

**MIGRATION AND SOCIO- ECONOMIC DEVELOPMENT:
A STUDY OF GULF RETURNEES IN TELANGANA**

A THESIS SUBMITTED DURING 2023 TO THE UNIVERSITY OF HYDERABAD IN
PARTIAL FULFILLMENT OF THE REQUIREMENTS FOR THE DEGREE OF

DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY

IN

CENTRE FOR THE STUDY OF SOCIAL EXCLUSION AND INCLUSIVE POLICY

BY

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APRIL 2023



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A. Published in the following Journal:

1. Kishore Kadari, 2021. “Migration And Reverse Migration: A Study on Returnees from Gulf Countries during the Covid-19 Pandemic of Karimnagar District, Telangana” DRSR Journal UGC Care Group I Journal, with ISSN: 2347-7180 Vol-11 Issue-09 No. 01 September 2021, Pages 142 – 148.
2. Kishore Kadari, 2021. “Migration and Reverse Migration of Migrant Workers during Covid-19 Pandemic in Khammam District, Telangana” Manak Publications Pvt. Ltd. with ISBN: 978-93-91897-04-8, Pages 215 – 235.

B. Presented in the following Seminars:

1. Presented a paper in two day International Conference on ‘Rural Development, Social Dynamics and Women Welfare entitled “Migration and Development: A Study of Rural to Urban Migration from Khammam District, Telangana” organized by Centre for The Study of Social Exclusion and Inclusive Policy (CSSEIP), Centre for Women Studies (CSW) and office of the Dean Students’ Welfare in collaboration with Endling conferences at the University of Hyderabad, March 4-5, 2020.
2. Presented a paper in two day National Seminar on “Impact of Covid on Informal Economy of Telangana with Special Reference to Hyderabad” entitled “Covid – 19 and its Impact on Migration: A Study in Hyderabad” organized by Loyola Academy in partnership with CSSEIP, University of Hyderabad, September 29-30, 2022.
3. Presented a paper in Two day National Conference on “Unorganized Labour in India: Issues and Challenges” entitled “Migration and Socio-Economic Development: A Study on Migrant Lives in Hyderabad” organized by Centre for The Study of Social Exclusion and Inclusive Policy (CSSEIP) in collaboration with Institute of Eminence (IoE)-University of Hyderabad and Indian Council of Social Science Research (ICSSR)-SRC Hyderabad, March 9-10, 2023.

Further, the student has completed the following courses in the Centre for the Study of Social Exclusion and Inclusive Policy (CSSEIP).

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Sl. No.	No.	Name of the Course	Credits	Pass/Fail
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2	EI702	Social Exclusion: Theoretical Perspectives	4	Pass
3	EI703	Research Methods	4	Pass
4	EI704	Study Area	4	Pass

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ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

I express my deepest gratitude and sincere thanks to my esteemed research supervisor, Dr J Rani Ratna Prabha, for accepting me as her scholarly student and providing exceptional guidance, immense support, and profound mentorship throughout my research journey. Her vast knowledge, expertise, and commitment to academic excellence have been truly inspiring and instrumental in shaping my research project.

Under her efficient leadership, I have gained invaluable research skills and a deeper understanding of the subject matter. In addition, her keen insights, critical feedback, and constructive criticism have helped me navigate my research's most complex and challenging aspects. I am truly fortunate to have worked with such an exceptional Mentor, Guide and Supervisor.

I express my deep gratitude towards Prof. Ajailiu Niumai, Head, The Centre for the Study of Social Exclusion and Inclusive Policy (CSSEIP) and other faculty members, Prof. Sreepati Ramudu and Prof. Raja Mohan Rao, for their valuable suggestions.

I want to thank Mrs Mehjabeen and Chandu Anna, the office staff CSSEIP for the help and support I received from them.

I also like to thank the staff of Indira Gandhi Memorial Library, University of Hyderabad, for their cooperation and help provided to me with great books and reading materials.

I thank my parents Kadari Ramulu – Bhagyamma, for the gift of this life and their endless support to continue my academic journey. Special thanks to my Sisters Krishna Veni, Kamala Kumari, Nephew Vishnu Vardhan and Sister-in-Law Mayuri for their cooperation and support in all my crucial times. And I thank other my family members Nereti Krishna, Bonthu Venkata Muthyam, Harsha Vardhan, Akshaya and Vamsi Vardhan.

I would like to express my sincere gratitude to the family members who have been added to my life after my marriage. Special thanks to Aemula Maisaiah – Kamma, Subhash Gunde – Madhavi, Bathula Babu Rao – Swathi, Akky Ashok – Menaka, Mahesh, Vamshi Kishore, Sunny, Bunny and whole Aemula's Family members.

My friends are my strength in every stage of my life. A great thanks to my friends Hema, Maruthi, Ramesh Jogu, Dr Madhav Kakani, Samson Gidla, Yaseen, Ramesh Palakurthi, Upender Kolluri and Gopi Rajendra (NIT-Warangal), for their tremendous help and support in my academic journey.

I am incredibly fortunate to have a friend like Rama Krishna Manuraju (Principal Security Engineer), a maestro and a great stalwart in Cyber Security. He has been so supportive in my crucial times.

I feel blessed to have such special friends in my life, and I thank them for their invaluable contributions to my academic and personal growth. I thank my Dear and Dearest friends SOC Analysts Rahul Jupaka and Mahesh Kumar Panthangi, Software Engineers S Khadar Shariff, Chigurupati Rajesh, Tiruchanur Krishna Mohan, Reddipalli Rakesh Kumar Reddy and Arangi Prudhvi Raj.

A very special thanks to my wife, Dr Aemula Manjula, for her unwavering love, support, and encouragement throughout my academic journey. Her constant belief in my abilities and dynamic support has been instrumental in helping me achieve my goals. Her patience and understanding during challenging times have been my continuous source of strength and motivation.

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Abbreviations

1. NCRL	-	National Commission of Rural Labour
2. MEA	-	Ministry of External Affairs
3. LEDCs	-	Less Economically Developed Countries
4. EEA	-	European Economic Area
5. GCC	-	Gulf Cooperation Council
6. UAE	-	United Arab Emirates
7. UK	-	United Kingdom
8. USA	-	United States of America
9. NSS	-	National Sample Survey
10. ILO	-	International Labour Organization
11. NRI	-	Non Resident Indian
12. TOMCOM	-	Telangana Overseas Manpower Company Ltd.
13. NORKA	-	Non Resident Keralite's Affairs
14. NAC	-	National Academy of Construction
15. ITI	-	Industrial Training Institutes
16. IDTRC	-	Institute of Driving Training and Research Centre
17. MRW	-	Minimum Referral Wages
18. MSME	-	Ministry of Micro, Small & Medium Enterprises
19. NGOs	-	Non-governmental organizations
20. MNC	-	Multinational Corporation

Dedicated
To
My Son
&
Wife

Chapter - 1

Introduction

Migration refers to the movement of people from one place to another, often with the intention of settling permanently or temporarily in a new location. In the context of Gulf migration from Telangana state, it refers to the large-scale movement of people from Telangana to the Gulf countries, such as Saudi Arabia, United Arab Emirates, Qatar, Kuwait, and Oman, in search of better job opportunities and higher wages.

Gulf migration from Telangana state has been a significant phenomenon over the past few decades. The migration has been driven by several factors, including economic opportunities, political instability, and social factors. Many people from Telangana work in the construction, hospitality, and healthcare sectors in the Gulf countries.

People from India have been moving to other countries since the colonial era, which continued even after India gained its independence and it has become more rampant after the introduction of new economic reforms.

1.1. An Overview of Migration

Migration is a global phenomenon that has been taking place throughout human history. The movement of people from one place to another has been motivated by various factors such as economic, social, political, environmental, and personal reasons. In recent times, migration has become a topic of intense academic interest due to its impact on society and the economy, particularly in the context of globalization and rapid demographic changes.

Indian employees migrated to colonies like Guyana, Jamaica, Trinidad, Fiji, Mauritius, Malaysia, Singapore, Sri Lanka, and Burma to work as indentured Labourers after the British Empire abolished slavery from the 19th century until the First World War. This migration continued until the 1930s, when Indians began to migrate to Kenya, Uganda, Tanzania, and South Africa, among the nations in East Africa (Lakshmaiah Naidu 1991).

Indian labourers migrated to Britain, the United States, and Canada as the employment opportunities has opened up for Indians during the period of 1950 to 1970. . A second wave of Indian labour migration to the Middle East has been started from the 1970s and peaked in the early 1980s, especially in oil-exporting countries near the Persian Gulf. It resulted from rising oil prices, raising demand for skilled and unskilled labourers in many industries. Since the local labour pool could not fill this demand, people were imported from across the world wherever the labour are abundant and available at the cheaper rate. As a result, many Indians discovered good employment possibilities in these nations, which caused the number of Indian workers travelling to Gulf nations each year to rise slightly until 1982. However, due to declining oil prices and income and a general slowdown in expansion plans, there was a sharp reduction in the number of Indian employees travelling to these countries in the following years (*Ibid*).

The 21st century is the century of new economic reforms with the introduction of LPG (Liberalization Privatization and Globalization). Globalisation is the omnipresent phenomenon and it impacts people in all parts of the globe in positive and negative ways. The phenomenon of globalisation also affects international mobility, the migration of workers, and increasing international travel. Globalisation has forced the labour and workforce to move from one place to another, from one region to another region or country to another, for better jobs. The migration is a significant outcome of globalisation. Globalisation poses challenges both challenges to the promotion and protection of the rights of migrant workers.

In the twentieth century, they witnessed a massive population movement. From the beginning of civilisation, people started migrating from one place to another for better education, work, and opportunities. Migration, or population movement from one country to another, has become common. Migrant is a person who changes his or her usual country of residence. Migrants are people who move from one place to the other place with the permission of their government for the sake of jobs. Migrants never lost their citizenship. They are a member of their states. They have the right to return to their own countries with or without the permission of their government. They have not lost their political and civil rights in their country but are treated as second-class citizens and deprived of all civics rights. The migrant is a citizen of a particular country (Ahmad and Khan 2011).

The Gulf nations, mainly "Bahrain, Kuwait, Oman, Qatar, Saudi Arabia, and the United Arab Emirates," had a combined population of 27.7 million in the late 1990s and were endowed with

a wealth of oil reserves. 10.6 million, or 75% of the Gulf workforce, were temporary migrant workers and their families. 11.4% of the 7.4 million crews were women. Despite initiatives to promote Arab migration to certain host nations, the "Arsenification" of the Gulf labour force has been on the rise at the time.

Most female migrant workers in the Gulf region originated from Sri Lanka, the Philippines, India, and Indonesia, with a smaller fraction coming from Arab nations such as Egypt, Jordan, and Morocco. However, the proportion of women in the migrant workforce varied significantly across various countries, with Sri Lanka having the highest number of female migrant workers (65%). In contrast, approximately half of the migrant workers from the Philippines were women. In 1999, around 583,000 Sri Lankan women workers were employed across different countries, contributing considerably to the country's foreign exchange earnings.

Arab workers tended to migrate with their families. In contrast, Asian workers usually migrated alone without their spouses and children due to the high minimum salary required to bring family members to the Gulf. In Kuwait, for example, in 2001, only 12% of the total female migrant workers were part of the labour force, while the rest accompanied male migrant workers. However, 77% of all Asian women were employed in Kuwait, mainly in domestic work, contributing to an individual rather than family migration.

Domestic work provided higher salaries and permission or visas to bring family members. On the other hand, domestic workers usually lived with their employers, who ensured they had a place to stay. A few male domestic workers were also drivers, gardeners, and general helpers. Arab women tended to work as teachers, doctors, nurses, or secretaries; a tiny proportion was employed in household duties. On the other hand, around 20,000 Arab and 16,000 Asian women work in administrative and professional positions (Shah 2004).

1.1.1. The Definitions of Migration

The definitions of the word 'Migration' are stated by prominent scholars in the following:

- Sinha (2005): *"Migration is the movement of human beings in pursuit of better employment, better wages, better skills, and better quality of life"*.

- Standing. G (1981): *Migration is searching for gainful opportunities, and a better life has always been characterised as development, reflecting socio-cultural and political-economic dimensions of human life.*

1.1.2. The Concept of Migration

Migration is a social process that can be understood from multiple perspectives, including sociological, economic, demographic, and political perspectives. From a sociological perspective, migration can be viewed as a form of social change, where individuals and families seek to improve their social and economic circumstances by moving to a new location. Economic perspectives view migration as a response to changes in labor demand and supply, where migrants seek to access better-paying jobs and improve their standard of living. From a demographic perspective, migration can be seen as a driver of population growth and change, with implications for fertility, mortality, and population composition.

The Gulf States remain the primary target of the Indian migrant workforce. The future of Indian migrants is looking very bright in the Gulf States. An Indian migrant is a different group in the Gulf States. They are located in large numbers in the Gulf States. The vast majority of migrants are making meaningful contributions to their host country. Migrations from India to the Gulf States are usually temporary. Often they are semi-skilled or unskilled and return to India after the expiry of their contractual employment. Indian migrants in the Gulf States are viewed as unofficial ambassadors of India who could help the nation change economically and serve as a bridge between West Asia and India. Unemployment, poverty, and economic empowerment are the primary drivers of migration from India to other countries. One of the significant reasons Indians still like to work in other nations is the tax-free income it provides to India. Many countries gainfully employ Indian immigrant ethnic groups or migrant communities for their economic development. The interest is primarily economic than anything else (Ahmad and Khan 2011).

1.1.3. Importance of Other Nations in Migration

The Gulf States, United Nations, United States and other countries are important for India regarding software, crude oil, gas and petroleum. The Gulf States remain the primary source of hydrocarbons and the largest large depository of oil and gas reserves. The Gulf States also

holds an important place in terms of energy reserves. The area is home to 34% of the world's natural gas reserves and 63% of the world's oil stocks. As a result, it sells 32% of the crude produced worldwide and can make 90% of the extra oil. So it is clear that the Gulf States are crucial for India because they provide our energy needs and employment opportunities for many Indians working in the Gulf States. The Gulf States is an essential destination for the Indian workforce to seek better job opportunities.

The first wave of Indian migration came after oil prices increased in 1973. Their income increased, and the Gulf States launched massive investment programmes. Therefore, they needed more labours. Before that, they had imported labour almost from neighbouring Arab States. However, the need for labour increased when the oil-rich Gulf States started to use their petrol dollar in infrastructure development activities. The Arab labourers could not fulfil the increased demand for labour, so Indian labour fulfilled these demands. The United Arabs Emirates, Bahrain, Kuwait, Qatar, Oman, and Saudi Arabia have become important hubs for multinational companies during the last few decades. Therefore, positive avenues are open for Indian workers in the Gulf States.

The individual Gulf Countries' dependence on Arab workers is quite significant. India's dependence on these countries for oil supplies is overwhelming. About 50–60% of all payments received by Indians come from Indian migrants in the Gulf States. Most of the remittances boosting India's foreign currency reserves have been attributed to its migrant Indian population in the Gulf States. Presently, Indian migrants annually remittance 10 billion dollars from the Gulf States. Thousands of workers from India migrated to these countries for employment. They are underprivileged people and highly inspired by the high-value currency of the Gulf States.

1.1.4. India and Migration

The primary group of Indian Labourers in the Gulf region work in the construction industry for companies from India, the UK, the US, Cyprus, and Arab countries. These workers perform various roles, including unskilled labour, skilled artisans, civil engineers, and managers. Although the number of Indian construction workers peaked in the late 1970s, it has decreased due to a decline in construction and heightened competition from Korean businesses. Construction work is typically short-term, lasting one to two years, and the workers live in

company-provided barracks close to the construction sites. Additionally, many Indians are employed by private sector firms in the industry and services, holding positions such as factory workers, clerks, hotel staff, engineers, and business clerks.

Gulf governments and government-run institutions also hire Indian workers for jobs such as managing the properties of the Sultan of Oman, designing infrastructure projects, and working in hospitals. However, employment in government is less secure than in the private sector as Gulf governments aim to replace foreign workers with qualified local Arabs. However, the jobs pay handsomely, and in some occupations, notably engineering and medicine, there is little likelihood that Indians and other expatriates will be displaced shortly. For centuries Indian traders have played a significant role in trade between India and the Gulf and between the Gulf and East Africa. Much of the trade in Dubai and Oman, particularly the pearl and gold trade, was in the hands of Indian merchants. When Oman was a dependency of India under the Governor of Bombay, the traditional trade of rice, coffee, tea and cotton goods from India for dates, dried fish, and pomegranates from Oman was handled by Indian merchants. Kutch merchant families from Gujarat also ran the trade between Oman and Zanzibar.

In recent years Indian merchants have moved into the new trade linking the Gulf to Europe and the United States. Indian merchants own many of the franchises and import permits. They operate numerous small shops in the souks and some of the larger modern department stores in the port cities of Kuwait, Manama, Dubai, Abu Dhabi, Muscat, and Mutrah. Except for Oman and, until recently, Dubai, all of the countries in the region have laws stipulating that only citizens may be given import permits and that local Arabs must own all businesses and retail establishments. As a result, Indian businessmen and merchants have "silent" Arab associates who receive a fee or a share of the profits. Indian shopkeepers and traders have shared in the rising prosperity of the Gulf. Their prosperity is, however, tempered by the fear that they might one day suffer the same destiny as the East African Indian trading and business communities. There are a lot of Indian businessmen in Oman and Dubai who used to have operations in Kenya, Tanzania, Zanzibar, and Uganda.

Last but not least, some Indians work as ayahs, cooks, sweepers, and gardeners for local Arab households. In several Gulf States, the ayahs are an especially noticeable aspect of the local scene. For instance, in Kuwait, you can see a thousand or more Indian ayahs conversing and walking with young Indian boys and one another in front of the city's Catholic Church on a

Sunday evening. The middle and upper classes in the Gulf region depend heavily on India for domestic help. This brief account of Indian employment in the Gulf indicates not only how diverse the Indian labour force is but also the extent to which Indians have become an inextricable part of the structure of the Arab labour market. The slack in construction has been more than filled by a growing demand for labour in other sectors of the economy-a demand linked to several fundamental changes in the economy of the Gulf (Weiner 1982).

Due to permanent migration, the United States, Canada, and Australia have experienced economic and demographic growth. At the same time, post-war Europe recruited temporary workers from Mediterranean countries, and the United States employed legal and illegal migrants from Latin America. However, the proportion of migrants in the Gulf States is much more significant compared to their local populations than in Europe and the United States. Low-skilled workers from low-income countries also primarily migrated to Europe and the United States. In contrast, in the Gulf, skilled workers have migrated significantly, outnumbering the local skilled labour force. The Gulf States have a unique situation due to their wealth, labour shortages, and small populations. It means they are not concerned with labour-intensive industries or obtaining financial resources for delivering services like healthcare, education, and housing. Instead, they import workers to construct and operate new facilities and industries and provide services.

The Gulf States have decided not to permit migrants to become citizens due to political and tribal concerns. As monarchies, they fear political erosion; small states fear being politically overrun by their larger neighbours. The primary objective of the Gulf States is to maximise the economic well-being of their tribes while sharing wealth with their populations through expanding social services and government employment and diversifying their economy through industrial investment and modern infrastructure. Therefore, our understanding of the role of international migration in economic growth and its consequences needs to be revised to analyse what is happening in the Gulf States. (*Ibid*).

1.1.5. The Different Meanings of Migration

Changes in population size are influenced by three main factors: birth rates, death rates, and migration. However, migration remarkably impacts population size because it is not a biological event but a decision made by individuals or groups based on various social, cultural,

economic, and political factors. Unlike birth and death rates, which have a more gradual effect on population size, migration can cause significant and immediate changes to the size and structure of a population. As a result, studying migration is crucial in understanding population dynamics, growth rates, and distribution and formulating economic and other policies.

Migration reflects social changes and historical trends as people move from one location to another for various reasons. For example, technological changes have led to significant migration from rural to urban areas, affecting labour supply, industries, and commerce. Because migration impacts the availability of skilled and semi-skilled labourers, economists are interested in examining it, ultimately changing the employment structure of migrated people. As a result, policymakers must consider migration when formulating economic policies, especially in developing countries where internal migration due to industrialisation and economic development has significant consequences.

To summarise, migration is a demographic event with long-term effects on a region or country's socio-economic and cultural development. The United Nations defines migration as changing one's place of residence from one geographical area to another, either permanently or temporarily, intending to return in the future. Different types of migration exist, which can vary in their duration, purpose, and impact on the population.

a. In-migration and Out-migration:

In-migration refers to the number of people moving into a specific region or country. In the context of Gulf migration from Telangana, in-migration would refer to the number of people moving from Telangana to the Gulf countries for work and employment opportunities.

Out-migration, on the other hand, refers to the number of people leaving a specific region or country. In the context of Gulf migration from Telangana, out-migration would refer to the number of people leaving Telangana to migrate to the Gulf countries for work and employment opportunities.

b. Gross and Net Migration:

Gross migration and net migration are two interconnected concepts that are relevant to understanding the Gulf migration from Telangana.

Gross migration refers to the total number of people who move into or out of a specific region, regardless of the duration or reason for their migration. In the context of Gulf migration from Telangana, gross migration would include all individuals who migrate from Telangana to the Gulf countries for work and employment opportunities, as well as those who return to Telangana after completing their work contracts.

Net migration, on the other hand, is the difference between the number of people who move into and out of a region over a given period. In the case of Telangana's migration to the Gulf, net migration would be calculated by subtracting the number of people who left Telangana to migrate to the Gulf countries from the number of people who returned to Telangana after their work contracts expired.

c. Internal Migration and External Migration:

Internal migration refers to the movement of individuals within a country, while external migration refers to the movement of individuals across international borders. In the context of the Gulf migration from Telangana, internal migration would refer to the movement of individuals within India, while external migration would refer to the movement of individuals from Telangana to the Gulf countries.

The Gulf migration from Telangana has had significant implications for both internal and external migration in the region. The migration of a large number of individuals from Telangana to the Gulf countries has led to an increase in external migration from the state.

1.1.6. The Effects of Migration

Both the location from which people migrate and the place to which they migrate are impacted by internal migration. Migrants have beneficial and harmful effects on society and the economy when they relocate from rural to urban areas.

1.1.6.1. Effects on Rural Areas:

"Migration affects rural areas (the place of origin) in the following ways:"

a. Economic Effects:

When people move from rural areas, the population pressure on the land decreases, leading to higher productivity and income per worker. As a result, it increases family income, encouraging farmers to adopt better farming practices and resulting in higher yields. In addition, young people between 18-40 years old are the ones who usually migrate to urban areas, live alone, work, and send money back to their families in the villages. In turn, it raises the income levels in rural areas, which is used to make farm improvements, further raising incomes. It is especially true for emigrants who send significant money home from foreign countries. These migrants also bring new ideas and goods to their villages, increasing consumption and living standards. In addition, with the migration of working-age individuals, there is a decrease in farm workers, which creates opportunities for underemployed family members to work on the farm. It includes women, older individuals, and even juveniles. However, out-migration widens income and wealth inequalities in rural families, with those receiving significant remittances becoming more prosperous and buying additional farmland.

b. Demographic Effects:

In rural areas, migration slows population development—long-term separation from spouses and the use of contraceptives aid in reducing population growth. Young males who move to cities are so affected by urban life that they do not prefer to get married young. Instead, they aim to increase their income, find a career, and marry. Additionally, migrants become more health-conscious as a result of residing in cities. As a result, they emphasise the value of hygiene and health care, which lowers the incidence of infant and maternal mortality.

c. Social Effects:

Migration also impacts rural towns' social structures. The presence of migrants in urban areas can lead to changes in the traditional joint family structure. As migrants interact with people from different castes and regions in the city, they introduce new attitudes and values, which can gradually alter rural residents' traditional beliefs and practices. Consequently, this may cause changes in the joint family structure if migrants choose to reside permanently in urban regions. Women dominate the social structure of rural living because men have moved into towns.

1.1.6.2. Effects on Urban Areas:

“Migration affects urban areas (or the place of destination) in the following ways:”

a. Demographic Effects:

Urban middle-class populations are growing as a result of migration. However, unmarried young males between the ages of 15 and 24 make up the majority of migrants. Others older than this age group travel alone and leave their families behind. Due to this tendency, fertility in urban regions remains lower than in rural areas. Due to the high costs of raising children, even people who settle down permanently with their spouses prefer having a small number of kids. In addition, better family planning and medical facilities are more readily available in urban regions, another factor contributing to the low fertility rate.

b. Economic Effects:

Depending on the type of migrants, different migrants will have different impacts on income and employment in urban areas. The migrants typically lack formal education and work as market vendors, shoe shiners, carpenters, masons, tailors, rickshaw pullers, cooks, and other tradespeople, among other occupations. These low-paying activities are part of the "informal sector." However, the ILO asserts that the data indicates that most employment in the unorganised sector is economically advantageous and profitable. Because of this, they have enough money to spend and send home. Other migrant workers with a second-level education

work as store assistants, taxi drivers, machine and consumer durable repairers, marketers of goods, and in other small-scale, labour-intensive, unregulated informal activities. However, their incomes are high enough to make them typical urbanites who earn more than unskilled labourers. People who move to college and university cities for higher education make up another tiny group of migrants. They obtain appropriate employment in the "formal sector," earn respectable wages and maintain a high standard of living. These individuals help modernise the rural environment by sending significant money home.

c. Adverse Effects of Rural-Urban Migration:

The effects of moving from rural to urban regions are generally adverse. There are numerous issues in the towns and cities where the migrants reside. The first is the rapid expansion of sizable settlements and shantytowns. These large neighbourhoods and towns require access to municipal services like a sewage system, clean, running water, and public services. Second, there need to be more homes. Third, the demands of the expanding populace must be met by the city's transportation system. Thirdly, there is air pollution, commotion, and more crime and traffic. Despite the municipal authorities' best efforts, covering the costs associated with providing facilities is impossible. In addition, cities and communities have a significant underemployment and unemployment problem. Men and women hawk inexpensive goods like bananas, groundnuts, and balloons on the sidewalks and streets. Many people work as waiters, parking attendants, and shoe shiners. As a result, urban migration boosts the growth rate of job seekers in comparison to population development, increasing the availability of labour in urban areas. However, for the uneducated and unskilled rural migrants, there is not enough employment in the formal urban sector to meet demand. As a result, chronic and rising urban unemployment and underemployment result from the lack of demand for such labour and the rapid rise in labour supply.

1.1.7. The Different Patterns of Migration

1.1.7.1. Inter-State Migration:

Interstate migration transfers people from one state to another within the same nation to establish permanent residence. Only a tiny portion of the population in India has moved between states; according to the 1961 Census, 31.4% had done so. The 1971 Census indicated

that this proportion had fallen to 29.5%. Between 1961 and 1971, residents of Uttar Pradesh, Kerala, West Bengal, Andhra Pradesh, Karnataka, Punjab, Rajasthan, Tamil Nadu, Nagaland, Gujarat, Jammu & Kashmir, and Bihar migrated to other states; migration also continued in Maharashtra, Delhi, Madhya Pradesh, Assam, and Gujarat. From 1951 to 1961, people moved out of Jammu and Kashmir, Rajasthan, Bihar, and Tamil Nadu to other states. Between 1961 and 1971, people moved in the opposite direction, from other states to Jammu and Kashmir.

Jammu & Kashmir, Rajasthan, Bihar, and Tamil Nadu were population-losing states during 1951-61 but became population-gaining states during 1961-71. In 1961, West Bengal had the highest percentage (6.41%) of migrants, while Jammu & Kashmir had a minor migration, likely due to its underdevelopment. Punjab had the highest percentage (6.49%) of migrants leaving the state, while only 0.98% left Assam. During the years 1971-81, there were no significant changes in migration trends, with Maharashtra remaining the most popular destination for migrants.

Between 1981 and 1991, the leading destinations for migrants from Uttar Pradesh, Bihar, Rajasthan, Punjab, and Andhra Pradesh were Maharashtra, Bengal, Assam, and Karnataka. Women played a crucial role in inter-state migration, as they typically settled at their husband's place after marriage, and this migration rate was consistent across different states. In addition, people often migrate to metropolitan cities like Delhi due to the availability of employment opportunities, education, and other amenities.

1.1.7.2. International Migration: Meaning, Streams and Factors:

External migration, or international migration, refers to relocating permanently from one nation to another. Many countries, like "Israel, Singapore, Hong Kong, South Africa, the United States, Canada, Australia, New Zealand, Latin America, and Singapore", have seen their populations grow significantly because of international migration.

International Migration is as old as human civilisation. Famine, victory in war and other factors play an essential role in international migration, details of which may need to be known precisely due to the lack of complete information on this count.

a. Streams of International Migration

In the beginning, from Britain and later from Germany and Scandinavia, the Europeans in large numbers crossed the Atlantic Ocean for permanent settlement in America. America was considered a country of vast resources and new technology, and people moved there to try their luck for material prosperity. The second noteworthy migration stream was from South Europe and East Europe to settle in Latin America. People from Europe also migrated to Australia, New Zealand and South Africa. The Chinese and Indians played an important role in Asian Migration. People who migrated from India were mainly labourers who moved to Burma, Sri Lanka, Malaya, Fiji, Trinidad and Tobago, Mauritius and British Guiana in search of rubber, tea, coffee jobs, and sugarcane plantations. Asia's most significant population migration was due to the Partition of India in 1947. According to an estimate, nearly 72 lakh people migrated to Pakistan from India, and almost the same number migrated from Pakistan to India. In the history of international migration, the Migration of Israel is a noteworthy event wherein people migrated in lakhs for several years. From May 1948 to December 1951, the population of this new nation was 6.5 to 6.8 lakh, more than double the original population. In no country in the world migration of such a considerable size has occurred so rapidly.

b. Factors which Lead to International Migration:

In world history, international migration is a significant event through which big nations like the USA have been created. People from European countries have migrated to the USA in large numbers. Similarly, in many other countries, international migration has played a pivotal role in development. The following factors lead to international migration:

i. Economic Conditions:

People who reside in areas with more natural resources are required, poor agricultural land yields, and people frequently relocate. Additionally, labour migrates from one country to another to better the economic conditions of the receiving nation when industries do not receive enough raw materials or when the demand for labour declines due to mechanisation.

ii. Climatic Conditions:

Climate conditions are crucial for healthy living on a global basis. People relocate from polluted areas to areas with improved climatic conditions. People may also leave an area that experiences numerous earthquakes or floods. Industries' use and release of hazardous chemicals contribute to migration. It hurts the local population's welfare and encourages migration.

iii. Social and Cultural Factors:

International migration occurs in traditional societies due to social and cultural variables. People relocate to areas with favourable social circumstances and enduring values because these factors increase life security and decrease conflict. On the other hand, people do not like to reside in areas where there are social conflicts, which can result in riots, strikes, agitations, and the loss of jobs.

iv. Religious Factors:

Migration requires a particular set of religious beliefs. People move to a location where they discover their religion when religious sentiments predominate. Sikhs will relocate where there is a Gurudwara, whereas more Buddhists can be found in Nepal and northern India. Muslims primarily move to Arab nations because they encounter similar religious climates there. People move from one nation to another for religious harmony and spiritual solace.

v. Rapid Industrialisation:

Rapid Industrialisation has its positive and negative effects on the life of a citizen. Due to industrialisation, we find many industrial complexes which give rise to housing and shopping complexes, big markets and big business centres. These attract skilled, semi-skilled or unskilled professionals who require attractive jobs. In the USA, there were 1.3 million people of Indian origin. Besides, out of 72.3 per cent total workforce, 43.6 per cent were employed in managerial and professional specialities, 33.2 per cent in technical, sales and administrative support occupations, and 23.3 per cent in other areas like Operation, Fabrication, Labourers and Precision Production.

vi. Political Factors:

In a country where people do not find a politically peaceful atmosphere, they leave that country. For example, after the Gulf War and the ensuing UN sanctions, the Indian community in Iraq was reduced from seventy thousand in 1970 to only eighty in 1996. Similarly, in a country where its government fails to maintain law and order, people migrate from that place and settle in those countries where they find a politically stable environment.

vii. Demographic Factors:

People will migrate to more developed nations with better socio-economic opportunities and medical facilities if their home country has fewer medical facilities, a low literacy rate, fewer basic amenities, a high population density, and a high unemployment rate.

viii. Agriculture-Based Economy:

The low-income countries are mostly agriculture-oriented. Many labourers still need to be fully employed. In peak agricultural seasons, they work for long hours. Nevertheless, otherwise, the labour force becomes idle. The labour force coming from poor households can only afford to remain with employment.

In less developed countries, the population seeking work needs help. Such labour force migrates from one country to another, primarily to developed countries. It happened when farmers migrated to Canada from Punjab in the early 20th century.

ix. Increase in Skills and Capabilities:

The key to economic progress is its labour force's increasing skills and capabilities. In increasingly integrated and technologically advanced high-income countries, the ratio of investment in human capital is high, and therefore people's living standards are also high. In developed nations, there are more employment possibilities, higher labour productivity, and higher earning potential. For higher education and training, students from developing nations

travel to developed nations to improve their skills and capabilities. Later on, many find jobs, migrate and settle in developed countries.

x. Migration between India and Other Countries

Since ancient times, people have migrated between India and other nations for commerce, higher education, employment, and religious purposes. According to Kingsley Davis, between 1901 and 1931, more people emigrated from India to other countries than from other nations to India. In 1931, 25 lacks Indians were living in other countries. According to the 1961 Census, 296 thousand of foreigners lived in India, but the number of Indians living in foreign countries could not be known. According to the same author, the size of the population migrating in India and out of India between 1901- 1930 is given in Table 3, which shows that the size of the population migrating from India to other countries has remained higher being 33 lakhs as against 28.6 lakh migration from other countries to India.

1.2. General View on Migration in Indian Context

Moving across international borders from one place of origin to another or from one place of birth to another is how migration is frequently described. Metrics for international bilateral migration typically rely on the movement of people from a country other than their own for at least one year, during which the destination country becomes the migrant's new country of origin. In developed countries, the statistics on migration flows that consider individuals who enter as immigrants rather than those who come through temporary or non-immigrant channels reinforce the notion of migrants as permanent or long-term settlers.

Therefore, migration is frequently viewed as a permanent shift rather than a string of forward or backward steps. Immigration to developed nations is at high rates, according to studies on current international migration. For instance, in 2010, the United States admitted 2.82 million temporary employees and their families while only accepting 1.04 million permanent immigrants.

In 2010–2011, Australia accepted 213,409 migrants through permanent routes, while 504,671 people arrived through the temporary entry. Compared to 383,929 applicants in non-permanent categories, Canada accepted 280,681 applicants through its immigration route. Migration is the

term used to describe any movement of people, including refugees, displaced people, uprooted people, and economic migrants. This moving process can occur across an international boundary or within a State. Migration is not a new occurrence; it has existed throughout human history from the beginning. People have migrated domestically within countries and externally between continents and nations.

There are roughly one billion migrants in the globe, according to the International Organization for Migration. This figure comprises 740 million internally displaced people and 214 million international migrants. International migration has increased in size, scope, complexity, and effect due to better transportation and communication options, growing interdependence, and globalisation. Most nations today serve as a migrant's country of origin, country of transit, and country of the final location. Migration presents many possibilities and challenges for both less and more developed nations. Regular migration has contributed significantly to the increase in global migration, as evidenced by the mobility of employees and their families. However, the number of unauthorised immigrants and immigrants living in unusual circumstances has also grown. At the same time, there are increasing worries that in the coming decades, forced migrations of people across international borders could increase due to the displacements brought on by environmental deterioration and climate change.

Migration is widely acknowledged to be an essential aspect of world growth. It is widely acknowledged that, when properly managed, migration can help both the sending and receiving nation's combat poverty and increase human welfare. Emigration can help developing nations by relieving employment market pressures, utilising remittances and diaspora investments to their advantage, and transferring knowledge, technology, and skills to the diaspora. Returnees can benefit their home nations by using the innovation and investment skills they have developed overseas. Conversely, destination nations can gain from immigration by reducing labour shortages, promoting job growth, and immigrant innovation. The exchange of social, cultural, and philosophical values between nations of origin and destination is another benefit of international migration.

People move between locations to establish fixed or semi-permanent residences, typically across political boundaries. For example, the seasonal movements of migrant agricultural workers would illustrate "semi-permanent residence." People move voluntarily (voluntary migration) or involuntarily (involuntary migration). Migration occurs on all three scales:

intracontinental (between countries on the same continent), intercontinental (between planets), and interregional (within countries). The transfer of individuals from rural to urban areas in quest of opportunities has been one of the primary migration movements.

1.3. Types of Migration

1. Internal Migration: Relocating within a single state, nation, or region.

2. Internal Migration: Relocating within the same state, nation, or region.

3. Emigration: Moving to another nation from one.

4. Immigration: Immigrating to a different nation.

5. Involuntary Migration: When a government forcibly evicts a substantial portion of a people, frequently based on ethnicity or religion. This phenomenon is also known as forced or involuntary migration.

6. Imposed Migration: Because of undesirable circumstances like conflict, political upheaval, or religious persecution, people leave their country voluntarily.

7. Step Migration: Migration from a person's place of origin to their final destination to a hamlet, then a town, and finally a city.

8. Chain Migration: A series of transfers within a family or particular group. One family member frequently pays for the transfer of other family members at the beginning of a chain movement.

9. Return Migration: The wilful departure of emigrants from their home countries. Another name for this is circular movement.

10. Seasonal Migration: relocating in reaction to changes in the weather or the labour market.

1.4. Characteristics of Migration

There are two primary sources of information on population movement in India: the Census and the National Sample Survey (NSS). However, due to practical and conceptual challenges, these studies may need to capture some migration patterns, such as transitory, seasonal, and circulatory migration. Moreover, the statistics understate the degree of labour mobility because such migration and commuting are primarily employment-oriented. Although worker migration is the main focus of economic migration theories, migration data refer to population rather than worker mobility. In addition, migration surveys only provide the primary reason for migration.

a. Population Mobility:

Studies in India show that the number of migrants of both sexes in rural and urban areas increased in the last ten years of the 20th century. Approximately 60% of migrants in India change their residence within the district of enumeration, and over 20% within the state of enumeration; the remaining migrants cross state borders.

Women travel short distances in considerable numbers, usually after getting married. Concerning interstate movement, it has been found that wealthy states, except Madhya Pradesh, have low rates of total and male immigration.

b. Migration for Work:

The main reason for migration, as reported by the census and NSS, is a critical indicator of how labour market conditions affect mobility. Most male migrants who moved between states did so for economic reasons; the proportion of long-distance migrants who migrated for economic reasons. Male migrant workers who are not cultivators or agricultural labourers, according to a study of their occupational breakdown, perform 43% of the production-related work.

Significant numbers of male migrants are employed in sales jobs in the tertiary sector, followed by clerical and associated jobs. In all western states, a sizable percentage of male migrants work in secondary occupations, while in the southern and northern, eastern states, they

primarily work in tertiary occupations. About 40% of the jobs done by female migrant workers are related to production, and some are technical or professional.

According to the NSS, males in urban areas are significantly transitioning to regular work and self-employment, with a slight decline in the percentage of casual labour. All three categories, including casual labour, are rising in rural regions, but the move towards self-employment is the most notable. However, in the case of female migrants, there is also an increase in casualisation, both in rural and urban areas, but quite substantially in the former. It is in addition to the fact that migration has led to a rise in the number of workers in all three groups.

c. Short Duration Labour Migration:

Short-term migrants come from the lower socio-economic echelons and lack stable work and domestic sources of income. These migrant workers find employment in seasonal and agricultural sectors or are absorbed into the nebulous urban economy as independent contractors or casual workers. They might switch between work types or relocate from rural to urban areas. Another group of impoverished migrants has practically no assets in their home countries and has cut all ties with them.

Therefore, not all impoverished migrants would be classified as seasonal or short-term migrants. However, based on their numbers in migrant worker-heavy sectors, the National Commission of Rural Labour (NCRL) rapidly estimated the number of such labourers.

1.5. Reasons for Migration

There are many reasons why people relocate. Some are referred to as pull factors, while others as push factors. The causes of people leaving a region are called "push factors". People relocate to a specific area for various reasons are called "pull factors".

Migration is caused by a combination of push and pull factors.

1.5.1. Push and Pull Factors:

1. Environmental Affect (Ex: “Natural disasters, Displacements”)
2. Political Affect (Ex: War between the Nations and between the States within the countries)
3. Economical Affect (Ex: The nature of Job and Employment)
4. Cultural Affect (Ex: Migrating for education.)

1.5.2. Other Factors:

a. Place Utility:

The desirability of a place based on its social, economic, or environmental status is sometimes used to assess the relative costs of living in other locations. However, the utility of a place to a person may or may not correspond to its factual circumstances.

b. Intervening Opportunities:

Opportunities nearby are more appealing than those farther away, which is equivalent to or slightly better. Therefore, if other variables are equal, migrants prefer to settle closer to their origin.

c. distance:

As one moves away from an origin, one is more likely to stay in a nearby, familiar place than in an unfamiliar place.

1.5.3. Economic Factors:

a. Jobs and Education:

An economic migrant is someone who leaves their home nation because of poor living conditions or job opportunities, according to the dictionary. Numerous intricate economic variables have an impact on migration. A shot at financial stability, a higher standard of living, and access to education are just a few reasons people migrate to other countries. When mass

migration occurs, not only are the new immigrants affected economically, but the economy of their new home nation and its citizens are also altered.

b. Salary:

Rich industrialised nations provide much greater minimum wages than developing and third-world nations. A statutory minimum salary is also present in first-world economies, guaranteeing that even migrant workers from less developed nations receive a high basic wage.

c. Welfare System:

Immigration from other nations is drawn to economies with highly developed welfare states, such as a system of unemployment benefits and publicly financed health care because such services are accessible without having to pay exorbitant prices. Also, immigrants with children may benefit from a government-funded school system that is much better than the private schools in their home countries.

Given that widespread migration can burden welfare services, the economic repercussions for the host nation could be severe. However, even with increased pressure on the welfare state, immigration to first-world nations almost always leads to a net increase in tax revenues.

d. Economic Policy:

The quantity and nature of immigration that a particular economy receives are significantly influenced by how strict its immigration criteria are. In contrast to low-wage manufacturing and agricultural labourers, nations with strict point systems tend to receive more skilled and highly skilled employees. Additionally, a nation that has joined a specific economic region might not have much influence over immigration. For instance, countries in the European Economic Area (EEA) cannot stop mass immigration because there are no entrance restrictions for workers moving between EEA nations.

1.5.4. Socio-cultural and Political Factors:

a. Family Conflict and Quest for Freedom:

Political and socio-cultural variables are crucial in determining migration. For instance, migration can occasionally be prompted by family disputes and the desire for independence, particularly among younger generations. The influence of television, effective network communication, the cinema, urban-focused education, and the ensuing shift in attitudes and values are additional factors that encourage migration. Similar to how a favourable or unfavourable political climate encourages or hinders migration from one area to another.

The Organisation for International Migration estimates that 192 million people live outside of their place of birth. These people comprise 3% of the global population and are primarily migrant labourers. Because of the desire for better economic opportunities, people have permanently moved from one location to another. Political factors, however, also influence people to leave their home nation and move to another, independent of economic factors. The leading political causes of migration are war, persecution, and a lack of political liberties.

b. State Persecution:

People who differ from their government or have minority religious views or ethnic backgrounds are subject to harassment, discrimination, and even torture due to state persecution. These people must abandon their unsafe home country and move to a safer one. The desire for asylum is directly influenced by the movement of political refugees from a repressive state to a country with greater freedoms.

