seasonal labor migration on the livelihood of Nepalese people/Households.

Keywords: Seasonal, labor, migration, livelihood, strategy

1. Introduction

Nepal has been experiencing continuously the seasonal mobility of people especially for searching work from the beginning of Nepalese history. It is highly occurring in rural area of Nepal as a traditional way for searching work in off-farm season since 1950 and the amount they can be able to bring from destination used in their household expenditure throughout the year (NPC and CEDA, 1977 and SNV, 1998). It is a circulatory movement between 'home' to 'reach' especially for the purpose of earning in their leisure time or in the situation of lack of sufficient wage work locally as a survival strategy (Subedi, 1993).

Nepal is a developing country and recognized as a manpower sending country to the foreign market and have significant influence in the society and national economy (Adhikary, 2021) It got regularly high number of remittances and occupied 30 percent of national GDP (World Bank, 2019). Nepal is a developing country with traditional agriculture-based economy. The farming work is highly activated as activated as the country's monsoon.

People are active in the farming season and are fully employed during that season for planting and harvesting. The rest of the time, youth are migrated to other village/districts/countries to search for work and earn some amounts of income for their household.

Seasonal labor migration is a livelihood strategy for the rural people. It supports changing their living style gradually by changing their occupation, skill and level of income. For the work, a huge mass of people left their home and reached at workplace out of the district for a short period of time in the season of cultivation harvesting (Mishra, 2000; SNV, 1997; Subedi, 1997; and NPC and CEDA, 1977). Some of them are involved in non-agricultural sectors such as building construction, painting, driving, carpentering, and Riksha Cycling etc. in major citizen of the country at destination. They got the opportunity of earning more money from non-agricultural wage work and attracted the huge mass toward it by the years. They spend their earning amount on managing food for the family at first then after the remaining amount is used to purchase clothes, households' assets and invest in children's education as their household priority. Today some of the ever-seasonal migrants who became a household building construction contractor and businessman and are able to purchase land and make a sound infrastructure for their own family purpose (Adhikari and Hobely, 2011).

This paper discusses the seasonal labor migration pattern of rural communities and its impact to their livelihood. People of rural communities are socio-economically backward compared with urban regions. They have fewer opportunities to get jobs locally and low level of wage rate of available works at local market whatever they find. This poor background of the rural community forced the economically active potential people outside to search for better jobs/jobs opportunities. The development of modernized information technology established a good network among the job seekers that helps them to find better job anywhere nearer cities of the country and Indian job market. They used the earning cash and non-cash remittance for the improvement of their five capitals of livelihood named human, social, physical, natural and financial capitals considered as livelihood assets (Chamber, 1992).

The research paper has studied the impact of seasonal labor migration on the livelihood of the rural people based on the small sample taken from a rural community of Deukhuri, Dang.

The local demography is such that there are about 60 percent people in age group 15-59 and they are potential foreign/labor migrants. Improvement in literacy but low level of educational attainment among emigrants, traditional farming as the only occupation functions as drivers of circular migration to foreign employment. Being unskilled they enter into external labor market as unskilled ones looking for wage work in farming as well in the non-farming sector. Given the stagnant economy, the volume and the trend of external migration is likely to increase and the necessities of life such as food, cloth and shelter must be fulfilled through foreign labor circular migration. In one hand, economically active people are suffering from the unemployment or low level of wage work locally that forced them to go outside/abroad for better opportunities by leaving their dependents child, spouse and old aged parents and in other hand, they involved in hazardous work at destination that make them unsaved. This is the context to designing this study as considering critical research issues. Based on the above research gaps mentioned, the following research questions are formulated below:

- How do social, economic and political conditions, family support and individual resources and aspirations in the country of origin motivate young people to migrate for foreign jobs, and what role do educational ambitions play in this migration strategy?
- In which ways do young migrants draw on local and transnational social networks in identifying foreign countries as their destinations, in organizing their travel and migration and in mobilizing resources necessary for establishing, maintaining and enhancing their livelihood in foreign countries?

2. Objectives

The general objective of this study is to examine the Impact of seasonal labor migration to the livelihood of rural people and the specific objectives are:

- To identify the factors that rural people takes the seasonal labor migration as a better livelihood strategy.
- To determine the impact of seasonal labor migration to the livelihood of rural people.

