

**YANGON UNIVERSITY OF ECONOMICS
MASTER OF DEVELOPMENT STUDIES PROGRAMME**

**A STUDY ON
CAUSES OF OUT-MIGRATION AND ITS EFFECTS ON
LEFT-BEHIND HOUSEHOLDS IN MAUBIN TOWNSHIP**

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EMDevS - 36 (15th Batch)**

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LEFT-BEHIND HOUSEHOLDS IN MAUBIN TOWNSHIP

A thesis submitted as a partial fulfilment towards the requirements for the degree
of Master of Development Studies, MDevS

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ABSTRACT

Migration may change the rural demographics and livelihood patterns altogether with social, cultural, and economic impacts on both left-behind families and local communities. This study was an effort to find the causes of out-migration and its effects on left-behind households in Maubin township. Descriptive method was used based on both primary and secondary data by using qualitative and quantitative approaches. Face-to-face interviews with a structured questionnaire and focus group discussions were conducted. A sample of two hundred and fifty households were asked from ten villages. It was found that rare job opportunities, low income, un-favored for rural works, low return from agriculture, inaccessible educational services and family matter were the key drivers of migration. Agriculture production did not reduce by migration because of mechanization and changing agricultural technologies. The advantages of migration were larger than the dis-advantages.

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LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

CSOs	Civil Society Organizations
CSO	Central Statistical Organization
FAO	Food and Agriculture organization
FGD	Focus group discussion
GAD	General Administration Department
GCC	Gulf Cooperation Council or The Cooperation Council for the Arab States of the Gulf
GDP	Gross Domestic Product
GMS	Greater Mekong Sub-region
HH	household
ILO	International Labor organization
IOM	International Organization for Migration
IRM	International Retirement Migration
km	kilometers
LIFT	Livelihoods and Food Security Trust Fund
MMK	Myanmar Kyats
MoU	Memorandum of Understanding
MOLES	Ministry of Labour, Employment and Social Security
NGOs	Non-governmental organizations
UN	United Nations
UNHCR	United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees
USD	U.S. Dollar

CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

1.1 Rationale of the study

In developing countries like Myanmar, rural-urban migration affects development in both urban and rural areas. This study aims to establish the major causes and effects of the movement of people from rural to urban areas. Rural migration represents an important strategy to expand, diversify or protect local livelihoods, and to reduce the vulnerability of rural households and communities by providing employment and income alternatives. Migration patterns are complex and a wide articulation of push-and-pull factors, with climate change and degradation of the natural resources base, represent triggers for population movements and livelihoods, which are being reshaped in rural areas (Fargues, 2016). Rural youth, especially skilled youths are increasingly leaving the agriculture sector because they do not inspire to work in agriculture and in rural-related activities that cannot be attractive to them. There may change in the demographic, social, cultural and economic situation of rural communities by the effects of migration.

Being one of the developing countries, Myanmar is also an Agro-based country. By March 2014 Myanmar National census data, total population is 53,908,291 in which 70% population live in rural areas. Most of the people who stay in rural areas work in the agricultural sector and its related fields. There are 42.9% of skilled agricultural, forestry and fishery workers who are male (46.1%) and female (38.2%) (Population Department, 2017). The value of Gross Domestic Product (GDP) in 2017 is 69.322 billion in USD in which agriculture sector is 26% of GDP and 49% of employment; industry sector is 33% of GDP and 18% of employment and service sector is 41% of GDP and 33% of employment, respectively.

Based on the Myanmar economic monitor report, most of the labor forces working in the agriculture sector are 49% (World Bank, 2016). But, now, most of the rural people and young generation have been moving to out of their origins that may be rural-urban, rural-rural, urban-urban and urban-rural migrations. And, it closely relates

economic development to the movement of labor forces from rural to urban areas and there is a gradual reallocation of labors out of agriculture and into industry. As labor migration in Myanmar, there is international migration as two million in which 70.2% of migrants are in Thailand and there are also in Malaysia, China, Singapore, Korea and Japan by 2014 National census data. But for internal migration, it is exactly unrecorded until now (ILO, 2019). Every year, more and more people are trying to move place by place both recorded and unrecorded for their livelihoods and job opportunities, especially from rural areas.