For instance, the United Kingdom got 555,310 asylum requests in 2002, 15% worldwide. The increase in claims of persecution in nations like Iraq, Zimbabwe, Somalia, Afghanistan, and China is reflected in these figures.

c. Lack of Political Liberties:

The lack of political rights and freedoms and the endemic corruption serve as catalysts for migrants seeking greater liberties. People relocate due to concerns that limit their freedoms, even though they are not oppressed where they were born. The economic situation will likely be terrible if the political atmosphere is hostile. Migration is a result of both political and economic forces. The majority of migrants depart for more democratic nations so they can seek more fulfilling careers, higher education, and freedom.

d. War:

Forty-two million people have been displaced from their homes due to violence worldwide, according to Earth Pulse from National Geographic. Regardless of the specifics, political factors influence all causes of war and armed conflict. As a result, they travel within their home continents and to traditional destinations like the United States, the United Kingdom, Canada, and Australia. In addition, those seeking asylum and becoming immigrants because of war. As a result, 65.3 million migrants lived in the globe as of the end of 2015, according to Migrants International.

e. Cultural-Political Factors:

Individuals associating with a particular cultural identity may relocate or migrate within their country due to political turmoil arising from cultural differences. Ethnic groups that were previously residing in different areas may be forced to live in the exact geographical boundaries due to conflicts or wars. The influx of one ethnic group may lead to the displacement of another.

1.6. Sociological Significance of Migration

Migration has historically had a substantial impact on the evolution of the world. The phenomenon of migration has been essential to developing human cultures, civilisations, and records. The relationship between migration and religion can be understood by examining the history of the world's major religions, including Christianity, Islam, and Judaism. Religion has significantly influenced population movements and has impacted the lives and situations of migrants.

Today, the relationship between religion and migration is central to the contemporary migration debate. Migration has been vital for developing many modern states, shaping labour dynamics worldwide and contributing to the global economy. Discussions have taken place on the linkage between migration and development in recent years, focusing on improving collaboration between countries of origin and destination.

However, being a migrant can be inherently vulnerable and problematic, especially when migrants lack familiar support mechanisms and face racism, xenophobia, and discrimination. Many significant migration waves have occurred throughout history, including the Age of Discovery, the expansion of Hitler's Germany, and the movement of populations after World War I. Commercial and strategic factors have often influenced migration, leading to colonising strategic regions and territories and introducing the slave trade. Despite its challenges, migration has been indispensable to human cultures and histories, shaping our world today.

1.7. Economic Aspects of Migration

1.7.1. From the Perspective of Source Country:

a. Economic Costs Include:

- i. The decline in the workforce for young adults.
- ii. Losing people with entrepreneurial abilities could impede economic growth.
- iii. Areas where out-migration occurs, may experience a cascading decline that is challenging to stop.
- iv. The loss of labour may discourage foreign direct investment by private companies, raising reliance on government programmes.

b. Economic benefits include:

- i. Less underemployment in the nation of origin.
- ii. Returned immigrants offer new skills to the nation, which could boost the domestic economy.

- iii. Many expatriates send money back home through remittances, which are used to fund new infrastructure and services in the same economy.
- iv. The area's resources, such as fundamental necessities like food and essential services like healthcare, are less stressed.

1.7.2. From the Perspective of Destination Country:

a. Economic costs include:

- i. The expense of the migrants' children's education must be covered.
- ii. Some sectors, like construction in the UK, are overly reliant on migrant labour.
- iii. Many earnings, such as pension payments, are returned to the nation of origin.
- iv. A growing population puts more strain on resources like health care and schooling.

b. Economic benefits include:

- i. Economic migrants frequently accept less ideal positions.
- ii. The host nation saves money by gaining qualified labour.
- iii. Qualified immigrants close the "skills gap" many host nations experience.
- iv. Retirement expenses are returned to the nation of origin.

1.8. Social and Psychological Aspects of Migration

1.8.1. From the view of Source Country:

a. Social costs include:

- i. As more members of the same generation move due to perceived benefits, the social structure suffers.
- ii. A disproportionately large percentage of women are left behind.
- iii. The population pyramid becomes unbalanced due to the non-return of migration.
- iv. If support systems do not accommodate returning retiree migrants, society may bear a social cost.

b. Social benefits include:

- i. As the younger adults migrate, the population density drops, and the birth rate falls.
- ii. Money sent home by economic migrants can be used to enhance access to healthcare and education.
- iii. Retired migrants who return raise social expectations in the neighbourhood, such as the need for improved recreational facilities.

c. Political effects include:

- i. Policies that support natural growth.
- ii. Immigration policies that are intended to develop resources or stem outflows.
- iii. International assistance requests.

1.8.2. From the view of the Destination Country:

a. Social costs include:

- i. Male dominance is strengthened, particularly in nations where women's standing is low, such as the Persian Gulf states.
- ii. Cultural identity elements are gone, especially for second-generation immigrants.
- iii. Similar ethnic groups are separated into segregated areas, and immigrant students dominate institutions.

b. Social benefits include:

- i. The development of a multi-ethnic community improves knowledge of other cultures.
- ii. There is an influx of fresh and revitalised local service providers, such as spas, gyms, Turkish baths, and neighbourhood stores.
- iii. There is an increase in ethnic retailing and neighbourhoods with ethnic food establishments; for instance, Asian Indian migrants brought the "Curry" cuisine to Britain.

c. Political effects include:

- i. Discrimination against minorities and ethnic groups could spark discontent and extremism.
- ii. Demand visa restrictions.
- iii. The solidification of behaviours that could support extremism.

1.9. Consequences of Migration

There are conflicting opinions regarding the impact of migration. One perspective argues that migration adversely affects the welfare of source areas due to problems such as rural-to-urban migration, urban unemployment, environmental issues, population growth, and inadequate urban amenities. Although available urban opportunities and rising wages attract migrants, their migration worsens the problems in both rural and urban areas. On the other hand, another viewpoint suggests that migration positively affects rural areas' welfare, such as promoting urbanisation, cultural change, and development.

The push-pull factors of migration, which refer to the objective social conditions at the source and destination areas, determine the direction and intensity of migration flows. Migration is both a separating and adding process, meaning that it removes individuals from their origin and adds them to their destination, resulting in significant social consequences. The initial effect of migration is separating individuals from their original areas.

1.10. Problems of Migration

1.10.1. Problems of Refugees and Displaced Persons:

Refugees and displacement of people have historically been linked to conflicts within and between societies. However, in the twentieth century, governments began regulating migration and defining categories of immigrants, including refugees. It has led to a perception of migration as a security issue related to the state and its citizens. Despite this, there has been an evolution in security analysis that highlights the importance of refugees and displacement in international relations and security.

Changes in states, socio-economic organisation, and demographics have resulted in specific patterns of forced migration. For example, some scholars say that changes in the economy and less state involvement have made poverty and inequality worse, which has caused people to move. Modernising economic production has also weakened traditional social support mechanisms in developing countries. In addition, environmental degradation, resource shortages, high population density, and urbanisation have made many areas unsustainable for human habitation, causing people to move.

The broader context for migration is often attributed to globalisation, technological progress, and interdependence. Transportation has become cheaper and more accessible, and people are more aware of opportunities in other places. Physical boundaries to movement have also decreased in some parts of the world.

1.10.2. Problems of Irregular Migration:

1. The exact number of migrants in irregular situations is difficult to estimate but is considered significant. Because of this, nations involved in international migration, whether as origin, transit, or destination countries, consider irregular migration a considerable concern.
2. In 2011, over 75% of the 146 governments for which data were available viewed irregular migration as a primary concern. The governments of 22 of the 25 nations with the most significant migrant populations also considered irregular migration a severe problem. To tackle this issue, more governments have been implementing immigration law reforms, promoting the return of irregular migrants, and launching programs to regularise their status.
3. People who are smuggled or trafficked are at a high risk of having their human rights violated. The exact number of victims of human trafficking is unknown. Still, according to the International Labour Organization, there were 20.9 million victims of forced labour globally in 2012, including those who were trafficked.
4. Refugees and asylum seekers are a crucial part of migration patterns. As of 2015, it was estimated that around 50 million people were refugees, with 20.2 million

fleeing wars and persecution, the highest number since 1992. In addition, one out of every 122 people has been displaced from their homes.

1.10.3. Problems of International Migration:

1. The number of persons who moved abroad climbed from 154 million in 1990 to 232 million in 2013, with the population of migrants from other countries expanding at roughly 1.6% yearly. Migration rose by 53 million more people in the global North than in the global South.
2. Over the last twenty years, there has been a greater diversity of countries of origin among international migrants. In 2013, the number of migrants moving from one southern country to another was equivalent to those moving from a southern country to a northern country. The number of migrants from the global South living in the global North quadrupled from 40 million to 82 million between 1990 and 2013, while the number of migrants from the South to the South climbed from 59 million to 82 million.
3. In 2013, only 6% of all migrants in the North (14 million) lived in the South, compared to 23% of all worldwide migrants (54 million) born and resided there.
4. The proportions of immigrants and emigrants vary significantly around the globe. As an illustration, whereas 31% of the world's migrants lived in Europe in 2013, only 2% of all emigrants (of whom 65% still called Europe home) were European. On the other hand, Asia and North America were home to 31% and 23% of the world's migrant population, and 40% and 2%, respectively, of all emigrants originated from these areas.

1.11. Statement of the Problem

According to the Ministry of External Affairs in India, around 6 million Indian workers are employed in the Gulf countries. These workers mostly come from the southern states of Kerala and Telangana, with many coming from the districts of Nizamabad and Karimnagar in Telangana. Many of these workers are from lower socio-economic backgrounds and belong to backward communities in Telangana, and they migrate to the Gulf countries in search of better job opportunities. However, due to their lack of financial resources, they often have to borrow

money from money lenders at high-interest rates to pay for their job, passport, and visa agents. These agents exploit their vulnerability and send them to the Gulf countries on fake or visit visas, leading to extreme hardships. Upon returning home, they struggle to find employment and pay off their debts, which can lead to psychological distress. So, the government needs to take a more active role in promoting safe and helpful migration to the Gulf countries while also looking out for the best interests of its people.

In Telangana state, Gulf returnees are more in Nizamabad and Karimnagar Districts. The researcher chose the Nizamabad district as the study area for this study. Because of the recent past, many cases of Gulf returnees have been noted in this district. The lack of industrial development and agricultural decline in the Nizamabad district has resulted in significant unemployment, forcing people to migrate to Gulf countries for livelihood. Nonetheless, the situation is not ideal in the Gulf region, and migrants face challenges. The problems Gulf migrants have will significantly affect the election results, especially in Nizamabad, where most Gulf migrants live. There has been a proposal to establish a 5,000-crore corpus fund to address the issues of Gulf migrants which has been circulating for some time now. Creating more job opportunities as soon as possible is essential to stop more people from leaving the area.

Therefore the study would like to find the current situations of migrated people and the new strategies adopted for the livelihood and sustainability of the migrated people living in the selected area. Furthermore, we also wanted to know how this migration impacted people's livelihood and sustainability in the selected areas. Thus, the study looks into the impact of migration, new livelihood strategies, economic growth and social and cultural transformation.

1.12. Hypothesis of the Study

After conducting a preliminary survey in the study area, the researcher developed the following hypotheses for testing and verification using quantitative analysis tools:

1. First, a chain characterises the migration pattern in the area.
2. Second, migration has helped migrant households get ahead financially and raise their standard of living.
3. Third, a notable portion of household remittances is used for investments that do not contribute to productivity.

1.13. Objectives of the Study

The following objectives have been used to understand Gulf migration and its impact on socio-economic conditions in Telangana State.

1. To study the Socio-Economic conditions of the Gulf Returnees in Telangana.
2. To examine the living and working conditions of the Gulf Returnees in Telangana.
3. Examine the consequences of Gulf-Returnees in Telangana after the emigration.

1.14. Methodology of the Study

Research methodology played an essential role in fundamental social science research. The research topic depended on both primary and secondary sources: for secondary sources, the researcher referred to several books, research papers and articles published in national and international journals, magazines, newspapers, and online sources such as reports, documents, and data. Published by the Central and State Government Agencies and Non- Governmental agencies (NGOs), also other sources like speeches and interviews from academic authors. Moreover, the study would be qualitative.

Therefore, the researcher will measure the cause and consequences of Gulf returnees' migration through interviews and case studies. The primary data is collected from the Gulf returnees from Nizamabad District, Telangana.

This research study will use a structured questionnaire for interviewing and getting the respondents' information. The structured questionnaire will consist of closed-ended and open-ended questions. Most questions are closed-ended, and very few are from open-ended sources. They were designed and planned in this manner so that respondents would feel comfortable and could provide accurate and valuable information.

Table 1.1: The Sample Breakup of the Respondents from the Different Districts of Telangana

S. No	Name of the State	Name of the Districts	Sample Size
1	Telangana	Hyderabad	18
2		Nizamabad	20
3		Karimnagar	20
4		Adilabad	18
5		Nirmal	18
6		Rajanna Sircilla	20
7		Kamareddy	18
8		Jagtial	18
	Total Sample Size		150

Source: Fieldwork conducted during 2019 - 2022

1.14.1. Sampling Technique of the Study

The study uses both qualitative and quantitative methods, and it is based on Primary and Secondary sources.

- Sampling Technique: Snowball Sampling, Case Study, Face to face Interview.
- Sample Size: 150
- Data Collection: Structured and Unstructured-Questionnaire
- Analysis of the Study: Based on the primary data

1.15. Chapterization of the Study

The chapters have been designed based on the importance and the challenges associated with Migration in the contemporary academic discourse.

Chapter 1, "Introduction", starts with the concept of migration, including definitions and the importance of other nations in migration. It then examines India's role in migration and the different meanings of migration, including in-migration, out-migration, gross, net, internal, and external migration, migration stream, migration interval, place of origin and destination, and migrant. The chapter further discusses the effects of migration on rural and urban areas, including economic, demographic, and social effects, and the different patterns of migration, such as inter-state and international migration. Factors leading to international migration are also explored, including economic, climatic, social, cultural, religious, political, demographic, agriculture-based economy, and increased skills and capabilities. The chapter also examines the general view on migration in the Indian context, types of migration, and characteristics of migration, including population mobility, migration for work, and short-duration labour migration. The reasons for migration, including push and pull factors, economic, socio-cultural, and political factors, are also explored, as well as the sociological, economic, social, and psychological aspects of migration.

Chapter discusses the consequences and problems of migration, including the problems of refugees and displaced persons, irregular migration, and international migration. The statement of the study's problem, hypothesis, objectives, and methodology is also presented. Finally, the chapter concludes with a summary of its contents.

Chapter 2, "Review of Literature", comprehensively reviewed the literature on migration. The chapter introduced the importance of literature review in academic research, particularly in identifying gaps and building upon existing knowledge. The chapter then reviewed the literature on migration, including historical perspectives, the different theories and models, and the factors that influence migration. Theories and models of migration discussed in the chapter include the push-pull theory, neoclassical economic theory, new economics of labour migration theory, world system theory, and social network theory. The chapter further examines the impact of migration on the economy, society, and politics of the countries of origin and destination.

The literature review on the economic impact of migration includes the impact on wages, and employment, the review on the social impact of migration, impact on culture, identity, and social cohesion. The political impact of migration, including the impact on government policies, is also explored. It provides a comprehensive overview of the existing knowledge on migration and serves as a foundation for the research.

Chapter 3, "A Theoretical Concept of Migration", covered various aspects of the theoretical concept of migration. The chapter starts with an overview of migration policies and their role in managing migration flows. The chapter also discussed the differences and similarities between internal and international migration, emphasising the importance of an integrated approach to understanding migration patterns. The chapter examined the factors that distinguish internal migration from international migration, such as country borders, cultural and social distance, and geographic distance.

The distinction between temporary and permanent migration is also explored, with the chapter highlighting the different implications of each type of migration. The chapter also discussed the consideration of gender and generations in migration and how these factors can influence migration patterns. The impact of return migration is another important aspect covered in the chapter, including its potential to contribute to the development of the country of origin. The chapter further explores the history of Indian labour migration to Gulf countries and Telugu States labour migration during the colonial and post-colonial periods. Finally, the chapter concludes with a summary of the key concepts and insights covered in the chapter, providing a solid theoretical foundation for the research.

Chapter 4, "Socio-Economic, Working and Living Conditions of Gulf-Returnees in Telangana", focuses on the socio-economic, working, and living conditions of Gulf returnees in Telangana. The chapter starts with an analysis of the Antilogy of Gulf dreams and the definition of return migration. It also provides an overview of the migration of Indians to Gulf countries, including the issue of deceptive agents and trafficking.

The chapter further explores proactive approaches and the Emigration Bill 2021, which aims to safeguard the rights and welfare of emigrant workers. The central part of the chapter is dedicated to the aspects of returnee migrant workers from the Gulf, the causes and

consequences of Gulf migration in Telangana, and issues related to return and re-migration. The needs and problems of Gulf returnees are discussed, and potential solutions for successful Gulf migration are suggested. Additionally, some case studies of Gulf Returnees in Telangana are presented. Finally, the chapter sheds light on the challenges Gulf returnees face in Telangana, such as job insecurity, limited social protection, and lack of recognition of their skills and experience. It highlights the importance of addressing these issues to ensure successful and sustainable return and re-integration of Gulf migrants in their home communities.

Chapter 5, "Socio-Economic Impact on Telangana Migrants: An Analysis of The Gulf Returnees in Telangana State" focuses on analysing the socio-economic impact of Gulf migration on Telangana migrants. The chapter is divided into three sections. The first section provides an overview of the study area's profile. The second section analyses the respondents' socio-economic background, including their age, education, occupation, income, and family background. The third section examines the causative factors of Gulf-returned emigrants from Telangana, including economic, social, and cultural factors. The section also analyses the reasons for the return of these emigrants from the Gulf countries. The chapter comprehensively analyses the socio-economic impact of Gulf migration on Telangana migrants and the causative factors that influence their decision to migrate and return.

Chapter 6, "Conclusion", summarises the study's significant findings and presents suggestions and recommendations based on these findings. The chapter highlights the need for proactive measures to address the problems faced by Gulf returnees, such as the lack of job opportunities, financial problems, and social and psychological issues.

The government should introduce policies and programs to assist returnees in finding employment, improving their skills and capabilities, and providing them with social and psychological support. The chapter concludes by reiterating the importance of addressing the challenges of migration and return migration in a comprehensive and integrated manner, considering the economic, social, and cultural factors that influence migration decisions.

1.16. Summing up

In sum, the introduction chapter mainly discussed the overview of the migration people in India, the profile of Migration and Socio-Economic Development: A Study of Gulf Returnees in Telangana. A focused discussion of the migration and socio-economic conditions and its process of marginal groups in the country also noted causative factors, types and factors of migration inter-international-wise. A review of literature, which is going to be discussed in the second chapter because of migration, is straightforward to understand the problem of migrated peoples issues and problems an elaborated statement of the problem and objectives which are analysed and understood by the study and the approach of structural methodology consisting of various sampling methods also discussed.

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Chapter – 2

Review of Literature

A literature review comprehensively summarised the previously published research on the topic selected. The review referred at academic articles, books, and other sources that are relevant to the chosen topic. Its goal is to provide a theoretical framework for ongoing research and aid the researcher in comprehending the nature of the particular investigation. It outlines, describes, summarises, objectively evaluates, and clarifies prior research. The literature review also reassures the reader that the researcher has carefully reviewed the available literature and incorporated it into their study by acknowledging the contributions of earlier researchers.

The literature review gives the reader a complete picture of how the field has changed and shows that the researcher has considered all the essential works that came before them. A literature review conveys the information and ideas developed on a subject and its advantages and disadvantages. A concept, such as a study objective, the topic or issue under discussion, or the researcher's argumentative thesis, should be the review's compass. It should include more than just a summary of the available items or a resume list.

The current topic, “*Migration and Socio-Economic Development: A Study of Gulf Returnees in Telangana*”, discussed the related literature reviews to provide a basic understanding of the research topic's structure and framework.

Carol Upadya and Mario Rutten’s. (2012) the article “*Migration, Transnational Flows, and Development in India: A Regional Perspective*” The statement highlights the crucial connection between migration and development in both academic research and governmental policy-making. International migrants' remittances, investments, and donations are significant in providing development resources to their home countries. The study examines the relationship between migration and development. It stresses the importance of examining the region-specific flow of resources from migrants into India to understand their economic and social impact better. These kinds of resources can affect the local economy, society, politics, and culture. Reverse flows are hard to understand and have different effects that depend on historical and social factors, types and patterns of mobility, and institutional structures. The author recommends a more sophisticated strategy considering various regions' historical and

sociological uniqueness and their transnational social fields to gain a deeper understanding. A possible way to understand the relationship between migration and development in India involves creating a map of the social fields and networks at both regional and transnational levels. This map would also identify the organisational structures that facilitate and direct the reverse flow of resources, allowing for a more comprehensive understanding of the connection between migration and development.

Das, Rajesh & Basu, and Shehamanju's (2017) article titled "Migration of Labor From India to Gulf Countries: How Far it Supports Sustainability?" highlights India's significant contribution to the international labour force from highly skilled technicians to illiterate workers. According to the Government of India's Ministry of Overseas Affairs, Tamil Nadu has the most significant proportion of foreign migrants, followed by Kerala, Andhra Pradesh, and other states in South India. As a result, South India has the most significant number of international migrants as a workforce, while states like Goa, Haryana, and Madhya Pradesh have the least. The study admits that labour migration to other nations improves those nations' economic conditions, resulting in sound bank deposits, the building of homes, better educational opportunities for their children, and better healthcare for their families.

Desai Benerji. (2008). the article "Negotiated Identities: Male Migration and Left-Behind Wives in India" investigates the impact of a spouse's migration on the well-being of women who remain in their hometown. Precisely, the study analyses two facets of these women's lives based on data from the India Human Development Survey 2005: their autonomy and control over their lives and their participation in the workforce. The findings reveal that the household structure plays a crucial role in how a husband's absence due to migration affects the wives' lives. Women who do not have the support of an extended family are burdened with more duties and less freedom than those who do. The research also emphasises widowed and divorced women, who stand out even in extended families due to their independence. Widows and divorcees have more freedom to make choices that affect them or their children than married women because they must work to support themselves and their children. It might mean that Indian widows have more chances to be independent, but other studies show that Indian widows are vulnerable in many ways. It makes the situation for widows and divorcees in Indian families unclear.

Docquier, Frédéric & Rapoport, and Hillel (2004), in their research paper “*Skilled Migration: The Perspective of Developing Countries*”, concentrated on how skilled migration affects developing nations. Using a unified stylised model, they first give new information on the scope of the international movement of skilled workers. Then, they explore this phenomenon's direct and indirect effects on human capital development in developing countries. Finally, they focus on immigration and education policy in the context of globalised labour markets as they ultimately turn to policy consequences.

Guilmoto and Sandron. (2001), in their article “*The International Dynamics of Migration Networks in Developing Countries*”, typically explains the labour market where supply and demand for a work meeting, the author of the piece discussed how there is hardly ever a “migration market” except in a minimal sense. People who migrate, especially those from developing countries, often need a precise understanding of their destination's living conditions or job prospects. A desire to reduce risks and a set of customs, expectations, and belief systems unique to each society serves as the “institutional” context for the migration process, frequently informing decisions to move. This environment aids in creating the networks and pathways that frequently allow for individual movement—in their 2015 study on the labour movement in “Gulf Cooperation Council (GCC)” countries, Hamza and Sara looked at the origins and maintenance of migrant workers' subjugation. The study examines the kafala (sponsorship) system, which has been essential in the economic development of GCC states, and how it operates in a specific city to highlight the lived realities often overlooked in modernisation narratives.

Jayatik, Parida, Sanjay K, Mohanty and Ravi Raman. K. (2015) article “*Remittances, Household Expenditure and Investment in Rural India; Evidence from NSS data*” sought to Focus on the effects of human capital investment in education and health. It is essential to comprehend and compare the spending habits of three types of Indian households: those that do not receive remittances, those that do receive internal remittances, and those that do receive foreign remittances. They also sought to investigate migration trends and the factors that drive them. Based on a survey of people all over the country, the study found that migration changes spending habits in a way that fits with Engels' Law and helps a lot in the fight against poverty. It also showed how effective and far-reaching the financial support given to human capital development is. The authors conclude that migration significantly impacts poverty reduction and the marginal spending behaviour of households, with remittance income mainly benefiting

the lower quintiles. The study also demonstrates that households receiving remittances spend less overall but invest more in home and durable human capital goods. The research hypothesises that state intervention in human capital formation, focusing on enhancing health infrastructure and raising public spending on education, could accelerate overall economic growth in rural India. The authors suggest a method called "differential inclusion" to help the human development of households that do not send money back home.

Irudaya Rajan's (2007) article "*Female Emigration from India: Case Study of Nurses*" examines the phenomenon of female emigration from Kerala, which has been overgrowing in recent years. The study is based on statistics from two surveys in Kerala, one in 1999 and one in 2004. It also looks at anthropological research about nurses leaving the area. The surveys provided estimates of emigration levels at the state, district, and Taluka levels. According to the research, Kerala's conditions promote a growing trend in female emigration. Since the Gulf region's construction phase is almost over, the need for unskilled construction workers is likely to decrease, while job opportunities in other fields that are a good fit for Kerala women are increasing. In addition, the recent expansion of access to higher education by the private sector and autonomous educational institutions is also likely to increase the outflow of Kerala's female population. There was a 144% increase in women leaving Kerala between 1999 and 2004, and this trend could continue.

Ishtiyahq Ahmad and Bilal Ahmad Khan's (2011) article, "*Indian Migrants in the Gulf States: Issues and Problems*", discusses the issues and problems faced by migrants, highlighting that the Gulf States have played an essential role in trade and travel between the Indian and Arab worlds since the third millennium B.C. Since oil was found in the area, the economy has grown, giving Indian migrants more opportunities. Migration is now a social and economic fact all over the world. This article gives an overview of the Gulf region and the situation of Indian migrants in six oil-producing countries. It also gives some general information about Indian migrants in the Gulf States. The paper also addresses the importance of the Gulf States for India and the issues and problems that Indian migrants face there. Remittances from the Gulf States generate a significant proportion of the region's revenue. Furthermore, the growing presence of Indian managers and professionals in the region positively impacts the region's economic status. Indian immigrants might be able to improve trade, investment, and energy cooperation between the Gulf States and India. They can also serve as a resource bank for India's development efforts.

Lakshmaiah Naidu's (1992) article on "*Indian Labour Migration to Gulf Countries*" speaks about the migration of Indian labourers to Gulf nations grew steadily until 1986. The entire article underwent a quantitative study, and sample size and tables were included. It also covered skilled, unskilled, and white-collar workers in all industries, including construction, agriculture, domestic services, paramedicine, technology, and supervisory positions. The author has recommended how India can compete with many other Asian nations. The standard of India's human resources and the development of efficient human resources export promotion policies, including the abolition of fraudulent practices, will determine its future success in establishing itself as a labour exporter.

Levitt Peggy and Rajaram. N. (2013), in their research article "*The Migration Development Nexus and Organisational Time*", explained how temporal considerations affect migration and development. However, while some migration research looks at the effects of time on specific migration patterns, little attention has been paid to the effects of time on migration and growth. The concept of "organisational time" is introduced to emphasise the effect of time on the relationship between migration and organisational change. This idea challenges the notions of migration and return and demonstrates how the stage of a person's career when they migrate affects their ability to return and shape organisational change. It also shows how, through time, the responsibilities of social transfer senders and recipients have evolved. Finally, studies on how social remittances and return migration affect institutional capacity building and policies in the health sectors in Gujarat, India, support the arguments—the researcher's time at top universities and hospitals around the world led to him hearing similar messages, which he then brought back to reinforce what was already happening. For example, the RHCA, an organisation founded in India during Gandhi's time, is now pressured to conform to new values due to changes within the organisation and the nation.

Madhu, G.R. & Uma, H.R. (2016), in their study on "*Gulf Migration and Its Impact on Indian Economy*", explores the intricate nature of migration, which is affected by various economic, social, political, geographical, and environmental factors. One of the significant migration patterns in the world is emigration from India to "Gulf Cooperation Council (GCC)" countries. This paper investigates this migration flow and its effects on different factors. According to the study, several factors, such as Gross Domestic Product (GDP), currency rates, population, linguistic differences, and geographic separation between the origin and destination

countries, all impact the number of people who migrate from India to GCC countries. The paper provides empirical evidence to support these findings.

Myron Weiner. (1982). His article “*International Migration and Development: Indians in the Persian Gulf*” discusses the impact of migration, the definition of migration, its demands, its interactions with other countries, international migration policies, and its future policies are just a few of the topics the author has covered in the article. Quantitative research has been used exclusively in this paper.

In Nigel Harries’s (2005) article on “*Migration and Development*”, the author discusses how governments’ attitudes towards internal and international migration have changed significantly in recent years. First, internal migration was seen as a sign of a broken social and economic system. However, to increase the income of low-income people, it is now thought to be a mechanism for transferring resources from more affluent to more impoverished places. Similarly, international migration is now seen as a means to alleviate poverty, with many countries’ remittance flows becoming a significant source of foreign exchange earnings. Governments have come to embrace emigration for work, but there is concern about losing highly skilled workers from developing countries. The author suggests that temporary circulatory migration for training may be the best solution, as it would enhance the human capital of developing countries and reduce poverty worldwide. However, developed countries have many options to address labour shortages without relying on immigration, such as labour market reform or offshoring. Ultimately, the choice is about the world we want to live in.

Philippe Fargues (2011), in his article on “*International Migration and Demographic Transition: A Two-way Interaction*”, examines the connection between demographic change and global migration, focusing on the relationship between population dynamics and interpersonal contact. The first section discusses how immigrants can influence non-migrants in their community and lower birth rates in the nation they migrated. It concludes that one method of demographic transition may expand through international migration. The second section describes how a new profile of migrants is created due to declining birth rates in the countries of origin. Better opportunities for themselves typically motivate future immigrants rather than spouses or children back home. Therefore, rethinking migration laws regarding remittances and family reunion is necessary. According to the report, immigrant motivations and profiles will drastically alter. Since they will not abandon their families, family reunions

will happen less frequently. Remitting savings to support those still in the home nation will also lose importance as money made through migration is put to more varied uses. Instead, the main goal of migration will be to improve one's experience, abilities, and information.

Piper Nicola (2008), in her research article on “*The Feminisation of Migration and the Social Dimensions of Development: The Asian Case*”, focuses on the gendered aspects of migration within Asia and their impact on the continent's development and advancement. The initial part of the essay investigates the ongoing discourse on the link between migration and progress, scrutinises its relevance to feminised migration in Asia, and highlights the social implications of such migration. The essay also evaluates the effect of migration on familial and personal relationships and individual growth, followed by outlining the factors and circumstances of feminine migration in Asia. The essay concludes that additional research, such as case studies or ethnographic research, is necessary to comprehend better the correlation between women's social and economic rights and migration. Additionally, it is crucial to have a more in-depth understanding of the relationships between various policy sectors, such as migration and public/social policy, to design policies aimed at both male and female migrants and their families. Migration poses new challenges for academics and policymakers in citizenship, development, and women's rights.

Piyasiri Wichramasekara's (2008) article on “*Globalisation, International Labour Migration and the Rights of Migrant Workers*”, the writer aims to highlight the inconsistencies between policies and actions in the ongoing discourse on international migration and its connection to development. They argue that the "closed door policy" of major countries that receive migrants with low skills from developing countries is a crucial factor limiting migration's developmental impact. The author underscores this policy's adverse outcomes, which include denying job opportunities, diverting migration flows to irregular channels, violating the rights of migrant workers, and contributing to a faster brain drain from developing nations. Even with an increased focus on temporary migration policies and initiatives for low-skilled workers, progress could have been achieved more rapidly.

To the global community, there is an urgent need for creative ideas and daring efforts to encourage worldwide labour mobility. The author concludes that the international community still has much to do to make migration beneficial for development and provide migrant workers with fair treatment. Although these issues are discussed at international and regional meetings,

more concrete action is required. The international community should build bridges rather than walls to promote global mobility for all workers, protect their rights, and create a global labour market.

Prakash. B. A. (1998), in his article on "*Gulf Migration and its Economic Impact: The Kerala Experience*", discusses the impact of remittances from Gulf migrant workers on the economy of Kerala, India. Since the middle of the 1970s, the inflow of these remittances has significantly altered Kerala's economy, resulting in migrant households' increased income levels, consumption, and asset acquisition and a reduction in general poverty.

The author also highlights the adverse effects of these remittances, including increased prices for land, construction materials, consumer goods, and services such as health care and education, which have adversely affected households in the lower, middle, and fixed-income classes. The article is organised around several ideas, such as migration and remittance trends, how they affect the labour market, the influence on poverty, income distribution, and regional development. The author concludes that more than half of all Indian workers to the Gulf region are from Kerala, as well as more than half of all remittances sent there.

The remittances received an account for 22% of Kerala's net domestic product. The significant migration and remittance movements have substantially changed Kerala's labour market, consumption, savings, investment, poverty, income distribution, and regional development. The inflow has led to increased income, reduced unemployment, and encouraged the migration of construction workers into Kerala. It has also enhanced my skills. However, it has also caused a shortage of workers in the construction industry.

Oliver Bakewell (2009), in his article "*Migration, Diasporas and Development: Some Critical Perspectives*", emphasises three concerns regarding the recent surge of academic and policy-related attention towards migration, development, and diasporas. First, the relationship between migration and development has historically received little attention and is frequently seen as a sign of underdevelopment or a source of other underdevelopment. What transpired during the previous ten years to shift such a drastic opinion? Secondly, governments and development agencies are now emphasising the role of Diasporas in that process, even though it is not entirely obvious who belongs to these groups or why they are expected that he will contribute to development, raising the third concern: what kind of development can be

anticipated where migration and Diasporas play a significant role as drivers? According to the article, new models must account for the increasingly mobile world because the existing development models are static and have trouble incorporating migration. This objective might be attained through frank and transparent communication between diaspora members and the development sector.

Osella Filippo and Osella Caroline. (2000), in their article on “*Migration, Money and Masculinity in Kerala*”, explores how migration, especially to the Persian Gulf states, has impacted Kerala, a region in South India, and how it has impacted men's life cycles and masculinity. Through ethnographic research, the author defines four significant local masculinity types: the Gulf immigrant, the self-centred Kallan, the innocent Pavam, and the prosperous, mature householder. The author also examines the connection between masculinity and wealth, with migration bearing on masculinity in particular because of its strengthened connection to wealth as a sign of male potency. According to the article, migration can be a part of more significant efforts to build a sense of identity and can add to local subjectivities. The author contends that it is essential to comprehend how people interpret their migration practises and how they incorporate them into larger identity projects where gender, class, and status hierarchies overlap, conflict, and ultimately reinforce one another than it is to debate whether migration causes a break or discontinuity in one's experience of oneself and others.

Rashmi Sharma. (2011) In his article “*Gender and International Migration: The Profile of Female Migrants from India*”, the author provides an overview of female migration to other countries, supported by accurate year-wise data. Globalisation has intensified worldwide migration, significantly increasing the number of people residing outside their origin. Policymakers, researchers, and international organisations have noticed this since it has implications for everyone involved. The article explores various aspects of female migration, including trends in migration, gender and labour market integration, outcomes for female migration, low-skilled and skilled jobs, female trafficking, and issues specific to female migration from India. The author stresses the necessity of gender-sensitive migration policies and programmes that concentrate on the problems and effects of female migration and give women the tools they need to assert their human rights and reach their full potential. Additionally, migrants—especially migrant women—must have a role in decision-making to address the complex fundamental reasons for migration and maximise the benefits for individuals involved.

Saikia, Dilip (2016), in his paper “*The Socio-economic Status of Migrant Workers in Thiruvananthapuram District of Kerala, India*”, evaluate the social and economic circumstances of migrant workers in the Thiruvananthapuram district of Kerala. The study investigates the demographics, socioeconomics, and work experiences of 166 migrant labourers. Previous research has shown that many individuals migrating to Kerala come from neighbouring states such as Tamil Nadu and Karnataka. However, recent studies indicate that long-distance migration from areas like West Bengal and Assam is increasing. The primary drivers of migration are the higher wages and better employment opportunities available in Kerala compared to the migrants' home states. Even though the nature of migrants' jobs does not substantially change after they move, they do move from low- to high-income brackets.

Sanjay Barbora, Ganesh Gurung, Susan Thieme Vineetha Menon and Karin Astrid Siegmann (2008), in their article “*Migration Matters in South Asia: Commonalities and Critiques*”, the authors have presented a detailed analysis of migration patterns within and outside South Asia, a tradition shaped by historical events. They have identified certain similarities, including the significant role of migration in the macroeconomic realm and the most popular destinations for mobile populations in South Asia. The article challenges commonly held notions about migration, emphasising the economic advantages of moving people and the nation-state as a central reference point. It also raises doubts about existing perceptions of the meaning of leaving one's home, which often involves crossing international borders.

Satyanarayana Adapa (2008), in his article “*Telugu Diaspora in South East/ West Asia, 1871-1990*”, the author investigates the movement of people across the Bay of Bengal/ Indian Ocean area. It focuses on the specific labour migration patterns, strategies, and outcomes of south Indian workers known as "Coranghees/ Klings/ Madrasis". The purpose is to analyse the speed, pattern, and consequences of labour migration for employment and livelihoods in Southeast Asian countries, particularly Burma (Myanmar) and Malaysia, from the 19th to the 20th centuries. The study intends to explain the caste system and socio-economic shift caused by the overseas migration of lower castes and communities. In addition, the article examines the changing characteristics of emigrants and assesses the socio-economic consequences of migration at the regional level. While there are instances of upward socio-economic mobility among immigrant workers, the evidence of "rags-to-riches" stories needs to be interpreted within its context.

Shah. M. (2004), in his article "*Gender and Labour Migration to the Gulf Countries*", The research examines the situation of women migrant workers in the Gulf labour market. Over the last three decades, there has been an increase in the number of Asian women employed in this sector. In some receiving countries, women make more remarkable economic contributions than men. The majority of female migrants in the Gulf region work as domestic workers. The report briefly touches upon the number and origin of female migrants and the migration control policies of sending countries. It should be noted that women constitute 11% of all labour migrants in the Gulf region, and most of them, especially those from Asia, work as domestic workers in low-paying jobs. However, these workers significantly increase household and national incomes. Therefore, both sending and receiving countries need to strengthen their preventative measures.

Theollet Helene. (2011), in his article "*Migration as Diplomacy: Labour Migrants, Refugees, and Arab Regional Politics in the Oil Rich Countries*", explains the political impact of labour migration in the Middle East in countries. Given the lack of efficient institutions and economic integration processes, it is argued that migration, including refugee flows, has been vital to integrating Arab populations. The author presents the concept of "migration diplomacy" and investigates the official and informal institutions that have moulded significant labour flows during the 1970s to comprehend regional integration politics. The paper contends that viewing regional integration through the prism of migration will help and that the significance of oil-rich states in influencing integration should be reconsidered. The author claims that debates on institutional development in the 1960s and 1970s have neglected the significance of labour migrants in the Middle East. The piece also examines how informal and formal migration practices have shaped regional migration systems, political incentives, and diplomatic relations in sending and receiving nations.

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Chapter - 3

A Theoretical Concept of Migration

Social scientists have long noted that international migration tends to have a self-perpetuating quality. Once a particular migration route begins, it often continues and expands over time. As a result, certain groups of countries become known as core sending areas, while specific regions emerge as core receiving areas. These patterns create well-established migratory systems, with regular contributions from each sending country yearly. The researcher has identified several vital migratory systems that operate today. Each was centered on a distinct primary receiving region, such as the Southern Cone of South America, Western Europe, the Persian Gulf, Asia, and the Pacific.

There is a wide range of reasons why people begin to move. Neoclassical economics says people might relocate permanently to a different nation for a higher lifetime income. On the other hand, they may try to save money or diversify their income by taking a short-term job abroad, as suggested by the new economics of labour mobility. According to world systems theorists, they might emigrate due to structural economic changes forcing them to abandon a traditional way of life. According to proponents of fragmented labour markets, they may function in response to deliberate business or government recruitment initiatives. No matter what motivated someone to leave their home country, they will never be the same person who has experienced life and worked in another culture.

People's goals and personalities change permanently after working in a developed industrial economy. It makes it more likely that temporary migrants will settle down for good or that returned migrants will leave again. The fulfilment of the desires that initially drove emigration results in new desires—access to high earnings results in new standards of material well-being and previously unheard-of aspirations for upward mobility. As immigrants get used to higher salaries, they adopt new lifestyles and shift their purchasing patterns in ways that local jobs cannot sustain, necessitating more travel and longer stays overseas.

These changes in motivation show a change in human capital, which comprises traits that make a person productive and show what they are worth to potential employers. Along with changing motivations, migrants also pick up other types of human capital during the international labour

movement. They learn about the host nation's culture, customs, language, and work practices. The expenses and hazards of making another trip (or staying for another year) reduce as they learn to enter the country officially or illegally, find jobs, and adjust to life abroad. The potential advantages also grow due to this new human capital—this new knowledge.

Therefore, once experienced, international migration tends to be repeated, becoming a familiar resource used frequently as new requirements arise and reasons change. Knowledge gained from working abroad once reduces risks, increases benefits, and decreases costs for subsequent migration, increasing the likelihood of a second trip that generates even more knowledge and experience, raising the possibility of a third trip, which produces even more knowledge, presenting the case for a fourth trip, and so on. When people accumulate more human capital through repeated international travel, it increases the likelihood that they will continue to move and stay abroad for extended periods. Such feedback cycles exist, which explains why foreigners hired through different guest worker schemes frequently wind up exceeding their welcome (Massey and Zenteno 1999).

3.1. The Migration Policy

Migration and immigration policies have been the subject of heated debate about how well they work. Many academics have claimed that state attempts to control and restrict immigration have frequently failed over the past few decades. The claim is that structural factors, such as imbalances in the labour market, wealth disparities, and political conflicts in the countries of origin, primarily drive international movement and that migration policies have little to no impact on these issues. Immigration restrictions would mainly alter the types of migration, such as through a rise in family migration or unauthorised entry, as opposed to the overall volumes of inflows. The argument goes on to say that after migration hits a certain threshold, migration networks, employers, and the "migration industry" (recruiters, attorneys, smugglers, and other intermediaries) all help to enable the continued movement of people. These internal processes help to explain how migration can spiral out of control. Ultimately, nations are limited in their options to manage immigration due to their obligations to uphold human rights, including protecting vulnerable groups such as children and asylum seekers and the right to family reunification. According to Hollifield (1992:577), constitutional principles restrict the authority and independence of states in their interactions with individual migrants and other states, particularly in liberal democracies (Czaika and De Haas 2013).

The term "migration policy" carries a wide range of implied meanings, complicating the discussion of its effectiveness. Migration policies are implemented to affect a target group's behaviour (possible migrants) in a desired direction. Nevertheless, several non-migration-related policies have an impact on migration as well. Sometimes, their effects may be more significant than specific immigration laws. Include the labour market, macroeconomics, welfare, international, military, colonial, and aid missions. In other words, governments' substantial role in migration processes cannot be fully conveyed by focusing only on migration.

Moreover, it raises the question of where to draw the boundary between immigration and non-immigrant policies. There is little doubt that they are non-migration policies in some circumstances, such as foreign or fiscal policies. This distinction, however, becomes less pronounced when talking about the labour market, development, or educational policy because issues of supporting or discouraging immigration may also impact these. The job market and educational rules may nonetheless significantly affect migration inclinations, even if this is not the case. Academics have asserted, for instance, that the trend towards more lenient labour market rules and "neoliberal globalisation" has raised the demand for both high- and low-skilled migrant labour, which would account for rising migration despite governmental efforts to reduce immigration. The distinction between immigration and non-immigration policies is further blurred by citizenship and integration programs, which frequently aim to affect immigration (*Ibid*).