1. Methodology

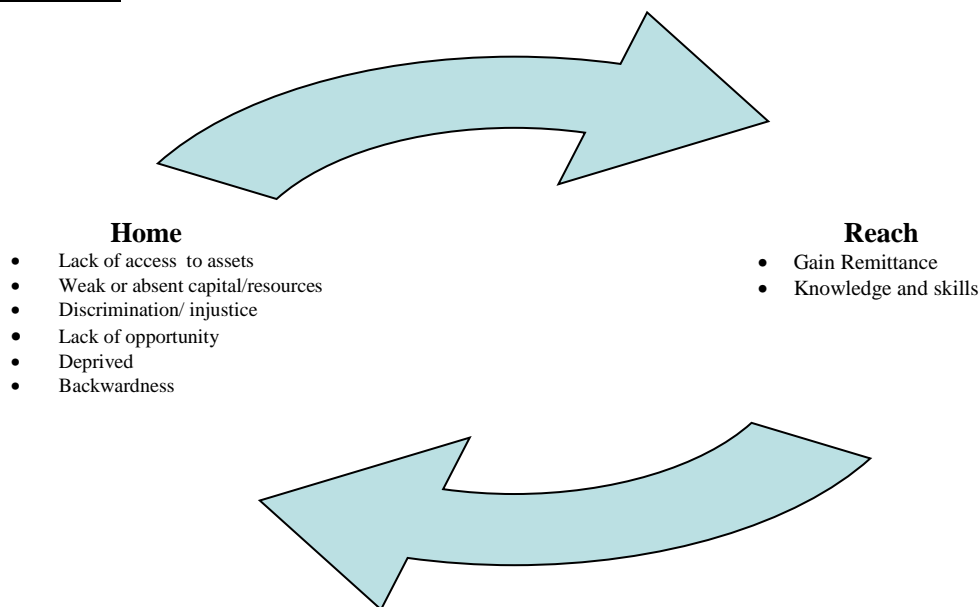
This paper is developed based on secondary data collected from Central Bureau of Statistics Nepal, annual migration reports of Department of Foreign Employment (DoFE) of Nepal government, study reports of different authors and primary data collected by author during

study purpose. Quantitative data are used to develop the article. Available data are presented in the table and interpreted based on percent.

2. Conceptual Framework

The given figure No. 1 shows the way of livelihood operation of seasonal labor migrants. People moved from 'home' place to 'reach' place for money and family expenditure. They leave their origin for a short period of time. After working some months outward they came back again to their home with some amount of money. They used that amount for paying their family's debt. Some of them who got opportunity to earn more at destination are also able to invest that amount for buying land, construction of permanent cemented household building etc. When they spent their brought amount they again make the plan to reach at destination for work. In this way, this movement process is continuously operated. From this process, they are able to enhance the level of education, awareness about public health, sanitation, quality of life, income etc.

Figure 1
Circulation



Note: adapted from Subedi, 2006

Input: Seasonal labor migration

Outcomes: Change in socioeconomic and demographic status of seasonal migrants and improvement of their livelihood.

Outputs:

- Occupation Change
- Income and expenditure both raised
- Saving habits have come in practice
- Social network established
- Household education raised
- Improved health and sanitation
- Improved household infrastructures
- Acculturation introduced
- Reduced household/family size

3. Results and Discussions**Age and sex structure of the household population**

The total study population is 800. Among them male constitute 52 percent and female 48 percent. The total population is grouped in three categories based on economically active and inactive characteristics. Children comprise 33 percent an economically active population constitute 60.8 percent. The proportion of elderly population (60 and +) is 6.2 percent (Table 1).

Table 1: Percentage distribution of population by age and sex

Age group	Male		Female		Total	
	No.	Percent	No.	Percent	No.	Percent
Below 15 years	145	34.9	119	30.9	264	33.0
15-59 years	247	59.5	239	62.0	486	60.8
60 and above	23	5.6	27	7.1	50	6.2
Total	415	100	385	100	800	100

Source: Field Survey, 2010

The higher proportion of economically active population who are potential for searching work anywhere. The dependents (64.47%) also indicated that there is the economical pressure to operate household economy to household head. These factors forced the head to send his/her family members or go own self to do any seasonal work outside.

Agricultural holding of the households

All selected households in the study area have their own used agricultural land in the name of any kind of land. Half of the total household has its own irrigated land (Table 2).

Among these households, highest number of households has less than five Kattha. Only 7.7 percent households have more than one Bigaha land. In total, half of the households have irrigated land. Out of all selected households, all have their own housing plot, and almost all households have the housing plot below 0.165 hector. There are also found 10 (6.7%) households who have irrigated land under female ownership. Likewise, 57 (38.0%) households have taken land in lease for their livelihood on which 53 (35.3%) households have taken irrigated land and remaining 2.7 percent (4) households have taken un-irrigated land.