Since after 2008 Nargis cyclone, many people from Ayeyawaddy region have been moving to other areas, especially to Yangon region. Migrated females are much higher than males (Population Department, 2017). Difficulties in their livelihoods are the main reason for their migration. By 2014 National census data, in top twenty district to district flows from recent migrants list, Maubin township is top No. 5 that the people from where a move to North Yangon as 33,369 numbers. As the demographic data of Maubin Township, there are 66,392 households that 7,776 households are in urban areas and the remaining 58,616 households in rural areas. Total population of Maubin Township is 314,093 who male is 152,940 and female is 161,153. There are twelve wards, seventy-six village tracts and 442 villages in Maubin township. Most people live in the rural areas as 86.3% and urban as 13.7%. Proportion of employed persons working in the industry of “agriculture, forestry & fishery” is the highest one with 70.6% (male as 74.1% and female as 64.9%). Main products are rice, fish and meat those are exported to Yangon region.

Based on the General Administration Department, Maubin township (2017) data, there is only a 2.4% unemployment rate. But every day, more and more local people migrate to different places far from their home villages because of different reasons. But there have been no previous studies about key drivers of out-migrations and its effects on the left-behind households in Maubin township that is the research question of this study.

1.2 Objectives of the study

The objectives of the study are:

- (1) To study the current trends of migration in Myanmar
- (2) To examine the causes and effects of out-migration in Maubin township

1.3 Method of study

This study used descriptive method based on both primary and secondary data by using qualitative and quantitative approaches. Two hundred and fifty sample migrants' households had been selected including ten focus group discussions. Primary data was collected by personal interviews and questionnaire through field surveys. Secondary data were gathered by concerned publications, reports, and scholar articles from internally and internationally.

1.4 Scope & Limitation of the study

Survey was only focused on the targeted ten villages, Maubin Township, Delta region and only for the ten-year period from 2007 to 2017 for the whole country survey. Household level study by sample survey was done and data collection to only selected households that knew exactly about the out-migration (Snowball sampling method). And, survey only placed attention on causes of out-migration and its effects on left-behind households in Maubin township.

1.5 Organization of the study

There are five chapters in this study. Chapter one is introduction starts with rationale of the study, objectives of the study, method of study, scope and limitation of the study and concludes by the organization of the study.

Chapter two is about literature review which is organized by definition of migration, types of migration, theoretical review on migration, causes of migration, effects of migration and review on empirical studies.

Chapter three is related with migration in Myanmar and it includes the brief overview on Myanmar migration, demographic characteristics of Myanmar migrants, migration destinations, remittances of Myanmar migrants, main drivers, and its implications.

Chapter four is concerned with survey analysis and explains about study area, survey design, sampling design, questionnaire design and survey results.

The last chapter, chapter five is about conclusion. It describes the survey findings and suggestions based on the findings.

CHAPTER 2

LITERATURE REVIEW

It is important for the studying of the literature review on regarding thesis topic that can provide the theoretical backgrounds, findings of prior empirical studies, suggestions and recommendation for future studies, concrete knowledge and future ideas to the new researchers. A literature review is a comprehensive overview of prior research regarding a specific topic (Denney, 2013) . When doing the literature review, the researchers must study from the broader overview to the specific topics by narrowing down the subject in which the research questions are the leading things. In this chapter, definition of migration, types of migration, theoretical review on migration, causes of migration, effects of migration, role of migrant remittance and review on empirical studies are included.