3.2. The Migration and Development

People have debated whether migration is good or bad for growth for fifty years, with the pendulum constantly swinging back and forth. The causes and effects of migration on development and underdevelopment are at the heart of this debate. Although occasionally just as crucial to development concerns like poverty and inequality are internal movements, international migration has assumed a central role in this discussion. This chapter aims to shed some light on some of these issues by exploring key theoretical and empirical contributions from around the world. The strategy will show care for the growth of the regions and nations where immigrants are from. It is also a strategy that puts the connections between domestic and foreign migration and how those factors affect development at the forefront of the discussion.

3.3. Internal and international migration - An integrated approach

More individuals are becoming aware of the benefits of an integrated strategy as migration research becomes more prevalent. They understand it is a complicated process and part of more significant socio-economic developments. Due to this, divisions between the earlier binary study tracks are also beginning to be addressed. For instance, interdisciplinary dialogue has increased in recent years. In addition, research into "mixed migration" is becoming more popular than studies into free and coerced migrations. The literature on internal and international migration has been following a similar trajectory as of late, even though the two streams have developed independently for decades with little overlap (Julie Vullnetari 2012).

The debate on migration and development has historically oscillated between a focus on domestic and foreign migration. The first migration theory developed in 1889 by Ravenstein analysed internal movements, but after the 1920s and 1930s, connections were made between migration and world movements. Internal migration regained attention as concerns grew over urbanisation and rising urban unemployment in less economically developed countries (LEDCs). Migration simulations and theories in the 1960s and 1970s centred on population fluctuations inside nations, but in the late 1980s, global migration became the focus of scholars and policymakers worldwide. Pressure on immigration to countries from non-European migrants and changes to immigration regulations in the Global North was responsible for this reorientation.

Recently, researchers have started to pay attention to "forgotten migrants," who relocate within their nations. Promoting the "reintegration" of both domestic and international migration is necessary because of the high degree of interdependence between countries, manifested in international migrant flows and internal population redistributions. The diversity of migratory experiences is expanding, relationships are becoming more complicated, and migration patterns and settings are changing swiftly. Any policy considering one type of migration would fail to consider the variety of migrant livelihoods and the combined consequences of the two types of migration on individuals, communities, and origin nations regarding development outcomes.

The literature examining internal and external migration can be divided into two branches: theoretical and empirical. Theoretical work has focused on how internal migration theories might be extended to global migration, while empirical work has studied the impacts of immigration on internal mobility in receiving nations. There is a need for integrative frameworks that can link and sequence both types of migration. Pryor's 1981 work proposed a systems approach, and subsequent scholars have focused on migrations political and human rights implications, its selectivity, drivers, patterns, and ramifications.

King and Skeldon's 2010 work proposed three models that can act as integrative frameworks and a schematic model for linking and sequencing migration types, including the migration-development method, the system's model, and the integration model.

A few empirical studies examining the interactions between internal and external migration from the viewpoint of the country of origin have emerged over time. The studies offer constructive insights into the migration and development processes in various nations and regions, including Mexico, North and sub-Saharan Africa, the Philippines, China, Indonesia, and South Asia, even though the overwhelming majority of them are purely empirical. First, they are used in the following discussion to show how internal and foreign migration differs and how they relate. Because an integrated strategy acknowledges that there are overlaps and differences between the two migration types, it does not exclude either (*Ibid*).

3.4. Internal Migration versus International Migration

The fact that there are now two different migration strands suggests that they have distinct differences, the most significant of which are discussed in this section.

3.4.1. Country borders

Crossing or not crossing a country boundary is the most significant distinction between the two migrations. Some argue that this is the only significant distinction and that the theory and physics of migration are identical in every other way. However, this needs to be revised to include migration's political economics. These types of migration are defined as having a state container as their primary emphasis.

According to migration theory, controlling a nation's borders is crucial in determining international migration as a unique social process. So it is because immigration laws and policies significantly impact the financial well-being of migrants and their ability to gain access to the rights associated with entering and residing in a country, such as obtaining a visa, becoming a citizen, and enjoying social benefits like healthcare, education, and voting rights.

Despite the effects of globalisation and transnational communities, the state continues to be the most critical institution in defining and enforcing these rights. Even if someone holds multiple citizenship, they can only access the rights that come with each citizenship through the appropriate governments.

While restrictive rules may not affect most internal movements, some governments' implementation of limitations can lead to outcomes similar to those seen in international migration. For example, during the apartheid era in South Africa, the pass system restricted the internal movement of the country's black population.

Another typical example is China's hukou system. Citizens are classified according to their ancestry as either urbanite (eligible for urban welfare) or rural peasants (suitable for rural farmland) for social assistance and land distribution, respectively. Before the middle of the 1980s, travelling without a hukou was severely constrained; since then, travel is now permitted, though settling is still challenging. As a result, there is a structural division between migrants with the necessary permits and those who are "irregular," also known as the "floating population," in urban regions, particularly in the labour market. People who live in cities need help finding stable jobs that pay well and getting more housing, health care, and educational opportunities. So, the legal and other barriers to migration within a country and the results become similar to those of migration from outside the country. However, these situations sometimes differ because of how politics and history interact, and the scenario may change. In the case I just talked about, for example, political changes led to more movement within South Africa. Based on lineage and tribal relationships within the more critical continental regions, other pre-colonial movements, like those in some of Africa or Asia, could be categorised as "internal." Some of these organisations became post-colonial independent governments in the early 1960s, developed globally, and were subject to immigration regulations.

This effect was also felt by citizens of the states that had previously been part of the Soviet Union but became independent after the Cold War ended. Germany's unification into East and West states around the same time is an example of how external movements can also turn internal. Even across established *de jure* country borders, many irregular international movements can resemble internal migrations. Such circumstances—which most frequently occur in Africa but are also common in many regions of Asia—result from a combination of arbitrary borders that divide ethnic populations between two or more nations and subpar border controls by responsible officials (*Ibid*).

3.4.2. Cultural and Social Distance

Some academics believe that migration to a foreign country results in a more significant cultural and social transformation for migrants than domestic migration, particularly concerning language (Kleiner, Sorensen, Dalgard, Moum, and Drews, 1986). This transformation can lead to challenges in accessing housing, jobs, education, and health facilities, especially in the initial stages of migration. However, it also presents opportunities for learning new skills and abilities. For example, Salt and Kitching (1992) suggest that some workers move to countries like the UK to improve their linguistic skills. Skill acquisition is crucial for development, particularly if human and cultural capital can be transferred back to the migrant's country or community of origin.

Cultural differences may only sometimes define international migration. In some cases, locals in the country of origin may be familiar with life in the destination region due to migratory cultures formed through substantial and continuous chain movement between two nations (Sayad, 1975). However, internal migration can resemble international migration in countries like China and India, which have enormous and diverse populations in terms of race and culture.

3.4.3. Geographic Distance

People often think that moving within a country will bring a migrant closer to home than moving abroad. Again, there is much haziness in this scenario, and it needs to be clear-cut. The contrast between international migration over relatively short distances, like between Belgium and Luxembourg, and movements within large countries like China and Russia argue for

themselves. The societal divide between a rural Siberian peasant and an urban Moscowite is undoubtedly more significant than between Belgians and Luxembourgers. However, geographic distance influences migration's expense (*Ibid*).

3.5. Temporary Migration versus Permanent Migration

When examining the temporal component of migration, some people usually believe that moving abroad is more permanent and irrevocable than moving domestically. The leading causes are the costs of each transfer, the time needed to recuperate them, and the inability to back and forth when migrants lack papers.

However, this does not necessarily have to be the case, as shown by the 'guest workers' from southern Europe who returned from countries like Germany, the Netherlands, and France, as well as the South Korean and other Asian immigrants who came to the United States after their home countries experienced economic growth. The migrants' goals may change along the route; what may have started as a temporary relocation could evolve into permanent migration, or the opposite could occur (*Ibid*).

3.6. The Consideration of Gender and Generations in Migration

Men and women experience and are affected by migration in significantly different ways, making it a highly biased process. A qualitative and quantitative feminisation of migration has been identified due to a greater understanding of women's roles in migration. Currently, half of all immigrants are women, and in some nations, such as the Philippines, women account for significantly higher shares of internal and external migration flows. Qualitatively, "autonomous migrants"—women—participate in both domestic and international migration at a rising rate. This trend has fewer impacts in South Asia than South-East Asia or Latin America. The gendering of migratory streams demonstrates how demand significantly affects regional variances in particular employment markets and traditional cultural practices. Even in areas where migration is predominately male in recent years, female migration has increased, especially for employment in fields deemed to be "female-oriented," like nursing or the apparel industry. On the other hand, internally, females have historically outnumbered males. Ravenstein (1889: 288) confirmed this finding in one of his well-known "laws of migration" over a century ago.

When analysing the benefits of migration for development, it is also essential to consider socially constructed gender roles. For example, it is evident in how remittances are sent and received and in the changes that migration may bring to society. Demonstrates how female migrants from rural to urban Bangladesh went from having no income before migration to having made enough through migration to lift them above the poverty line by 80% of them. Then, by encouraging and supporting their siblings and other family members' education, including that of other women, these migratory women made a tremendous contribution to societal development in their native communities. In other cases, it was found that migrating led young Bangladeshi migrant men to question their father's authority in the family. Evidence from other countries, however, suggests the contrary.

Domestic or international migration may, at worst, make gender gaps worse or, at best, not affect gender relations. Where empowerment and emancipation occur, the results might only be felt during migration. For instance, while their wives migrated, Filipino husbands who stayed behind took care of the children and the domestic duties, but when the wife returned, gender roles were once again as before the migration. The migration of those with advanced levels of education and training also has mixed results. Raghuram (2004: 309) claims that evidence from internal migration is contradictory but that skilled international migration has adverse effects on women's involvement in the labour force. She contends that patriarchy, capitalism, and immigration laws work together to produce a gendered structure in such a global movement.

Raghuram studied highly skilled couples who immigrated to the UK from India and discovered that males remained the central migrants. Most women travelled with their male partners as "tied migrants" or "trailing spouses." The two "left behind" categories most frequently affected by migration are young and old. In addition to the enormous strain of labour and care for one another, the loss of solid emotional ties with their adult children or parents tremendously affects the young and the elderly, depending on age. The power within the family and, consequently, their portion of the resources may be severely constrained, especially for older people who have no pension income and are too ill to work. Murphy (2005) describes these circumstances in China and highlights how the country's societal conditions have deteriorated, with dramatic effects like increased suicide rates. While the global shift in migration studies has demonstrated the significance of transnational practises and forms of care, many

discussions focus on return migration to reduce such adverse effects. Examples of the latter are the customs of transnational Albanian grandparents and Latina moms (*Ibid*).

3.7. The Impact of Return Migration

Before a migrant may continue contributing to local growth, the return was formerly believed to signal the conclusion of the migration cycle. According to this perspective, the ideal situation for immigrants was when they returned to their home countries after spending many years—often ten to fifteen—working abroad and contributing their money and talents to the local economy.

Even though the return is typically seen as beneficial for the development of the origin countries, it is essential to remember that this favourable outcome is likely only to be attained under specific circumstances (Black & Gent 2006); context differences affect how the return process affects development outcomes. The types and numbers of return migrants, the reasons why returns fail, conservatism, retirement, and innovation, the duration of returns (occasional, seasonal, temporary, and permanent), and the socio-economic and infrastructure conditions in the countries of origin are just a few examples of these contexts (King 1978).

Empirical evidence from migration selectivity, however, suggests that the literature indicates that those migrants who are at the two poles of the continuum, i.e. the least and the most successful abroad, are least likely to return: the former because they may not have enough resources to return and do not want their peers and family to know of their "failure"; the latter because they are already well established in the socio-economic life of their home country.

According to Ammassari and Black (2001), the three categories of "returning" capital that significantly impact the development of origin countries are monetary, human, and social capital. Financial transfers done upon homecoming are different from remittances that migrants made to their families and loved ones while they were abroad. The discussions and issues surrounding their application and success in developing the origin nations have echoed those surrounding remittances. (*Ibid*).

The effect of human capital is another topic of intense discussion. While some academics optimistically contend that migrants return "home" with fresh perspectives and the desire to

effect change, others contend that most migrants either fail to pick up any skills overseas or, in the worst-case scenario, even lose the ones they already possessed before leaving. Moreover, the minority of people who acquire skills, especially in rural regions, rarely use them where they were initially acquired. As a result, resettling in an urban location could make regional disparities even worse. This is especially true when the origin country or area is experiencing political unrest and crisis. (“Western Balkans and Central Asia, see e.g. Black et al. 2007”).

Return migration, however, "no longer represents the "closure" of the migration cycle, but rather a stage along the process of increasingly fluid movements between countries," according to the study. Without returning, migrants can give to their home countries and communities. Transnational and trans-local engagement, which was briefly mentioned previously, is one of these methods. This option will now be examined within the framework of a social field in the chapter's concluding part.

3.8. Indian Labour Migration to Gulf Countries

The first wave of workers from India left the country after it gained its independence and went to Britain, the United States, Canada, and on a much lesser scale, Western Europe or Australia. This flow started in the early 1950s and lasted until the middle of the 1970s, though on a smaller scale, because of widespread migration to the oil-rich nations. (Naidu 1991).

The second wave of large-scale migration of Indian workers to the Middle East is a more recent phenomenon that began in the middle of the 1970s and peaked in the early 1980s, primarily in oil-exporting states bordering the Persian Gulf. Although few people were moving throughout the Persian Gulf region, this contact has continued for a while. However, since the discovery of oil, it has expanded considerably and undergone a substantial ethnic transformation.

The rise in oil prices from 1973 to 1974 significantly improved the income of the countries that produce and export oil to the Gulf region. To increase the share of non-oil sectors in the gross domestic product due to rising oil revenues, Gulf state economic policies have sought to diversify the country's income through development initiatives that include building amenities like homes, schools, and hospitals and improving transportation and communication. As a result, there is a rising need for highly competent technical experts and unskilled and semi-skilled labour in several fields.

Since there was not enough local labour to satisfy demand, foreign labour had to be brought in. Since India had a large pool of workers, many Indian experts and personnel could thus obtain lucrative jobs in these nations. Thus, there may have been a slight increase in the annual outflow of Indian workers to the Gulf nations until 1982, after which it rapidly decreased due to declining oil prices and revenues and a general slowdown in growth plans (*Ibid*).

An analysis of Indian migration to the Gulf states by year reveals that although the number was small—42,000—in 1976, it grew quickly through the late 1970s and peaked at more than 2,72,000 in 1981 before gradually declining until 1986. Thus, the average yearly outflow would have been around 1,07,000 from 1976 to 1980, 2,14,600 from 1980 to 1985, and 1,15,500 from 1985 to 1987. Nair⁵ reports that between 1971 and 1975, the average yearly outflow was 28,500; between 1975 and 1981, 67,500; and between 1981 and 1983, 2,20,000. However, it may be understated because the yearly outflows were estimated using worker stock data from different years. In addition, more than 90% of the migrants from India had only travelled to Gulf countries (*Ibid*).

3.9. Telugu States Labour Migration during the Colonial Period

The researcher tried to depict the Telugu diaspora from the colonial era to the present, emphasising the Telugu-speaking region of India. Relations between Lower Burma, the Malay Peninsula, also known as Suvarnabhumi, the part of gold, and the Coromandel Coast of south India go back several centuries before the birth of Christ.¹ Before the advent of colonialism, South Indians migrated across the Bay of Bengal to the Straits Settlements and the Malay Peninsula. South India on the Indian subcontinent was acknowledged as "the most migration-prone region." Millions of South Indian labourers moved to the countries of South-East Asia through indenture and other middlemen-recruited programs.

Many South Indians who migrated as bound labourers ended up in nations like Fiji, Natal, and Mauritius. Most migrants working as unskilled labourers in Burma and Malaysia were from lower castes and communities in south India. It is valid for both their caste-community origins and social structure. The local kings of the historic Andhra nation of Kalinga, also in control of them and trading links with them, conquered the Talaings, as the inhabitants of lower Burma were known. As noted by Arthur Purves Phayre in 1883, "From the tradition and such

scanty historical notices as have survived, we are led to look to the east coast of India, particularly to the country on the lower courses of the Krishna and Godavari, with the adjoining districts, that is, ancient Kalinga and Talingana," as the nations that, at a very remote period, traded with and colonised the coast of Pegu.

Until the beginning of the sixteenth century, Malaya was characterised by "An Indian Era of Malay history." Most South Indians who moved to the Malayan peninsula before the advent of colonialism went there for trade and business. In contrast, most South Indians who went to Malaya during the nineteenth century, when the plantation economy formed, were "illiterate, cheap, docile" laborers³. The Chettis and Komatis were traditional trading communities in South India, where most of these early immigrants originated.

In addition to sharing the same language derived from the three northern coastal Andhra districts, all Telugus in peninsular Malaysia have something in common. It is shocking to hear that the Visakhapatnam, Vizianagaram, and Srikakulam districts are home to the majority of the 3 lakh Telugu individuals who have lived in the country for five generations. Tamil speakers make up the majority of Malaysia's 7% Indian population, which is then followed by Telugu, Malayalam, and Punjabi speakers. Telugu slang is typical in north Andhra Vizag, indicating that most are locals. Most Malayan immigrants from rural parts of north Andhra coastal districts arrived to work in rubber or palm plantations in the late 19th or early 20th centuries. Many uneducated agricultural labourers were immigrants due to the promise of a stable job and potential wealth in Malaysia.

There have been several waves of south Indian immigrants to these countries, especially since the late nineteenth century, as a result of the expansion of transportation and communications infrastructure between Burma, Malaya, and the east coast of India, as well as the rising demand for manual labour in these nations' agricultural, plantation, and urban economies. To construct the roads, railways, harbours, and bridges required by the colonial authority, a sizable number of South Indian manual labourers were needed. However, they were first viewed negatively and were in greater demand by the government than the planters. Thus, government employment was crucial (Satyanarayana 2008).

The British India Steam Navigation Company's steamships carried emigrants from several ports of the Coromandel coast to British Burma and Malaya. Improvements in transportation

technology, falling travel costs, and the absence of border controls and unhindered migration policies facilitated labour migration from south India. The introduction of regular steamship services in the 1870s helped, but the real breakthrough came in 1887 when a steamship subsidy reduced the fare from 15 rupees to 8 rupees from Nagapatam to Penang. Thus, there was a continuous and unbroken flow of emigration from the east coast districts. Also, in 1871, the two essential ports of coastal Andhra, Cocanada and Vizagapatam, were opened for emigration. In addition, a Ship Act was passed, facilitating the transshipment of unskilled labourers and others to Lower Burma. The shipping companies were under contract with the emigration authorities to operate steamship services along the ports. In the 1930s, there were 54 inward voyages to Malaya and 63 outward voyages to South India. Between 1888 and 1929, nearly 33.95 lakhs (3.39 million) of south Indians migrated to Burma, while 19.66 lakhs (1.9 million) went to Malaya between 1888 and 1935. On average, about one lakh (100,000) South Indians migrated annually to Burma; for Malaya, there were 60,000 cross-sea routes between South India and Burma and Malay.

Several government investigations discussed the movement of the "labouring classes" to nearby nations, particularly Burma because it had a significant amount of uncultivated land. Contrary to Malaysia, Telugu labourers moved to Burma of their own volition, at no cost, and without assistance from the government. Since the late 19th century, Burma has played a crucial role (as a "safety valve") in the communities and social strata of workers in the northern Coromandel coastline region. The departures were frequent during bad harvests and crop failures. Official records from the colonial era noted a connection between natural disasters and widespread emigration to South-East Asia. In the former Madras Presidency, migration to Burma was primarily a Telugu phenomenon in that most emigrants came from the northern coastal districts of Ganjam, Vizagapatam, and Godavari; they made up about two-thirds of all south Indians in Burma during the first half of the 20th century. Zachariah's study on Indian migration shows that during 1901-11, Madras Presidency lost about ninety-eight thousand persons to Burma. It was the highest figure for any state in India in the three decades of 1900-31. For the 30 years (1901-31), migration contributed about 12 per cent of Burma's total population, at a maximum during the 1911-21 decade.⁷ A significant feature of Burmese migration has been the vast preponderance of males. South Indians made up the largest single ethnic group in the city of Rangoon's unskilled and manual workforce, according to the available census and other quantitative statistics. They made up around 18% of the entire

population in 1921. The preponderance of south Indian immigrants in Burma was attested by census reports (Ibid).

According to the currently available information, manufacturing labour in Burma earned significantly more than those in rural South India. Manual and unskilled labourers in Burma are thought to have made two to three times as much money as they would have in their home villages. For instance, male farm labour in the Andhra regions received a daily wage of approximately 2-3 annas. In contrast, a Burma dock worker or rice mill worker received a daily salary of roughly one rupee or 16 annas.

Most South Indian labourers—nearly 80%—did not travel to start new lives elsewhere. They only planned to stay for two to three years. However, many returned to work on plantations, rice fields, and mills in the future. Male single adults between the ages of 15 and 40 who travelled relatively briefly to return home as soon as possible with their earnings made up most of the labour emigrant population.

The temporary, seasonal, and long-distance movement of working adults from south India is caused by various circumstances. Neither the pull of high pay nor the push of poverty was the main force. Instead, increasing land-use demands, poverty, unemployment, unfavourable seasonal conditions, natural disasters, and the closeness to important trade routes and ports encouraged emigration. In addition, data indicate a considerable correlation between migration and abrupt natural disasters, including famines, floods, and cyclones, particularly at the local and district levels.

Lower caste individuals had to leave because of their dire economic and unsuitable agricultural conditions. Most were compelled to work as agricultural labourers because they lacked cultivable land. The poor from these castes and communities were forced to migrate to Burma due to widespread social upheavals and economic hardship, such as famines and droughts. A kind of "shovelling out paupers" took place.

The lower sudra and depressed castes comprised most of the agricultural labourer castes in Andhra districts. The Mala caste dominated the lower castes. Although hereditary servitude and widespread slavery were less common and severe among the working classes in Telugu-speaking areas than in Tamil-speaking ones, Malas were subject to both in several districts of

coastal Andhra. The agricultural workers in Mala were in worse shape, and their staff members could have been more cocky and erratic. Untouchable labourers typically received wages in kind, much lower than the earnings obtained by sudra caste agricultural labourers, most of whom made just enough money to exist (Ibid).

A district immigrant community was also created because many South Indian communities had long-term residences in Southeast Asia. Most of them who made their generations permanent worked as labourers, petty traders, and artisans. There are some well-known South Indians who work as labour contractors and professionals. They have had a significant impact on host societies' public lives. However, their district identity in colonial Burma and Malaya was created and defined via the discourses of different sociocultural and religious organisations. They tended to promote cultural cohesion and unity by bridging caste and class barriers.

To create a distinct South Indian ethnic identity and awareness, language, geography, kinship ties, caste-community membership, and ancestry became important symbols. To articulate sociocultural and intellectual perspectives, several associations were founded. Additionally, they assisted in preserving district south Indian networks, culture, and identity in the host nations. Although relations between South Indian immigrants and the native Southeast Asian population were generally harmonious in terms of race, ethnicity, and sociocultural contact, there were tensions and confrontations during times of hardship, such as the Great Depression of the 1930s.

The diverse Burmese society remained vibrant during the time under investigation. However, intensified interethnic and interracial hatred and antagonism resulted from shifting migration patterns and rising rivalry. In the 1930s, as the Great Depression of the world economy began, colonial Burma experienced intense sociopolitical unrest. Additionally, it led to fierce competition between natives and immigrants over available jobs and resources for the economy. In the 1930s, Burma experienced violent anti-Telugu (Coringhee) and anti-Indian riots. Subsequently, the formation of independent nation-states in Southeast Asia led to the departure of immigrant labour. In the 1950s, it occurred in Malaysia and Burma; the 1960s witnessed a significant scale return of Indians due to a military takeover.

3.10. Telugu States Labour Migration during the Post-Colonial Period

The globalisation of the late 20th century created enormous opportunities in the Middle East, just as the late 19th-century world capitalism enabled a massive outmigration of South Indian labour to Southeast Asian nations. After India gained independence in 1947, a new and vital migration era started. In general, there are two distinct patterns to the migration of professionals and knowledge workers ("brain drain") to industrialised countries like the United States of America, England, Canada, and Australia, among others, as well as the migration of skilled and unskilled labourers to West Asia. Therefore, during the post-colonial era, especially since the 1970s, the Middle East has become the primary location for South Indian emigrants rather than Southeast Asia.

During the colonial era, the primary draw for labourers from south India was the developing commercial and plantation economies and the infrastructure and building sectors in Southeast Asian nations. However, after those nations gained their independence, the majority of southern Indians were forced to leave, along with immigrants from other regions of India, due to newly instituted immigration limits and ethnic and racial conflicts. In reality, Indians now have more employment options than before independence thanks to the post-World War II decolonisation of South and Southeast Asia; as a result, they have more options for where to go. Oil-producing and oil-exporting nations in West Asia and the Gulf area saw a significant increase in their income following the sharp rise in oil prices that began in the 1970s. As a result, numerous development initiatives were carried out, including the massive construction of roadways and the establishment of amenities like schools, hospitals, homes, airports, and office and commercial complexes.

The need for labour increased as a consequence. South Indians almost immediately reacted to the rising demands for labour in the Gulf countries due to the oil boom. It expanded after beginning on a small basis in the early 1970s. From 42,000 in 1976–1977 to 549,000 in 2005–2006, Indian employees given emigration clearance has increased overall. Telugu workers now primarily migrate to southwest Asian countries from south-east Asian countries. Emigration from Andhra Pradesh to the Gulf has increased recently, and their numbers have steadily risen from year to year. It increased by more than 100% from 35,578 to 72,580 between 1993–1994 and 2004–2005. A local newspaper in Dubai reported that "many people from Andhra Pradesh are thronging to the Emirates to work as labourers in the developing construction industry." In

addition to unskilled labour, middle-class professionals like doctors and engineers have been migrating to the Middle East and Southeast Asia, especially Singapore and Malaysia, albeit in smaller numbers. Of Malaysia's two million Indian residents, 45,000 were professionals, primarily computer programmers.

The most Telugu labourers came from lower castes and underdeveloped areas in terms of their social and geographic backgrounds. Due to the low cost of labour in the villages of the Telangana area, local and recruiting firms with offices in Mumbai and Dubai have dispatched brokers to look for workers. The framework of the hiring process took into account the caste, village, and community-based social networks already in place. Higher wages in the Gulf nations were undoubtedly a draw and attraction for the rural impoverished. Much unemployed youth were enticed to "escape" and "run-away" to the Gulf by promising a higher wage.

India became a significant participant on the international stage at the beginning of the twenty-first century in terms of exporting labour and receiving remittances. It led the list of nations that received remittances in 2006–07. Numerous economists have examined the beneficial effects of remittances on macro and microeconomic growth. At the end of the 20th century, the Indian Ocean rim nations (from East Africa to Southeast Asia) accounted for more than 65% of the total distribution of the Indian Diaspora by area. The State Bank of India's Millennium Bonds Scheme was also heavily patronised by Gulf ex-pats. The programme generated \$4.18 billion and drew 74,300 applications. West and South East Asia accounted for about 50% of the memberships, while non-resident Indians in the United States and Europe comprised 20%.

The Prime Minister of India said, "The Little India's which we see in so many towns in Malaysia are more than geographical spaces," during a recent tour to Malaysia in 2006. They serve as storage facilities for the emotion that binds people of Indian ancestry to their country. The foundation for the ties between the nations was laid by a significant Indian migration during the colonial period, and a more recent second wave of migration gave the ties economic impetus. Thanks to your presence in Malaysia, we can quickly raise our commercial ties to a new level.¹⁶ Thus, one significant aspect of modern globalisation is the effect of migrant networks on the regional economic integration of South, Southwest, and Southeast Asia. India is said to have "acquired a "global status" in the Asian economic, political, and strategic integration as its role has expanded beyond South Asia." In this regard, it can be said that India attained the position of "core" regarding the movement of labour and skills between regions.

India's transition from "semi-periphery" to "centre" thus took place within the framework of regional globalization (*Ibid*).

3.11. The Migration Impact on Poverty and Income Distribution

Direct and indirect effects on revenue distribution and poverty can be distinguished. The migrant households that got remittances are directly impacted. The spill over effects, such as higher wages, more job opportunities, higher land prices, goods for consumption, and services, are all considered to be part of the indirect impact. The influence has had different effects on the welfare of migrant and non-migrant households.

The majority of the migrants were poor at the time of migration, according to data from micro-level studies on the socio-economic condition of the migrants on the eve of migration. Micro-level studies carried out in the villages of southern and northern Kerala, Andhra Pradesh, and Tamil Nadu in 1977 and 1978 revealed that the majority of the migrants came from low-income families, lived in rural areas, and worked in traditional low-productivity jobs like fishing, agricultural labour, household industry, and sales jobs in the service sector. Following research using a group of 700 recently returned migrants in 1984 found that nearly 58% of migrant households were considered to be poor households. (Gopinathan Nair 1986).

Therefore, the currently available evidence indicates that the poor households getting remittances from West Asia experienced a significant increase in their income levels. In addition, receiving remittances likely helped many low-income families move up the income scale. Seven districts in Kerala have a high population of migrants, so the effects are sure to be significant.

Construction activity and employment had exploded due to the significant influx of remittances. Similar sizeable job opportunities were created in the tertiary sector, which includes banking, education, health services, trade, and commerce. In addition, all categories of casual employees experienced wage increases. Consequently, people with low incomes in Kerala, Andhra Pradesh, and Tamil Nadu now have higher income levels thanks to the receipt of remittances, the creation of jobs in the construction and tertiary sectors, and the rise in wage rates. The figures for poverty confirm the pattern mentioned earlier.

According to recent estimates by the Planning Commission using updated poverty standards, the percentage of Keralans living in poverty has decreased from 53% in 1977–1978 to 32% in 1987–1988. (Planning Commission 1993). However, migration from the Gulf cannot be held entirely responsible for the decline in destitution. Since the 1970s and 1980s, the state administration has implemented various anti-poverty programs.

The increase in the cost of goods, services, and property brought on by the influx of remittances has shifted the income distribution in some people's favour while negatively affecting others. According to the currently available information, land values in urban and rural areas in those districts where migration has been particularly intense have increased due to the influx of remittances. For example, according to reports, the land cost in Trivandrum district's rural and urban regions increased steadily between 1975 and 1983 (*Ibid*).

3.12. Summing up

The chapter focuses on migration and explores various aspects of pre and post-colonial India. Specifically, it delves into migration schedules, policies, and development within and outside the country. It takes an integrated approach to internal and international migration, considering factors such as country borders, culture, and social and geographic distance. The chapter also examines temporary versus permanent flows, gender and generational differences, and the impact of return migration. Additionally, it discusses Indian migration to Gulf countries and the resulting emigration. Through these concepts, the researcher examines the causes of Telugu's migration in pre and post-colonial periods and their effects on poverty and income distribution.

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Chapter - 4

Socio-Economic, Working And Living Conditions Of Gulf- Returnees in Telangana

The term "Migration" comes from the Latin word "migrate," meaning to change one's place of residence. It refers to relocating individuals or groups from one cultural or living area to another, usually permanently. According to Durkheim, migration is a fundamental social process that has historically played a significant role in dividing labour and specialising functions. It is especially crucial in developing societies where all aspects of life are changing. According to the International Encyclopaedia of Social Science, migration is the long-term movement of people over a large area, usually between political or statistical regions or different inhabited territories.

Around 1.5 million individuals from Telangana, India's tenth most populous state as per the 2011 census, move to the Gulf region. These have been instrumental in driving the economic progress of the Gulf nations, elevating their status from a rudimentary state to a sophisticated one. Furthermore, their migration has helped boost the financial conditions of both their families back home and the economy of Telangana, thanks to the remittances they send.

The Northern Telangana region, which includes Karimnagar, Rajanna Sircilla, Nizamabad, Adilabad, and Warangal, has seen an increase in migration to countries such as Bahrain, Kuwait, Oman, Qatar, Saudi Arabia, and the United Arab Emirates. The migration trend began in the late 1980s when people from Telangana moved to the Gulf countries due to various reasons, such as frequent droughts, a lack of irrigation water, agricultural difficulties, and a rise in naxalism and police encounters. In addition, the Gulf oil boom of the 1970s and the consequent infrastructure development in the region created a demand for labour that attracted migrants. Since then, people from Telangana of all ages, social classes, and skill levels have kept moving to the Gulf countries (Venkata Ramana 2018).

4.1. Antilogy of Gulf Dreams

Many people from Telangana are compelled to seek employment in Gulf countries due to poverty, unemployment, limited opportunities, an unfavourable entrepreneurial environment, and agricultural debt. Most Telangana's expatriates work in low-paying, semi-skilled, or unskilled jobs, such as construction, retail, driving, sanitation, and domestic. Some are employed in skilled sectors like care services, hospitality, and hotel management. However, despite encountering numerous challenges while working in the hostile environment of Arab lands, neither academia nor public intellectuals have studied or documented their experiences. These workers can be classified as the "precarious proletariat," as economist Thomas Piketty has coined. These individuals are employed in the Gulf nations' isolated societies through the criticised kafala system, performing 3D contract jobs considered "dirty, dangerous, and difficult." The stagnation of blue-collar wages in the Gulf is an issue that is often overlooked. They usually reside in cramped labour camps or "bachelor" homes, working multiple jobs or putting in additional hours in harsh work environments with no facilities so that they can send money back home. Moreover, they are deprived of labour rights and social security measures. (Telangana Today, 2023).

In India, the trend of migration saw a significant change after 1970. The surge in oil prices in 1973 resulted in a significant investment plan by the Arab nations that produced the oil and increased the need for labour. As a result, these oil-producing countries welcomed immigration from foreign labourers. As a result of this strategy, workers from India started migrating to the Gulf countries. Between 1990 and 2000, as the software industry expanded, there was a corresponding increase in computer experts relocating to the United States, Europe, South Asia, and the Gulf States. According to the Government of India's 2015 Population of Overseas Indians report from the Ministry of Overseas Indian Affairs in New Delhi, there are 7 million migrant labourers in the Gulf alone.

Additionally, the nation's millions of households receive financial assistance. Millions of households in the nation also benefit financially from relatives who labour abroad. Over the past three decades, the Gulf region has experienced a tremendously sustained rise in productivity. This productivity has been dramatically influenced by the simple access to a workforce that is educated, skilled, and affordable (Venkata Ramana 2018).

Women who work as domestic workers and caregivers in their sponsors' homes, often in poorly regulated environments, are frequently subjected to inhumane treatment, gender-based violence, and exploitation. These female migrants are especially susceptible to financial difficulties and the resulting stress, uncertainty about their temporary work visas, feelings of loneliness due to prolonged periods of separation from family, and concerns for the well-being of those they have left behind. Many migrants encounter severe health issues, but fatalities resulting from health problems and suicide are frequently overlooked in public conversations regarding migration. Furthermore, the aspiration of many people to migrate to the Gulf is being shattered due to modifications in tax systems, nationalisation, and labour quota policies aimed at decreasing the number of foreign workers, such as the Nitaqat system in Saudi Arabia. Additionally, the COVID-19 pandemic has worsened their situation, with numerous individuals facing the possibility of losing their employment, being overworked, receiving reduced salaries, or have already lost their jobs.

4.2. Definition of return migration

Return migration occurs when a person living in another country for a time decides to return to their home country. However, the concept of return migration is more complex than simply returning to one's home country. It can also include secondary or repeat migration, temporary or permanent return, and other factors. The UN Statistics division defines returning migrants as people who are coming back to their native country after having lived in another country as international migrants and who plan to remain in their home country for a minimum of one year. Returning can happen in various ways, including voluntary, forced, assisted, or unplanned returns and refugees being repatriated to their home country. When it is voluntary, the individual has made a well-informed decision to return (*ibid*).

4.3. Return migration from the Indian context

Skilled migration in the IT, engineering, and healthcare sectors has been a significant phenomenon in India. In recent times, India has witnessed an increased rate of return migration and a growing role of overseas Indians in its economy, particularly in the IT and business process outsourcing sectors. This trend has mainly been fueled by the exceptional growth of these industries in India over the last decade, attracting major multinational companies and creating more employment opportunities. Previous studies from the 1960s and 1970s focused

on brain drain and the loss of public subsidies in higher education. In contrast, current studies aim to understand the impact of skilled migration on brain circulation. They examine the contributions of skilled migration to skill and technology transfer, FDI, start-up capital, Diaspora networks, and return migration. India is witnessing large droves of graduates and other Indian technologists who were previously working abroad. They started returning in small numbers in the 1980s and 1990s and fuelled the early growth of India's IT industry, driving the subcontinent to become the world's, system administrator. He further pointed out that since 2000, hundreds of global multinationals have set up research labs in India to capitalise on cheap but highly skilled labour and to move closer to emerging markets in Asia. He further expressed that stopping this drain will be challenging with the US economic downturn and political pressure. Research by their team at Duke, Harvard, and Berkeley Universities have shown that smart Indians and Chinese are now leaving for a broad combination of professional and cultural reasons. The desires to be closer to friends, family and comfortable lifestyles now readily available in their countries are strong drivers. Of all these factors, the most important factor driving their return is a strong belief that they will have brighter professional and economic futures at home, regardless of politics or even a rebounding US economy. Most foreign national students now express little desire to settle in the US, and many are said to have preferred to return to their home country to start a business or build a career (Jimo 2022).

Immigration discussions often overlook the significance of return migration, even though it is crucial. Return migration refers to moving from the country where one currently resides to the country of previous transit or origin. There are different types of return, such as voluntary, forced, assisted, spontaneous, and repatriation for refugees. Voluntary return happens when an individual makes an informed choice to go back. The complexity of human mobility, influenced by factors such as globalisation, economic opportunities, and disparities, often results in migrants and their families moving to second or third countries of destination, making return migration a multi-stage process. However, returning to their home country might only sometimes be the final stage, as many factors can influence their decision to stay or leave. Return migration can either be permanent or temporary, and migrants can choose to move again. In recent years, new options such as virtual return have emerged, enabling migrants to contribute to development projects in their home country while remaining abroad. Return migration can positively impact economic and social development, particularly if skilled nationals return with work experience, knowledge, and skills acquired abroad. Special visa

programs and other incentives can be utilised as policy tools to entice skilled individuals from foreign countries. These individuals may offer entrepreneurial ideas, international connections, investment resources, and abilities in dealing with various cultures in their home country.

The management of international migration is at the center of the debate on the return issue. However, understanding this phenomenon is challenging due to difficulties in measurement and the need for comparative data. Return migration is a critical element of migration flows, and migrants plan their migration and return based on their personal and family goals and other factors, such as opportunities in their home country. For instance, NRIs (Non-Resident Indians) working in the booming IT industry in India may find that they can make valuable contributions and decide to return. Professionals who return to their hometowns aim to bring about a beneficial transformation. It includes providing financial assistance for developing infrastructure and education and promoting civic participation. They want to create a support system for Indian immigrants born and raised overseas while enhancing their hometowns' physical and social infrastructure. They stay connected with international networks through work, social relationships, property ownership, and sending their children abroad for higher education.

On the other hand, expatriates who come back to their home country also encounter difficulties. NRI townships and gated communities are viewed as exclusive enclaves of privilege with luxurious facilities unavailable to others. NRIs' wealthy lifestyles and salaries may cause bitterness and contribute to a steep rise in real estate prices in their locations. Moreover, the inadequate infrastructure, congested roads with potholes, and unresponsive governmental departments and bureaucracy in the cities where they settle remain significant obstacles for those who return to their homeland.

4.4. Migration of Indians to Gulf Countries

India's migration patterns underwent a substantial transformation in 1970 when Arab nations, which were significant oil producers, embarked on a major investment program due to the surge in oil prices in 1973, leading to an increased demand for labour. Consequently, these nations began allowing the immigration of workers from other countries, resulting in a significant outflow of Indian labourers to the Gulf nations. The expansion of the software sector between 1990 and 2000 also prompted the migration of computer specialists to the United

States, Europe, South Asia, and the Gulf nations. Currently, around 7 million migrant workers live in the Gulf region alone, and millions of Indian households receive financial assistance from relatives working abroad. The Gulf region has witnessed a consistent rise in productivity over the past three decades, primarily because of the availability of an educated, skilled, and reasonably priced workforce (Naresh Kumar, 2021).

4.5. Deceptive Agents, Issue of Trafficking

Although the Ministry of External Affairs (MEA) licenses recruitment agencies as the legitimate way to migrate overseas for work, many individuals seek out or are approached by fraudulent agents who offer an easier path to the Gulf. The low number of registered agencies in Telangana, less than 25, has made running an illegal recruiting and travel agency a profitable business. To promote safe and legal migration, the Telangana Overseas Manpower Company Ltd (TOMCOM) was established by the State government in 2016. Despite TOMCOM's efforts, fraudulent agents exploit unemployed individuals and those wishing to migrate by bypassing proper emigration procedures. Recruitment agencies frequently deceive job seekers by offering them "free visas" or "visit visas" rather than genuine work visas and assisting them with the emigration process in their home and destination countries. This type of fraud is not uncommon and leaves migrants vulnerable to abuse and exploitation by recruiters, sponsors, and employers since they cannot be registered in government databases. Recent allegations of Telugu women being trafficked to Arab homes for well-paid domestic and caregiving jobs underscore the seriousness of the issue. Additionally, labour courts in destination countries cannot provide legal assistance to migrants without proper documentation and immigration status. Therefore, the Indian government cannot support them in such cases.

4.6. Proactive Approaches

Although many individuals migrate voluntarily to the Gulf region with aspirations of achieving financial stability, acquiring property, constructing secure homes, and saving for their family's better future, emigrating is often a challenging experience. Therefore, it is crucial to provide emigrants with the necessary knowledge and power to navigate the complexities that may emerge at any point during migration. To enhance their bargaining power and help them prepare for their destinations, pre-departure orientation and skill training should be provided to all aspiring migrants, along with a comprehensive awareness program on the available welfare

schemes at the Centre and State levels. Furthermore, digital empowerment will grant them access to MADAD and other government websites for addressing complaints and verifying visa authenticity.

It is essential to utilise the current public institutions like Telangana State Skill Development Mission (TSSDM), National Academy of Construction (NAC), Industrial Training Institutes (ITI), and Institute of Driving Training and Research Centre (IDTRC) in Sircilla effectively to meet the current labour needs and technological changes. Moreover, individuals who have come back to India during the pandemic should be motivated to establish a profile on the SWADES platform of the Indian government to explore employment opportunities with Indian and foreign companies. To make the most of their savings, skills, international exposure, and experiences, returnees over the age of 50 should be provided with incentives to establish micro, small, and medium (MSME) businesses.

TOMCOM should prioritise creating awareness about migration, developing skills, providing training, and recruiting overseas workers. Unregistered recruitment firms should be prohibited to ensure a secure and organised departure from the state. At the national and state levels, welfare schemes tailored to migrants and their families should be implemented. Existing programmes, such as the Pravasi Bharatiya Bima Yojana, need to be broadened to cover fatalities caused by illnesses. Moreover, the state must establish a specific speedy vaccination programme to vaccinate Gulf migrants as soon as travel restrictions are lifted.

4.7. Emigration Bill, 2021

To effectively address the needs and concerns of Indian emigrants who return to their home country, it is necessary to discuss and modify the Draft Emigration Bill 2021. However, the need for more data and discrepancies in available statistics pose a significant challenge in developing effective strategies. Therefore, the federal and state governments should prioritise building a comprehensive database on migrants and returnees. In particular, Telangana needs to account for its unregistered recruitment agencies, which currently need to be represented in the MEA's eMigrate effort. Additionally, it would benefit various state governments to share best practices and welfare programs for emigrants. Finally, Telangana's administration should follow established protocols to establish long-term organisations that institutionalise exchanges with other state agencies, such as Kerala's NORKA.

To ensure adequate support for Indian expatriates in the Gulf region, it is necessary to strengthen Indian embassies, enabling them to take proactive measures such as providing legal assistance or lawyers for cases related to wage theft and assisting with claims in Gulf labour courts. Furthermore, to address migrant issues quickly, it would be beneficial to establish more Gulf country consulates around Telangana, given the significant inflow of migrants from the area. Besides, civil society and grassroots organisations in Telangana and the Gulf play a vital role in promoting the welfare of migrants. For example, thanks to their efforts, the MEA has recently revoked circulars that lowered minimum referral wages (MRW).