Table 2: Percentage distribution of the households by their types and amount of land ownership

Types of land	Percentage of Households having following area of land (In Kattha) (1 Kattha = 0.03386 Hectare, 20 Dhur.)					Total HHs In 150 HHs	
	< 5	5-10	10-15	15-20	20<	No.	Percent
Own irrigated land	45.5	24.7	13.0	9.1	7.7	77	51.3
Own unirrigated land	72.0	16.0	4.0	8.0	0.0	25	16.7
Own housing plot	99.3	0.0	0.0	0.7	0.0	140	93.3
Female ownership irrigated land	60.0	0.0	30.0	10.0	0.0	10	6.3
Female ownership housing plot	100	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	1	0.7
Leased in irrigated land	8.0	21.0	15.0	28.0	28.0	53	35.3
Leased in unirrigated land	100	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	4	2.7
Leased out unirrigated land	0.0	0.0	0.0	100	0.0	1	0.7
Housing plot in unregistered and Guthi	100	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	9	6.0

Source: Field Survey, 2010

Age and sex structure of seasonal labor migrants

Among the economically active population 64.5 percent are ever migrated for seasonal work. Among the total seasonal migrants, there is the involvement of people from the age 10 to 80 years, but highest proportion of seasonal migrants is aged 15 to 40 years. The highest proportion of migrants is fall in the age group 20-24 which is followed by the age group (35-39),(25-29), (30-34) and (15-19) (Table 3). This is similar fact found by Teerik,

1995, Dandekar, 1986; Mukharji, 1985; Majumdar and Majumder, 1978; Singh and de Souza, 1980, Mishra, 2000.

By sex, female is highly migrated for seasonal work in the age group (20-24) whereas male is in age group (25-29) with 21.4% and 16.0% respectively. In addition, the table 3 informed that the volume of female in age group 15-24 is nearly 1.5 times higher than male, but it is nearly reverse in age group (25-40).

Table 3: Percentage distribution of the ever-seasonal labor migrants by age and sex

Age	Sex					
	Male	Female	Total	Male %	Female %	Total%
10-14	3	2	5	1.4	1.0	1.2
15-19	23	25	48	10.8	13.0	11.9
20-24	30	41	71	14.1	21.4	17.5
25-29	34	24	58	16.0	12.5	14.3
30-34	33	25	58	15.5	13.0	14.3
35-39	32	29	61	15.0	15.1	15.1
40-44	20	12	32	9.4	6.3	7.9
45-49	14	8	22	6.6	4.2	5.4
50-54	6	3	9	2.8	1.6	2.2
55-59	11	11	22	5.2	5.7	5.4
60-64	3	6	9	1.4	3.1	2.2
65+	2	5	7	0.9	2.6	2.4
Total	213	192	405	100.0	100.0	100.0

Source: Field Survey, 2010

Note: The 328 people of the age group 15-45 are ever seasonal labor migrants among 405 total population.

The table 3 shows that the seasonal labor migrants of the age group 15 to 45 occupied 80 percent of the total ever seasonal migrants. As the findings of Bouge, 1961; Lee, 1970; Ravenstein, 1985; NPC and CEDA, 1997 this study has also similar findings that the seasonal migration also an age and sex selective. Hence, the age group between 15 to 45 years is critical period for seasonal labor migration and it is also noticed that female's involvement is higher than male in earlier period and decreasing as age is increasing in comparison to male.

Educational status of seasonal labor migrant

Among the 405 ever seasonal labor migrants nearly three-fourth are literate, but the education level is different. The highest proportion (27.4%) of the total ever seasonal labor migrants have primary level education, which is followed by illiterate people, literate by

non-formal education, secondary level education, SLC, and 10+2 with percentage 26.4, 23.2, 18.8, 3.5 and 0.7 respectively (Table 4).