2.1 Definition of migration

Migration is not a new thing for the human being. Migration is the movement from one region to another and often back again, especially according to the season of the year (Cambridge dictionary, 2019). According to the International Organization for Migration (IOM), migration is the movement of a person or a group of persons, either across an international border or within a state. It is a population movement, encompassing any kind of movement of people, whatever its length, composition and causes. It includes migration of refugees, displaced persons, economic migrants, and persons moving for other purposes, including family reunification (Perruchoud & Redpath-Cross, 2011). By the United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees (UNHCR), migration is often understood to imply a voluntary process, for example, someone who crosses a border in search of better economic opportunities. This is not the case for refugees who cannot return home safely and accordingly are owed specific protections under international law (UNHCR, 2018).

In human history, ancient people also did the migration for their better foods and places, and they always moved place by place with their small or large groups.

Generally, people make migration with various reasons in which some for a better life, better living conditions, diverse job opportunities with higher incomes, more safety places, etc. Some people make migrations individually and some with family as well. Younger generations are more interested in migrating if they think that will be more benefits than the costs for their lives. Nowadays, people do more and more migration especially from rural areas because of more deepening globalization and faster urbanization. Migration is interconnected with geographic, culture, politics and economic and also provides the benefits to businesses, states and communities enormously. Then, migration can support to improve the lives of both host and home countries and mostly they get the enjoys migration.

Migration may be legally or illegally. According to the World migration report (2018), migration is increasingly seen as a high-priority issue by many governments, politicians and the broader public throughout the world. Migration is now more focused as not only Nation level but also international level issue especially for illegal flows because there may be a concern on human and population development, economic development, socio-cultural development; also, for safety and security as well. There are around 244 million internationally migrants in 2015 and 740 million internally migrants in 2009. By this list, internal migration is much higher than the international migrations (McAuliffe, 2018). So, internal migration is also a hot topic and interest for many scholars and researchers.

At 2013, United Nations (UN) estimated that world population will reach 9.6 billion people at 2050 and the population growth will be more congested at the cities of developing countries. Otherwise, UN Population Division also estimated in 2009 that there are 3.42 billion residents in urban areas and the rural people are 3.41 billion globally. According to this estimation, numbers of urban population are higher than the rural population and the urbanization problems and issues will be prominent for all global leaders around the globe.

2.2 Types of migration

Migration types are differently classified by various theorists, scholars and researchers. Migration can be classified in many ways, and its well-established classifications by direction, distance, and duration of journeys at the place of destination. There are four main types of migrations those are circular migration, international migration, internal migration and net migration (Heberle, 1955). Circular

migration is the regular pattern of short-term migration. International migration is people move between countries in which immigration and emigration are divided again. Immigration is that it moves into a new country and emigration is that it moves an out-of-home country. Internal migration is people move only within a country where in-migration and out-migration are defined. In-migration is movement into a new politically, geographically and administratively defined area within the same country. Out-migration is movement out of a politically, geographically and administratively defined area within the same country. Net migration is the net effect of immigration and emigration (or in-migration and out-migration) on an area's population (increase or decrease) (Heberle, 1955).

There are various kinds of migration and it depends on the flow, the number of people involved, the reasons for their movement, the time they spend on migration and lastly the nature of that migration (Ultimate Visa Corporation, 2019). Internal and external migration is defined as the basic types of migration. Internal migration is the movement within a state, country, or continent. External migration is the movement in a different state, country, or continent. As another types of migration, population transfer is when the government pushes or forces a large group of people out of a country or region. This is usually based on ethnicity or religion. It is also otherwise known as a forced migration or involuntary migration. Impelled migration is also called an imposed migration or reluctant migration that is a group of people or an individual leaves a country or region because of unfavorable situations for political, religious, and social factors. Step migration is a progressive step-by-step migration from a shorter distance to a rather farther destination in the end (for example: from city to province to capital to abroad, out of the country). Chain migration is a series or connection of migration within a family or a defined group of people like ethnicity. It begins with one individual who brings in other family members after some time (Ultimate Visa Corporation, 2019).