There are several organisations, such as the Pravasi Mitra Labour Union, Indian People's Forum, Gulf Telangana Welfare and Cultural Association, Emigrants Welfare Forum, and Telangana Gulf Joint Action Committee, which are working for the welfare of Telangana migrants in the Gulf. Telangana MP KR Suresh Reddy and Minister of Information Technology and NRI Affairs KT Rama Rao are also working to address the MRW issue, a positive development. To assist Gulf migrants and their families still residing in Telangana, the government should allocate Rs 500 crore in the annual budget, as recommended by Bheem Reddy Mandha, the Emigrants Welfare Forum president. As a progressive society, it is our responsibility to listen to the needs of our migrants and provide solidarity during these challenging times.

4.8. Aspects of Returnee Emigrant Workers from the Gulf

A significant portion of Indian labour migration is temporary, with many workers crossing the national border to work in a foreign country and returning home after a certain period. This trend is especially apparent in Indian labour migration to Gulf and other Asian countries. Gulf migration is typically short-term in nature, as Indian workers move to the region on a job contract for a fixed duration and are required to leave upon contract expiry unless they obtain a new contract or an extension, or else risk being categorised as irregular immigrants under the destination country's laws. The boom in oil prices during the 1970s led to a significant increase in Indian labour migration to the Gulf region, which provided an additional source of employment for India's large labour force. It was essential when there was widespread domestic unemployment, disguised unemployment, and underemployment in India, as well as a large number of unemployed workers willing to work abroad. The migration of low-skilled and semi-

skilled Indian workers to the Gulf helped export domestic unemployment and resulted in a significant inflow of remittances to India. These workers have a low propensity to consume and a high propensity to remit, which led to a sharp increase in remittance receipts in India's balance of payment account since the mid-1970s.

Workers who return to their home country after working abroad gain specific skills or experience that could be valuable to them in the job market. Therefore, it is reasonable to expect they have a better chance of finding suitable employment opportunities upon their return. However, some returnees may become complacent and prefer to relax at home instead of working hard to earn their livelihood, as they have already accumulated a decent amount of wealth during their time abroad.

The majority of returning migrants, despite acquiring new skills while working abroad, tend to choose either self-employment (such as in agriculture, shops, or transportation) or idleness upon their return. There needs to be more evidence of them taking low-paying full-time jobs in the informal sector. On average, the households of returnees are relatively wealthy in terms of assets and monthly household expenditure per capita. Although the UAE has become a more popular destination for Indian workers than Saudi Arabia, the latter country has remained a popular destination among former emigrants in Western Uttar Pradesh.

Therefore, some indication of a "cumulative causation" can be observed in the labour migration from India to the Gulf region. The effect of bandwagon and network externality is distorting the decision to migrate. Substantial evidence has been found that migrants' networks perpetuate migration to the Gulf countries. Besides problems with working and living conditions, homesickness and contract expiration are significant reasons for returning home. These four factors are interrelated. If working conditions improve and labour rights are granted in the Gulf countries, migrants may prolong their stay overseas. Evidence of remittances used for investment and consumption increases economic activities through multiplier effects. The evidence regarding the self-interest and altruism driving remittance behaviour is mixed.

Although migration can have political, geographical, and climatic implications, it is primarily a socio-economic issue. Migrants often move to urban centres due to difficulties in their native areas and face new social and living conditions in their destination. The biggest challenge they encounter is the income-expense gap, as they migrate with the hope of saving and improving

their standard of living. Unfortunately, they are often financially exploited by mediators and other opportunists. The push and pull factors that drive migration are rare and require further study to manage migration effectively. Women and children are particularly vulnerable among migrant populations, primarily young people who stand to benefit from successful migration but suffer from unsuccessful attempts.

A typical country resident lives in a system impacted by legal and social norms. It allows them to fulfil basic needs while maintaining their self-respect and health. However, migrants face exclusion from these systems. They are often exploited by groups such as external employment agencies, local politicians seeking election support, industries, and households seeking low-cost labour. These factors, directly or indirectly, contribute to the difficulties faced by migrants, such as unemployment, social exploitation, illiteracy, malnutrition, health problems, and even prostitution.

Migration refers to moving from one geographical region to another, often crossing administrative borders during a particular period and involving a change of residence. It is difficult to provide a universal definition for migration due to various factors that influence it, such as the distance between the native and destination areas (short or long), the duration of stay at the destination (seasonal, nomadic or permanent), and the geographic borders involved ("inter-state, intra-state, inter-country and inter-continental"). It is even more challenging to define a migrant family, as it is unclear whether it should include only those members who migrated or those born after the migration. Furthermore, identifying migrant clusters can be a challenge.

Decades ago, numerous families migrated and settled in destination areas without basic living necessities like sturdy housing and access to clean water and sanitation. A "pucca structure" is constructed with durable cement, concrete, and bricks. Additionally, there are concerns about children being born in substandard conditions without proper hygiene facilities or birth records. As a result, roughly 68 million people in India reside in slums, constituting approximately 25% of the population in 19 cities with over 1 million inhabitants.

Any member of the sample household who had lived consistently for at least six months or more somewhere other than the place they were enumerated was considered a migrant by the

NSSO in its 55th Survey. However, those who have lived with bipolar disorders may also fall under this classification.

Two different cases can be considered to highlight the complexity of the migrant situation. The first involves educated IT professionals who migrate to cities searching for job opportunities and are placed in MNCs with good benefits. They are open and have all their documents in place. The second case concerns poor, uneducated labourers who migrate to cities for work and struggle to make ends meet with meagre wages. They need a proper living place or legal documents to support their stay. In such scenarios, it becomes challenging to define the term "migrant" for policy purposes. It is crucial to identify and provide socially and economically vulnerable clusters with policy support. The multi-dimensional socio-economic issues faced by migrants need to be addressed by the government, NGOs, and society as a whole. Efforts must be made to provide better living conditions and regulate mediators who exploit migrants financially. The role of family members is also significant in managing or avoiding migration. Therefore, the push and pull factors that influence migration must be studied from a sociological and anthropological perspective. This way, migrants' contributions to nation-building can be multiplied, making their lives more comfortable. (Rao and Meena 2017).

4.9. Gulf Migration from Telangana and Andhra Pradesh

Migration from Telangana to other parts of India has been around for a while, and it has been happening for a while. However, migration from the Gulf region started in the 1970s due to the increasing demand for labour in the oil industry and its associated fields. The government has encountered challenges with Gulf migration for several reasons. The Northern Telangana districts, including Karimnagar, Sirisilla, Jagityala, Siddipet, Nizamabad, Kamareddy, Nirmal, Adilabad, and some parts of Manchiryal district, have a high emigration rate. On the other hand, migration to Gulf nations from Kadapa, Chittoor, East Godawari, and West Godawari occurs, where female migration is more prevalent than male migration.

The absence of official and reliable data on Gulf migrants in Telangana and Andhra Pradesh has prevented the states from formulating specific policies to address the issue. Although some non-governmental and voluntary organisations have raised awareness about this problem, the government still needs to take significant steps towards finding a solution. According to the Migrants Rights Forum and the Gulf Migrants Rights and Welfare Forum, approximately 1.5

million individuals who have migrated from the Gulf currently reside in Andhra Pradesh and Telangana (*ibid*).

4.10. Causes of Gulf Migration from Telangana Districts

Telangana is the second highest state in India regarding migration to Gulf countries, particularly in the northern districts such as Karimnagar, Nizamabad, Siddipet, Jagityala, and others. Various literature on the subject suggests that the following factors contribute to the trend:

- Limited job opportunities in the areas from which people are migrating
- Inadequate land distribution and irrigation facilities
- Lack of specialised skills in the area
- Insufficient government financial support for self-employment ventures
- Limited industry opportunities
- Lower-than-average literacy rates
- Encouragement from family members to migrate
- A desire for better respect and social status upon returning home after working in the Gulf
- Interest in travelling and exploring Gulf countries or working in the aviation industry
- Influence from local Gulf agents and sub-agents
- A desire to earn money quickly
- Friends and family members already in the Gulf sending visas to others
- A sense of shame attached to certain types of jobs in the local area that people are willing to do in the Gulf (such as cleaning toilets or sweeping)
- Youth who still need to complete their SSC or Intermediate exams are interested in Gulf migration, which has become a popular trend in these areas.
- Encouragement from private money lenders to take financial assistance to move to Gulf countries
- People who have successfully worked in the Gulf tend to return and do it again.

4.11. Consequences of Gulf Migration in Telangana

Migrating can significantly improve an individual's income, education, and participation, positively impacting their family and children's future. Individuals from various occupations migrate across national or international borders, including but not limited to nurses, political refugees, construction workers, professors, and computer programmers. Furthermore, individuals often move in search of better opportunities to improve their lives and those of their families, expecting their skills and resources to be utilised in the new country. The impact of migration is not limited to individuals and families but extends to the local communities and societies in both the origin and destination countries. Given the diverse backgrounds and governing regulations surrounding human mobility, it is one of the world's most significant issues today, particularly during the global recession. In the case of Gulf migration in Telangana, specifically in the former districts of Nizamabad and Karimnagar, individuals often have limited education and awareness about the migration process, including the various types of passports and visas involved. As a result, they are easily deceived by local Gulf agents and sub-agents and face financial, family, and social problems upon returning home. These individuals are often pressured to repay their debts; some even sell their assets, including land, homes, and gold. Those without assets resort to committing suicide due to the stress caused by Gulf agents' cheating and other issues. Even those who find employment in Gulf countries face physical, psychological, and health issues due to the heavy workload and a lack of rest. Additionally, the welfare of family members left behind in their home country is a significant concern (*Ibid*).

4.12. Return and Re-migration in Telangana

The recent wave of return migration, resulting from the pandemic, is distinct from past migrations caused by events like the Gulf War, the oil crisis, and labour nationalisation. This return is unparalleled, and the possibility of re-migration seems grim, particularly for low-skilled workers. Gulf labour markets are decreasing migrant labour programmes due to economic vulnerability, demographic change, and rising local unemployment. India is also experiencing a rise in unemployment and a decline in economic growth, exacerbating the issue of jobless migrants returning feeling dejected and disillusioned. Over 75,000 migrant workers from Telangana have lost their jobs in the Gulf and have returned without receiving their salary arrears, bonuses, PF, and gratuity. While "wage theft" has been a long-standing issue, certain

exploitative employers have recently emerged, leading many returnees to sell their belongings or take loans to survive and pay off debts.

Many returnees can return to the Gulf if alternative job opportunities and reintegration policies are available. However, the lengthy wait times for Covid-19 vaccinations in India, the ever-changing entry requirements and travel restrictions in the Gulf, and the difficulty finding new employment make it more challenging and expensive. Consequently, many Indian ex-pats, particularly those from Telugu, opt for alternative transit routes to return to the Gulf, such as chartering aircraft, being quarantined in transit countries, and obtaining PCR tests before reaching their final destination. To return home, some migrants even borrow money from banks or private lenders, which increases their debt burden (*ibid*).

4.13. Issues of Return Migration in Telangana

Return migration is taking place, as seen from the literature; though the flow may be less, it is taking place and needs to be considered. Skilled immigrants are returning to India due to the opportunities of globalising cities. Indian expatriates who are educated, wealthy, and belong to the first generation are returning to India to explore new employment opportunities and reconnect with their culture. Their return benefits the Indian IT sector by bringing valuable knowledge, networks, and resources. Additionally, they play a crucial role in enhancing the infrastructure of their hometowns by investing money and being involved in the growth of cities and communities. The expanding global connections of Hyderabad, with its businesses, services, and institutions, are a testament to the increasing number and influence of returning migrants' transnational relationships. The national, state, and local governments and private businesses have actively fostered international links that cover economic, social, and cultural aspects. The decision to permanently return to one's country of origin, known as return migration, can have significant beneficial or adverse effects on society depending on the resources the returnees bring back.

The migration of people can affect the economies and cultures of the origin and destination countries in diverse ways and to varying degrees. This impact can depend on factors such as the type of migration, the skills and talents of the migrants, and the duration of their stay in each location.

Hyderabad witnessed a reverse trend in 2000 when city-bred techies, armed with BTech degrees from top-notch international institutes, gave up their cushy jobs in the US and returned to the land of Nizams to start their ventures. The then chief minister, Mr Naidu, initiated an IT revolution in the city, and many tech-savvy Hyderabadis plunged into entrepreneurship. Rao expressed that Andhra Pradesh (AP) has a massive heritage of IT talent that has helped start-ups perform well. Chacko (2007) discusses the impact of returning skilled Indian workers on the IT hubs of Bangalore and Hyderabad. She begins by examining the "reverse brain drain phenomenon," where Indian professionals trained in the US return to India to take advantage of new employment opportunities. Chacko also explores the effects of this multinational, highly skilled labour force on various economic and social aspects of the infrastructure in these cities. Additionally, she delves into the motivations of successful Indian-American professionals considering moving back to India.

4.14. Needs and Problems of Gulf- Returnees

These people transitioned from the lower rungs of society in their home country to the lower rungs in a foreign land. They are typically less educated and possess fewer skills but are willing to work hard physically for extended periods. However, their stories of perseverance and contributions are often overlooked amidst the allure of the so-called "Gulf dream." They face numerous challenges in their daily lives, including harsh weather, language barriers, and isolation from loved ones, workplace harassment, and financial and emotional risks akin to those faced by prisoners in unfamiliar cultures. They typically return home once every two or three years for a brief period, which passes by in a flash.

The two factors that keep them going through these hardships are the anticipation of their next visit home and the knowledge that they are providing a better life for their families. Most migrants spend their hard-earned money mainly because of their generosity in helping their relatives and friends or because of societal expectations. According to the dictionary, a need is necessary for a person to have a good life. When a need is not fulfilled, it can eventually become a problem that needs to be resolved. In this case, we are looking into unfelt needs as well.

Migrants often have little savings and may need to make significant lifestyle changes upon their return. For example, suppose their time spent working abroad was short, and their return was unexpected. In that case, they may be in a worse financial position than before leaving due

to financial obligations such as mortgage loans, unexpected illnesses, or family expenses. In some cases, returning migrants may face the devastating consequence of broken families, depleted savings, and unpaid debts. Unfortunately, many migrants return with serious health issues (D'Cruz and Manuel 2017).

4.15. Solutions for the Successful Gulf Migration

To enhance the Gulf migration process and tackle associated challenges, the following measures should be implemented:

- The general public and individuals should be informed about the Gulf migration process, relevant regulations, and the culture of Gulf countries.
- Migrants should be educated about different types of visas, Indian embassy locations, contact information, and other crucial official phone numbers.
- • Public meetings and awareness initiatives must be held by the government in regions impacted by migration and create counselling centers to educate people about migration.
- District collectors and Mandal offices should have an effective system to provide information on Gulf migration.
- Illegal agents and sub-agents must be dealt with, and a task force should be established to identify and punish them.
- • Government recruitment organisations should be encouraged and strengthened by the government and NGOs to ensure healthy Gulf migration.
- Programs for skill development and job-oriented training should be provided to workers willing to work in Gulf countries.
- State and central governments should introduce special schemes to offer jobs for returnees from Gulf countries and encourage self-employment among youth.
- • Every hiring company should offer insurance plans to immigrants working in Gulf nations.
- • The state should fund research on Gulf migration-related issues and establish a separate administrative structure to deal with associated issues.
- • The state of Telangana ought to constitute a different ministry for non-resident Indian (NRI) affairs.

- Gulf country residents who have returned should establish welfare associations to track and assess pertinent concerns and guide those planning to immigrate.
- Welfare associations should have social networking and present issues to the state and central governments.
- An efficient organisation should be established to train human resources in line with the needs of Gulf countries' businesses, organisations, and agencies and send them all the necessary conditions to avoid legal complications (Naresh Kumar 2021).

4.16. Some Case Studies of Gulf Returnees in Telangana

For many years, the desire for a better life has motivated numerous individuals to leave their homeland. People are seeking opportunities, financial stability, and independence, prompting hundreds of thousands of Indians to migrate to Persian Gulf countries annually. India has one of the most extended and far-reaching emigration trends globally, and contrary to popular belief, this trend now extends beyond Kerala to many other states.

The migration of numerous individuals daily along the Telangana-Gulf corridor is an overlooked phenomenon. This article showcases the stories of rural Telangana migrants and returnees from the Gulf, highlighting how a single region can serve as both an origin and destination for diverse migrants.

The inhabitants of Rampur, Nizamabad (Telangana), primarily rely on farming as their primary source of income. Despite water shortages and droughts affecting many district areas, Nizamabad is still recognised as the state's rice bowl. To enhance their standard of living, these farmers decide to immigrate to Gulf countries.

The leader of Rampur Village, known as the Sarpanch, has stated that in the case studies he has observed, at least one person in each household has migrated to the Gulf, and out of the village's entire population of 5000, about 1000 people have emigrated. It is noteworthy that, in contrast to Andhra Pradesh and Kerala, where both men and women migrate, only men migrate from these parts of Telangana. A Zila Parishad High School teacher has also observed differences between emigrant children and non-migrant children.

"About half of the students in the school have fathers who are employed in the Gulf. A noticeable disparity exists between these two groups of students. The children whose fathers are absent do not exhibit a serious attitude towards their studies. They are not intimidated by their mothers, and if questioned, they have already decided to work in the Gulf when they are older."

According to Bhim Reddy, a field expert and a native of the region, children in the area are primarily raised by their mothers alone. The father is often absent and only visits once every two years and provides for them financially.

In the village of Rampur, every male has some association with the Gulf - either they are planning to migrate or have already returned from there.

"I am Mehmood, and I am 75 years old. At the age of 35, I traveled to Dubai for the first time sponsored by my company I travelled from Mumbai to Dubai via ship, which took me five days. At that time, travel expenses were roughly 600. I was a plumber in Mumbai before moving to Dubai. I used to travel to a town to change trains and board the Mumbai train after taking the local train from my hamlet. I moved to Dubai in order to make more money, which was about twice what I was making in Mumbai. For 25 years, I was a piping plumber in Hyko."

Despite having five children, Mehboob lost his oldest son in an accident. His other son, an AC technician, lives and works in Dubai. He frequently transfers money to his family via his bank account.

"I liked both Mumbai and Dubai. Life was better in both places compared to my village."

Vidya Sagar, who lives in Korutla town in Nizamabad, said that he migrated to Dubai because there was a scarcity of water and job opportunities in his area, despite owning land. In addition, he believed that he could earn more money by migrating.

"When I first began working, I secured a position in cleaning. Every day, the company I worked for would send us to different locations, and I was paid on a monthly basis. I had to cook and clean for myself while sharing a space with 13 other people. I stayed there for a year"

before leaving to work as a food delivery driver because the pay was greater. I was once involved in an automobile accident while delivering meals. After that, I don't recall what occurred, but I remember waking up in a hospital. Unfortunately, my business declined to offer any help. I spent a month in a hospital in Dubai before a social worker assisted me in getting in touch with the embassy and leaving for India."

Vidya Sagar suffered a spinal cord injury in the accident and has been paralysed ever since. He returned to India one month after the incident. He spent four months in a hospital in Hyderabad before being transferred to a physiotherapy centre in Korutla, where he lives with his family.

"One of our cousins informed me of his accident. I borrowed money from friends and family to cover the cost. Two of our girls attend school. Given that they know about the mishap, the school is not requesting fees now. Everyone is aware and supportive." - Vidya Sagar's wife.

There is a need for labour in the area because most males in the Nizamabad district migrate to the Gulf. Interstate migrants, mainly from Maharashtra and Karnataka, significantly fill this requirement.

"Despite being from Latur, Maharashtra, we spend most of our time in the brick oven. All of my family members are here, and our children are also enrolled at surrounding schools. Marathi is less widely spoken than Telugu." — Ram Das, an interstate migrant.

"Families of interstate migrants who reside and work on the job site itself, as well as a brick kiln in Nizamabad."

These tales from rural Telangana paint a picture with a wide range of tones. Left-behind kids in this place yearn to traverse oceans while growing up with only half of their family. People living here have travelled the globe but decided to settle down and share their experiences with others. Many other people from challenging situations also come here for a better existence. These are tales of ambition, success, desperation, hardship, and, most importantly, hope. (Singh and Aggarwal 2019).

4.17. Summing Up

In this way, the study has attempted to summarise different conceptual understandings of the socio-economic and living conditions of Gulf-Returnees and also reviewed the different arguments, impacts, overviews and typologies, factors, and reasons for different forms of Migration and Returnees. This effort is made to explain and discuss the present scenario of migrants of South Asia, particularly from Gulf Countries, problems, issues, and reasons for returning. The present chapter attempted to give an idea about the problems of Gulf Returnees. However, a brief elucidation has been given on Telangana peoples' migration in all aspects of India and Telangana, particularly in this current chapter. The next chapter will discuss field reflections on Socio-economic conditions and the consequences of Gulf returnees in Telangana after the emigration.

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Chapter - 5

Socio-Economic Impact on Telangana Migrants: An Analysis of the Gulf Returnees In Telangana State

The study's principal objective is to assess the economic impact of labour migration to Gulf countries on labour-sending families. The present chapter dealt with the field research to discuss the Socio-Economic Impact on Telangana Migrants: An Analysis of the Gulf Returnees in Telangana State, India. The chapter elucidated the socio-economic problems of migration and its causative factors for return migration from the Gulf countries. The field research chapter has analysed the data collected from the respondents on the dynamics of returnees by the impact of migration. The study is designed to understand the issues reflecting the exclusion of migrant workers. For this, the study mainly depended on the formal interactions, respondents' opinions, group discussions and government records considered core data analysis objectives. Thus, the study has thoroughly focused on several aspects such as village profile, present living conditions, socioeconomic and livelihood status, the problem of return migrants and its causative factors. The structured questionnaire has been used to get the data to get conclusions for the study's objectives. The present chapter has been divided into seven sections based on field reflections.

Section - 1: Profile of the Study Area

Section - 2: Socio-Economic Characteristics of Migration

Section - 3: Process of Migration

Section - 4: Working and Living Conditions in Gulf Countries

Section - 5: Economic Impact on Migrants and Their Families

Section - 6: Causative Factors of Gulf Returned Emigrants from Telangana

Section - 7: Summing Up

Before discussing the study's objective, the researcher has introduced migration in pre and present scenarios.

Migration is an integral aspect of current globalisation and internationalisation processes. It has led to a growing demand for more international and comparative research on migration. As a result, the number of international research projects and networks focusing on migration has significantly increased in the last two decades. However, scholars involved in these projects often realise that the theoretical methods used to conceptualise, define, and document migration-related problems are influenced mainly by the national histories of science. It is especially true for academic studies on global migration and the difficulties it presents in the areas where it begins and ends.

Furthermore, study themes and methodologies are frequently influenced by national traditions, governmental reactions to global migration, and societal repercussions. Therefore, the complicated issues that migration research aims to define and understand are also a part of it. The need for researchers to clarify their biases in transnational research projects makes this context reliance more apparent.

The researcher intends to clarify the meaning of temporary migration. This type of migration allows individuals from one country to work in another for a fixed period, authorised through a temporary residency and work permit. Temporary migration programs come in various forms, such as short-term or seasonal contracts or long-term employment opportunities. These programs may involve a small number of highly skilled workers or a large number of manual or domestic workers.

Temporary migration can come about through bilateral discussions between nations or be initiated by private businesses and staffing firms. Regardless of the source, the defining characteristic of temporary migration is the requirement for the right to reside in the destination country for a limited time. The Gulf States, which have abundant oil reserves, have experienced the highest levels of temporary migration. These countries predominantly depend on Asia and the less developed nations of the Middle East and, to some extent, Africa to recruit workers for short-term contracts. Temporary migrations bring several economic and social benefits for the host nations, the most significant of which is the chance to boost the number of remittances that migrants can send back to the families and neighbours they have left behind.

The amount of remittances foreign migrants send back home has significantly increased in recent years. According to data gathered by the researcher, when a nation experiences social or

economic problems, its residents who live and work overseas help their fellow citizens by sending more money home. In many recipient nations, remittances are crucial for maintaining the local and national economies. In addition, formally transmitted remittances can operate as a vital supply of foreign currency for recipient nations, strengthen the financial system, draw in more investment, and offer some leverage for sovereign loans.

Remittances have a direct and immediate positive impact on those who receive them, many of whom are among the poorest members of society, as evidenced by industry research. Remittances have the potential to alleviate poverty, widen and vary sources of household earnings, serve as a buffer against risks, enable family members to access education and employment opportunities and serve as a financing source for starting small businesses, among other benefits. Moreover, remittances used to purchase goods and services, finance community projects, or invest in labour-intensive sectors have a more extensive impact on society than just aiding the overseas recipients' relatives.

There is a commonly held belief that temporary migrants become permanent due to their adjustment to the standard of living in their country of employment. It is primarily based on the experience of guest worker programs. It is only possible with harsh measures such as those taken by Middle Eastern countries that prohibit spouses and families from joining temporary workers. Secondly, some human rights advocates argue that migration programs create a class of workers with low wages, working conditions, and rights compared to nationals. Others suggest that such programs depress wages, hinder the introduction of labour-saving technology, and discourage certain groups, such as women and ethnic minorities, from seeking employment. Thirdly, regulations to ensure migrant worker conditions do not lead to underpayment or unsafe work conditions can result in employers seeking out irregular migrants or using informal labour markets. The remittances are crucial to the economies of many nations; others contend that these transfers exaggerate their ability to reduce poverty and advance development and that the social costs of mass migration should be considered more. This argument posits that many migrants are forced to leave behind their families and other dependents, which can have significant negative impacts.

Section-1: Profile of the Study Area

The following information is provided under each sub-heading to assist in understanding the profile of the sample area, including demographic profiles for the districts of Nizamabad, Karimnagar, Rajanna Sircilla, Hyderabad, Kamareddy, Adilabad, Nirmal, and Telangana state.

a. A Brief demographic sketch of Telangana State

The main reason for selecting Telangana state is that the researcher has classified the causes into several categories—degradation of socio-economic conditions of the respondents in the selected area. Debt redemption, alcoholism, low livelihood status, low employment opportunities, lack of irrigation facilities, land alienation, mortgaging and money lending, and crop failure have caused them to migrate to sustain themselves. The general status of this district has been showing that access to domestic expenditure over income accounts for a significant proportion of the causes of migration. Debt repayment and cost of living are also causes of migration.

The Indian state of Telangana, specifically the Deccan plateau in its southern-central region, has a long and illustrious history. According to the 2011 census, it has a total area of 112,077 square kilometres (43,273 square miles), making it India's twelfth most populous state and the eleventh largest in size and population. On June 2, 2014, it was created as a distinct state from Andhra Pradesh's northwest region, with Hyderabad as its capital. Telangana's neighbours to the north, northeast, west, and east are Maharashtra, Chhattisgarh, Karnataka, and Andhra Pradesh. Most of the 27,292 square kilometres (10,538 square miles) of land here is forested and belongs to the Deccan plateau. Telangana has 33 districts as of 2019 (GOTS 2021).

Telugu, one of India's ancient languages, is the state's official tongue, with Urdu as its second official tongue. A few more languages spoken in Telangana English, Hindi, Lambadi, Rajasthani dialects, Gondi, kolami, Marathi, Kannada, and Koya are spoken in significant numbers. Regarding religion, Hindus form 85.1 per cent, Muslims 12.7 per cent, and Christians 1.3 per cent are the state population per the 2011 census. Telangana has a 66.46 per cent literacy rate. Census data shows that 74.95 per cent of men and 57.92 per cent of women are literate. Based on the 2011 population, respectively.

Based on a 2019 report by the Ministry of Statistics and Program Implementation, which examined critical indicators of education-related social consumption in Indian households, Telangana ranks fourth from the bottom among central states in terms of literacy rates, at 72.8%. Furthermore, the report found that the literacy rate for women in rural areas is 53.7%, the second-lowest rate.

The agricultural sector primarily drives Telangana's economy. The state is irrigated by two of India's largest rivers, the Godavari and Krishna, which serve as the region's primary water source for farming. The state's leading agricultural products include rice, cotton, sugarcane, mangoes, and tobacco. Besides agriculture, Hyderabad and its surrounding areas have significant manufacturing and service industries, such as car and auto parts manufacturing, mineral extraction, textile and clothing production, drug manufacturing, poultry farming, and horticulture. Additionally, Hyderabad has notable software industries.

Telangana's cultural heritage blends South Indian traditions with Persian and other South Asian cultural influences that arrived during the Mughal, Qutub Shahi, and Nizam periods of dominance. As a result, the state has diverse cultural expressions, including classical music, painting, and folk arts such as Burra, shadow puppet performances, Perini Shivatandavam, Gusadi dance, Kolatam, and Bathukamma (ibid).

b. Profile of the Sample Districts

The research was conducted in two districts, Nizamabad and Karimnagar, in Telangana state. The study included all the mandals, villages, and panchayats that were predominantly inhabited by migrants and were highly affected by migration in terms of livelihood.

Map 5.1: Map showing sample Districts in Telangana state.



Source: <https://www.mapsofindia.com/maps/tehrangana/> (Retrieved on 7 July, 2022)

c. Profile of Nizamabad District

Telangana is a state located in southern India, which includes the city of Nizamabad, also known as Induru. It is a significant urban agglomeration and the third-largest city in the state. Nizamabad became part of the newly formed state of Telangana due to the Andhra Pradesh Reorganisation Act of 2014. It is divided into three zones: Nizamabad North, Nizamabad South, and Nizamabad Rural. The city has a population of 311,152, with men accounting for 49% and women 51% of the population. The average literacy rate in the city is 78.52%, which is higher than the national average. The literacy rate for men is 85.11%, compared to 72.02% for women. Telugu and Urdu are the primary languages used in Nizamabad and are recognised as official languages. Additionally, about 4.2% of the population speaks Marathi.

The majority of the industries in the city are divided between the private and public sectors, and many households rely on government jobs or family members working in Gulf nations for their primary source of income. In addition, the state government has constructed industrial parks in remote areas such as Sarangapur and Nehru Nagar to promote growth in underdeveloped districts following the split of Andhra Pradesh and Telangana. As a result, Nizamabad has gained a reputation for being the largest rice producer in the state.

The city of Nizamabad experienced a cultural renaissance with the support of the Nizams, leading to a diverse cultural mix of Hindus and Muslims. Despite various religious groups, the city is known for its peaceful coexistence, cultural amalgamation, and religious unity among the people of Nizamabad.

d. Profile of Karimnagar District

The administrative centre of the district in the Indian state of Telangana is the city of Karimnagar, previously called Elagandula. It is located on the banks of the Manair River, a branch of the Godavari River. It is the fifth-largest city in Telangana and an essential urban agglomeration. According to the 2011 census, it is the state's third-largest and fastest-growing urban settlement, with growth rates of 45.46% and 38.87% between 1991 and 2011, respectively. Karimnagar is renowned for its agriculture and granite industries and is called the "City of Granites." It is also a vital healthcare and education centre in Telangana's northern

regions. Following the Telangana statehood movement, the Andhra Pradesh Reorganisation Act of 2014 merged the newly created state of Telangana on June 2, 2014.

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The primary language in Karimnagar is Telugu, but Urdu is also widely spoken. The city's economy is driven by three main sectors: agriculture, industries, and services. Karimnagar has numerous granite quarries on the outskirts of the city, as well as various agro-based industries. The major crops grown in Karimnagar are paddy and cotton.

e. Profile of Hyderabad

Hyderabad is the largest city in the Indian state of Telangana and the de facto capital of Andhra Pradesh. It is situated in southern India on the Deccan plateau and alongside the Musi River. Hussain Sagar, one of the artificial lakes surrounding the city and predating its founding, is situated nearby and surrounded by rugged terrain. Hyderabad is India's fourth-most populated city and sixth-most populous metropolitan region, respectively, according to the 2011 census, which counted 6.9 million inhabitants within the city's boundaries and 9.7 million within the metro area. Hyderabad is India's fifth-largest urban economy. In 1948, Hyderabad joined the Indian Union, and it remained Hyderabad state's capital until 1956. Hyderabad was chosen as Andhra Pradesh's capital following the Reorganization Act of 1956. Hyderabad became the joint capital of the two states under a transitional arrangement scheduled to terminate in 2014 when Andhra Pradesh was divided to create the state of Telangana.

Indigenous and immigrant artisans came together to create a distinctive culture still strongly felt in the city today. This culture is characterised by arts, including painting, jewellery making, handicrafts, literature, and languages. Due to its culinary scene, Hyderabad has been recognised as a UNESCO Creative City of Gastronomy. Hyderabad was once known as the "City of Pearls" and was well known for its pearl industry. Until the late 19th century, it was the world's exclusive trading hub for Golconda diamonds. Significant Indian scientific, manufacturing, educational, and financial institutions gravitated to Hyderabad because of its advantageous location between the Deccan plateau and the Western Ghats and its industrialisation in the 20th century. As a result, Hyderabad has become an important centre for India's biotechnology and pharmaceutical industry since the 1990s. In addition, multinational firms have established facilities in Hyderabad thanks to showing special economic zones for the information technology industry, including Hardware Park and HITECH City.

Hyderabad has two official languages - Telugu and Urdu -, and many of its residents are bilingual, speaking both languages. Hyderabad's native Urdu is called Deccani, while the Telugu spoken there is known as Telangana mandalika. Also, English is a second official language widely utilised in administration and business. It is also a crucial teaching tool in publishing and education. Other languages spoken by some of Hyderabad's minority groups include Hindi, Bengali, Kannada, Marathi, Punjabi, Marwari, Odia, and Tamil.

The Hyderabad metropolitan area's economy is worth between \$40 and 74 billion US dollars, ranking it fifth or sixth in terms of economic output in India. In June 2012, the Reserve Bank of India classified Hyderabad as the sixth-biggest deposit centre and the fourth-largest credit centre in the country. Hyderabad is also the major contributor to Telangana's GDP, taxes, and other income. The state and federal governments were the city's biggest employers as of 2006, while a 2005 study found that 77% of men and 19% of women were employed. However, 90% of the city's workforce is used in the service industry, which continues to dominate the area. There are four distinct commercial areas in Hyderabad. These include CBD, SBD, NBD, and LBD.

The men's traditional attire of Hyderabad is a sherwani and kurta-pajama, reflecting a fusion of Muslim and Hindu traditions. In contrast, women frequently don a burqa and a headscarf when they are outside. The younger generation is becoming increasingly inclined to wear

Western-style apparel in addition to traditional Muslim and Hindu garb due to their increased exposure to Western cultures.

f. Profile of Jagitial District

Jagitial district is located in the northern part of Telangana, India, with its headquarters in Jagitial. The district shares its borders with Nirmal, Mancherla, Karimnagar, Peddapalli, Sircilla, and Nizamabad districts. The district has a population of 988,913 people, and the Schedule Tribes and Schedule Castes make up 16.68% and 2.36% of that total. 90.93% of people in the country speak Telugu as their first language, while 7.14 % speak Urdu. The district comprises three revenue divisions and 18 mandals, traversed by the Godavari River. The Dhulikatta Buddhist site dates back to the 2nd century BC and is historically and archaeologically significant. The district also has cold storage facilities for agricultural products in Jagitial and Korotla mandals and rice mills. The district's literacy rate is 60.26%, including 380 villages.

g. Profile of Adilabad District

Adilabad is the district headquarters in the Indian state of Telangana, and its name means "city of a thousand pillars." Adilabad is mostly a Telugu-speaking city known for its significant cotton farming, which has earned it the moniker "white gold city." In addition to its other names, Adilabad is often called "Gateway to South India." Due to its proximity to Maharashtra, Marathi is a frequently spoken and understood language in Adilabad, along with Hindi, Urdu, and Gondi.

The district is bordered to the south by the Telangana districts of Nirmal and Karimnagar, to the east by the Komaram Bheem district, and to the north by the Maharashtra districts of Nanded, Yavatmal, and Chandrapur. Adilabad had 117,167 residents as of the 2011 census, and the average literacy rate was 43.45%. The city's urban agglomeration has 139,383 residents, including Dasnapur, with 22,216 residents. In terms of its history, Adilabad was formerly known as Edlabad during the Qutub Shahi dynasty. The city was named after the former ruler of Bijapur, Mohammad Yusuf Adil Shah.

h. Profile of Nirmal District

The town of Nirmal serves as the district's administrative centre, located in the northern Telangana state of India. Other communities in Telangana and the Nanded district of Maharashtra border this one. The Godavari River drains the fertile terrain of this district, which is situated on the Deccan plateau. The community has territory surrounding it and, to the northeast, borders Komaram Bheem.

According to the 2011 Indian census, Nirmal district has a population of 709418 people and the most excellent female-to-male ratio of any community in Telangana. More than 78% of the district's residents call rural areas home, and the district's population density is the sixth lowest in Telangana. 58% of people are literate. The district has many farmers (126,363) and labourers (376,760). The population comprises 15.24% of scheduled castes and 11.36% of scheduled tribes. The primary languages spoken in the area are Telugu, Urdu, Marathi, Lambadi, and Gondi.

i. Profile of Kamareddy District

Kamareddy is the administrative centre of Kamareddy district in Telangana, India. The district is north of Hyderabad and shares its southern border with the Nizamabad district. When Telangana was formed in 2014, Kamareddy has designated the district headquarters. As of the 2011 census and statistics provided by the Telangana government, the town's population was 80,378, while the district's population was 64,496. The literacy rate in Kamareddy is over 74%, and female literacy is over 56%. The majority of the population speaks Telugu and Hindi. The primary source of income in Kamareddy is agriculture, with many families depending on crops such as paddy, sugarcane, jaggery, various vegetables, maize, and turmeric. Additionally, about 318 textile businesses are operating in the area. Kamareddy is also home to Telangana's largest poultry farms in rural and urban areas.

j. Profile of Rajanna Sircilla District

Rajanna Sircilla is a district located in the Indian state of Telangana, with Sircilla as its district headquarters. The district is bounded by Karimnagar, Siddipet, Jagtial, Kamareddy, and

Nizamabad districts. According to the 2011 census, the district has a population of 546,121 and a literacy rate of 62.71%. It is also known as the Textile Town, as it has a significant presence of power looms, textile processing, and dyeing units. The district was formed on October 11 2016, after being carved out of the erstwhile Karimnagar district.

Section - 2: Socio-Economic Characteristics of Migration

In this chapter, the study examines the behavioural patterns of emigrant workers who have returned to their home country by analysing various social, economic, and demographic characteristics. An effective interview questionnaire was employed to survey the returnee emigrants during the study's field interviews. The extensive questionnaire contained pertinent inquiries about the goal of the study. In addition, it examined a range of topics, including the housing circumstances of the returnees and the social, economic, and demographic events of their household, as well as migration-related decision-making behaviour. The study gathered a sample of 150 returning migrants who had spent at least one year working in the Gulf region in recent years, specifically in the United Arab Emirates (UAE), South Arabia, Oman, Kuwait, Bahrain, and Qatar. The selection process was careful to include only those who met these criteria. While the sample size is small and not representative of the overall population of Gulf returnees, a unique aspect of this study is that all respondents were former emigrants themselves, unlike other studies that typically rely on family members of current emigrants as respondents.

Migration has become common among people seeking better economic opportunities and a better life within their country and across national borders. Since gaining its independence, India has experienced a surge in migration, with professional people, including doctors, engineers, scientists, teachers, architects, and business owners, making up most of the emigration. Typically, these workers relocate to industrialised nations. Semi-skilled and unskilled migration has surged over the past two or three decades, mainly due to the expansion of the Gulf oil industry and the rise in unemployment in India. Liberalisation policies have boosted trade and money flows to other nations, boosting global economic growth and opening up new prospects for the Indian economy. The migration to the Gulf from India allowed for social and economic change in Telangana and India. Telangana's most significant dynamic element today is migration, significantly lowering unemployment and enhancing residents' living standards. More than any other

element, including agrarian reforms, trade union activity, and social welfare legislation, it has reportedly helped the state reduce poverty. Academicians and policymakers have shown a keen interest in the social-economic conditions of migration in Telangana, mainly due to the high emigration rate to the Gulf. This migration has had a significant impact on the social and cultural life of the people in Telangana. However, it has also brought challenges to the lives of the migrants themselves. Despite working hard and supporting their families and communities for decades, returnee migrants often face difficulties adjusting to life back home. Any laws or policies of either the state or the federal government do not support the welfare of migrant returnees. The state and their extended families often ignore these migrants, and they face social, economic, and psychological challenges in achieving a state of well-being.

Age Composition

Age is an essential factor in migration studies. Therefore, the different age groups of respondents have been selected to study Gulf returnees in Telangana. The respondent's age is considered at the time of collecting data from the respondent. Table 5.1 shows the data related to the different age groups of the respondents in the study of Gulf Returnees in Telangana.

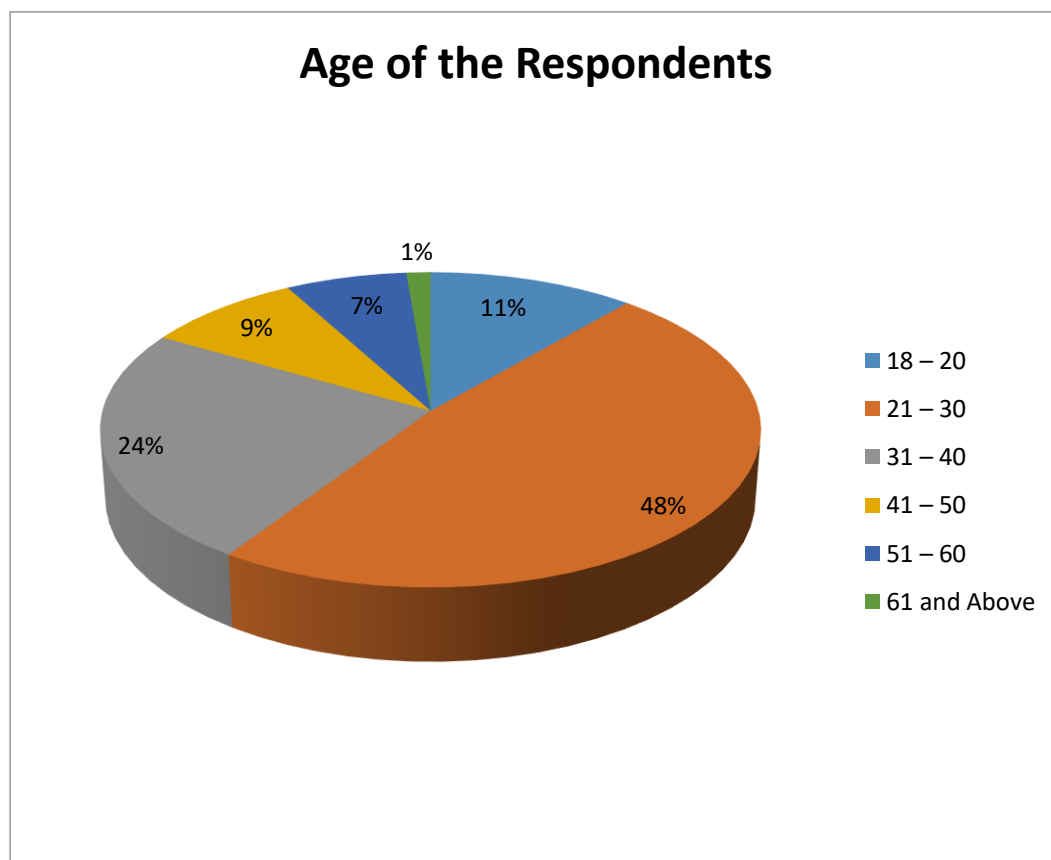
Table-5.1: Age Distribution of the Respondents

S. No	Age of the Respondents	Number of Returnees	Percentage
1	18 – 20	17	11.33
2	21 – 30	72	48.00
3	31 – 40	36	24.00
4	41 – 50	13	8.67
5	51 – 60	10	6.67
6	61 and Above	2	1.33
	Total	150	100

Source: Fieldwork conducted during 2019 - 2022

The data presented in this section outlines the age distribution of the returnee emigrants. Out of the 150 returnees, 48 per cent were between the ages of 21-30 years, 24 per cent were between the ages of 31-40 years, 11.33 per cent were between the ages of 18-20 years, while 8.67 per cent were in 41-50 year age group. Additionally, 6.67 per cent of respondents fell within the 51-60 year age range, and only 1.33 per cent were above 61. Therefore, it can be inferred that most of the emigrants in this sample were under 61 years of age, indicating that individuals migrate to Gulf countries for employment during the peak of their working lives. A pie chart representation of the age-wise distribution of the respondents is also provided.