Table 4: Percentage distribution of the seasonal labor migrants by their education level

Literacy	Male		Female	
	No	Percent	No.	Percent
Illiterate	32	15.0	75	39.1
Literate	181	85.0	117	60.9
Total	213	100	192	100
Education Status				
Literate only	43	23.8	51	43.6
Primary	71	39.2	40	34.2
Secondary	55	30.4	21	17.9
SLC	10	5.5	4	3.4
10+2 Level	2	1.1	1	0.9
Total	181	100	117	100

Source: Field Survey, 2010

By sex, the literacy status of male is about 25% more than female. The overall literacy rate of ever seasonal labor migrants is 73.6 percent. Among the literate, highest percentage of male have primary education. The proportion of male is decreasing as increasing the level of education but non-formally educated male have occupied second position among the literate male which is vice-versa for female. The people with lower educational status are highly motivated to seasonal labor migration. This is the similar fact found by Subedi, 1993; Waldschmidt and Mishra, 2003; Mishra, 2000; Seddon and Subedi, 2000; SNV, 1997; CEDA, 1977; Breman, 1970, Nepal Living Standard Survey 2010/11 and Adhikary et.al 2021 in their study about labor migration.

Volume and trend of the seasonal labor migration

Table 5, the volume of the seasonal labor migration is increased in the period 1990 to 2009 but it has seen a sign of decrease in the year 2010. In the first ten years by the year 2000 AD the volume is found less than fifty percent, but it is rapidly increased 2000 AD onwards. It is remarkable time when Nepal government had declared the elimination of bonded labor system (Kamaiya/Kamlari Mukti-2057). The increasing volume and trend accept the study of Gill, 1991 and Rogaly, 1998 in Bangladesh and India. As Todaro's theory "the proportion of volume of migrants is increased as increases the economically sound places". The same theory is applied in the sense of seasonal labor migration.

Table 5: Percentage distribution of the volume of seasonal migrant by the period

Sex	Male		Female		Total	
1990-1995 (1)	90	22.2	77	19.0	167	41.2
1995-2000 (2)	107	26.4	95	23.5	202	49.9
2000-2005 (3)	167	41.2	144	35.6	311	76.8
2005-2010 (4)	192	47.4	169	41.7	361	89.1
2010 (5)	183	45.2	147	36.3	330	81.5

Source: Field Survey, 2010

The annual migration rate¹ from the period (1990-1995) to (1995-2000) is 4.1 percent which is found 10.8, 3.2, and -1.7 percent in the period (1995-2000) to (2000-2005), (2000-2005) to (2005-2010) and (2005-2010) to 2010. The similar type of findings has been reported by Adhikari et.al in 2021 based on CBS (1996, 2002, 2011), Kansakar (2003), and CBS (2021).

Destinations

Generally, volume of migration is high in short distance (Revenstein, 1989). The major areas of destination for Tharu of the study area are Kapilbastu, Rupandehi, India, Intra-districts, Kathmandu, Pokhara, Chitwan, Kailali and Overseas. The distance of the destination and volume of seasonal labor migration is adversely related (Table 6).

Table 6: Percentage distribution of the seasonal labor migrants by their destination place

Place of migration	Male		Female		Total	
	No.	Percent	No.	Percent	No.	Percent
Kapilbastu	53	24.9	63	32.8	115	28.4
Rupandehi	56	26.3	52	27.1	108	26.7
Chitawan	1	0.5	1	0.5	2	0.5
Pokhara	2	0.9	2	1.0	4	1.0
Kathmandu	28	13.1	15	7.8	43	10.6

Kailali	1	0.5	0	0.0	1	0.2
Intra district	27	12.7	24	12.5	51	12.6
India	41	19.2	35	18.2	76	18.8
Overseas	4	1.9	0	0.0	4	1.0
Total	213	100.0	192	100.0	405	100.0

Source: Field Survey, 2010

Migration of Nepalese people to India has a long history and have significant portion (table 6) that is also reported by Dixit 1997 and quoted by J. Adhikary, 2021 in his article “labor migration from Nepal: Trends and Explanations”. Generally, the absentee population does not consider the migration of less than six months, it underestimates the actual magnitude of migration; especially, it does not include seasonal labor migration of less than six months duration.

In recent times, the proportion of seasonal labor migrant start to reach other third countries for the job. Gulf countries and Malasiya are being the main destination of them (Adhikary, 2021)

Causes

There are two types of factors one is pulling and another one is pushing which is similar as the migration framework of Lee (1966) and Zellinsky (1971). The major causes are poverty, free from bonded labor and food scarcity that pushed people to seasonal labor migration that fact is similar as Subedi, 1993; Seddon et.al 2000, SNV, 1997; Mishra, 2000, Adhikary, 2021.