Then, rural-urban migration is also another type of migration and it is usually an interregional migration with a specific origin is from the country sides or rural areas to a specific destination which is the urban areas of the country. The purpose is usually to find better opportunities to make money. Seasonal migration is usually because of climate or planting reasons. People in the past move from one place to another for the purpose of crop planting and harvesting. At present, people move from one place to another because of climate. Some retirees move from one place to another during the

winter. And, return migration is that some people return to the country or place of origin after outliving the reasons for which they left in the first place (Ultimate Visa Corporation, 2019).

People migrate for a range of different reasons, but over the latter half of the 20th century, it became possible to identify three main types of international migration: labour and temporary migrations, including illegal migration, forced migration (refugee movements) and international retirement migration (IRM). There is also internal migration, most commonly from rural areas to urban centres, but also a trend in some places for counter-urbanization (Bell, Alves, Oliveira, & Zuin, 2010). Labour migration is another type of migration in which it represents the movement of individuals from one country to another with the purpose of seeking work or responding to recruitment drives in another country. However, in labour migration it is possible to identify two types of migrants: highly skilled labour and unskilled low wage labour, including illegal or forced immigrants.

As the different type of migration, forced migration includes not only refugees and asylum seekers fleeing war or political repression but also people displaced from their homes by projects such as dams or roads or as a result of certain natural disasters. There is also another mode of forced migration as the trafficking of people, with special emphasis on women and children destined for the sex industry (Castles, 2003). International retirement migration is a phenomenon of the northern countries such as Germany, the UK and the Nordic countries, characterized by the residential mobility of retired people who have the economic power to buy properties abroad (Rodríguez, 1998).

Net migration is the difference between the number of people entering the territory of a state and the number of persons who leave the territory in the same period. This phenomenon is also called “migratory balance”. This balance is called net immigration when arrivals exceed departures and net emigration when departures exceed arrivals. Total migration is the sum of the entries or arrivals of immigrants, and of exits, or departures of emigrants, yields the total volume of migration, and is termed total migration, as distinct from net migration, or the migration balance, resulting from the difference between arrivals and departures (Perruchoud & Redpath-Cross, 2011).

Mixed movements (or mixed migration) refers to flows of people travelling together, generally in an irregular manner, over the same routes and using the same means of transport, but for different reasons. The men, women and children travelling

in this manner often have either been forced from their homes by armed conflict or persecution or are on the move in search of a better life. People travelling as part of mixed movements have varying needs and may include asylum-seekers, refugees, stateless people, victims of trafficking, unaccompanied or separated children, and migrants in an irregular situation. Mixed movements are often complex and can present challenges for all those involved (UNHCR, 2018).

Return migration is defined by the International Organization for Migration (IOM) as the act or process of going back to the point of departure. It varies from spontaneous, voluntary, voluntary assisted and deportation/forced return. This can also include cyclical/seasonal return, return from short- or long-term migration, and repatriation. Such can be voluntary where the migrant spontaneously returns or assisted where they benefit from administrative, logistical, financial and reintegration support. Voluntary return includes workers returning home at the end of their labour arrangements, students upon completion of their studies, refugees and asylum seekers undertaking voluntary repatriation either spontaneously or with humanitarian assistance and migrants returning to their areas of origin after residency abroad. Return migration can also be forced where migrants are compelled by an administrative or judicial act to return to their country of origin. Forced returns include the deportation of failed asylum seekers and people who have violated migration laws in the host country (Mwangi, 2018).

Otherwise, migration can be also permanent, temporary, voluntary or forced. Permanent migration is when someone moves from one place to another and has no plans to return to their original home. Temporary migration is limited by time that could be for seasonal employment. Forced migration involves the migrant having no choice but to move. Voluntary migration is the opposite of forced migration, and it is based on one's free will and initiative (Internet geography, 2019). Migration can be classified vastly by different perspectives and various researchers.

2.3 Theoretical review on migration

Migration is the complex process and one theory can't afford to explain and predict all migration events, but migration is not the unpredictable process (Haas, 2010). There are many different approaches and perspectives to contribute to the literature of migration theories. Many researchers classify the migration theories by the various factors such as the origin of such theories, patterns of migrations, appropriate

disciplines and application of such theories in the current context (Wimalaratana, 2017). It describes five migration theories in this chapter.