Figure-5.1: Age of the Respondents



Source: Fieldwork conducted during 2019 - 2022

Due to the poor living conditions, all age groups show interest in going abroad to fulfil their essentials; some will come with savings. Most respondents explained the causes for their return, which will be described in the coming sections. Figure 5.1 shows the percentage of the

respondents and their respective ages. The figure shows that most middle-aged men want to migrate to the Gulf to find employment opportunities.

Marital Status

Marriage plays a vital role in human lives. Marriage brings sociocultural and economic changes in the married person's life, especially in the Indian context in the man's or women's lives. In the study of Gulf returnees, marriage plays a vital role in the Gulf migration due to many social and financial responsibilities and issues. Table 5.2 shows the data related to the marital status of the respondents.

Table-5.2: Marital Status of Migrants

S. No	Marital Status	Number of Migrants	Percentage
1	Married	109	72.66
2	Unmarried	41	27.34
	Total	150	100

Source: Fieldwork conducted during 2019 - 2022

Out of 150 respondents, 72.66 per cent of the respondents, around number 109, are married returnees from Gulf countries. A considerable migration indicates the above table, and 27.34 per cent of the respondents, around 41, are unmarried. All the married respondents have no other options to repay the debt and have a better livelihood. While residing abroad without family explains the severe difficulties of respondents and shows their sacrifices for better family living. They also illustrate that the status of unmarried respondents has more chances to migrate for better livelihood options.

Religion

The background of religion inclines more with the Gulf migration. A more number of Muslims show more interest towards the Gulf migration over the other religions. Table 5.3 shows the data related to the religious background of the respondents.

Table-5.3: Religious background of the respondents

S. No	Religion Background of the Respondents	Number of Returnees	Percentage
1	Hindu	67	44.66
2	Muslim	72	48.00
3	Christian	11	7.34
	Total	150	100

Source: Fieldwork conducted during 2019 - 2022

Table-5.4 shows the religious background of the respondents. The respondents' religion is classified as half of the respondent's form. The Muslim community, 48.00 per cent, around 72 respondents, 44.66 per cent, with 67 respondents out of 150 samples, Christians 7.34 per cent, found only 11 members in the selected area. Regarding their socio-economic background, most Muslims engaged in the mechanic field in India due to the severe difficulties with high interests; situations are leading to migrating to Gulf countries without any basic knowledge of other nations with the help of mediators. Most Hindus also engaged in agricultural and contracted or daily wage work and Christians. Those living in the urban and rural areas in the selected area, their willingness leads the benefits for mediators.

Community

The caste and community background of the respondents are crucial in the study of Gulf migration. With particular reference to the exclusion studies and gulf migration, the community of the respondents is significant. The low-skilled and semi-skilled migrants choose the Gulf migration. Furthermore, these migrants are from the lower communities of society. Table 5.4 shows the data related to the community background of the respondents.

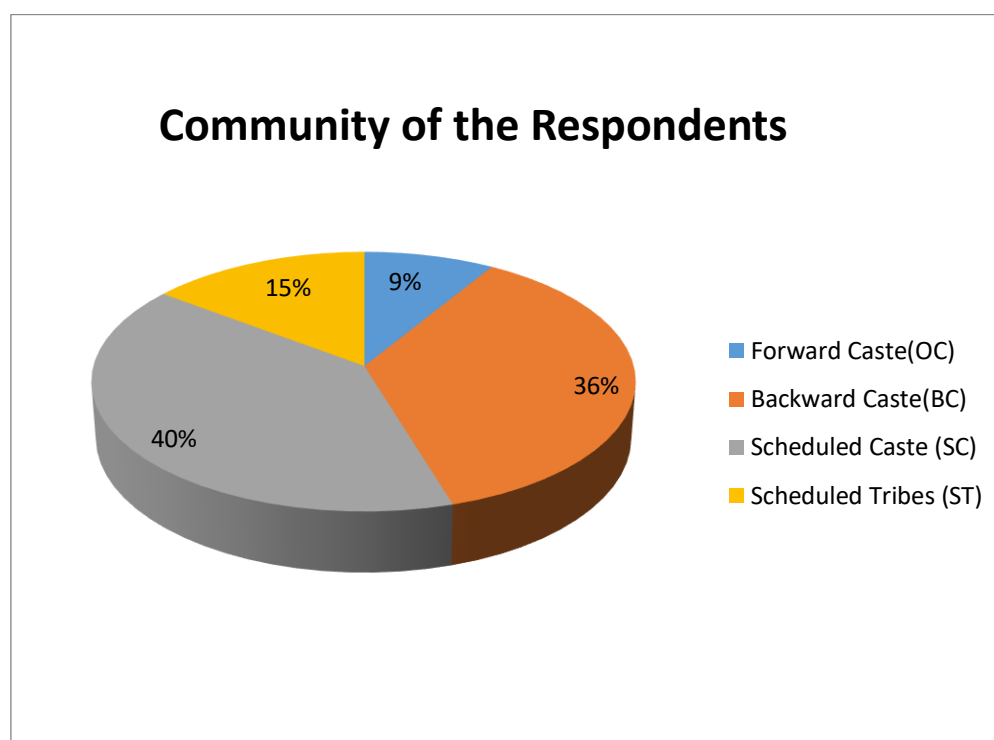
Table-5.4: The Community of the Respondents

Community of the Respondents	Number of Returnees	Percentage
Forward Caste(OC)	13	8.64
Backward Caste(BC)	55	36.65
Scheduled Caste (SC)	60	40.00
Scheduled Tribes (ST)	22	14.71
Total	150	100

Source: Fieldwork conducted during 2019 - 2022

The data provided in the table with respondents and diagram with percentages. The sample respondents were drawn from scheduled castes 40.00 per cent, around 60 respondents; backward castes with 36.65 per cent, around 55 respondents; scheduled tribes with 14.71 per cent, around 22 respondents; finally, forward castes with 8.64 per cent, around 13 respondents. The scheduled castes and other backward castes are more migrant persons out of 150 sample respondents; other scheduled castes and forward castes are fewer migrants than the other respondents. Even though they have schemes and programs implemented by the government, the respondents are willing to migrate to solve their difficulties and seek alternatives for their better livelihood and sustenance.

Figure-5.2: The Community of the Respondents



Source: Fieldwork conducted during 2019 - 2022

Regarding the educational pattern of the return emigrants, secondary education respondents are high in the sample. However, at the same time, most of the returnee emigrants were senior secondary respondents. The primary education respondents are third, and illiterates are the majority. Significant graduation and post-graduation respondents are also shown in the diagram, with a high migrant rate.

As per the number of dependents in the households, a massive percentage had up to 150 respondents. As a result of their work overseas, the workers who returned from abroad gained some new or specialised abilities. As a result, it is reasonable to assume that they will find an excellent job upon their return. The returnees do, however, earn and amass a significant amount of income, and upon their return, many of them choose to spend their time relaxing at home rather than working in the oil industry.

Educational Status

The education and educational background of the respondents is essential in the study of Gulf migration. The migrants who are from low academic backgrounds choose the Gulf migration. As a result, there are more employment opportunities for low-skilled and semi-skilled migrants in the Gulf countries. Therefore, in this scenario studying the respondents' educational background will significantly impact the migration studies of Gulf countries. Table 5.5 shows explain the educational status of the respondents.

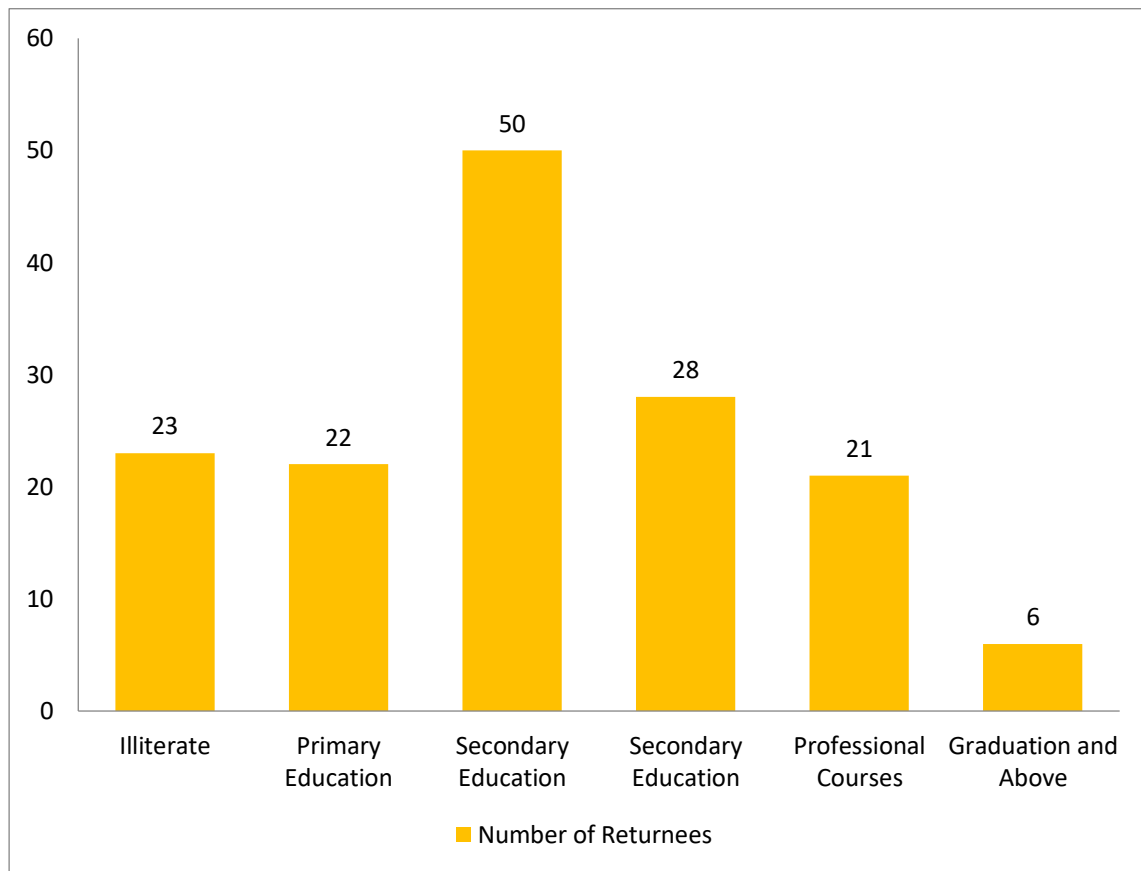
Table-5.5: Educational Status of the Returnees

S. No	Educational Status of the Respondents	Number of Returnees	Percentage
1	Illiterate	23	15.33
2	Primary Education	22	14.67
3	Secondary Education	50	33.33
4	Secondary Education	28	18.67
5	Professional Courses	21	14.00
6	Graduation and Above	6	4.00
	Total	150	100

Source: Fieldwork conducted during 2019 - 2022

Table 5.6 illustrates the returnee's educational status, indicating the per cent wise with number of respondents out of 150 returnees. The second education completed 50 respondents with 33.33 per cent are high, and senior secondary respondents secured 18.67 per cent, with 28 respondents; illiterates persons around 23 members with 15.33; primary education 22 members with 14.67 per cent and who completed professional courses 21 members 14.00 per cent, and finally graduation and above completed respondents are 06 members with 4.00 per cent.

Figure-5.3: Educational Status of the Returnees



Source: Fieldwork conducted during 2019 - 2022

The above figure 5.3 shows the pictorial representation of the respondents' educational status. From the diagram, it was evident that most Gulf migrants lack education or higher education. From the sample of 150 respondents, 50 respondents have secondary education, 22 have primary education, and there are 23 respondents are illiterate. Since low-skilled and semi-skilled workers are migrating to Middle Eastern countries. The lack of education directly or indirectly affects the migrants working and returning to India.

Occupation before Migration

The study about the occupation of respondents before their migration will explain the key factors which motivated the respondent to select the Gulf migration. Studying the respondents' occupations will reflect that better wages and more employment opportunities in the Gulf counties attracted the respondents to migrate to the Gulf counties. And at the same time, the occupations they were in the fields were not generating more economic support compared to the Gulf countries. Table 5.6 depicts the data related to the respondents' occupations before migrating to Gulf countries.

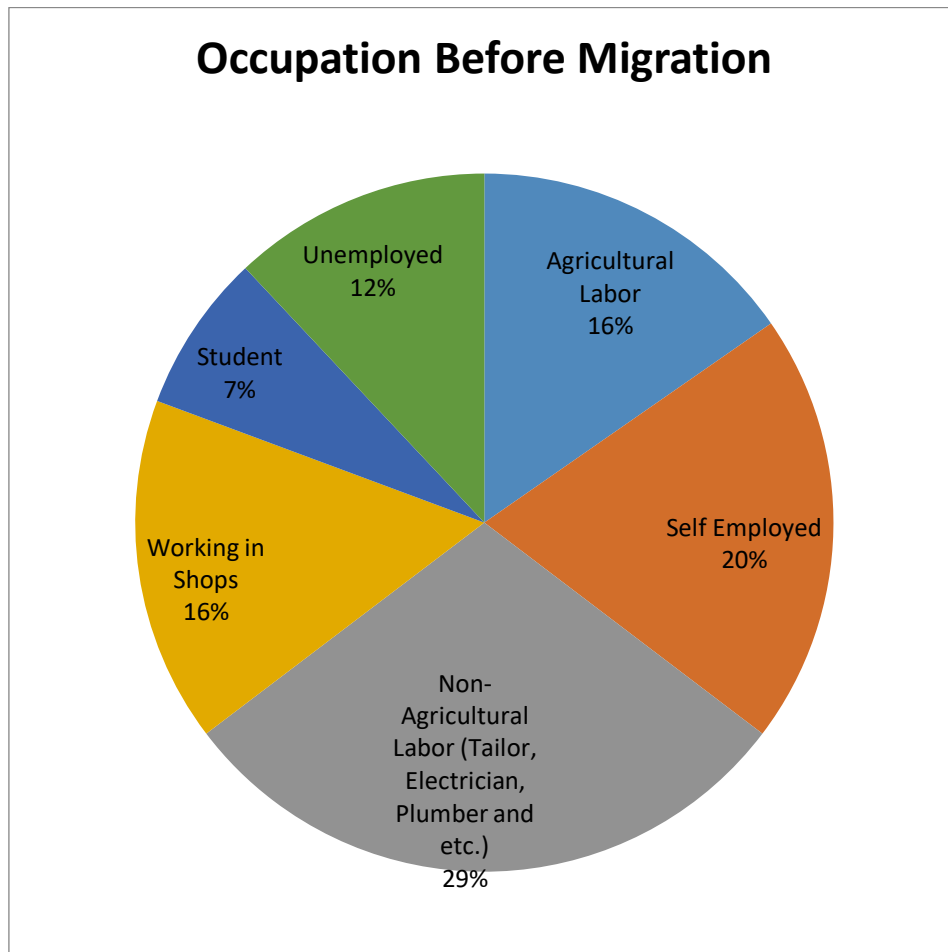
Table-5.6: Occupation before migration

S. No	Occupation of the Respondents Before Migration	Number of Returnees	Percentage
1	Agricultural Labor	23	15.33
2	Self Employed	30	20.00
3	Non-Agricultural Labor (Tailor, Electrician and Plumber.)	44	29.33
4	Working in Shops	24	16.00
5	Student	11	7.34
6	Unemployed	18	12.00
	Total	150	100

Source: Fieldwork conducted during 2019 - 2022

The respondents who are selected area, the above table and pie chart show their livelihood in different sectors. When it goes into detail, their occupation before migration, Agricultural labours 23 members with 15.33 per cent out of 150 respondents, following self-employed respondents are 20.00 per cent among 30 respondents, again non-agricultural, labour, tailors, electrician, plumber, cooperators, construction work. Forty-four respondents, 29.33 per cent, are willing to go abroad for better jobs; the remaining respondents worked in shops, 24 are helper's shops and shopkeepers, around 24 members, and it took 16.00 per cent out of 150. The study's participants consisted of 11 students, comprising 7.34% of the sample, and 12.00% of unemployed individuals who were not currently employed.

Figure-5.4: Occupation before migration



Source: Fieldwork conducted during 2019 - 2022

As per the above information, the respondents have engaged in different works. Instead of doing the same work with a low outcome, they preferred alternative livelihoods for better sustenance. Moreover, before going abroad, most of them engaged in low-skilled jobs as masons, Ac mechanics, welder, embroiders, painter and glass cutter, cook, hairdresser, housekeepers, machine operator, technicians, junior engineer, and nurses. Therefore, the majority of the respondents migrated with little preparation and knowledge. Although with a ray of hope for better earnings and a better lifestyle. At the same time, streamlining was always tricky, especially in overseas jobs.

Family Type

Globalisation and economic reforms have brought many changes in human lives. Family relations and family structure have changed because of globalisation. In this scenario, the type of family plays a vital role in the sustainability and stability of the family. In the old days, most families live in joint families in India and Telangana state. In the present scenario, economic reforms and globalisation have motivated many to the nuclear family structure. As a result, the nuclear family type is more vulnerable than the joint family. To stabilise this, nuclear families adopt migration to improve economic stability and growth. Table 5.7 describes the family type of the respondents.

Table-5.7: Type of migrant's family

S. No	Family Type	No. migrants	Percentage
1	Nuclear family	131	87.33
2	Joint family	19	12.67
	Total	150	100

Source: Fieldwork conducted during 2019 - 2022

Table 5.9 provides data on the family types of 150 migrants. The table includes two columns, "Family Type" and "No. migrants", which provide information on the types of families represented in the group and the number of migrants in each type. The third column, "Percentage", shows the proportion of migrants that belong to each family type.

The "Family Type" column indicates that the migrants are categorised into two types of families: nuclear and joint families. A nuclear family consists of parents and their children, while a joint family comprises parents, children, and other relatives living together in a single household. Next, the "Number migrants" column shows the number of migrants in each family type. In this case, 131 migrants belong to nuclear families, while 19 belong to joint families. Finally, the "Percentage" column shows the proportion of migrants that belong to each family

type. This column indicates that 87.33% of the migrants belong to nuclear families, while 12.67% belong to joint families.

The data in the above table provides an overview of the family types of the migrant population, which helps understand the family structures and dynamics of the group. In addition, the table allows for a comparison of the two family types regarding the number of migrants and the percentage of the total.

Occupational Distribution of Migrant's Parents

In the migration studies, parents' occupations drive the migrants to migrate to different parts of the country and counties. The migrants migrate to different countries for better employment opportunities because their parents are economically poor. If the parents are rich, the migrants migrate to different counties for higher education. In both scenarios, the occupation and economic status of the parents will play a role in the migration of the respondents. Table 5.8 explains the occupations of the parents of the respondents.

Table 5.8. Occupation of Parents

S. No	Occupation	No. of Migrants	Percentage
1	Agriculture	103	68.66
2	Business	5	3.34
3	Government Employee	2	1.33
4	Casual Labour	16	10.67
5	Work in a Private Company	24	16
	Total	150	100

Source: Fieldwork conducted during 2019 - 2022

The above table indicates that in the respondents who were gone to the Gulf countries and other nations, their parents primarily engaged with different occupations in the selected area. Therefore, their position and condition are like out of 150 migrants returnees, 103 members'

parents were engaged in agricultural work at 68.66 per cent, five members' parents were doing business at 3.34 per cent, government employees two members with 1.33 per cent, casual labour as daily wage labours are 16 members with 10.67 per cent, and some of the parents doing private jobs in different companies 24 members with 16 per cent, All the migrated respondents were enthusiastically choosing to go abroad to help their parents economically.

Table 5.8 displays data on the occupations of 150 migrants, including the number of migrants and the percentage of the total number of migrants in each occupation. The data is presented in a tabular format, a common way to organise and display numerical data. The data in the above table can be considered a descriptive summary of the migrants' occupations. It provides an overview of the distribution of migrants across different occupational categories. It allows for comparisons between the different categories based on the number of migrants and the percentage of the total.

Section - 3: Process of Migration

Causes of Migration

The Gulf migration reveals the many motivating factors from the respondents for migrating to Gulf countries. The respondents from Telangana state have different reasons for migrating to Gulf countries. Most of the motivating factors are directly or indirectly interlinked with the economic issues for the causes of migration. Table 5.9 explains the respondents' different reasons for migration.

Table-5.9: Reasons for the migration

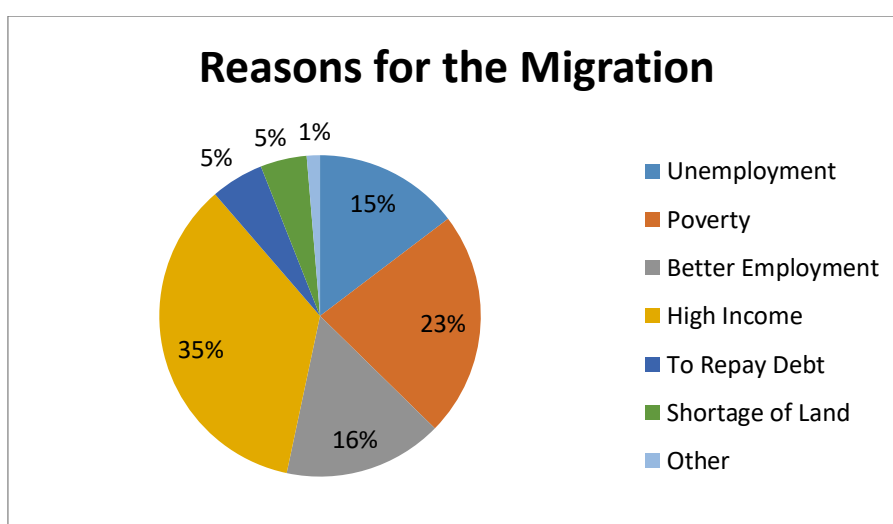
S. No	Reasons for the Migration	Number of Returnees	Percentage
1	Unemployment	22	14.66
2	Poverty	34	22.66
3	Better Employment	24	16.00
4	High Income	53	35.33

5	To Repay Debt	8	5.33
6	Shortage of Land	7	4.67
7	Other	2	1.35
	Total	150	100

Source: Fieldwork conducted during 2019 - 2022

The families in the migration process have different reasons for migration. Due to the unemployment in the families, there are 22 members, with 14.66 per cent of the respondents going abroad to vanish their unemployment stigma. Due to being below the poverty line, 34 respondents with, 22.66 per cent, went to Gulf and other nations to remove their economic difficulties, for better employment, 24 little outcome jobs, to get high income, around 53 members 35.33 per cent, respondents have chosen to go abroad, but some of the respondents who are facing difficulties to repay their debts have caused to migration around eight members with 5.33 per cent some of the respondents who are having less land in their native around seven respondents with 4.67 per cent chosen alternative livelihood for a better living finally, other respondents who are having minimum basic needs, they are willing to go abroad for any work, and these respondents are a long time to return around two members with 1.35 per cent for better understanding the researcher has given pie chart as well.

Figure-5.5: Reasons for the migration



Source: Fieldwork conducted during 2019 - 2022

Since the formation of the oil boom in the GCC countries in the 1980s, Gulf migration has become a common practice in Telangana. The Gulf Cooperation Council has become the largest employer for Telangana privates, and the higher wages and social status offered in comparison to their native state have attracted a large number of semi-skilled migrant workers to GCC countries, mainly from Telangana. Most significantly, the respondents going abroad were illiterate and had higher secondary education, so getting visas was a problem. In getting a visa, many mediators show their tactics to cash. The researcher has clearly described the ways while getting Visa, and the information collected from the respondents is below the tables.

Sources of Visa

The data in Table 5.10 depicts the sources of visas and how the respondents acquired the visas to migrate to Gulf countries. The data relating to sources of data explains how the respondents rely upon the middle-mans for getting visas to travel to Gulf countries. And the need for knowledge due to the low economic background of the respondents to cheat or commission the high charges from the respondents.

Table-5.10: Sources of Visa

S. No	Sources of Visa	Number of Returnees	Percentage
1	Friends	34	22.66
2	Relatives	52	34.66
3	Licensed Agencies	43	28.66
4	Local Agencies	14	9.33
5	Other	7	4.69
	Total	150	100

Source: Fieldwork conducted during 2019 - 2022

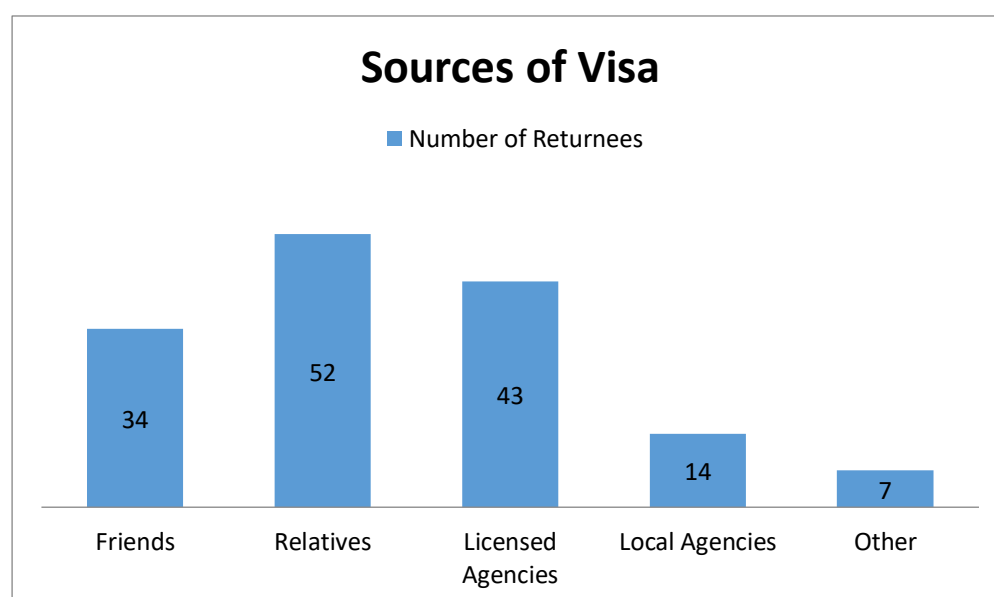
Table 5.10 provides data on the sources of visas for a group of 150 returnees. The data suggests that most returnees obtained their visas through personal networks of friends and relatives.

Specifically, 34 returnees obtained their visas from friends, while 52 obtained their visas from relatives. It represents over half (57.32%) of the total returnees.

In terms of professional visa procurement channels, licensed agencies were the most commonly used source, accounting for 28.66% of the returnees, while local agencies accounted for a smaller percentage at 9.33%. The "Other" category, which may include sources such as employers or government agencies, accounted for a relatively small percentage of returnees at 4.69%.

The data suggests that personal networks play a significant role in visa procurement for this group of migrants. The high percentage of migrants obtaining visas through friends and relatives may be due to the availability of advice, support, and assistance through these networks and the perceived ease of obtaining visas through personal connections. However, the data also shows that licensed agencies remain popular, suggesting demand for professional visa procurement services.

Table-5.6: Sources of Visa



Source: Fieldwork conducted during 2019 - 2022

Based on the table and bar chart above, it was found that 34 respondents (22.66%) who migrated abroad did so based on information provided by friends of migrants. Around 52

members (34.66%) obtained their visas through the help of intermediaries referred by relatives. Licensed agencies also provided visa opportunities; approximately 43 respondents (28.66%) obtained their visas through this channel. According to the respondents, around 14 members (9.33%) were sent abroad by local agencies involved in small-scale business. Seven members (4.69%) obtained their visas by spending money and going for interviews. All 150 respondents shared their experiences in obtaining visas. Based on the information provided by the respondents, researchers have provided a detailed explanation of the financial costs of migration.

Financial Cost of Migration

The financial cost of migrating to Gulf countries is cheaper than Western or European countries. The financial cost includes Passport, Visa fees, Flight fares, charges for medical check-ups and a 'No Objection Certificate'. All these services are chargeable and need to spend money from the migrant to migrate to Gulf countries. In the migration process, middle-men and agents will try to cheat the migrant for the commissions. The data in Table 5.11 shows the amount the respondents invested in migrating to Gulf countries.

Table-5.11: Distribution of Migrants by their Cost of Migration

S. No	Amount spent (Rs.)	No. of migrants	Percentage
1	25000-50000	23	15.33
2	50000-75000	86	57.33
3	75000-100000	31	20.67
4	100000 and above	10	6.67
	Total	150	100

Source: Fieldwork conducted during 2019 - 2022

A field study of 150 participants found that most migrated people did so by utilising agencies' services. Out of the 150 respondents, 86 individuals (57.33%) spent between 50,000 and 75,000 Rupees to obtain their visas through these agencies. Another 31 respondents (20.67%) spent

between 75,000 and 100,000 Rupees on agency services, while 23 participants (15.33%) spent between 25,000 and 50,000 Rupees after being influenced by their social network. Lastly, ten members (6.67%) spent more than 100,000 Rupees on agency services but did not have the necessary skills or social connections to obtain visas through other means. The sources of financing for obtaining visas are illustrated in the table and pie chart below.

The table displays information regarding the amount spent by migrants, the number of migrants and the percentage of the total sample. The data is presented in four categories of spending ranges: 25000-50000 Rs, 50000-75000 Rs, 75000-100000 Rs, and 100000 Rs and above. The total number of migrants in the sample is 150.

According to the table, the most common spending range among migrants is 50000-75000 Rs, accounting for 57.33% of the total sample. The second most common range is 75000-100000 Rs, with 20.67% of the sample spending in this range.

Furthermore, 15.33% of the sample spent between 25000-50000 Rs, and only 6.67% spent 100000 Rs and above. It is worth noting that the highest spending range of 100000 Rs and above had the lowest percentage of the total sample.

The data in the above table provides insights into the spending patterns of migrants and the various ranges of spending among them. This information can be helpful for policymakers and organisations working to support migrants in their financial needs.

Sources of Finance

The financial cost of getting a Visa is high for poor and unemployed migrants. Even to acquire the Visa, the migrants lend money from different sources. In the study of Gulf migration from the perspective of development and economic growth, the 'sources of visa' will play a prominent role. Table 5.12 explains the data related to the 'sources of visa' from which channel the migrant have received their visas.

Table-5.12: Sources of Finance for the Visa

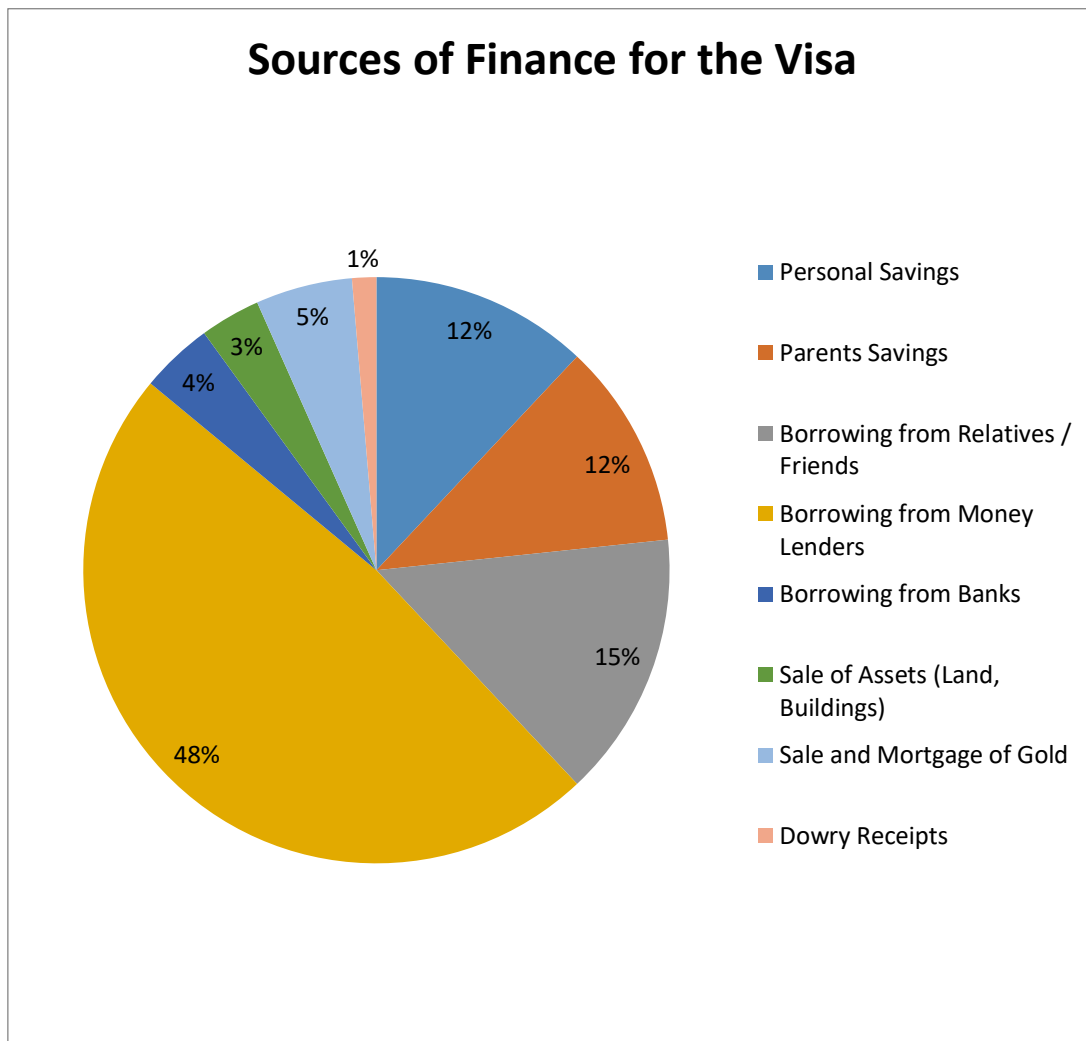
S. No	Sources of Finance for the Visa	Number of Returnees	Percentage
1	Personal Savings	18	12.00
2	Parents Savings	17	11.33
3	Borrowing from Relatives / Friends	22	14.66
4	Borrowing from Money Lenders	72	48.00
5	Borrowing from Banks	6	4.00
6	Sale of Assets (Land, Buildings)	5	3.33
7	Sale and Mortgage of Gold	8	5.33
8	Dowry Receipts	2	1.35
	Total	150	100

Source: Fieldwork conducted during 2019 - 2022

The table shows that the most popular source of finance among Visa returnees is borrowing from money lenders, which accounts for 48% of the total sample. Personal savings and borrowing from relatives/friends are also commonly used sources of finance, with 12% and 14.66% of the sample, respectively.

On the other hand, borrowing from banks is the least commonly used source of finance, with only 4% of the sample using this option. The sale of assets (land, buildings) and dowry receipts are the least popular sources of finance, with only 3.33% and 1.35% of the sample using them, respectively. The data in the table can provide valuable insights for policymakers and financial institutions to develop more accessible and affordable credit options for individuals needing finance.

Figure-5.7: Sources of Finance for the Visa



Source: Fieldwork conducted during 2019 - 2022

Most 150 respondents borrowed money from lenders with fixed timeframes and high-interest rates. If they borrowed from relatives, they had to mortgage for a limited period. Some respondents obtained loans from banks, using their educational certificates, land, and house titles as collateral. Unemployed students received financial support from their parents, while others used their savings. Some sold assets or mortgaged their gold, and once they secured employment abroad, they used their dowry money to settle in Gulf countries.

Regarding specific respondent data, 18 individuals (12.00%) used their savings, while 17 individuals (11.33%) used money from their parents for the visa process. Around 22

respondents (14.66%) borrowed money from friends and relatives on certain conditions. Out of all respondents, approximately 72 members (4.00%) borrowed money from banks, five individuals sold their assets, and eight (5.33%) sold or mortgaged their gold. Lastly, two members (1.35%) used their dowry money to move to their chosen destination. Despite age differences, all respondents were willing to migrate abroad for various reasons. The table below illustrates their ages during migration.

Age at the Time of Migration

The respondents' age during migration is essential to study the Gulf migration studies. Young age youth and middle-aged men are migrating to Gulf countries. Table 5.13 shows the data related to the respondents' age when they migrated to Gulf countries.

Table-5.13: Age at the Time of Migration

S. No	Age at the time of migration	No. of emigrants	Percentage
1	21-30 Years	91	60.66
2	31-40 Years	37	24.67
3	41-50 Years	14	9.33
4	50 Years and Above	8	5.34
	Total	150	100

Source: Fieldwork conducted during 2019 - 2022

Table 5.13 presents information about the age distribution of emigrants, including the number of emigrants and the percentage of the total sample. The data is classified into age ranges: 21-30 years, 31-40 years, 41-50 years, and 50 years and above. The total number of emigrants in the sample is 150.

According to the table, most emigrants fall into the 21-30 age range, accounting for 60.66% of the total sample. The second most common age range is 31-40 years, with 24.67% of the sample falling into this category.

Approximately 91 individuals migrated from the selected area, with 60.6 per cent of them going abroad between the ages of 21 and 30. Thirty-seven respondents, 24.67 per cent of the migrants, fall between 31 and 40. Additionally, there are 14 members, 9.33 per cent of the migrants, aged between 41 and 50. Finally, eight respondents, which is 5.34 per cent, migrated above the age of 50 years out of a total of 150 respondents from rural and urban areas. It should be noted that the selected sample has a bias towards rural emigrants and returnees since rural individuals tend to migrate to Gulf countries more than urban individuals in general.

In addition, the majority of the emigrants in the sample are under 50, which suggests that they tend to move to the Gulf for employment during the peak of their working years, based on their economic conditions at home and the work difficulty at their workplace. The duration of the stay in the Gulf and the status of the respondents are also presented in the form of numbers and percentages.

The table presents information about the age distribution of emigrants, including the number of emigrants and the percentage of the total sample. The data is classified into age ranges: 21-30 years, 31-40 years, 41-50 years, and 50 years and above. The total number of emigrants in the sample is 150.

According to the table, most emigrants fall into the 21-30 age range, accounting for 60.66% of the total sample. The second most common age range is 31-40 years, with 24.67% of the sample falling into this category. Moreover, only 9.33% of the sample falls into the 41-50 age range, and the least common age range is 50 years and above, accounting for only 5.34% of the total sample.

Table 5.13 provides insights into the age distribution of emigrants, highlighting that many emigrants are in their 20s and 30s. This information can be helpful for policymakers and organisations working to support the financial needs of emigrants and develop targeted policies that address the challenges faced by different age groups.

Duration of Stay

The study of Gulf returnees' duration of their stay in Gulf countries will express the economic and social change in their lives. Table 5.14 explains the data on the years the respondents stayed in Gulf countries.

Table-5.14: Duration of the Stay in the Gulf

S. No	Duration of the Stay in the Gulf	Number of Returnees	Percentage
1	1 - 2 Years	11	7.33
2	2 - 4 Years	36	24.00
3	4 - 6 Years	58	38.67
4	6 Years and Above	45	30
	Total	150	100

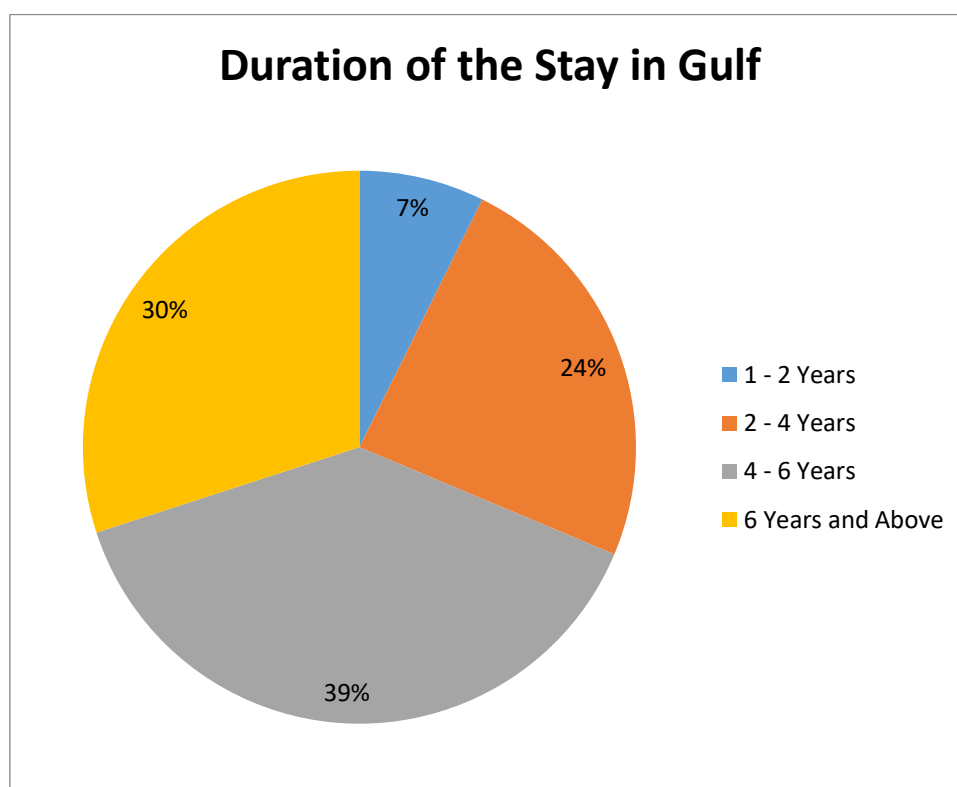
Source: Fieldwork conducted during 2019 - 2022

Table 5.14 presents data on the duration of stay in the Gulf region for a group of individuals who have returned from the Gulf. The table includes four categories of stay duration: 1-2 years, 2-4 years, 4-6 years, and six years and above. The table shows the number of returnees for each category of a duration of stay and the corresponding percentage of the total returnees.

According to the table, the largest group of returnees stayed in the Gulf region for 4-6 years, with 58 individuals representing 38.67% of the total returnees. The second-largest group stayed in the region for 2-4 years, with 36 individuals representing 24.00% of the total returnees. The smallest group stayed for 1-2 years, with only 11 individuals representing 7.33% of the total returnees. The data in the table shows that 45 individuals, or 30% of the total returnees, stayed in the Gulf region for six years or more.

The data in Table 5.15 provides valuable information for understanding the trends and patterns of labour migration in the Gulf region, specifically in terms of the length of stay of migrant workers. In addition, the data can be used for further analysis and policymaking related to labour migration and the protection of the rights of migrant workers.

Figure-5.8: Duration of the Stay in the Gulf



Source: Fieldwork conducted during 2019 - 2022

After examining the above chart, it can be observed that out of the 150 respondents in the selected area, 58 individuals, which accounts for 38.67 per cent, stayed in the Gulf for 4 to 6 years due to their financial conditions at work or home. Around 45 migrants, 30 per cent of the total respondents, stayed in the Gulf for more than six years due to satisfactory work and living conditions.