There are some others valuable reasons that directly influenced the people to involved in seasonal labor migration. Among them, only one reason is seen as pulling factor i.e. lots of opportunities and learned about the new skills from destination and remaining are pushing factors. Among the reasons, low waged work at local level is the major reason that is reported by 2/3 seasonal labor migrants (Table 7).

Table 7: Percentage distribution of the seasonal labor migrant by the reasons

Reasons	Male		Female		Total	
	No.	Percent	No.	Percent	No.	Percent
No work locally	4	1.9	4	2.1	8	2.0
No Work is available in regular basis	2	0.9	1	0.5	3	0.7

Low waged work available	151	70.9	151	78.6	302	74.6
Migration gives opportunities for acquiring new skills	1	0.5	0	0.0	1	0.2
Free bonded labor	43	20.2	33	17.2	76	18.8
To earn money in vacation	10	4.7	3	1.6	13	3.2
Other	2	0.9	0	0.0	2	0.5
Total	213	100.0	192	100.0	405	100.0

Source: Field Survey, 2010

In conclusion, primary reasons of seasonal migration for work are the low production in their primary household occupation (farming) and scarcity of wage work at local level. The fact that Subedi, 1993 also explained in his Ph. D. dissertation about the reason of outgoing workers is that the low production in primary household farming and lack of wage work at local level. Similar fact has also been explained many other researchers in Nepal, India, China, Bangaldes, and other South-Asian countries such as Seddon and Subedi,2000; Mishra, 2000; SNV,1997; Subedi, 1997; Dandekar, 1986; Majumber and Majumber, 1978; Mukharji, 1985; Teerink,1995; Gould and Prothero,1975; Mitchel,1985; Mabogunje, 1970; Gill, 1991; Rogaly,1998; Winkels, 2004; Dev and Evenson, 2003; Shrivastav and Bhattacharya,2003; Collier et.al, 1993; Hugo, 2003; Wandschneidu and Mishra, 2003 and Adhikari et.al, 2021.

Impact of seasonal labor migration

Developed skills change their occupation

Some seasonal labor migrants have changed their occupation after returning from their destination. It suggests that seasonal labor migrants learned the knowledge and skills about the new work at destination (similar fact as Subedi, 1997). After returning home, they applied learned knowledge and skills for making new market at home place that can generate more income than their traditional job.

Among ever seasonal labor migrants, 45.5 percent individuals are changed their occupation to causal non-agricultural labor, self-employed, causal agricultural labor and students. Only 54.5 percent continued their own previous work. Among the 45.5 percent of individuals, largest portion went to causal non-agricultural labor work and it is followed by self-employed work and then causal agricultural work. Here, it can be interpreted that it is somehow consistent with the results of Subedi given in 1997. He reported that the largest portion went to agricultural labor work and it was followed by service and non-agricultural work.

With an exception of Kamaiya and Kamlari, the rate of continuous is highest among those engaged in causal non-agricultural labor work by 60 percent that is followed by causal agricultural labor work by 58.5 percent. This fact is like Teerink's study, 1995. An overwhelming majority of agricultural laborers such as own agricultural laborer, Kamaiya, Kamlari, and family chores changed their occupation together after seasonal labor migration.

Table 8: Percentage distribution of the seasonal labor migrants by their occupation change before and after seasonal migration

Preson's occu. before migr ation	Primary occupation in current time at origin												
	Own agri	Agri. labor (causal)	Salaried in agri.	own busin ess	self-emplo yed in servi ce	casual labor in non-agri.	Salaried work	family chores	not work ing adults	Kamaiya	Kamlari	Student	Total
Own agri.	54.5	4.5	0.0	0.0	13.6	22.7	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	4.5	22
Causal Agri	1.3	58.5	0.0	0.0	0.0	32.1	1.9	1.3	1.3	0.0	0.0	3.8	159
Salaried work in agri	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	100	1
Own busines	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Self-employed	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Causal non-agri. labor	0	40	0	0	0	60	0	0	0	0	0	0	5
Salaried work in non-agri	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0		0	0	0	0
family chores	0	57.1	0.0	0.0	0.0	42.9	0.0	0	0	0.0	0.0	0	7
Not work ing adults	0	0	0	0	0		0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Kamaiya	2.0	42.9	2.0	0.0	0.0	46.9	4.1	0.0	2.0	0.0	0.0	0	49
Kamlari	2.3	44.2	0.0	0.0	0.0	46.5	0.0	2.3	2.3	0.0	0.0	2.3	43
Students	0	4.2	0.0	4.2	0.0	20.8	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	70.8	24
Total (%)	5.2	45.5	0.3	0.3	1.0	35.5	1.6	1.0	1.3	0.0	0.0	8.4	100
Total	16	141	1	1	3	110	5	3	4	0.0	0.0	26	310

(No.)													
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Source: Field Survey, 2010

Therefore, seasonal labor migration becomes the means of changing occupation along with educational status that helps to improve the livelihood.