Thirty-six respondents, accounting for 24.00 per cent of the migrants, stayed for 2-4 years; finally, 11 respondents only stayed for 1 to 2 years. It is worth noting that the migrants who stayed briefly never wanted to return to the Gulf due to work pressure and climate. The largest group of returnees stayed in the Gulf for 4-6 years, with 58 individuals or 38.67% of the total. The second-largest group of returnees stayed for 2-4 years, with 36 individuals or 24.00% of the total. The third-largest group of returnees stayed for six years and above, with 45 individuals or 30% of the total. Finally, the smallest group of returnees stayed for 1-2 years, with 11 individuals or 7.33% of the total.

Countries of Destination

The data in Table 5.15 describes the destination countries of the Gulf to which the respondents migrated. There are six countries in GCC (Gulf Cooperation Council). The rules and regulations differ from one country to another in those six Gulf countries.

Table-5.15: Countries of Destination

S. No	Country of Migration	No. of Migrants	Percentage
1	United Arab Emirates (UAE)	54	36.00
2	Saudi Arabia	47	31.33
3	Oman	13	8.67
4	Kuwait	15	10.00
5	Bahrain	9	6.00
6	Qatar	12	8.00
	Total	150	100

Source: Fieldwork conducted during 2019 - 2022

The above-presented table outlines the reasons cited by returnees for choosing their destination, including all the significant factors that influenced their decision. Most respondents indicated that their relatives and friends were the primary reason for selecting a particular destination for their immigration. Additionally, they explained that factors such as better job satisfaction, cultural similarities with the place, the previous location of emigrants, and the low cost of travel played a role in their decision-making process.

Furthermore, the respondents believed they experienced benefits such as improved healthcare, a better lifestyle, and excellent safety and security prior to migration. Some respondents also mentioned lower tax rates and shorter distances as influencing factors. Among the 150 respondents, 54 migrants, which accounts for 36.00 per cent, expressed a desire to go to the United Arab Emirates (UAE), 47 respondents, which is 31.33 per cent, wanted to go to Saudi Arabia, 13 members, or 8.67 per cent, selected Oman as their destination. In contrast, 15

migrants, accounting for 10.0 per cent, chose Kuwait as their destination. Nine In addition, members 6.00 per cent, returned from Bahrain, and finally, 12 migrants, or 8.00 per cent, selected Qatar as their destination.

Regarding the working and living conditions in Gulf countries, the occupations of migrants vary and include driving, household service, nursing (both in homes and hospitals), cooking, electrician work, construction, and supermarket sales, as mentioned earlier. The following table illustrates the occupational status of returnees, which was collected from the selected area and presented in percentages.

Section - 4: Working and Living Conditions in Gulf Countries

Migrants' Occupation in Gulf Countries

The different occupations the respondents have performed in Gulf countries are encoded in Table 5.16.

Table-5.16: Name of the Occupation in the Gulf

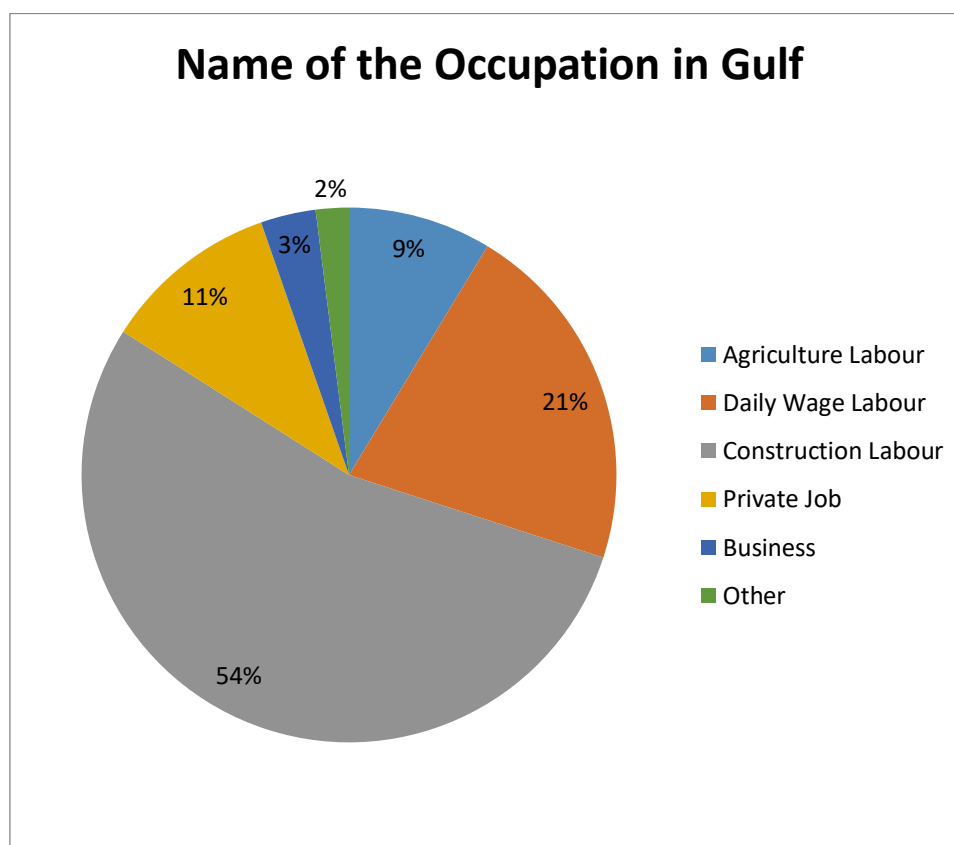
S. No	Name of the Occupation in the Gulf	Number of Returnees	Percentage
1	Agriculture Labour	13	8.66
2	Daily Wage Labour	32	21.34
3	Construction Labour	81	54.00
4	Private Job	16	10.66
5	Business	5	3.34
6	Other	3	2.00
	Total	150	100

Source: Fieldwork conducted during 2019 - 2022

According to Table 5.17, the largest group of returnees worked in the construction sector, with 81 individuals or 54.00% of the total. The second-largest group of returnees worked as daily wage labourers, with 32 individuals or 21.34% of the total. The third-largest group of returnees worked in private jobs, with 16 individuals or 10.66% of the total. The smallest group of

returnees worked in agriculture, with 13 individuals or 8.66% of the total. The business and other categories accounted for 3.34% and 2.00% of the total returnees, respectively. The data in Table 5.17 provides valuable information for understanding the occupations available for migrant workers in the Gulf region and the trends and patterns of labour migration in different sectors. In addition, the data can be used for further analysis and policymaking related to labour migration and the protection of the rights of migrant workers. The table also highlights the dominance of the construction sector in the Gulf region's labour market and the need to ensure decent working conditions and protection for construction workers.

Figure-5.9: Name of the occupation in the Gulf



Source: Fieldwork conducted during 2019 - 2022

The majority of migrant workers engaged in daily wage jobs due to their low literacy levels and lack of skills, which accounts for 32 respondents, or 21.34 per cent. Most rural area migrants choose construction work, with 54.00 per cent or around 81 respondents. Some have opted for private jobs in industries, accounting for 10.66 per cent. Those who previously worked in agriculture in India have selected agricultural work abroad, with 13 respondents, or

8.66 per cent. Business-related work is less prevalent, with only five members, or 3.34 per cent, choosing this type of work. Finally, only three migrants, or 2.00 per cent, went to the Gulf without particular proficiency out of the 150 respondents in the selected area.

Monthly Expenditure in Abroad

The researcher has paid attention to the monthly expenses and savings of migrants in their host country. Table 5.17 explains how much the respondents have spent for the different needs. The study of respondents' spending will enable the remittances of how much they can send to their families back in their hometowns.

Table-5.17: Distribution of Migrants by their Monthly Expenditure Abroad

S. No	Monthly Expenditure In Abroad	No. of Migrants	Percentage
1.	Up to 5000	41	27.33
2.	5000 - 10000	76	50.67
3.	10000 - 15000	23	15.33
4.	15000 - 20000	10	6.67
	Total	150	100

Source: Fieldwork conducted during 2019 - 2022

Among the 150 respondents, the monthly expenses of migrant workers in their host country were analysed. The results show that 76 respondents, accounting for 50.67%, spend between 5000 to 10000 rupees per month. Forty-one members, making up 27.33%, reported spending an unspecified amount as their monthly expenditure. Around 23 respondents, or 15.33%, spend between 10000 to 15000 rupees per month for their cost of living. Only ten members, equivalent to 6.67% of the migrants, spend 15000-20000 rupees per month based on their salary and savings. Table 5.17, the largest group of migrants spent between 5000-10000 monthly, with 76 individuals or 50.67% of the total. The second-largest group of migrants spent up to 5000 monthly, with 41 individuals or 27.33% of the total. Finally, the third and fourth largest

groups of migrants spent between 10000-15000 and 15000-20000 monthly, with 23 individuals or 15.33% of the total and ten individuals or 6.67%, respectively. Table 5.18 provides valuable information for understanding the expenditure patterns of migrants working abroad, which could be helpful for policymakers, employers, and migrant workers themselves to better manage their finances. For example, the data shows that most migrants spent between 5000 to 10000 monthly, which could indicate the level of remuneration and living standards in the sectors where they worked. The table also highlights the need for effective financial planning and budgeting for migrant workers to ensure that they can manage their expenses and send remittances to their families in their home countries.

Monthly Savings of Migrants in the Gulf

Table 5.18 shows the data related to the respondents saving for a month in Gulf countries. The study of savings will result in the economic development of the migrant family. In this scenario, the respondents' monthly study savings were recorded to understand the benefits of Gulf migration better.

Table -5.18: Distribution of Migrants by Monthly Savings in the Gulf

S. No	Monthly Savings in Gulf	No. of Migrants	Percentage
1	Up to 10000	14	9.33
2	10000-20000	37	24.67
3	20000-30000	52	34.66
4	30000-40000	29	19.34
5	40000 and above	18	12.00
	Total	150	100

Source: Fieldwork conducted during 2019 - 2022

The data presented above illustrates the savings of the migrant respondents in different categories. Approximately 34.66% of the respondents (52 people) saved between 20,000 and 30,000 rupees, while 24.67% (37 people) saved between 10,000 and 20,000 rupees. 19.34% (29 migrants) saved between 30,000 to 40,000 rupees, and 9.33% (14 members) saved up to 10,000 rupees. Finally, 12.00% (18 migrants) saved above 40,000 rupees. These variations in savings are based on their job, travel expenses, dinner expenses and accommodation expenses.

In the research, the returnee households were asked how they used the remittances they received from the emigrants during their time abroad. The respondents reported that they used the remittances for various purposes, and a list of possible categories of household expenditures was provided in the questionnaire. The respondents claimed that they all saved some amount of money out of the remittances. In addition, the study revealed that among the 150 returnees, buying durable goods was one of the ways they used remittances.

Remittance

The remittances from the Gulf are more than any other country than India. Therefore, the remittances migrants send data will explain the good wages which the migrants receive in Gulf countries. Table 5.19 shows the data related to the annual remittances which the migrant families received from the Gulf returnees.

Table-5.19: Annual Remittances to the Family

S. No	Annual Remittances to the Family	Number of Returnees	Percentage
1	Below 50000	5	3.34
2	50000 - 100000	39	26.00
3	100000 and Above	106	70.66
	Total	150	100

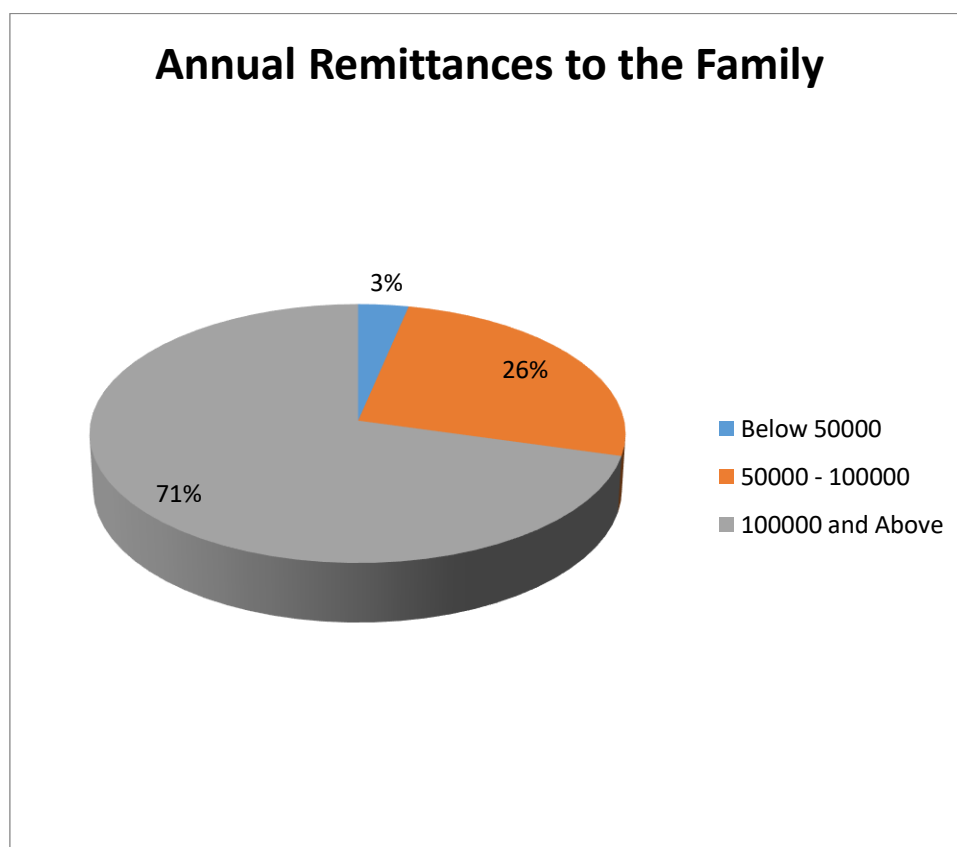
Source: Fieldwork conducted during 2019 - 2022

According to Table 5.19, 5 returnees, representing 3.34% of the total, send annual remittances to their families within the "Below 50000" income range. The second income range, "50000 -

100000", shows that 39 returnees, which represents 26.00% of the total, send annual remittances to their families in this category.

Most returnees, 106 or 70.66% of the total, fall under the "100000 and above" income range. Therefore, these 106 returnees send annual remittances to their families within this category. Finally, the table provides 150 returnees, representing 100% of the total returnees. This table helps to show the distribution of annual remittances sent by returnees to their families in each income range.

Figure 5.10: Annual Remittances to the Family



Source: Fieldwork conducted during 2019 - 2022

Figure 5.10 expresses the pictorial representation of the "Annual Remittances to the Family" by the returnees during their Gulf migration. Five of the 150 returnees remitted below 50000 annually, accounting for 3.34% of the total returnees. Thirty-nine returnees remitted between 50000 and 100000 annually, constituting 26.00%.

The remaining 106 returnees remitted 100000 and above annually, which accounts for 70.66% of the total. Figure 5.10 depicts the remittance patterns of returning family members, indicating that most send large sums of money back to their families.

Frequency of Sending Remittances

The data in Table 5.20 shows how frequently the migrant families receive remittances from the return migrants. The data in this table enables us to understand how frequently the salaries the migrant received in Gulf countries.

Table-5.20: Frequent Sending Remittances

S. No	Frequency of Sending Remittance	No. of emigrants	Percentage
1	Monthly	32	21.33
2	Once in two months	65	43.33
3	Once in three months	29	19.34
4	Once in more than three months	24	16.00
	Total	150	100

Source: Fieldwork conducted during 2019 - 2022

The table above shows the annual remittance status of the 150 respondents. Among them, 106 migrants (70.66%) send 100000 rupees per annum, while 39 respondents (26%) send 50000 to 100000 rupees. Five members (3.34%) send less than 50000, based on their living costs and job type. As for the frequency of sending remittances, 65 members (43.33%) send money to their families once every two months, 32 respondents (21.33%) send money every month to cover all basic needs, and 29 migrants (19.34%) send money irregularly.

According to the respondents, some migrants send their remittances to their families once every three months. In contrast, 24 Gulf returnees, accounting for 15.00 per cent, send their remittances once over three months. This information is included in the data. The researcher

also investigated several aspects related to the daily life and work management of the migrants, such as their working hours, weekly off, overtime facilities, annual vacation, flight tickets, leave salary, and availability of food and accommodation.

Working Hours

Table 5.21 describes the number of working hours in Gulf countries. It also elaborates on the working environment and working culture in Gulf countries.

Table -5.21: Distribution of Migrants in Terms of their working Hours

S. No	Working Hours	No. of emigrants	Percentage
1	8	45	30.00
2	8 - 12	76	50.66
3	12 and Above	29	19.34
	Total	150	100

Source: Fieldwork conducted during 2019 - 2022

The table 5.21 displays the distribution of emigrants based on their working hours. Forty-five emigrants worked for 8 hours, 30.00% of the total. In the 8 to 12 hours category, there were 76 emigrants, representing 50.66% of the total emigrants. For 12 hours or more, 29 emigrants were recorded, making up 19.34% of the total emigrants.

Data in the table gives a clear and concise overview of the number and percentage of emigrants in different working hour's categories. Approximately 76 migrants were surveyed; 50.66% work 8 to 12 hours daily. Forty-five respondents, or 30% of the total, work for 8 hours per day. On the other hand, around 29 respondents, or 19.34%, work an average of more than 12 hours daily. The reason for this long workday is due to a combination of factors, including illiteracy, job dependence, and agreements made between the company and the migrant prior to migration. In addition, the situation regarding weekly time off is also a concern.

Provision of Weekly Off

The working culture and environment practiced in Gulf countries can be known by the provisions of weekly off. The data in 5.22 expresses the weekly-off pattern and practices in the Gulf countries.

Table-5.22: Distribution of Weekly Off

S. No	Weekly Holidays	No: of Migrants	Percentage
1	1 Day	121	80.66
2	1.5 Days	16	10.67
3	2 Days	13	8.67
	Total	150	100.0

Source: Fieldwork conducted during 2019 - 2022

Among the 150 respondents who were surveyed, approximately 80.66% or 121 migrants, reported taking only one day off per week. About 10.67%, or 16 respondents, get one and a half days off weekly, while 8.67% or 13 members, reported getting two days off weekly. The number of days off mostly depends on the type of work they are doing and the company's regulations. In addition, many migrants prefer working overtime to address their financial difficulties.

According to Table 5.22, 121 migrants were given a one-day weekly holiday, representing 80.66% of the total number of migrants. Sixteen migrants were given 1.5 days of weekly holiday, accounting for 10.67% of the total migrants. Lastly, 13 migrants were given two days of weekly holiday, accounting for 8.67% of the total migrants. Table 5.22 displays the percentage of migrants given weekly holidays within each category relative to the total number of migrants included in the table. Table 5.23 provides a clear and concise representation of the distribution of migrants based on their weekly holidays.

Overtime Facilities

The overtime facilities are also available in Gulf countries. The pattern and structure of the overtime facility are explained in the below table. Table 5.23 shows the number of overtime hours respondents can get in the Gulf countries.

Table-5.23: Distribution of Migrants by the Availability of Overtime Facilities

S. No	Overtime	No. of emigrants	Percentage
1	NA	34	22.66
2	2hrs.	91	60.67
3	3hrs.	19	12.67
4	4hrs.	6	4.00
	Total	150	100

Source: Fieldwork conducted during 2019 - 2022

Around 91 migrants, accounting for 60.67% of the respondents, work an extra 2 hours every day as overtime to bridge the gap in their finances. About 12.67% or 19 members preferred working 3 hours of overtime either in a day or in a week, depending on their health condition. In addition, 4% of six respondents worked 4 hours a week. On the other hand, 34 migrants or 22.66%, reported having no opportunity to work extra hours.

According to Table 5.23, 34 emigrants did not work overtime, representing 22.66% of the total number of emigrants. Ninety-one emigrants worked 2 hours of overtime, accounting for 60.67% of the total emigrants. Furthermore, 19 emigrants worked 3 hours of overtime, accounting for 12.67% of the total emigrants. Lastly, only six emigrants worked 4 hours of overtime, accounting for 4% of the total emigrants. Table 5.23 displays the total number of respondents who have returned from Gulf countries. In addition, it displays the percentage of emigrants that worked overtime within each category relative to the total number of emigrants included in the table.

Annual Vacation

The data in Table 5.24 describes the facility of the annual vacation process in the Gulf countries.

Table-5.24: Distribution of Migrants by the Availability of Annual Vacation

S. No	Provision of Annual Vacation	No. of Migrants	Percentage
1	Yes	63	42.00
2	No	87	58.00
	Total	150	100

Source: Fieldwork conducted during 2019 - 2022

Regarding annual vacations, out of the 150 respondents, approximately 58% or 87 migrants reported having no opportunity for annual vacations due to the company's agreement. Therefore, the provision of holidays is mainly at the company's discretion, except for the weekly off. On the other hand, around 42% or 63 respondents reported having an annual vacation, which includes weekly off. It is worth noting that the salary for leave is critical for migrants. The table explains the details of medical leave and annual vacation, which are limited to specific days.

According to Table 5.24, 63 migrants were provided with annual vacation, representing 42.00% of the total number of migrants. On the other hand, 87 migrants were not provided with annual vacation, accounting for 58.00% of the total migrants. The table provides a clear and concise representation of the distribution of migrants based on whether they were provided with annual vacations.

Provision of Leave Salary

The statistics in Table 5.25 express allowances for migrant leave salary.

Table-5.25: Distribution of Migrants by the Availability of Leave Salary

S. No	Provision of Leave Salary	No. of Migrants	Percentage
1	Yes	96	64.00
2	No	54	36.00
	Total	150	100

Source: Fieldwork conducted during 2019 - 2022

Out of 150 respondents, approximately 96 individuals, representing 64.00 per cent, are entitled to a leave salary. Conversely, the remaining 54 migrants, comprising 36.00 per cent, do not have the opportunity to receive a salary during their leave. Additionally, on weekly or annual vacations, most migrants receive complimentary flight tickets for their travel home. Roughly 82 migrants, representing 54.66 per cent, take advantage of this to benefit from their employer's offer. The remaining 68 migrants, comprising 45.34 per cent, do not have access to this benefit and must bear their travel expenses.

Table 5.25 expresses that 64.00% (96 out of 150) of migrants received leave salaries, while 36.00% (54 out of 150) did not. It suggests that most of the migrants included in the study received leave salary as part of their employment benefits. The provision of leave salary is an essential factor in determining the benefits employers provide to their employees. Therefore, the findings of this study indicate that a significant proportion of the migrants included in the study are receiving good employment benefits. However, further research is needed to explore how much the provision of leave salary varies across different employers and industries.

Free Ticket Facility

The data in Table 5.26 explains the Availability of Free Tickets facility to the migrants.

Table-5.26: Distribution of Migrants by the Availability of Free Tickets

S. No	Provision of Free Air Ticket	No. of Migrants	Percentage
1	Yes	82	54.66
2	No	68	45.34
	Total	150	100

Source: Fieldwork conducted during 2019 - 2022

When it comes to investigating respondents' satisfaction, the majority expressed that, regardless of the quality of accommodation, they should approach the opportunity with a positive attitude to fulfil their economic needs. Out of the 150 respondents in the selected area, approximately 121 individuals, representing 80.66 per cent, reported that they did not receive accommodation and emphasised that they must choose their living arrangements based on their interests. However, the remaining respondents, approximately 29 people, comprising 19.34 per cent, obtained accommodations through the selected company based on their capabilities and usefulness. These respondents are content with both their work and the accommodations provided by the company.

It represents the distribution of migrants based on whether they were provided with a free air ticket. The findings of this study suggest that slightly more than half of the migrant workers were provided a free air ticket by their employers.

According to Table 5.26, out of the 150 migrants in the study, 82 (54.66%) received a free air ticket, while 68 (45.34%) did not. These findings suggest that many migrants did not receive a free air ticket, potentially impacting their overall migration experience. The findings could be valuable for employers to understand the needs and preferences of their employees and tailor their benefits packages accordingly.

Satisfaction about Accommodation

Table 5.27 explains the data related to the respondent's satisfaction with the accommodation they received in the Gulf countries.

Table-5.27: Satisfaction of Migrants with Accommodation

S. No	Satisfaction about Accommodation	No. of Migrants	Percentage
1	Yes	29	19.34
2	No	121	80.66
	Total	150	100

Source: Compiled from Field Study

While working for a particular job in a specific company, workers may receive benefits according to company regulations. The provision of medical care for migrants, for instance, depends entirely on the company. The table indicates that approximately 63 respondents, comprising 42.00 per cent, receive medical care at a concessional rate, while around 58 migrants, representing 38.66 per cent, receive benefits from the company. However, around 29 respondents, comprising 19.34 per cent, bear their expenses for medical care.

According to the table, out of the 150 migrants included in the study, only 29 (19.34%) reported being satisfied with their accommodation, while a significant majority of 121 (80.66%) expressed dissatisfaction with their housing arrangements. These findings suggest that the living conditions for a substantial number of migrants may not have met their expectations, which could potentially impact their overall job satisfaction and well-being.

The data presented in Table 5.27 is critical in understanding the factors affecting the overall satisfaction of migrant workers and could inform future research and policymaking on labour migration, housing, and employee benefits. The findings could also help employers identify

their employees' accommodation needs and preferences and provide better living conditions to attract and retain a skilled workforce.

Medical Care

The data in Table 5.28 describes the health services and medical care the respondents received in the Gulf countries.

Table-5.28: Medical Care

S. No	Availability of Medical Care	No. of Migrants	Percentage
1	Provided by Company	58	38.66
2	Concessional basis	63	42.00
3	Own expenses	29	19.34
	Total	150	100

Source: Fieldwork conducted during 2019 - 2022

Table 5.28 illustrates the availability of medical care among 150 migrants, categorised by the number of migrants and the percentage of medical care provided by different sources. The table indicates that out of the total sample, 58 migrants (equivalent to 38.66%) receive medical care through their respective companies, 63 migrants (which is equivalent to 42.00%) receive medical care on a concessional basis, and 29 migrants (or 19.34%) pay for their medical care on their expenses. The presented data can help to understand how migrants access medical care during their stay in Gulf countries.

The data in Table 5.28 shows that many migrants receive medical care through their employers or on a concessional basis. However, most migrants still have to pay for their medical expenses out of pocket. Therefore, the migrants spending their expenses from their pocket in Gulf countries will negatively affect their migration. These migrants migrated to yearn to consider money to bring out their families from the financial crisis's clutches.

Job Satisfaction

Table 5.29 expresses the data of respondents satisfied with the job they have performed in Gulf countries.

Table-5.29: Job Satisfaction

S. No	Job Satisfaction	No. of Migrants	Percentage
1	Yes	103	68.66
2	No	47	31.34
	Total	150	100

Source: Fieldwork conducted during 2019 - 2022

While pursuing making money, many experienced discomfort and disgust towards their work, while some of the respondents enjoyed what they were doing. As a result, the idea of job satisfaction emerged as a topic in the responses of migrants.

Out of the 150 respondents from the selected area, approximately 103, or 68.66%, reported being satisfied with their jobs as they fulfilled their economic needs. On the other hand, the remaining 47 migrants, or 31.34%, did not have job satisfaction due to various factors such as their willingness, education qualifications, and accommodation. It should be noted that since Nepal is a predominantly Hindu nation and the respondents sought work in Muslim countries in the Gulf, the researchers raised the point of potential discrimination. The table below illustrates this point.

The results show that most migrants, 103 (or 68.66% of the sample), reported being satisfied with their job, while 47 (or 31.34% of the sample) reported being dissatisfied. The data in Table 5.29 shows the job satisfaction levels of migrant workers in a given context, as it can impact their overall well-being, productivity, and retention. Furthermore, the research findings can

serve as a basis for future studies exploring the factors contributing to job satisfaction among migrant workers and identifying potential interventions to improve job satisfaction levels.

Discrimination in Terms of Nationality

Table 5.30 depicts the discrimination and hospitality facilities in Gulf countries basis on nationality in Gulf countries.

Table-5.30: Discrimination of Migrants Based on Nationality

S. No	Discrimination of Migration the Basis of Nationality	No. of Migrants	Percentage
1	Yes	56	37.33
2	No	94	62.67
	Total	150	100

Source: Fieldwork conducted during 2019 - 2022

Among the 150 respondents from Telangana, approximately 56 migrants, or 37.33%, they were reported experiencing discrimination, making them feel like outsiders despite working for the same company as their colleagues.

This issue is not limited to the company level, as it could potentially harm the relationship between Gulf countries and the rest of the world. On the other hand, around 94 migrants, or 62.67%, did not face any discrimination, as the companies they worked for had a standard of treating all employees equally. The table below provides a more detailed explanation of this phenomenon.

The overall findings suggest that there are two categories of migrants in every country: the "white-collar" skilled workers, such as engineers and teachers, and the "normal" migrants who come to work abroad for their economic needs, such as contract workers, supervisors, or daily wage workers. Even during their leisure time, the migrants needed to utilise their free time to save money for the low and semi-skilled workers.

Mode of Transferring Remittance

Technological advancement enabled the respondents to choose different money-transferring methods to send the remittances to their family members. Table 5.31 explains the different money-transferring methods the respondents used to send their remittances to family members back in their hometowns.

Table-5.31: Mode of Sent Remittances

S. No	Mode of sent Remittances	Number of Returnees	Percentage
1	Bank	92	61.33
2	Friends / Relatives	37	24.67
3	Middlemen	13	8.66
4	Other sources	8	5.34
	Total	150	100

Source: Fieldwork conducted during 2019 - 2022

Table 5.31 provides information on the mode of sending remittances among 150 returnees. The data is categorised by the number of returnees and the percentage of remittances sent through different sources, including banks, friends/relatives, mediators, and other sources.

The results show that the majority of returnees, 92 (or 61.33% of the sample), sent their remittances through banks, while 37 (or 24.67% of the sample) sent remittances through friends/relatives. A smaller proportion of returnees, 13 (or 8.66% of the sample), used mediators for sending remittances, and only 8 (or 5.34% of the sample) used other sources.

The data in the table expresses the preferred methods of sending remittances among returnees and can help identify potential strategies to make remittance transfers more accessible and affordable for migrants.

Spending Leisure Time

Spending leisure time explains what kind of life the respondents lived in the Gulf countries. The data in Table 5.32 describes how the respondents have spent their leisure time in Gulf countries.

Table-5.32: How the Migrants have spent their Leisure Time

S. No.	How the Leisure Time Spent	No. of Migrants	Percentage
1	Meeting Friends	28	18.66
2	Watching TV	23	15.34
3	Shopping	21	14.00
4	Browse the Internet	11	7.33
5	Resting	27	18.00
6	Watching TV and Socialising with Friends	21	14.00
7	Watching TV or Shopping	14	9.33
8	Sports and Games	5	3.34
	Total	150	100

Source: Fieldwork conducted during 2019 - 2022

Among the 150 respondents from the selected area working in Gulf countries, 28, or 18.66%, they were reported spending their free time meeting friends. Another 23 migrants, or 15.34%, said they watch TV in their limited space, which depends on their accommodation and work. Around 21 migrants, or 14.00%, reported spending their free time shopping, while 11 respondents, or 7.33%, used their free time to browse the internet. The rest of the migrants, around 27 members or 18%, spent their free time resting, which was common among educated and illiterate migrants. It is worth noting that some migrants, around 21 respondents or 14.00%, spent their free time watching TV and socialising with friends. In addition, 14 migrants, or 9.33%, reported spending their free time watching TV and shopping, while only five respondents, or 3.34%, said they spent their entire free time engaged in sports and games. These individuals could be educators or sports enthusiasts.

The main focus of the study was on remittances, and the migrants reported using various methods to send money back home. The majority, around 92 migrants or 61.33%, used banks, while 37 migrants or 24.67%, sent money through friends and relatives. A smaller percentage, around 8.66%, used mediators, and only eight migrants or 5.34%, used other sources to send their remittances. The table below provides more details on these findings.

Section - 5: Economic Impact on Migrants and Their Families

Migrants' Family Expenditure Before and after Migration

The expenditure of the migrant's family before and after the migration of respondents to Gulf countries defines the status and stability the migrant family acquired in the community. Table 5.33 explains the respondent's family expenditure data before and after migration.

Table-5.33: Monthly Expenditure of the Family before Migration

S. No	Monthly expenditure of the family before migration	Number of Returnees	Percentage
1	Below 10000	128	85.33
2	10000 – 20000	15	10.00
3	20000 and Above	7	4.67
	Total	150	100

Source: Fieldwork conducted during 2019 - 2022

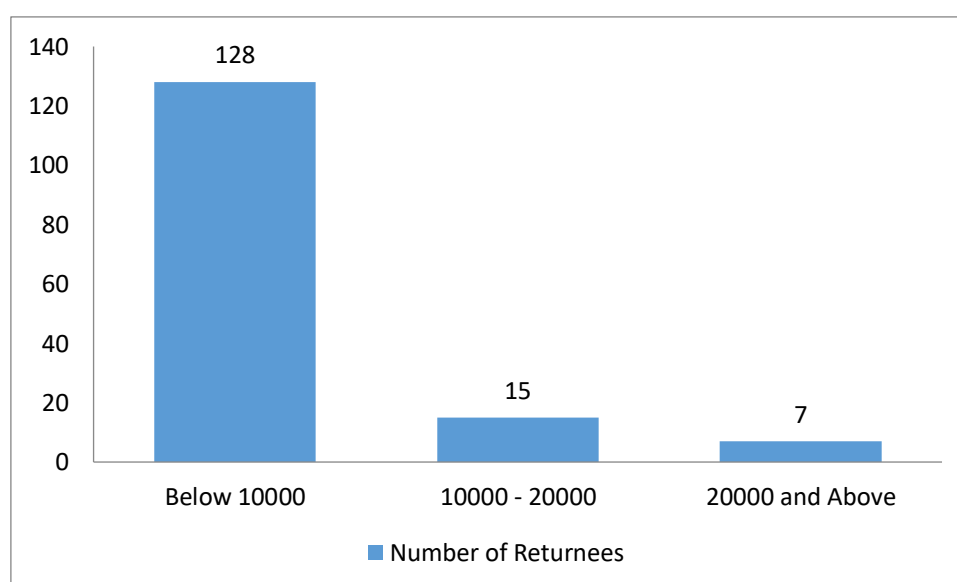
Living costs vary based on region, climate, nationality, and lifestyle. The economic impact of migration on the migrants and their families is reflected in the monthly expenditure of the family before they migrated, which is detailed below.

The table provides data on the family's monthly expenditure before migration among 150 returnees. The data is categorised by the number of returnees and the percentage of families that spent different amounts before migration, including below 10,000, between 10,000-

20,000, and above 20,000. The results show that most families, 128 (or 85.33% of the sample), spent less than 10,000 per month before migration.

In comparison, 15 (or 10.00% of the sample) spent between 10,000-20,000, and only 7 (or 4.67% of the sample) spent more than 20,000 from the data on the economic conditions of families before migration and the potential impact of migration on their economic well-being. The findings can help identify potential interventions to support families with lower pre-migration expenditures and reduce economic vulnerability among migrant families. Furthermore, the data can also serve as a basis for future research exploring the relationship between pre-migration expenditure and post-migration economic outcomes.

Figure-5.11: Monthly Expenditure of the Family before Migration.



Source: Fieldwork conducted during 2019 - 2022

Based on the feedback from Gulf returnees, the researcher aimed to understand the economic conditions of families in the selected area. Before migration, 128 migrants (85.33%) spent below 10000 per month, 15 migrants (10.00%) spent between 10000-20000 per month, and only seven migrants (4.67%) spent over 20000 per month, depending on their income. The researcher presented this data in a clear table and bar chart.

After migration, the monthly expenditure of the 150 respondents was analysed, revealing that 85 migrants (56.66%) spent between 10000-20000, 12 migrants (8.00%) spent below 10000,

and around 53 migrants (35.34%) spent above 20000 per month. This information is also presented in a table and bar chart below.

Table-5.34: Monthly Expenditure after Migration

S. No	Monthly expenditure of the family after migration	Number of Returnees	Percentage
1	Below 10000	12	8.00
2	10000 - 20000	85	56.66
3	20000 and Above	53	35.34
	Total	150	100

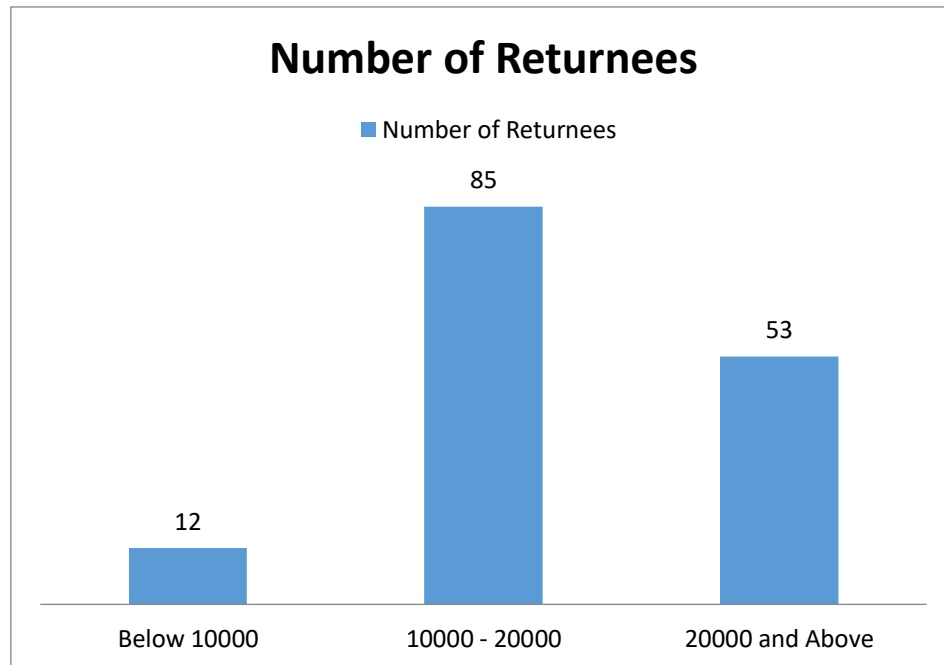
Source: Fieldwork conducted during 2019 - 2022

Table 5.34 displays the monthly expenditure of a family after migration, categorised by income range and the corresponding number of returnees in each category. The data is based on a sample of 150 individuals who have returned to their home country after migrating abroad.

The table includes information on the number of returnees in each expenditure range and the percentage that each range represents of the total number of, for example, there is. For example, the data shows that out of 150 returnees, 12 (or 8%) spent below 10000 per month, 85 (or 56.66%) spent between 10000 and 20000 per month, and 53 (or 35.34%) spent 20000 and above per month.

The data in Table 5.33 explains the financial situation of families after migration. After the migration, the spending habits and range of change indicate the economic impact of migration on the households.

Figure-5.12 Monthly Expenditure after Migration



Source: Fieldwork conducted during 2019 - 2022

Figure 5.12 indicates that there is a drastic economic improvement in the families of migrants. By comparing Figures 5.11 and 5.12, we can understand the remarkable changes in the families of migrants after the migration. The spending capacity of the families before migration is below 10000 is by, 128 families among the 150 families. However, it came down to 12 families from the 128 families. It indicates and is evident that migration has changed families.

The migration has provided financial freedom and financial sustainability to most families who have opted to migrate to Gulf countries. Moreover, at the same time, there are 12 families still spending below 10000. It also indicates that their families are mostly the same even after the migration. Therefore, the researcher looks at the study from the economic development perspective. In this regard, most respondents have benefited from the migration, and their economic status has also improved.

Possession of Consumer Durables

The possession of consumer durables depicts the changes in the Gulf returnees' development and the benefits of the Gulf migration. Table 5.35 and 5.36 expresses the information about the consumer durables that the return migrant possessed before and after migration.

Table-5.35: Distribution of migrants by possession of consumer durables before migration

S. No	Consumer Durables Possessed by Migrants Before Migration	No. of the Respondents		Total
		Yes	No	
1	TV	144	6	150
2	Computer	24	156	150
3	Refrigerator	31	119	150
4	Two Wheeler	76	74	150
5	Smart Phone	121	29	150
6	Washing Machine	17	133	150
7	Oven	7	143	150
	Car	5	145	150

Source: Fieldwork conducted during 2019 - 2022

Table 5.35, "Consumer Durables Possessed by Migrants before Migration", represents the possession of various consumer durables by migrants before they migrated. The data is categorised based on the type of consumer durable and the number of respondents who possessed it before migration. The consumer durables listed in the table are TV, computer, refrigerator, two-wheeler, smartphones, washing machines, ovens, and cars. Of the 150 respondents, 144 (96%) owned a TV, while only 6 (4%) did not. Similarly, 76 respondents (50.67%) owned a two-wheeler, while the remaining 74 (49.33%) did not.

The possession of a computer was lower than other items, with only 24 respondents (16%) owning it before migration, while 156 respondents (104%) did not. Finally, possessing a car and an oven was the lowest, with only five respondents (3.33%) owning a car and only seven (4.67%) owning an oven before migration.

This data provides insights into the possession of consumer durables by migrants before migration and can be used to understand the consumption patterns and economic status of the migrant population.

Table-5.36: Distribution of migrants by possession of consumer durables after migration

Consumer Durables Possessed by Migrants After Migration	No. of the Respondents		Total
	Yes	No	
TV	150	0	150
Computer	54	96	150
Refrigerator	137	13	150
Two Wheeler	132	18	150
Smart Phone	141	19	150
Washing Machine	81	69	150
Oven	51	99	150
Car	37	113	150

Source: Compiled from the field study.

Table 5.36 represents the consumer durables possessed by migrants after migration. Out of the respondents, all 150 had a TV, indicating that owning a television is widespread among the surveyed migrants. Similarly, most respondents owned a smartphone, with 141 respondents reporting owning one. On the other hand, car ownership was less common, with only 37 respondents reporting owning one. The ownership of a computer, refrigerator, two-wheeler,

and washing machine was more balanced, with a relatively equal number of respondents reporting owning them or not.

As a result of improved economic conditions and quality of life, those who returned from the Gulf without their essential assets opted for alternative assets to fulfil their desires, while those who already had assets bought additional items such as TVs, computers, refrigerators, motorcycles, smartphones, washing machines, ovens, and cars using their funds. Furthermore, during interviews with researchers, returnees displayed their assets to demonstrate how they have benefited from new economic opportunities in the Gulf.

Value of Goods Brought Home By Migrants

Table 5.37 explains the value of the goods and items which the migrants have brought while coming back to their hometowns.

Table-5.37: Value of Goods Brought Home by Migrants

S. No	Value of Goods (Rs.)	No. of Migrants	Percentage
1	Up to 50000	64	42.66
2	50000 - 100000	42	28.00
3	100000 - 150000	44	29.34
	Total	150	100

Source: Fieldwork conducted during 2019 - 2022

Upon returning to their homeland, migrants utilised their funds to purchase various assets based on their economic status. Among the 150 respondents surveyed, approximately 64 migrants, or 42.66 per cent, spent up to 50,000 on assets, while around 42 respondents, or 28.00 per cent, spent between 50,000 and 100,000. Additionally, 44 migrants, or 29.34 per cent, spend money on assets ranging from 100,000 to 150,000.

Land Holdings of Migrants.

The land holding of the respondents explains the need and necessity of the respondents migrating to Gulf countries for better wages and employment opportunities.

Table-5.38: Distribution of Migrants by Landholding Before and After Migration

S. No	Size of the Land	Before Migration	Percentage	After Migration	Percentage
1	No Land	86	57.33	54	36.00
2	Up to 1 Acre	27	18.00	36	24.00
3	1 Acre – 3 Acre	24	16.00	32	21.33
4	3 Acre and Above	13	8.67	28	18.67
	Total	150	100	150	100

Source: Fieldwork conducted during 2019 - 2022

After returning from the Gulf, respondents invested money in purchasing land as their permanent property. However, approximately 86 respondents, or 57.33 per cent, did not own land before migration.

Upon returning, approximately 54 migrants (36.00%) did not prioritise purchasing land due to economic difficulties. As a result, about 27 migrants (18.00%) owned up to 1 acre of land, while approximately 36 migrants (24.00%) acquired land. After migration, around 24 respondents (16.00%) had between 1 to 3 acres of land, while about 32 respondents (21.33%) increased their land ownership. Among those who owned more than 3 acres of land before migration, approximately 13 migrants (8.67%) attempted to acquire more land for permanent settlement. Additionally, about 28 migrants (18.67%) acquired over 3 acres of land after migration.

Table 5.38 represents the size of land owned by migrants before and after migration. In addition, the table includes the percentage of respondents who owned a particular land size

before and after migration. The total number of respondents surveyed in both instances was 150.

Table 5.37 shows that many migrants did not own any land before migration, with 86 respondents reporting no land ownership. After migration, this number decreased to 54, indicating that a sizeable number of migrants managed to acquire land after migration. Before migration, 27 respondents reported owning land up to 1 acre, which increased to 36 after migration. Similarly, 24 respondents owned between 1 and 3 acres before migration, which increased to 32 after migration.

Interestingly, the percentage of respondents who owned more than 3 acres of land before migration was relatively low at 8.67%. However, this percentage increased to 18.67% after migration, indicating that many migrants acquired more land after migration. The data in Table 5.39 indicates that land ownership increased among migrants after migration. However, it also highlights that some migrants owned the land before migration, indicating that they may have migrated for other reasons, such as seeking better job opportunities.

House Ownership

The ownership of the house explains the safety and dignity of the respondents. The data in Table 5.39 explains the 'house ownership' of the respondents.

Table-5.39: Distribution of Migrants by House Ownership

S. No	House Ownership	No. of Migrants	Percentage
1	Own	126	84.00
2	Rent	24	16.00
	Total	150	100

Source: Fieldwork conducted during 2019 - 2022

Table 5.38 represents the house ownership status of migrants, including the number of migrants and the percentage of migrants who either own or rent their houses. The total number of return migrant respondents was 150. The table shows that most migrants, accounting for 84%, own their houses. Moreover, it suggests that a substantial number of migrants have acquired the property acquired property through purchase or inheritance.

On the other hand, the percentage of migrants who rent their houses is relatively low, at 16%. It indicates that most migrants prefer to own their house rather than rent, possibly due to the long-term financial benefits of owning a property. Table 5.40 shows that most migrants are house owners, which suggests that they have been able to establish permanent residence in their native places. It is an essential aspect for the migrants and their families in the safety and security concerns.

Type of Migrant Houses before and after Migration

Table 5.40 explains the respondents' information on which type of house they lived in before and after migration.

Table-5.40: Type of migrant's Housing conditions before migration and after migration

S. No	Type of House	Before migration		After migration	
		No. of Migrants	Percentage	No. of Migrants	Percentage
1	Thatched	48	32.00	22	14.66
2	Tiled	60	40.00	33	22.00
3	Concrete Roof	42	28.00	95	63.34
	Total	150	100	150	100

Source: Fieldwork conducted during 2019 - 2022

Table 5.40 presents the type of house that migrants lived in before and after migration, including the number of migrants and the percentage of migrants who lived in a particular type of house. A total number of 150 respondent return migrants were surveyed before and after migration.

The table reveals that before migration, the majority of migrants lived in either a thatched or tiled house. Specifically, 48 migrants (32%) lived in a thatched house, while 60 migrants (40%) lived in a tiled house. On the other hand, 42 migrants (28%) lived in a house with a concrete roof.

After migration, there was a significant shift in the type of houses that migrants lived in, with most migrants living in a house with a concrete roofs. Specifically, 95 migrants (63.34%) lived in a house with a concrete roof after migration. In contrast, the percentage of migrants who lived in a thatched house decreased to 14.66%, while the percentage of migrants living in a tiled house increased to 22%.

The significant shift towards concrete roofs could be due to the migrants' improved economic conditions, allowing them to upgrade their living standards. A house with a concrete roof is generally more durable, safer, and better insulated than a thatched or tiled house. The data in Table 5.40 prove a significant change in the type of house migrants lived in before and after migration. The shift towards concrete roofs suggests an improvement in migrants' living conditions and highlights the benefits of migration.

Housing Facilities

Tables 5.41 and 5.42 show the information related to the housing facilities the respondents availed of before and after the Gulf migration.

Table-5.41: Distribution of Migrants by the Facilities in their Houses before Migration

Facilities in House Before	No. of Respondents		Total
	Yes	No	
Electrification	150	0	150
Toilet	121	29	150
LPG	94	56	150
Phone	58	92	150

Source: Fieldwork conducted during 2019 - 2022

Table-5.42: Distribution of Migrants by the Facilities in their Houses after Migration

Facilities in House after Migration	No. of Respondents		Total
	Yes	No	
Electrification	150	0	150
Toilet	141	9	150
LPG	145	5	150
Phone	138	12	150

Source: Fieldwork conducted during 2019 - 2022

Tables 5.41 and 5.42 expresses the Distribution of Migrants by the Facilities in their Houses before and after the migration. The facilities which the return migrants had before the migration and after the migration are facilities they are enjoying noted in the above tables. With the help of financial freedom and financial stability can enjoy more facilities. The data in the diagram expresses that most of the respondents benefited from the migration in their lives. Regarding the migrants' housing patterns in their region, approximately 126 migrants (84.00%) owned houses in their locality, while around 24 migrants (16.00%) resided in rental houses. However,

before going to Gulf nations, out of 150 respondents, approximately 48 migrants (32.00%) lived in thatched houses, 60 migrants (40.00%) owned or rented houses with tiles, and around 42 respondents (28.00%) resided under concrete roof houses. After their return, there has been a significant change in their living conditions.

Around 22 migrants (14.66%) currently live under thatched houses, 33 migrants (22.00%) reside in houses with tiles, and most fulfilled their desire to live under concrete roofs by investing in housing facilities. As a result, approximately 95 migrants (63.34%) now live under concrete roofs. All 150 respondents had access to electricity before migration. However, approximately 121 migrants did not have access to toilets and resorted to open defecation, while 29 respondents had their toilets. About 94 migrants did not have LPG connections, while 56 respondents had access to LPG. Only around 58 migrants owned phones, while 92 respondents did not have phones. After migration, almost all 150 respondents had access to electricity, and around 141 respondents had built toilets in their homes, with only nine out of 150 respondents needing this facility. In addition, approximately 145 migrants had acquired LPG connections, while only five migrants did not have them. Finally, 138 respondents had mobile phones after migration, and only 12 migrants still did not have phones.

Impact on the Skill of Migrants

Table 5.43 explains the skills the migrants acquired during their stay in Gulf countries.

Table-5.43: Improvements Because of Migration

S. No	In what way has migration improved your skill	Number of Returnees	Percentage
1	Experience	45	30.00
2	Technical Knowledge	98	65.33
3	Knowing of other Languages	7	4.67
	Total	150	100

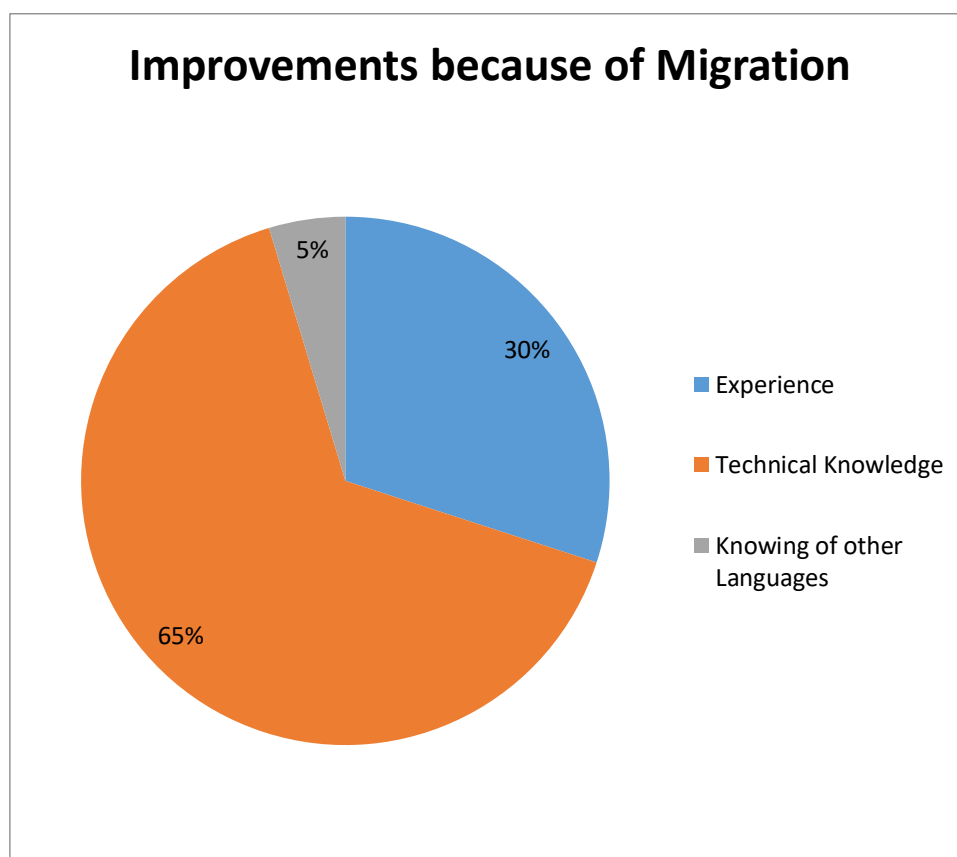
Source: Fieldwork conducted during 2019 - 2022

Table 5.43 represents a study conducted to assess how migration has improved the skills of individuals who have returned to their home country. The data in the table shows the number of returnees who reported improvements in three areas: experience, technical knowledge, and knowledge of other languages.

Out of 150 returnees surveyed, 45 individuals reported that migration had improved their overall experience, representing 30% of the total sample. Meanwhile, most returnees (98 individuals, or 65.33% of the total sample) reported that their migration experience had improved their technical knowledge.

A smaller number of returnees (7 individuals, or 4.67% of the total sample) reported that their migration experience had improved their knowledge of other languages. The data in Table 5.43 suggest migration can positively impact individuals' skills and knowledge, particularly in technical expertise and overall experience.

Figure -5.13: Improvements because of Migration



Source: Fieldwork conducted during 2019 - 2022

Based on the information in the table and bar charts, it can be inferred that 45 migrants (30% of the total respondents) relied solely on their skills and experience gained from migration. Most respondents (98 or 65.33%) became professionals in technical fields due to their migration experience, while seven migrants (4.67%) learned other languages to gain knowledge and experience. Of the experienced migrants, 43 (28.66%) saved their money to buy land, and 47 respondents (31.34%) intended to build a new home.

Around 42 migrants (28%) saved money for household needs, such as marriage and other functions, while 15 respondents (10.00%) planned to start a new business with their savings. Only three migrants (2.00%) saved money to increase their bank balance. A detailed table and pie chart have been created to depict the above description.

Preference for Keeping Migrant's Savings

The data in Table 5.44 explains the respondent's preferences and plans to spend their savings because of the Gulf migration.

Table-5.44: Preference for Keeping Migrants Savings

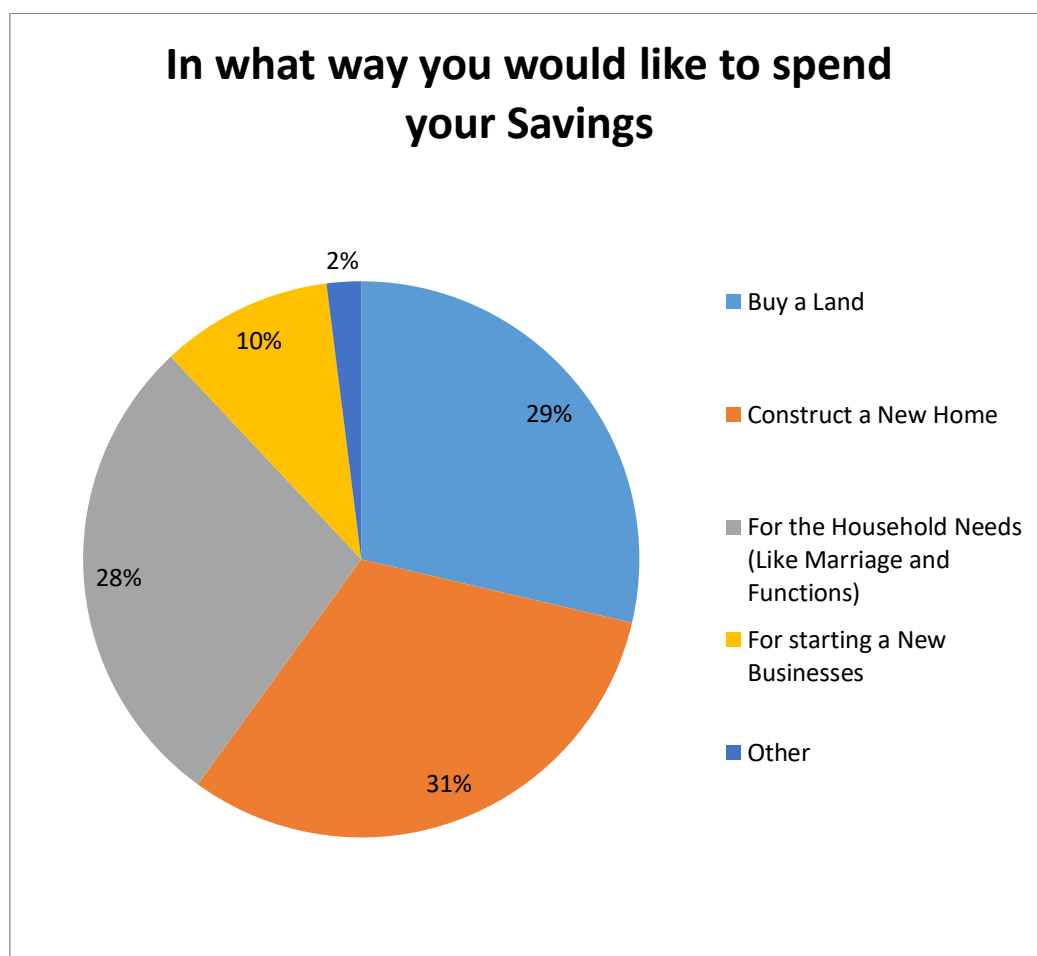
S. No	In what way would you like to spend your savings	Number of Returnees	Percentage
1	Buy a Land	43	28.66
2	Construct a New Home	47	31.34
3	For the Household Needs (Like Marriage and Functions)	42	28.00
4	For starting a New Business	15	10.00
5	Other	3	2.00
	Total	150	100

Source: Fieldwork conducted during 2019 - 2022

Table 5.44 summarises the results of the "In what way would you like to spend your savings" by the respondents in the study. The researcher surveyed to identify the various reasons people invest money. The survey targeted 150 participants who were asked to select the primary reason for their investment from a list of options.

The table shows that a significant number of participants (31.34%) invested their money to construct a new home, while 28.66% invested in buying land. Another 28% of participants invested their money in household needs such as marriage and functions. A smaller percentage of participants (10%) invested in starting a new business, while only 2% invested in other reasons not listed in the options.

Figure-5.14: In what way you like to Spend Your Savings



Source: Fieldwork conducted during 2019 - 2022

The pictorial data in Figure 5.14 expresses that investing money for real estate purposes, such as buying land or constructing a new home, is a popular investment choice among the participants. It is likely due to the perceived security and stability of investing in tangible assets like property. Additionally, investing for household needs highlights the importance of family and social obligations in financial decision-making. The small percentage of participants who invested in starting a new business may indicate the perceived risks and uncertainties associated with entrepreneurial ventures. The study's results highlight the various reasons people invest their money and emphasise the need to understand individual motivations and goals when making investment decisions.

Aspiration of Migrants Regarding Education

The respondents migrated to Gulf countries for financial development and social change. The data in Table 5.45 expresses the views and interests of the respondents towards their children.

Table-5.45: Aspirations of Migrants by the Type of Education for Their Children

Aspirations of Migrants for the Type of Education of Their Children	No. of Migrants	Percentage
Professional Courses	79	52.66
Degree	45	30.00
Up to Intermediate	11	7.34
Whatever they Like	15	10.00
Total	150	100

Source: Fieldwork conducted during 2019 - 2022

Table 5.45 represents the aspirations of migrants for their children's education. The table indicates that most migrants (52.66%) aspired for their children to pursue professional courses. Similarly, 30% of respondents wanted their children to pursue a degree. However, only a tiny percentage of respondents (7.34%) aspired for their children to pursue the same level of education. Interestingly 10% of respondents aspired for their children to pursue education in whatever they like. The findings of this study indicate that there is an intense desire among migrants to provide their children with the best possible education, which is often reflected in their aspirations for their children's education. The study also highlights the importance of education as a means of upward mobility for migrant families.

Reasons for Preference of a Type of Education

The respondents have migrated to Gulf countries due to a need for more education. In this scenario, migrants showed great interest and wished to provide a better education for their children. The data in Table 5.46 expresses the data related to the respondent's reasons for the preference for higher education for their children.

Table-5.46: Reasons for preference of a type of education and distribution of migrants by their reasons for the preference for education

Reasons for Preference	No. of Migrants	Percentage
Permanent employment	16	10.67
High income	31	20.67
Being girl child	13	8.66
Good future	47	31.34
Low cost	19	12.66
Good salary with job security	15	10.00
Getting employment in India	9	6.00
Total	150	100

Source: Fieldwork conducted during 2019 - 2022

The reasons for migration varied, including seeking a better livelihood, education for their children, and settling down. Most migrants, around 79 out of 150 respondents or 52.66%, wanted their children to pursue higher education. Of these, 45 migrants or 30.00%, wanted their children to obtain a degree, 11 respondents or 7.34%, said up to +2, and 15 migrants or 10.00%, wanted their children to pursue whatever they liked. Sixteen migrants, or 10.67%, wanted their children to study to obtain permanent employment, and around 31 respondents or 20.67%, hoped for high income for their children. Other reasons for migration included having a girl child, low cost, good salary with job security, and obtaining employment in India. Most migrants went abroad for economic reasons, such as to provide their children with better educational opportunities.

Overall, the occupation of the migrant respondents' families changed after migration. Of 150 respondents, 139 migrants (92.66%) agreed that their occupation changed after migration, while 11 migrants (7.34%) reported no change. The details of the changes in their occupation are described in the table and pie chart below.

Economic Status of Migrants after Migration

There was a considerable change in the migrant's lives after the Gulf migration. The data in Table 5.47 expresses the economic freedom and financial improvement of the Gulf migrants because of the migration.

Table-5.47: Change of Family Occupation after Migration

Is there any change in your family's occupation after your migration	Number of Returnees	Percentage
Yes	139	92.66
No	11	7.34
Total	150	100

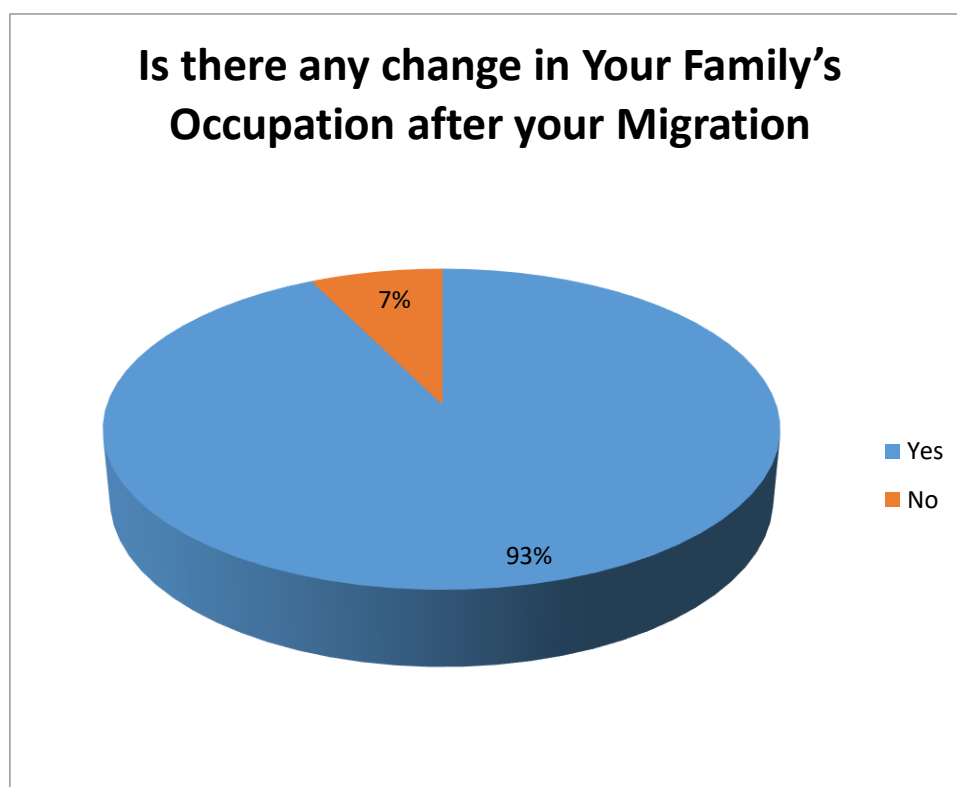
Source: Fieldwork conducted during 2019 - 2022

Table 5.47 shows that a significant proportion of returnees (92.66%) experienced a change in their family's occupation after migration, while only a tiny percentage (7.34%) did not experience any change. It suggests that migration can have a significant impact on the occupational mobility of migrant families, potentially leading to a change in their social and economic status.

The findings of this study have important implications to ensure adequate support systems are in place to help migrants and their families navigate the challenges of adapting to new occupations and work environments in Gulf countries. In addition, employers and educators must also be aware of the challenges migrant workers and their families may face in accessing employment opportunities in Gulf countries.

The present study highlights the importance of understanding the impact of migration on the occupational mobility of migrant families and the need to develop policies and programs that support their social and economic integration into their new communities.

Figure-5.15: Change of Family Occupation after Migration



Source: Fieldwork conducted during 2019 - 2022

Figure 5.15 indicates that most respondents (93%) reported a change in their family's occupation after migration. It suggests that migration often results in a significant shift in the economic and occupational landscape of migrant families. Some factors that may contribute to this change include access to better job opportunities, a higher income, and a more favourable economic climate in the host country. The remaining 7.34% of respondents reported no change in their family's occupation after migration. It may be attributed to various factors as the nature of the migrant's job or the economic conditions in the host country.

Table-5.48: Improvement of Economic Status

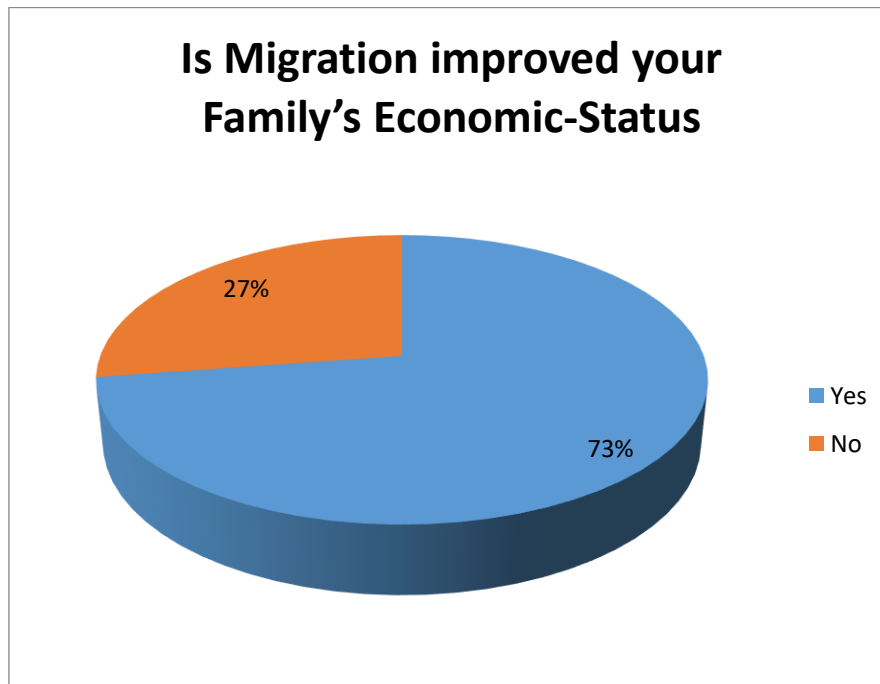
Has migration improved your family's Economic-status	Number of Returnees	Percentage
Yes	109	72.66
No	41	27.34
Total	150	100

Source: Fieldwork conducted during 2019 - 2022

The data in Table 5.48 expresses that migrants have improved their economic status after migration. Most respondents (72.66%) reported that migration had improved their family's economic status. It could be attributed to better job opportunities, higher income, improved access to education, and improved living standards in the host country. These factors could have a positive impact on the economic well-being of migrant families.

On the other hand, 27.34% of the respondents reported that migration did not improve their family's economic status. It may be due to various reasons such as language barriers, difficulties finding a job, lack of social support, or high cost of living in the host country.

Figure-5.16: Improvement of Economic Status



Source: Fieldwork conducted during 2019 - 2022

According to Table 5.47 and diagram 5.16, it can be inferred that out of the 150 respondents, 109 migrants, comprising 72.66 per cent of the total, acknowledged an improvement in their economic status through a new livelihood that offered high salaries. However, 41 migrants, accounting for 27.34 per cent, did not experience any change in their economic status even after returning to their homeland. Further information on the reasons for their return will be discussed in subsequent sections.

These findings indicate that migration can have a significant impact on the economic status of migrant families. Governments and policymakers need to recognise this impact and develop policies that can support the economic integration of migrants into the host country. It could include programs that provide access to education, training, and job opportunities to migrant families, as well as measures to address social and economic challenges faced by migrants. The findings of this study can be helpful for policymakers and researchers to understand the complex relationship between migration and economic status.

Section - 6: Causative Factors of Gulf Returned Emigrants from Telangana

The main focus of this research was to investigate the social and economic challenges faced by individuals who migrated from Telangana to Gulf countries and later returned. In addition, the study aimed to identify the factors that contributed to these difficulties. Telangana has witnessed many skilled workers leaving for Gulf countries for higher wages and social status than what is available in their home state. These workers have occupied various positions, including drivers, nurses, shopkeepers, domestic workers, construction workers, cooks, electricians, supervisors, salespeople, technicians, and daily labourers. The reasons behind the workers' decision to migrate from their homeland to Gulf countries include both push and pull factors. The study involved interviews with returnees, who cited several motivating factors, such as low wages, contract expiration, nationalisation, poor working conditions, family issues, bad weather, harsh employer treatment, and health problems.

Migrants who have returned from Gulf countries face various challenges and difficulties due to multiple factors. These may need help finding a stable source of income to cover their ongoing expenses, leading to debt accumulation. Moreover, investing in unfamiliar businesses that incur losses and fulfilling financial obligations such as education, marriage, and unexpected health issues for their families' further adds to the vulnerability of these migrants upon returning to their home state. In addition, gulf returnees in Telangana encounter challenges such as lack of income, unexpected expenses, social and financial isolation, lack of social respect, and absence of government support due to a lack of awareness and sensitisation. According to the respondents, the earning family member always maintains dignity and status in the family and society. Losing this status by becoming a Gulf returnee can result in a lack of social respect from their family and society. However, some returned migrants may face similar difficulties while working in Gulf countries.

Migrants can save money that they may not have been able to save in their home countries due to low wages and high unemployment. They also bring their saved money and remit money back home. This saved money can be used for different purposes, such as buying assets, paying off loans, investing in businesses, and consumption. While working abroad, migrants also acquire new skills and knowledge, which enhance their human capital. These skilled migrants can contribute to a country's GDP in various ways upon their return as they can bring capital, technology, and entrepreneurial skills, leading to economic development.

Commonly, the money sent back by migrants is used for various purposes, such as building or refurbishing houses, purchasing land, and even for conspicuous consumption, such as buying gifts and celebrating festivals, weddings, and other ceremonies to improve social status.

Section - 7: Summing Up

In summary, this study aimed to explore the challenges Gulf returnees face in Telangana and their experiences in improving their economic status. The research found that migrants of all ages, religions, and education levels were motivated to migrate for better social and economic conditions. The study was divided into several sections, including the demographic profile of the respondents, social-economic conditions, and field findings, which identified the contemporary factors impacting migrants' social-economic status. The study concludes by suggesting that government policies and schemes should be implemented to support and improve the livelihoods of migrants.

Chapter - 6

Conclusion

The conclusion is a significant task because it summarises the various research objectives to generate new perspectives on a selected topic of migration and socio-economic development. The study highlights benefits and problems faced by Gulf returnees in Telangana because of the migration. The return migrants have acquired skills during their employment overseas, many opt for self-employment in agriculture, business, or transportation or stay home. While the United Arab Emirates (UAE) has become a more attractive destination for Indian workers compared to Saudi Arabia, the latter remains a popular destination for workers in the sample districts of Telangana, indicating a "cumulative causation" effect in Indo-Gulf labour migration. The decision to move is also affected by the "bandwagon effect" and "network externality." Migrant networks are a big reason why people keep moving to Gulf countries. Other essential factors that drive migrants to return are homesickness and contract expiration. If working conditions and labour rights improve in Gulf countries, migrants may extend their contract to work in Gulf countries. The money that migrants send home is used for investments and spending, which stimulates the economy through "multiplier effects." However, the motivation behind remittance behaviour is a mix of self-interest and altruism.

The research findings suggest that migrants and their families have witnessed a considerable enhancement in their quality of life, with access to better housing and other amenities. However, the migrants spend most of their money on things like clothes, entertainment, and other things they want. Even though there has been a noticeable rise in the amount of migrants' savings invested in assets, they are still not very involved in productive sectors. Also, the study showed that most migrants do not know about the welfare associations that are available to them. Because of this, they do not use the benefits the government offers through these organisations.

Analysing migration patterns from Telugu-speaking states provides valuable insights into the movement of migrants. As global demands have evolved, so have migration patterns from India. At first, highly skilled IT workers moved to developed countries like the United States, the United Kingdom, Canada, and Australia. Nevertheless, many less educated, unskilled, and semi-skilled workers from southern states like Andhra Pradesh, Telangana, and Kerala move

yearly to different places in the Gulf. It makes the Gulf the most popular place for Indian workers to go. Unemployment, a lack of progress in agriculture, insufficient support from state-level institutions for the growth of the economy's secondary and tertiary sectors, and demographic growth leading to labour surpluses are the primary drivers of emigration. Ultimately, the decision to migrate is driven by a desire for a better life and better livelihood opportunities. The study shows many people leave Telangana, dramatically hurting the state's economy. Therefore, a comprehensive study of emigration is necessary to understand better its role in the socio-economic lives of households in these states.

The Gulf States follow the strict rules of Sharia Law, as they are Islamic nations. The government takes active measures to protect employees' rights against any violations by their employers. There have been instances where employers and guarantors conducted inhumane activities within the holy lands without the knowledge of the respective governments, which is against human decency, morality, and Sharia law. However, no Arab country permits such practices by employers. Despite some challenges workers face in the Gulf States, it is still considered a paradise on earth for Indian workers. Difficulties and problems are ubiquitous worldwide and do not necessarily mean that one should quit their job.

The workers from India are valuable assets for their home country and the Gulf nations. These workers work for the Gulf nations, and India gains from the money that the migrants send back home. The Gulf countries are one of the primary sources of remittances for India. Moreover, there is a rise in the number of Indian professionals and managers in the Gulf countries, contributing to their economic growth and status. The Indian migrants can positively impact the bilateral relations between India and the Gulf countries in various areas, such as trade, investment, and energy cooperation. They can also act as a valuable resource as India progresses towards development.

The study initially focused on specific districts in the Telangana state, namely Nizamabad, Hyderabad, Karimnagar, Rajanna Sircilla, Adilabad, Jagtial, Nirmal, and Kamareddy. The sample consisted of 150 households from the selected areas. The first chapter of the study provided an introduction to the existing literature on migrants, their livelihoods, and the problems they face before and after migration in the state and the entire country. It was done before proceeding with a detailed analysis of each chapter. This chapter overviews the literature and lists the questions and goals discussed in later chapters. In addition to this, the introduction

chapter provides appropriate outputs. The study's conceptual framework talks about different parts of a migration, such as how hard it is to make a living, what migration is, what kinds of migration there are, and its effects. It also talks about immigration and emigration, migration patterns, migration streams, and factors that affect migration. The socio-economic conditions of migrant people are also discussed. Finally, the statement of the problem and the study's methodology is presented, including the design of the study area, the target population, the methods used for data collection and analysis, and the status of the sample size.

In the second chapter, "Literature Review on Migration and Socio-Economic Development: A Study of Gulf Returnees in Telangana," different scholarly articles, books, magazines, gazetteers, newspapers, and other relevant sources. The main goal of this chapter is to sum up, and explain to the reader what is already known and thought about the chosen topic. In addition, it is intended to serve as a guiding concept for the study based on its objectives, problem statement, and the arguments put forth by previous researchers.

The third chapter of the study discusses the theoretical concepts related to migration. It covers various aspects of migration, including migration policy, migration and development, internal and international migration, temporary and permanent migration, and the impact of gender and generations on migration. The chapter also discusses the impact of return migration, Indian labour migration to Gulf countries, Telugu States labour migration during the colonial and post-colonial periods, and the impact of migration on poverty and income distribution. The chapter provides a foundation for the subsequent chapters, which delve deeper into specific migration patterns and issues. Overall, the chapter offers a comprehensive understanding of the critical concepts related to migration, emphasising the complexity and diversity of migration as a phenomenon.

The fourth chapter of the study focuses on the socio-economic, working, and living conditions of Gulf returnees in Telangana. This chapter gives an overview of the social and economic situation of migrant workers from Telangana, including where they work and how much money they make. The conceptual framework of Gulf returnees is also discussed in this chapter. It includes the type of work they do, the effects and benefits of their work, and the different things that led to their migration. The chapter talks about the problems and issues that South Asian migrants, especially those from Gulf countries, had to deal with before and after they moved. The successful Gulf migration and some case studies are presented as primary sources. The

chapter also discusses what "return migration" means and what happens when people move to Telangana from the Gulf, including re-migration. In addition, some of the causes of migration from the Telangana region are included. Finally, the chapter briefly discusses the Telangana people's migration in all aspects and connects their current socio-economic conditions to the fourth chapter, which includes field reflections.

In the fifth chapter of the study, "Socio-Economic Impact on Telangana Migrants: An Analysis of the Gulf Returnees," which is based on the available field data, the research results are shown. The chapter is divided into several sections, with Section 1 focusing on the basic profiles of the respondents. Section 2 highlights the demographic profile of the study area. In contrast, Section 3 presents the respondents' socio-economic background, including the sample size, state, districts in the selected area, and socio-cultural scenario of the respondents. Also, field reflections on Telangana migrants are discussed, and the socio-cultural effects on Gulf returnees are looked at using data from the field. Lastly, the chapter ends with some suggestions for migrants, both written and spoken. The research findings include various aspects such as migration in the study area, causative factors for migration, and return from the working place to the homeland.

6.1. The Major Findings of the Study

The research conducted on migrant returnees from Gulf countries in Telangana revealed significant findings related to the socio-economic conditions of these migrants. The study focused on the respondents' migration perspectives, the factors that caused them to return, and the impacts of their return on their livelihood. These findings are considered to impact the socio-economic conditions of Telangana migrants substantially.

The respondents from the selected area had various livelihood opportunities according to their region. However, they could not take advantage of them due to a lack of knowledge and illiteracy. Despite not calculating their age, most respondents were eager to find new ways of earning a living, such as taking up contract work outside their region. Many migrants reported migrating to Gulf countries to earn money and alleviate their family's financial difficulties. However, they also expressed their lack of proficiency in local jobs as a reason for their migration.

Most of the migrants confirmed that they send money to their families. Regarding returnee migrants, most stated their willingness to start a business with the money earned in Gulf countries. Some expressed their interest in investing in agriculture, while others mentioned they rely on bank interest or other work for their livelihood. Furthermore, a few returnee migrants mentioned alternative jobs in their native country or surroundings. The group of respondents who were in their middle ages reported that they save money in banks for purposes such as buying gold, funding their children's education, and covering marriage expenses.

Impoverished individuals work in Gulf countries not necessarily due to the large amounts of money they receive but because they rely on foreign currency to survive. These migrants can earn foreign currency, which is then returned to India. However, many individuals spend their earnings on building homes and other expenses.

6.2. The Suggestions and Recommendations

Governments of countries of origin have expressed serious interest in safeguarding migrant workers, recognising this is politically and ethically sensitive. So, they have put in place different rules to stop migrant workers from being taken advantage of, like putting an age limit on them. For example, some countries have rules that only married women travelling with their husbands can work as domestic workers. Many Indian migrant workers do low-paying jobs around the house, bringing in much money for families in their home country. Still, there needs to be more protection in both the country of origin and destination. A thorough investigation of the whole country is needed to find international migration patterns and make migration profiles for each state. It would necessitate the establishment of a database of international migrants, with a specific emphasis on those residing in Gulf countries, in partnership with state-level research institutions, non-governmental organisations, labour departments, and local governing bodies.

With the growing significance of foreign labour migration, it is crucial to implement policies and agreements at both international and national levels, along with state-level policies and regulations, which foster migrant-friendly measures throughout the migration process. In addition, the government must offer procedural and structural assistance to enhance the governance of this sector, minimise socio-economic and political expenses, and guarantee secure labour migration. The researcher recommends that migrants who are currently working

in the Gulf countries and those who plan to return should not consider going back again. Instead, they should bring their savings with them. The researcher also advises families not to spend the migrants' savings. The recommendation for migrants currently in or planning to return from Gulf countries is not to spend their savings there but to invest in establishing a business in India. It would keep them from having trouble with money when they got back home and solve the problem of social isolation that many blue-collar workers face.

The migrants returning from the Gulf countries are advised to avoid spending their savings in unproductive and unnecessary activities. Instead, they are suggested to use their savings to start a business in India to avoid the financial difficulties and bring the social change in their lives. The government should assist them in setting up businesses by providing loans at lower interest rates, counselling, and provide the information on projects they wish to undertake. Since migration in India is based on location, regional banks could play a significant role in this effort. The researcher believes it is time to show appreciation to these workers who have sent money to help reduce poverty and promote the country's prosperity. Indian migrant workers in the Gulf are seen as more patriotic than any other Indian diaspora community living in other parts of the world.

The presence of outsiders in the lives of rural and urban migrants has made their existence unstable due to the lack of adequate support. As a result, the government has introduced policies and programs to address various issues and strengthen livelihoods by filling gaps in different sectors. In addition, it has made migration as an essential topic of discussion in academia and development discourse.

Annexure – i

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Annexure – ii

Migration and Socio-Economic Development: A Study on Gulf-Returnees in Telangana

Questionnaire

The following set of questionnaire is for my Ph.D. research and not for official record or statistic. The information provided by you will be kept confidential and will not be used for any other purpose except for my thesis to get the degree from The University of Hyderabad. Please provide your honest opinion.

Supervisor: Dr. J Rani Ratna Prabha

Research Scholar Name: Kishore Kadari

Registration No: 16SIPH03

I. Socio Economic Characteristics of Migrants:

1. Name of the Migrant:
2. Age:
3. Sex: Male () Female ()
4. Marital Status:
Married () Unmarried () Widowed ()
Divorced () Separated ()
5. Religion:
Hindu () Muslim () Christian ()
6. Community:
Forward Caste () Backward Caste () Other Backward Caste ()
Scheduled Caste () Scheduled Tribes ()
7. Educational Status:
No Formal Schooling () Primary School (Up to 5th Std.) ()
Middle School (Up to 8th Std.) () High School (Up to 10th Std.) ()
Diploma () Professional Courses ()
Graduation ()
8. Occupation Before Migration:
Agricultural Labour () Self Employed ()
Non-Agricultural Labour (Tailor, Electrician, Plumber) ()
Working in Shops ()
Student () Unemployed ()

9. Structure of the Family:
 Nuclear Family () Joint Family ()
10. Family Size:
11. No. of Family members working in abroad:
12. Monthly Income of the Family before Migration:
13. Educational Status of Parents:
 No Formal Schooling () Primary School (Up to 5th Std.) ()
 Middle School (Up to 8th Std) () High School (Up to 10th Std.) ()
 Diploma () Professional Courses ()
 Graduation ()
14. Occupation of the Parents:
 Agriculture () Business () Government Employee ()
 Working in Shops () Unemployed ()
 Services (Electrician, Plumber, Tailor) ()
15. Address:

II. **Process of Migration:**

16. Reasons for Migration:
 Unemployment () Poverty () Better Employment ()
 To Earn More () High Income () To Repay Debt ()
 Shortage of Land ()
17. Sources of Visa:
 Friends () Relatives () Licensed Agencies ()
 Local Agents () Newspapers/Advertisement () Campus Interview ()
18. Financial Cost of Migration:
 Ticket: Rs.
 Visa: Rs.
 Medical NOC Clearance: Rs.
19. Agent Commission:
20. Sources of Finance:
 Personal Savings () Parents Savings () Borrowing from ()
 Relatives/Friends () Borrowing from Money Lenders ()
 Borrowing from Banks () Sale of Assets (Land, Buildings) ()
 Sale and Mortgage of Gold () Dowry Receipts ()
21. Age at the time of Migration:
22. Duration of the Stay in Gulf:
23. Year of Departure to Gulf:

24. Country of Migration (Destination Country):

III. Working and Living Conditions in Gulf:

25. Name of the Occupation in Gulf:

26. Salary Per Month:

27. Expenditure Per Month:

28. Savings Per Month:

29. Annual Remittances to the Family:

30. Frequency of Sending Remittances:

Once in a Month () Once in Two Months ()

Once in Three Months () Once in more than Three Months ()

31. Working Hours:

32. Weekly Holidays:

33. Overtime Facilities:

34. Are you given annual vacation: Yes () No ()

35. No. of leave days (Vacation Period):

36. Are you provided with leave salary: Yes () No ()

37. Do your company provides free and Travel allowances: Yes () No ()

38. Do you have any social security scheme?

(Provision of graduating payments) Yes () No ()

39. Availability of Food:

Free () Subsidized () Own expenses ()

40. Accommodation Facilities:

Free () Subsidized () Own expenses ()

41. Are you satisfied with the accommodation facilities?

Yes () No ()

42. Are you sharing rooms with other nationals?

Yes () No ()

43. Availability of Medical facilities:

Free () Subsidized () Own expenses ()

44. Are you satisfied with the job?

Yes () No ()

45. Are you treated in par with local people?

Yes () No ()

46. Is there any discrimination on the basis of salary and other benefits?

Yes () No ()

47. Mode of sent Remittances:

Bank () Friends / Relatives ()

Middlemen () Other sources (Specify the source name) ()

48. Reasons for sent Remittances through other than Banks:

Quick and Convenience () Higher Exchange Rate ()

No knowledge of Banking Operations ()

Poor quality of Banking Services ()
 Other Specify the reason ()

49. Is there any trade union:

Yes () No ()

50. How did you adjusted with the foreign Environment?

Friends / Relatives () Language Skill () Both ()

51. Means of communication to contact your family?

Letter () Phone () Internet () Others ()

IV. **Economic Impact on Migrant's Families:**

52. Monthly expenditure of the family before migration:

53. Monthly expenditure of the family after migration:

54. When did you get the following consumer durables?

Sl.No.	Name of the consumer durables	Before Migration	After Migration
1	TV		
2	VCD/DVD		
3	Refrigerator		
4	Washing Machine		
5	Camera		
6	Computer		
7	Ovan		
8	Two wheeler		

55. Give the value of things brought to home from Gulf:

56. Land ownership:

Before Migration (size of land holding) () After Migration ()

57. House ownership:

Own () Rented ()

58. Type of Housing:

Sl.No.	Type of House	Before Migration	After Migration
1	Thatched		
2	Tiled		
3	R.C.C.		