Change in occupation of households

In the rural community, seasonal labor migration becomes the significant means to change the occupation of the households. The brief information is presented in table 9.

Before migration there are more than 40 percent of the households' occupied Kamaiya and Kamlari occupations as a means of livelihood. Now, these are all changed their occupation. Majority of them are in causal non-agricultural and rented agricultural respectively (Table 9). This fact is similar to the fact of Subedi, 1997.

Table 9: Percentage distribution of the households by occupation

Previous occupation of HHs	Current occupation of the HHs								
	Kamaiya/Kamlari	own agri.	rented agri.	agri. wage labor	non-agri. wage labor	small business	small industries	Carpentar/dakar mi	Total
Kamaiya/Kamlari	0	4.9	27.9	4.9	60.7	1.6	0.0	0.0	61
Own agri.	0	62.8	7.0	2.3	16.3	4.7	4.7	1.6	43
Rented agri.	2.6	2.6	28.9	0.0	60.5	2.6	0.0	2.6	38
Agri. wage labor	0	0	0	20	80	0	0	0	5
Non-agri.wage labor	0	0	0	0	33.3	0.0	0.0	66.7	3
Total	1	31	31	5	72	4	2	4	150

Source: Field survey-2010

Use of remittance

The earned amount from destination is used at home in the various expenditure heading. The use of that amount varies according to household need. The percentage of households that use the amount in one heading of expenditure is also varied household to household.

Table 10 shows that households of seasonal labor migrants are dependent on remittance to fulfill the food, clothes, health treatment, and education over the year. In addition, remittance is used by some households for buying purchasing, household assets, debt payment, building construction, social charity and social amenity by collecting and saving.

So, seasonal labor migration has a significant role to improving the livelihood of the Tharu people.

The average percentage of remittance used in financial capital is highest, that is 69.4 percent which is followed by social capital, human capital, physical capital and natural capital with 11.3 percent, 8.8 percent, 5.8 percent and 4.7 percent respectively. Among these five capital variables, expenditure on food is occupied the highest amount of remittance. The second highest amount is spent in clothes i.e. 20.6 percent and the expenditure on education is ranked third (Table 10).

Table 10: Percentage distribution of the remittance by livelihood capitals

Expenditure on	Average Percent of expenditure
Human Capital	8.8
Education	1.2
Health treatment	7.6
Social Capital	11.3
Social amenity	5.6
Social charity	5.7
Natural Capital	4.7
Land purchasing	4.7
Physical Capital	5.8
Households assets	1.0
Households building construction	4.8
Financial Capital	69.4
Food	48.3
Clothes	20.6
Debt payment	0.5
Total	100

Source: Field survey-2010

4. Conclusion

This study found that seasonal migration is dominant in short distance moves. Among all seasonal migrants, there are females' domination in short distance than males. The volume of seasonal labor migration is adversely related to the distance. It is identified as 'home' to 'reach' migration where participation of female headed households from low socioeconomic class is high and they highly involved in low skilled work at destination (either agriculture or no-agriculture). Youth (aged 15-40 years) participation is high on

which majority of them are married. The streams of seasonal labor migration are rural to rural and rural to urban. Both internal and international seasonal labor migrations are found. Migration is found high towards economically prosperous areas with rational choice.

The main causes of seasonal labor migration are poverty and food scarcity and the reasons are lack of work, low wage work, road construction, free from bounded labor, and extension of communication network. During migration, the migrants learned new knowledge and skill about the different kinds of work and may be able to change their occupation on return. The process of seasonal labor migration has empowered migrants and seasonal labor migration has been the means of operating household economy at origin. As Subedi, (1993, 1997) and Adhikari, J. et.al, 2021 pointed out this process has improved the livelihood of the seasonal labor migrants and their family.

In addition, the study has found that the reflection of the more income can be seen on the expenditure and consumption of goods and services. Among these capitals the high influence of seasonal labor migration has been found on financial capital especially on expenditure on food and clothes (family consumptions). Thus, rural people have continued their seasonal migration especially for procuring maintaining food and clothes throughout the year at first and then to fulfill other needs.

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