59. When did you get the following facilities in your house?

Sl.No.	Housing Facilities	Before Migration	After Migration
1	Electricity		
2	Toilet		
3	LPG for cooking		
4	Phone		

60. Give the particulars of assets purchased after migration:

61. In what way migration has improved your skill?

Experience ()

Technical Knowledge ()

Knowing of other Languages ()

62. Languages known after your migration:

63. In what way you would like to spend your savings?

64. In what way your savings were utilized?

65. Vehicles purchased after your migration:

Auto () Car () Van ()

66. Give the details of income from the vehicles if they are commercially operated:

67. Give the details of Rental Income from the buildings if they are rented out:

68. State your future plan of children's education:

Professional Courses () Degree ()

Up to Intermediate () As much as they would like to learn ()

69. Why do you prefer such course of education for your children?

70. State your preference of medium of instruction:

English () Hindi () Hindi with English ()

71. Average annual expenditure on education:

72. Has your family purchased Tractors and Pump sets after your Migration?

Yes () No ()

73. Whether there has been any diversion of farm land for non-farm purposes?

Yes () No ()

74. Is there any live stock in your family?

Yes () No ()

75. Is there any sale of live stocks after your Migration?

Yes () No ()

If yes, give the reason for the sale of livestock:

76. Have you taken insurance policy for you and your family after migration?

Yes () No ()

77. State the name of the Insurance Company?

LIC () Private Agencies ()

78. Is there any change in your family's occupation after your migration?

Yes () No ()

If yes, give details:

79. Has Migration improved your family's economic status?

Yes () No ()

V. Economic Impact on Village:

80. Do you think that migration has improved the economic status of your village?

Yes () No ()

81. In which of the following you observe a major change has taken place?

House construction () Farming ()

Education () Life Style ()

82. Do you think that migration has increase the value of land and real estate?

Yes () No ()

83. Do you think that the increase in wage level is due to large scale remittances from Gulf?

Yes () No ()

84. In which of the following you observe a major change has taken place?

House construction () Farming ()

Education () Life Style ()

85. Do you think that migration has increased the value of land and real estate?

Yes () No ()

86. Do you think that the increase in wage level is due to large scale remittances from gulf?

Yes () No ()

87. Do you think that the use of farm machinery and other implements has increased in your village?

Yes () No ()

88. Is your village having adequate medical facilities?

Yes () No ()

if no, where do you get medical treatment?

89. Can you have the access to the advanced medical treatments?

Yes () No ()

90. Do you get safe and adequate water facilities?

Yes () No ()

91. If no, where do you get it?

92. Do you support our government's policy of exchange rate liberalization?

Yes () No ()

93. Do you feel that liberalization policy has reduced the Hawala/ Hundi transfer of remittances?

Yes () No ()

94. Do you have non-resident-External Accounts (NRE A/c)

Yes () No ()

95. Are you aware of securities market and Mutual Fund Investment?

Yes () No ()

MIGRATION AND REVERSE MIGRATION: A STUDY ON RETURNEES FROM GULF COUNTRIES DURING THE COVID-19 PANDEMIC OF KARIMNAGAR DISTRICT, TELANGANA

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Abstract: The Gulf countries have witnessed an exodus of long-term non-resident Indians due to unforeseen impacts of the Covid-19 pandemic in 2020. Since the gulf countries host, the most significant number of Indian migrant workers and they were forced to return to their respective countries amid the Covid - 19 lockdowns. The lockdown raised key issues like loss of income, shortage of food, and ambiguity about migrant workers' future. The migrants from the Karimnagar district returned to Telangana from the Gulf countries amid the Covid -19 pandemic lockdown.

Keywords: Migration, Reverse migration, Covid-19 pandemic, Gulf returnees

Introduction

India is the largest country that sends migrants to different parts of the world (IOM, 2020) and, in return, tops in the world in receiving remittances (World Bank, 2019). The ministry of external affairs, Minister Shri V. Muraleedharan, said that 40, 24,513 Indian workers have returned from Gulf countries due to the Covid-19 pandemic as of 30th April 2021. Among them, 78,128 have come from Bahrain, 2,26,777 have come from Kuwait, 3,29,139 have come from Oman, 3,67,078 have come from Qatar, 4,79,103 have come from Saudi Arabia, and 25,44,288 have come from United Arab Gulf countries (Question No.3849 Gulf Returnees, 2021).

The International Labour Organisation (ILO) has classified international migration into settlement and contract migration. Settlement migration is the traditional type of migration where people migrate from one country to another to secure jobs and settle there. The other side migration of contract is officially granted permission to enter another country to take up employment in a given job. The contract is conducted on behalf of or between the employer and enterprise for which he will work. Contract migration itself takes several forms, such as an individual contract and a collective contract. In a collective contract, a number or a group of foreign workers are admitted for employment under a single authorized or a behalf of a single employer (Zachariah, 2004: 2227).

International migration is classified into two categories temporary migration and permanent migration (Cherunilam, 1987). Gulf migration is purely temporary because Gulf governments do not allow foreign workers to settle down permanently. Permanent Migration: Settling down in a host society permanently or semi-permanent is called Permanent migration, Permanent migration depends on person to person and country, and Developed countries like the USA, UK, and Canada allow permanent migration.

Statement of the Problem

The migration to Gulf countries is strictly regulated; the work permit is given for limited years on a contract basis. Indian emigration to gulf countries is entirely different from migration to other countries like the USA, UK, Australia, and other developed countries. Nearly 70% of the Indians who migrated were either unskilled or semi-skilled workers engaged in construction works in the early 1980s (Ministry of Labor, 1996). Indians who immigrated to Gulf are less educated, and some are uneducated. First, we have to study that, what are the factors which influenced migration and their socio-economic conditions. Here the problem is that Indians who migrated to the Gulf are less educated and economically poor. Hence, they face different problems in the process of migration. And the Gulf migrants encounter enormous problems in host society like nonpayment of salary, overtime work, poor housing accommodation, no medical facilities, ill-treatment by employers at the workplace. The problem is that the employers take visas and work permits from the migrants, and the workers cannot take them back. There is also large-scale illegal migration to Gulf countries.

Profile of the Study Area

The area selected for this study is the Karimnagar district in Telangana state. It is located in the north-eastern region of the sacred river Godavari. The district headquarters are located on the bank of river Manair, a tributary of Godavari. This district is bounded by Adilabad district on North, Maharashtra State on the eastern side, Nizamabad district on the north-west, and Medak, Warangal district on South (Karimnagar District Hand Book, 2007-2008).

Objectives of the Study

- To examine the history of migration from India to the Gulf countries
- To examine the reasons and factors that led to the large scale migration from Karimnagar district in Telangana to the Gulf countries
- To examine the problems faced by the migration during the process of migration as well as in the host countries
- To examine the living and working conditions of return migrants from Gulf countries in the Karimnagar district during the Covid-19 pandemic

Review of Literature

The unskilled and semi-skilled migrant labourers migrate to Gulf countries for better employment opportunities (Edumundo, Jennica, and Marcin 2011). The lack of education, low wages and increase of unemployment motivate the unskilled labour to migrate to Gulf countries (Rajan and Saxena 2019).

The poverty and heavy expenses on marriages (Rajendran 2018), no agricultural land (Fazal 2000), spending expensively on the construction of homes (Bhattacharya 2008), to provide good education to children (Kapur 2003), to pay back debt and social discrimination in the society (Wright 2020) were crucial motives for the unskilled labourer to opt migration to Gulf countries. And adding to these, the speedy passport process and Visa services encourages the Gulf migration (Martin 2012) from the district.

The marginalization in job opportunities due to caste (Bijral, 2015), the desire for freedom from caste discrimination (Firstpost.com, 2020) and no interest in menial jobs in the native places (Mohan, 2017) encouraged Gulf migration from the Karimnagar district of Telangana.

Research Methodology

The study is based on primary and secondary sources; primary data is collected from return migrants from Gulf countries. The fieldwork was conducted in the Karimnagar district in Telangana, from where migration to Gulf countries has taken place considerably in the recent past. Finding respondents is always a difficult task; hence to identify the returnee of the Gulf, the snowball sampling technique was used. There are a total of 100 respondents selected for the study. The primary data was collected through field visits. For collecting information from respondents, a structured interview schedule has been used. The migrants were interviewed with ten pages structured interview schedule. The questions were arranged sequentially. That is the reason for migration to the process of migration, to their final return. The interview schedule, which was used to collect data, consisted of six parts- personal information, educational background, Family background, migration, living conditions in Gulf countries, social interaction, return migration. This study has relied on the articles in various journals, published books, survey reports, national and regional newspapers, and the Internet to get secondary sources.

Results and Discussion

The primary data for this study was collected from the Karimnagar district, Telangana. The empirical data was collected with the help of a structured questionnaire from the fieldwork. The data is collected from the respondents through interviews and observation methods. The study deals with the background of return migrants and their experiences in the host country. There are a total of 100 respondents selected for the study from the Karimnagar district, Telangana.

Age of Respondents

Age becomes one of the crucial criteria for Gulf migration. Those who are migrating to Gulf countries are primarily working in construction sites as manual labourers. These manual jobs are risk and complicated; only physically fit candidates can work, so young people migrate to Gulf countries. Therefore, most migrants to the Gulf countries happen to be young and physically fit, and able to work.

Table 1: Distribution of Return Migrants by Age

S. No.	Age	Number of Respondents
1	18 - 30 Yrs	39
2	31 - 40 Yrs	36
3	41 - 50 Yrs	17
4	51 - 60 Yrs	8
5	Total	100

(Source: Primary data)

Caste Background

When we talk about the socio-economic background, caste plays an important role. Mainly, Indian society is dominated by the caste system. Every social aspect in India is related to the caste system even migration is not an exception. Migration is an economic issue; it is influenced by many other factors like caste, religion, and geographical location.

Table 2: Distribution of Return Migrants by Caste

S. No.	Caste	Number of respondents
1	General Category (GC)	7
2	Scheduled Caste (SC)	32
3	Backward Caste (BC)	61
4	Total	100

(Source: Primary data)

Educational Background

Education plays a vital role in migration because Gulf companies give preference to skilled professionals with technical education. Also, they offer an excellent salary to them compared to unskilled migrants. Migrations to Gulf countries from this study region are unskilled and semi-skilled because their educational background is low. The educational and skill levels of the migrants to Gulf countries appear to have been relatively low.

Table 3: Distribution of Return migrants by Level of Education

S. No.	Level of Education	Number of Respondents
1	Illiterate	36
2	Below 10 th Class (Primary)	31
3	10 th Class (Secondary)	25
4	Intermediate (10+2)	6
5	Degree (Graduate)	2
6	Total	100

(Source: Primary data)

Occupational Background

The occupational background of migrants is discussed with the help of data collected from the field survey. The employed before migration at home did not satisfy them because of insufficient income and more work.

Table 4: Occupational Classification before Migration

S. No.	Occupation	Number of Respondents
1	Agriculture (farmer)	15

2	Business	6
3	Daily wage earner	51
4	Private-sector job	5
5	Unemployed	23
6	Total	100

(Source: Primary data)

Structure of Family

The family plays a crucial role in human life in rural India. Family is described as different kinds like joint family, nuclear family, extended family. Indian society gives more importance to joint families. Still, globalization and modernization have influenced the Indian family system, and now with its effect, many of them are following the nuclear family.

Table 5: Distribution of Return migrants by the structure of the family

S. No	Types of Family	Number of respondents
1	Nuclear	64
2	Joint	36
3	Total	100

(Source: Primary data)

Reasons for Migration to Gulf Countries

Migration to other countries revolves around better job opportunities and good wages. The people of Karimnagar district migrate to gulf countries because of good wages for the semi and low-skilled labourers (Rahman, 2001: 73).

Table 6: Migrants' reasons for migration to Gulf Countries

S. No.	Reasons for migration	Number of respondents
1	Land shortage for agriculture	12
2	Lack of job opportunities (Unemployment)	20
3	Poor economic conditions of the family (Poverty)	68
4	Total	100

(Source: Primary data)

Sources of Raising Funds

The poor economic conditions of the migrants are the crucial factor for raising funds for the migration process. They should depend on other sources because they do not have enough money to use. If they have that money, why do the respondents migrate to other countries for work; they will do any business at home or in agriculture. Poor economic background is the reason for migration. They are lending from the money lenders or friends and repaying with massive interest amounts. At last, they have remained with nothing.

Table 7: Distribution of Return migrants by sources of raising funds

S. No.	What is the financial source	Number of Respondents
1	The loan from the money lender	92
2	Loan from friends	8
3	Total	100

(Source: Primary data)

Obtaining Visa

Getting a visa is a difficult task for migrants; for getting a visa, most migrants take help from agents by paying commissions. Visa is an essential instrument for migration to Gulf countries. Most of the migrants spend a lot of money on getting Visa. There are different kinds of visas: 1) Company visa, 2) Tour/Visitor Visa. Company visa is vital for Gulf migrants because recruiting companies give visas for migrants. A tourist visa is different from a company visa; a tourist visa is only for two to three months, and after that, migrants should return to their home after completion of the period. A

tourist visa costs more minor amounts than a company visa; most migrants from the study region migrate with tourist visas and work illegally in the Gulf countries.

Table 8: Distribution of Return migrants for getting Visa

S. No.	Who helped you in getting your Visa	Number of Respondents
1	Agent	68
2	Family members	32
3	Total	100

(Source: Primary data)

Occupation in the Gulf

The majority of the Indians who migrate to Gulf countries are for employment purposes. The primary workforce was for working in the construction sector. Construction-related works are massive when compare with other jobs. There are other jobs like housemaids, car/taxi drivers, and nurses. "Millions of migrant workers are employed in the Middle East countries. They range from poorly educated A B C D workers (Ayahs, Bearers, Cooks, Drivers) to highly educated professionals. However, a majority largely belongs to the category of less-educated workers engaged in manual jobs" (Nambiar, 1995).

Table 9: Occupational Distribution of migrants in the Gulf countries

S. No.	Occupation in the Gulf	Number of Respondents
1	Daily wage labour	15
2	Private job	7
3	Construction labour	78
4	Total	100

(Source: Primary data)

Job Satisfaction

For any job, the individual should satisfy with his work it may be salary/wages or working conditions. Without job satisfaction, workers could not work correctly. Job satisfaction is compulsory for every individual. Most of the migrants from this study area are illiterates and unskilled. For them, the work is manual. They have to work as manual labour for construction sites under the hot sun. Therefore, the majority of the respondents were not satisfied with their work in the host country. Migrants expect differently before migration; they work hard under a hot sun when they come to the host country.

Table 10: Distribution of Return migrants based on job satisfaction

S. No.	Are you satisfied with your work (job) in the host country	Number of Respondents
1	Yes	8
2	No	92
3	Total	100

(Source: Primary data)

Current Status of Return Migrants

The status of migrants after their return in this study region is not that satisfactory. Most of the respondents said they are still under debt because of Gulf migration. The majority of the respondents in the study depended on money lenders and friends as a source of lending money for Visa and travel charges. The period of stay in the Gulf countries is insufficient to clear their debts because of less salary. These return migrants could not clear their debts and not save a single rupee while working in the Gulf.

Table 11: Occupation profile of migrants after return

S. No.	Occupation	Number of Respondents
1	Agriculture labour	57
2	Business	8

3	Private Job	4
4	Daily wage earner	25
5	No work	6
6	Total	100

(Source: Primary data)

Amid the Covid-19 pandemic, the migrants were forced to return to their native places because of a lack of employment and shelter. The migrants were denied food and basic amenities in the host country because of the fear of the spread of Covid – 19. The initiation of the Government of India, like 'Vande Mataram Mission,' helped many migrants from this region reach home and meet their dear ones at their native places.

Conclusion

Migrants migrate from native place to distinct places in search of the livelihood opportunities. They migrate for the survival and betterment of their lives. But this sudden announcement of the lockdown amid the tension of the Corona virus spread, migrant workers' lives became so vulnerable and faced numerous problems to reach their homes. To minimize future human resource outflow and utilize these resources as assets to the state, governments should address Gulf Migrants' current perceptions about Native places by devising participatory development programs that provide inclusive opportunities for return migrants and resident Indians. These could include government-supported joint ventures in agriculture and non-agriculture sectors, promoting self-employment with special financial aid to return migrants, and devising programs that provide opportunities to implement their skills and knowledge in construction, servicing sectors. It is alarming to create a special fund that can address the basic needs of vulnerable Gulf returnees, and governments should bring policy to address the basic amenities of the return migrants from the Gulf countries.

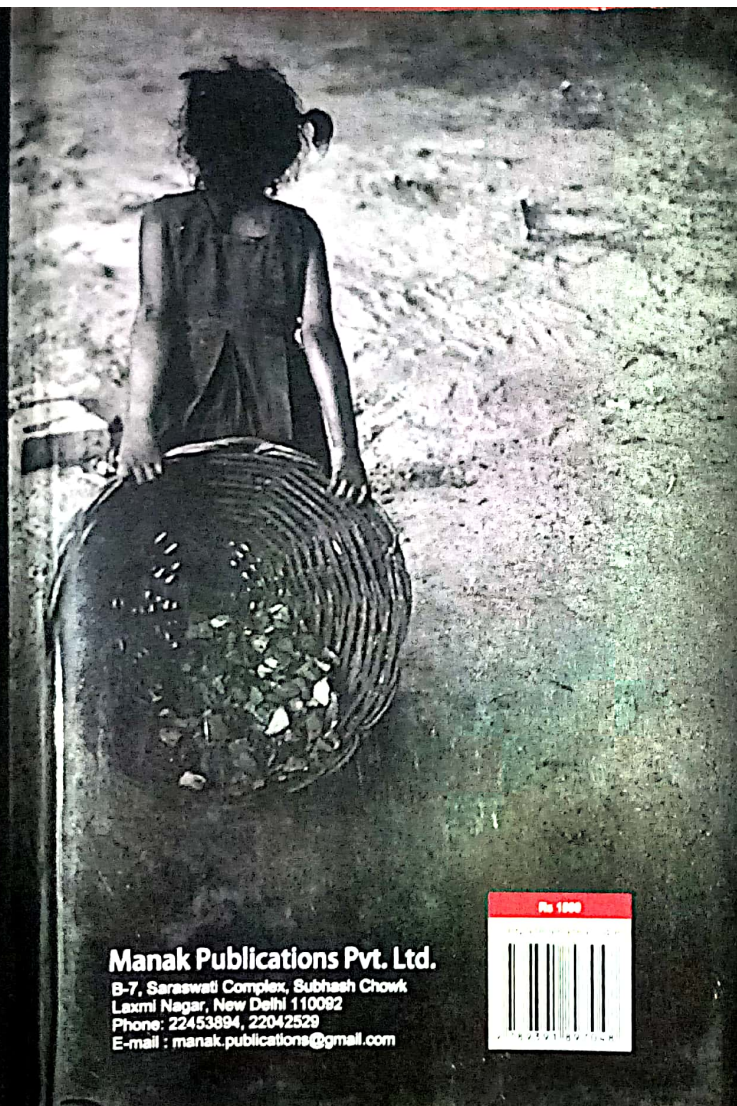
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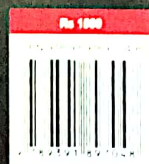


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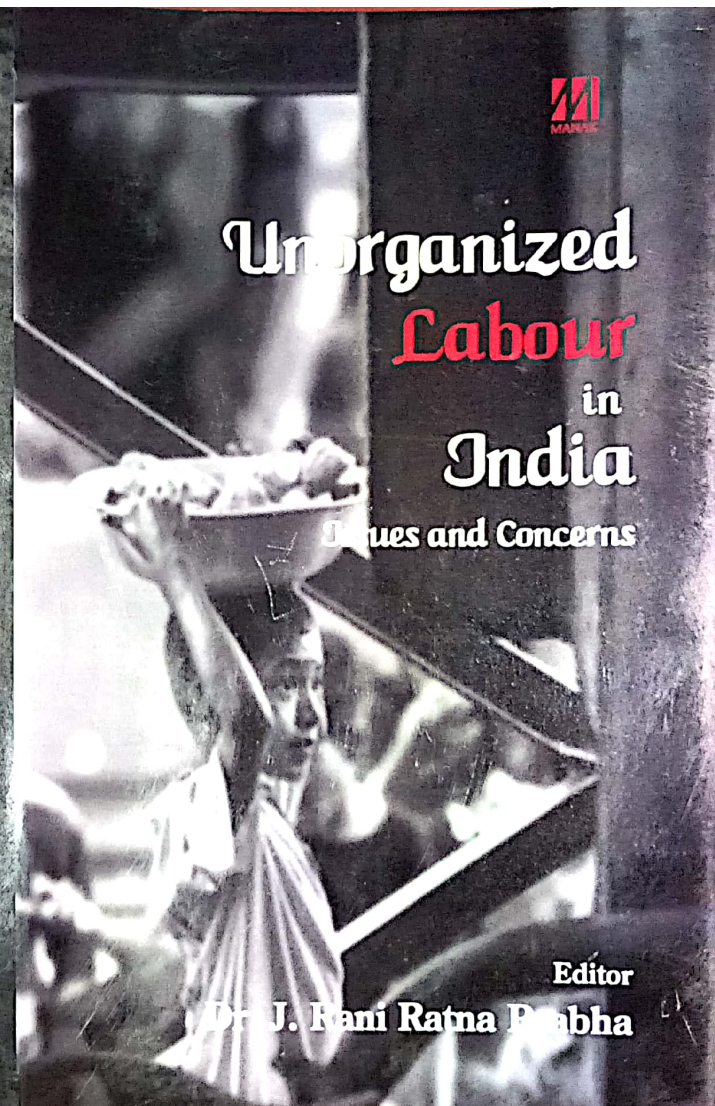


Manak Publications Pvt. Ltd.

B-7, Saraswati Complex, Subhash Chowk
Laxmi Nagar, New Delhi 110082
Phone: 22453894, 22042529
E-mail : manak.publications@gmail.com



Unorganized Labour in India Dr. J. Rani Ratna Prabha



Unorganized Labour in India

Issues and Concerns

Editor

Dr. J. Rani Ratna Prabha



Globally, labour working for capital, is largely unorganized. The Indian labour landscape is no exception to this situation. Historically, the trade union movement in India has been grappling with this issue. However, it has not met with satisfactory success thus far due to various reasons. Therefore, around 94 percent of the Indian workforce employed in industry, the service sector, and agriculture are presently unorganized besides other employments and which is resulting to their socio-economic exclusion.

Obviously and evidently, unorganized labour falls prey to greater exploitation by employers. Though labour laws apply, their workplace enforcement needs a strong trade union presence. But organizing labour has become very difficult in the present times. On the other hand, organized labour is being subjected to disorganizing degrees in the country's political economy. The current volume of the book examined the hurdles of unorganized labour in India with different sectoral insights. The book also highlights the concrete organizing initiatives happening presently in dealing with the issues associated with the labour in unorganized sectors and what has been the role of the state and capital in this regard.

The book covered chapters from academicians and scholars who did their extensive research on the above lines. The titles of the chapters and the detailed structuring of the volume with an appropriate title helped to bring the issues and concerns of unorganized labour into the limelight.



CHAPTER 13

Migration and Reverse Migration of Migrant Workers during Covid-19 Pandemic in Khammam District, Telangana

Kishore Kadari

Introduction

The movement of human beings from one place to another or moving from rural to urban or moving from fewer opportunities to greater opportunities or no access place to more accessible area is called the migration. Generally the migration is considered with the matter of development in the areas of economics and standards of life. The migration plays an important role for the development of any society in the world (Sinha, 1987). The migration in search of better employment opportunities for better life is characterised as the development (Standing, 1985). The migration is considered to be a person moving from his native place to new residence in different place for the temporary or permanent settlement (Ravenstein, 1885). The mobility of people as part of migration circulation refers to the temporary change of residence can be classified as daily, periodical, seasonal and long-term

based on the length of the migration cycle (Joshi, 1997).

In India there is a huge gap between urban and rural sector in the employment opportunities and wages. The globalisation paved a way for the industrial development in the urban areas and cities in India. This industrial development attracted many migrant workers from the rural villages to big metropolitan cities in India. Migration from the rural areas is the most significant factor for the urbanization which implies in increase in population and also brings the social and economical changes in their communities (Joshi, 1994).

The sudden imposition of lockdown resulted in hundreds and thousands of migrant workers on the roads with no food and shelter in metropolitan cities in India. The lockdown forced industries and companies to shutdown. This shutting down of industries resulted in means of no employment and losing jobs of migrant workers. These migrant workers are most of them daily-wage workers. The losing jobs, no food and no shelter pushed many of the migrant workers started returning to their native villages.

The political scientist Ashwani Kumar says "It is shocking that those who build fantasy cities not only can't own a home of their own and can't vote in elections". The Covid-19 pandemic triggered reverse migration in India in the midst of unplanned lockdown forced them to walk long distances to reach their homes. This reverse migration brought to the national attention of invisibilised lives and working conditions of migrant workers in India.

The induced migration of Covid-19 specifies the rural-urban migration. The male members of rural households migrate to urban areas and maintain to close links with their villages and towns of origin. This forms the circular migration between the rural to urban. These migrant

workers send their remittances to home and spend few months in their native villages during the harvest seasons. This way the migrant workers maintain close relation with their native villages and small towns. The people migrate from rural to urban due to the poverty, inequality and discrimination in their native places. In search of better livelihood opportunities and more paid wages pulled the rural migrants to urban areas.

Theoretical Linkages of Migration and Economy

The socio-economic differences in the native places trigger poor people to migrate to the urban areas. In the urban areas they get better employment opportunities and good wages comparatively high in the urban areas than rural areas (Kandhare & Bharadi, 2019). The people move from one place to another for the development. The migration can happen by the choice or by the force. Mostly the migration considered to be developmental aspects except in the displacement of the people due to the construction of the developmental projects. The comparison of rural and urban scenario by the individual, the expected income in the native place and the expected income in the urban areas will help migrant workers to develop economically (Harris & Todaro, 1970). The development theories have the substantial relation between the migration and development (Srivastava, 2020).

The migrant workers are unskilled, paid low salaries and work in the dangerous environment. According to the employment figures there were 100 million internal migrant workers are working in the industrial areas and companies in India. They largely contribute to the India's economy (Deshingkar & Akter, 2009). The rural migrant workers initially treated as temporary and paid low wages. The unorganised sector job market always considered as the

temporary and insecurity. There is no guarantee for the job in unorganised sector. The life of migrant workers in unorganised sector is vulnerable and ends in the untold miserable stories (Zeitlyn, 2014). So, the migrant workers are more vulnerable to any adverse situations like current pandemic COVID-19.

COVID-19 and Migration

The impact of Covid-19 pandemic has been largely disruptive in terms of economic and social conditions in India. And at the same time the world witnessed huge losses due to Covid-19 pandemic in the sectors of social and economical (Asian Development Bank, 2020). The each and every section of the people in society got affected with the Covid-19 pandemic. The economy of the countries got paralysed and drastically reduced the GDP's of the nations in the world amid Covid-19 pandemic. The poor and migrant workers who are working in the unorganised and informal sectors are the most vulnerable and worst effected people due to the Covid-19 pandemic (Bhagat, et.al., 2020; Thomas, 2020). The most of migrant workers who are working in unorganised and informal sectors will not have the proper contracts for the security of their jobs. The fear of job loss is the more fear for the migrant workers who are working in the unorganised sector. The poor living conditions and not timely paying of the wages to the migrant workers worsen the lives of migrant workers in the cities (Khanna, 2020). This kind of pandemics raises different questions in relation to the safety and security of the human life. In this tough time it's a responsibility and duty of the governments to facilitate and take adequate measures to provide safe and security to the public (Damani et al., 2020). It's a crucial time to take care of the poor and marginalised vulnerable groups by the governments and

NGO's. According to the estimates of ILO, across the globe more than 25 million jobs would be threatened due to the Covid-19 pandemic. It is noted that during this Covid-19 pandemic many employers are terminated from their jobs without any prior notice. And some companies stopped paying the salaries to their employers because of Covid-19 pandemic (ILO, 2020a).

Due to the Covid-19 pandemic the country is witnessing the huge number of job losses in the unorganised sector. The migrant workers are the most vulnerable among the unorganised sector job market. Due to this Covid-19 pandemic they lost their jobs, because of that there is no income and they are facing many difficulties even to access to food. There is no proper mechanism in India to find out the migrant workers. There were no records from authorities or from the contractors who engage these migrant workers in the job market too have no data or information much about the migrant workers. During this Covid-19 pandemic many migrant workers faced much difficulty even to access to food. This kind of pandemic raised many key issues related to migrant workers.

Objectives of the Study

1. To examine the impact of the lockdown on migrant workers amid the Covid-19 pandemic.
2. To study the trials and tribulations which have faced by the migrant workers by the sudden announcement of the lockdown for the controlling the spread of Novel Corona Virus.
3. To suggest the possible measures to create alternative livelihood methods after reverse migration.

Research Methodology

The study will be descriptive in nature. The study uses both qualitative and quantitative techniques and it mainly proposes the secondary data. Topic of this nature naturally needs to rely on secondary sources; also use the content analysis i.e. depended; while several articles published in various journals, magazines, daily newspapers. The mainly secondary source data are collected from the different government organisation reports like the National Sample Survey reports, the data on migration according to the Census-2011 reports, and Telangana economic survey reports, etc.

The primary data are collected from the return migrants to Khammam district, Telangana from the different parts of India. Since the study mainly focuses on the internal migrant workers issues it is taking only the internal migrant workers data to analysis the study. So purposively the study considered the returned migrants to Khammam district, Telangana during Covid-19 pandemic through the snowball sampling technique. A total of 100 respondents' data has collected from the returned migrants from the different parts of India. The information about income difficulties, issues associated with current occupation and their livelihood opportunities has been collected from respondents through the direct personal interview method. I have viewed many videos of documentaries which are made from the live struggles of many migrant workers in this during the lockdown period. The secondary data will be the major part of the study and it will rely on the various Journals, governmental reports, and NGOs publishers, Statistics reports from the different media organizations, Newspapers, E- content, and others.

Reverse Migration to Khammam District and Challenges

It was very difficult for the migrant worker to live normal life with loss of job and no income in the urban areas. There was a difficulty to access the general services in the cities during Covid-19 pandemic lockdown for the migrant workers. Amid this critical situation and lockdown the migrant workers were forced to return to their native places by any means. So many of the migrant workers started to walk or take any means of transport services to reach their native places. Huge number of migrant workers across the country started walk or cycle to reach homes. This news is widely covered by the media. The media coverage on struggles and sufferings to reach their homes moved the government to take steps to send the migrant workers to home safely. Then the government started a 'Shramik' trains for the migrant workers to reach their homes safely. But the migrant people who are migrated to different parts of country can access train facility till Khammam only. And from Khammam they have to depend on the different kind of transport services to reach their homes in the district.

Due to this reverse migration the working population in the rural areas increased all of sudden. The labour supply raised in the rural India across the country. Khammam district as a district with large migrants had suffered during the reverse migration due to Covid-19 pandemic.

Table 1 gives the data of returnees of migrant workers from the different Indian cities to Khammam district. The district has 21 mandalas and sample of 100 respondents' data has collected for the present study of migration and reverse migrant workers during COVID-19 pandemic. The study intended to know the struggles and difficulties faced by the migrant workers during this pandemic. Since the district near to Hyderabad and Vijayawada, most of the

TABLE 1
Returnees to Khammam District from Different Cities
in India (by 31st December, 2020)

<i>Sl. No</i>	<i>To Mandal</i>	<i>No. of Returnees</i>	<i>From Hyderabad</i>	<i>From Vijayawada</i>	<i>From Mumbai</i>	<i>From Other Cities/States</i>
1	Bonakal	3	2	1	0	0
2	Chintakani	4	1	2	0	1
3	Enkoor	4	1	2	1	0
4	Kalluru	7	3	2	0	2
5	Kamepally	5	1	3	0	1
6	Khammam Rural	6	2	2	1	1
7	Khammam Urban	7	3	1	1	2
8	Konijerla	7	3	3	0	1
9	Kusumanchi	5	2	1	0	2
10	Madhira	7	5	2	0	0
11	Mudigonda	3	1	1	0	1
12	Nelakondapalli	2	0	1	0	1

13 Penuballi	5	3	1	0	1
14 Raghunadhapalem	3	1	1	0	1
15 Sattupally	5	2	2	1	0
16 Singareni	4	3	1	0	0
17 Thallada	5	4	1	0	0
18 Tirumalayapalem	4	1	3	0	0
19 Vemsoor	7	2	2	1	2
20 Wyra	5	3	2	0	0
21 Yerrupalem	2	1	1	0	0
Total	100	44	35	5	16

Source: Primary data 2019-20.

migrant workers migrate to these two cities. There are 44 migrant workers returned to district from Hyderabad, there are 35 migrant workers returned to district from Vijayawada, there are 5 migrant workers returned from the Mumbai and 15 migrants from the various working places of the country.

Table 2 explains socio-economic characteristics of migrants. The characteristics of caste, religion, gender, marital status, education, nature of work before migration and reasons for migration were discussed in the table 2 with the help of primary data. The data shows that there are more male migrants in the migration than women. There are 76 responds among 100 respondents. It shows that male migration more comparatively women. This is also one of the main reasons for the reverse migration to the district. Since the family stays at origin place of district the head or male number of the family migrates to near cities for the better employment opportunities. Among 100 respondents 46 are married and 54 respondents are unmarried. It shows that the cities are pulls the district unemployed people to get the employment and the wages which paid in the cities are comparatively high than in the district. These factors attracted the people from the district to go for migration to the near and far cities to earn more money for the run the families. Among the migrant workers most of them have secondary education. There are only 3 migrants have the higher education. Since the lack of higher education and industrial development in the cities pulls the people to opt for the migration to cities. At the same time caste discrimination at the origin place and lack of agricultural land pushes these migrant workers from the district to migrate to near and far cities in the cities. The nature of work before migration and reasons for the migration data shows that most of the migrant workers

TABLE 2
Migrants - Socio-Economic Status

a. Caste		
Sl.No.	Caste	No. of Returnees Percentage
1	General	11 11percent
2	OBC	26 26percent
3	SC	34 34percent
4	ST	29 29percent
5	Total	100 100percent
b. Religion		
Sl.No.	Religion	No. of Returnees Percentages
1	Hindu	56 56percent
2	Muslim	28 28percent
3	Christian	16 16percent
4	Total	100 100percent
c. Gender		
Sl.No.	Gender	No. of Returnees Percentage
1	Male	76 76percent
2	Female	24 24percent
3	Total	100 100percent
d. Marital Status		
Sl.No.	Marital Status	No. of Returnees Percentage
1	Married	46 46percent
2	Unmarried	54 54percent
3	Total	100 100percent
e. Education		
Sl.No.	Education	No. of Returnees Percentage
1	Primary	34 34percent

2 Secondary	57	57percent
3 Higher Secondary	6	6percent
4 Higher	3	3percent
5 Total	100	100percent

f. Nature of work before Migration

Sl.No.	Nature of work before migration	No. of Returnees	Percentage
1	Not employed	21	21percent
2	Agricultural labourer	53	53percent
3	Daily wage earner	17	17percent
4	Business	7	7percent
5	Other	2	2percent
6	Total	100	100percent

g. Reasons for Migration

Sl.No.	Reasons for migration	No. of Returnees	Percentage
1	Better job	57	57percent
2	High wage	22	22percent
3	Better life	9	9percent
4	Lack of employment opportunity	5	5percent
5	Low wage at home	5	5percent
6	Other	2	2percent
7	Total	100	100percent

Source: Primary data, 2019-20.

lack of the agricultural land and caste discrimination in the native places key reasons for the migration.

The challenges and other problems experienced by the migrants during Covid-19 detailed in the table 3. This pandemic tested the respondents in the different ways for the survival. During this crucial time migrants have

TABLE 3
Challenges and problems of Migrants during COVID-19

Sl.No.	Challenges and problems	No. of Returnees	Percentage
1	Job loss	17	17percent
2	Income losses	33	33percent
3	Food non-availability	11	11percent
4	Access to general services	12	12percent
5	Psychological problems	6	6percent
6	Problems faced to reach home	9	9percent
7	Health vulnerability	6	6percent
8	Access to government relief benefit	5	5percent
9	Others	1	1percent
10	Total	100	100percent

Source: Primary data, 2019-20.

experienced many struggles to reach their native places. There are 33 respondents faced the challenge of income loss, there are 17 respondents have lost their jobs, there are 11 respondents struggled to access the food during this pandemic. The Covid-19 pandemic has tested migrant workers in psychological and physically to fight against Covid-19.

Table 4 gives the information of impact of Covid-19 on the income of migrants. The data in the table 4 shows clear evidence for the loss of incomes for the migrant workers from the district. The every migrant worker has lost their 75 percent of income during this Covid-19. This was main and key reason for the migrant workers to struggle to survive in this pandemic situation.

Table 5 shows the information of employment status of reverse migrants at the native places during Covid-19 pandemic. Most of the return migrant workers depended

TABLE 4
Impact of COVID-19 on the Income/Earnings of Migrants

Sl. No.	Nature of Work	Average Monthly Income Before COVID-19	Average Monthly Income During COVID-19	Difference in Income
1	Construction worker	18000	6000	12000
2	Waiter	15000	6000	9000
3	Industrial worker	21000	6000	15000
4	Working in private company	21000	6000	15000
5	Plumber	18000	5000	13000
6	Cook	24000	5000	19000
7	Other	14000	4000	10000

Source: Primary data, 2019-20.

TABLE 5
Employment Status of Reverse Migrants at the Native Place

Sl. No.	Current Status of Reverse Migrants	No. of Migrants	Percentage
1	Unemployed	13	13 percent
2	Agricultural labourer	21	21 percent
3	Daily wage earner	56	56 percent
4	Started new business	3	3 percent
5	Working in a small company in the district	7	7 percent
6	Total	100	100 percent

Source: Primary data 2019-20.

upon the daily wage for earn the livelihood. It shows that many of the migrants have no agricultural lands pushed

the migrants to move to cities to earn good wages and employment opportunities. There are only 3 return migrants have started the small business for the survive in the pandemic.

Table 6 gives information related to the challenges faced by the reverse migrants in the home district after return during the Covid-19 pandemic. Most of the return migrants have faced the challenge of low wage in the native place. There are 63 return migrants have faced the challenge of low wages. Few have faced the challenge of lack of job and the skill which they have couldn't find the job for them. Due to the loss of income and loss of job mostly triggered the return migrant to access the basic amenities during the Covid-19 pandemic.

TABLE 6
Challenges Faced by the Reverse Migrants in the Home District after Return

Sl. No.	Challenges	No. of Returnees	Percentage
1	Low wage	63	63 percent
2	Lack of job	15	15 percent
3	Inaccessibility to transportation	6	6 percent
4	Problems in access to health facility	7	7 percent
5	Problem in access to daily used products	5	5 percent
6	Others	4	4 percent
7	Total	100	100 percent

Source: Primary data 2019-20.

The Government Initiatives for Reverse Migration

The government of India and state government of

Telangana have taken some measures to address the problems faced by the return migrants during the covid-19 pandemic. The governments arranged the 'shramik' trains during lockdown for the migrant workers to return to their homes. The central government of India deposited Rs. 500 in the 'Jan Dhan' accounts of women for the period of three months during Covid-19 pandemic. And under 'Pradhan Mantri Ujjwala Yojana' scheme three gas cylinders are given for the free to support the poor in during pandemic. The state government of Telangana have distributed food grains for head 15 kgs rice to every ration card holder in the state.

Table 7 shows data of financial performance under MGNREGA during the financial years 2019-2020 and 2020-2021 of Khammam district, Telangana. The data in the table shows there was full percentage utilization of the scheme during Covid-19 pandemic by the people of Khammam district. There was a huge gap for the allocation of the funds under the scheme for the financial year 2019-2020 and 2020-2021. The financial year 2019-2020 was the normal year, and in this financial year there was no importance and not much dependence on the scheme. But in the financial year there was huge allocation in 2020-2021 year to overcome and support the poor in the Covid-19 pandemic. This is the one of the excellent scheme helped the many district return migrants to find the employment and earn money to fulfil basic amenities of the family and survive.

The table 8 explains MGNREGA average wage as per measurement pattern during the financial years 2019-2020 and 2020-2021. The data in the table clearly indicates that there was an increase of wage during the covi-19 pandemic during the financial year 2020-2021 comparatively financial year 2019-2020. The process of Covid-19 pandemic has started on the 22nd March, 2020 with the 'Janata Curfew'

TABLE 7
Financial Performance under MGNREGA during the Financial
Years 2019-2020 and 2020-2021

Sl. No.	Financial Year	District	Unskilled Wage	Semi-skilled and Skilled Wage	Material	Total Administrative Expenditure	Total (Rs. In Lakhs)	Percentage of Utilization
1	2019-2020	Khammam	8196.63	47.13	1998.98	417.22	10659.96	Infinity
2	2020-2021	Khammam	10518.07	634.28	16702.66	991.46	28846.46	Infinity

Source: MGNREGA financial years 2019-2020 and 2020-2021 data.

TABLE 8
Average wage as per measurement pattern during the Financial
Years 2019-2020 and 2020-2021

Sl. No.	Financial Year	Dist- rict	Notified Wage Rate	April	May	June	July	August	Septem- ber	Octo- ber	Novem- ber	Decem- ber	Janu- ary	Febru- ary	March
1	2019-2020														
	Khammam	211	129	128	121	117	176	182	182	184	187	191	198	203	
2	2020-2021														
	Khammam	237	133	137	141	153	189	201	195	167	167	179	171	166	

Source: MGNREGA financial years 2019-2020 and 2020-2021 data.

then nationwide lockdown ordered by the Prime Minister Narendra Modi on the evening of 24th March, 2020.

Conclusion

Migrants migrate from native place to distinct places in search of the livelihood opportunities. They migrate for the survival and betterment of the lives. But this sudden announcement of the lockdown amid the tension of the Corona virus spread, migrant workers lives became so vulnerable and faced numerous problems to reach their homes. The Supreme Court of India directed the Government to do the necessary arrangements to send the migrant workers to their homes.

The government of India made sufficient initiatives and steps to bring the Indians who have struck down in the different parts of the world. Mostly, those are the people who are economically rich and went to foreign countries to work for the foreign country. But, in this pandemic situation they were treated with so much respect and conducted special drives to bring them back to home. The migrant workers who are here in the country and work for the country were ill-treated and not given a minimal respect. The migrant workers are the people who work for their survival and they are engaged all kind of un-organized sector. Many migrants died in the process of going back to their homes. There are numerous cases noted that many died lack of food and many walked miles and miles to reach homes.

During this Covid-19 pandemic MGNREGA scheme helped the migrant workers to earn the livelihood in the rural areas. The reverse migration rises to improve the rural infrastructure to provide the employment opportunities to the people in the village. And at the same time it's high time to bring the some scheme which can provide employment in the urban areas to earn the basic amenities as like

MGNREGA provides the employment in the rural areas. The providing employment in the urban areas may be able to prevent the reverse migration in India.

This is the alarming situation to create a special fund which can address the basic needs of vulnerable migrant workers. And government should bring policy to address the basic amenities of the migrant workers in India.

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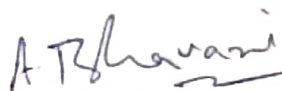
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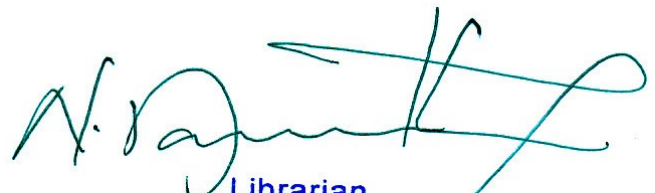
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Migration and Socio-Economic Development: A Study of Gulf Returnees in Telangana

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