2.3.1 Ravenstein's Law of Migration

Ravenstein's Law of Migration was published in 1885. By this law, females are more migratory than males, and most migrants move only a short distance. Rural inhabitants are more migratory than city residents. There are the push and pull factors in migration stages and the economic motives are the most prominent factor (Ravenstein, 1885).

And, at every migration flow, there is a return or counter-migration. Migration does not mean only leaving people the area and also those coming in. Therefore, there is net migration by calculating the number of immigrants minus the numbers of emigrants in the same area. Migrants choose big cities when they want to go the long distance. Rural migrants do the comparison the costs and benefits before migration because there are cost advantages/disadvantages of urban residents. Single young adults are easier to move internationally migration than small families because they have fewer obligations and transportation costs. Migration increases with economic development and large towns grow more by migration than by natural increase (Ravenstein, 1885).

Generally, many investigators and researchers expanded and systematized his law of migration and did the empirical researches to support on the important of economic motive in migration decision, negative influence of distance and the process of step-migration in some countries, at least (Miheretu, 2011).

2.3.2 Lee's Theory of Migration

According to the Everett S. Lee (1966), migration is the changing of residence by permanently or semi-permanently and there is no restriction upon the distance of the move or upon the voluntary or involuntary nature of the act. And, there is no distinction between external and internal migration. There is an origin, a destination, an intervening set of obstacles and distance of the move at every act of migration. In the act of migration, there are always four factors which enter the decision and process of migration those are (1) Factors associated with the area of origin (2) Factors associated with the area of destination (3) Intervening obstacles and (4) Personal factors (age, sex,

marital status, education, etc.). It affects most people some factors in the same way, while it affects different people in different ways (Lee, 1966).

Then, Lee continue explained about the volume of migration is defined that it depends on the degree of diversity of areas including in the same territory and varies with the people diversification such as race, ethnic origin, education, income, tradition, etc. After that, he also discussed about the stream and counter-stream that most of the migrants follow the well-defined routes as their formal streams and there are mostly counter-stream as well because they can make the contact between origin and destination. Efficiency of migration streams is directly relationship with the intervening obstacles, and it depends on the economic conditions of destinations too (Lee, 1966).

Migrants do the selection for migration by the positive and negative factors (pull and push) of origin and destination depending on the abilities to solve the obstacles and personal factors. Primarily, migrants receive the opportunities as pull factor at destination, but some migrants decide due to the push factor of origin. Otherwise, migration can't avoidable in the life cycle of human beings and at one time, every people has to migrant with some reasons such as getting married, entering the labor force, going away for education, etc. And, the characteristics of migrants are the middle between the characteristics of origin and destination because they do not some like the population of origin (negative factors) and some degree like the population of destination (positive factors) (Lee, 1966).

Decisions to migration are determined by push and pull factors in the areas of origin and destination by intervening obstacles on distance, physical barriers, immigration laws, etc., personal factors such as age, sex, marital status, education, etc., economic, environmental, and demographic factors (Lee 1966; Passaris, 1989; Greenwood, 1997). Push-pull model concept is continuing popular in the literature of migration although it has many limitations (Haas H. D., 2010). It does not account for human nature and human ability upon migration decisions and looks at only the desirability of the human beings to migrate (Howell, 2011).

2.3.3 Lewis' Two-sector Model

There are two well-known theories under the structural-change approach those are "Two-sector surplus labor" and "Patterns of development". W. Arthur Lewis formulated Two-sector surplus labor theory in the mid-1950s and there are two sectors in this theory as Dual economy: a modern (capital) sector and an indigenous (rural)

sector. There are surplus labors at rural agriculture sector with zero marginal labor productivity and they are drawn out to urban industrial sector without loss of outputs. His primary focus is on both labor transfer process and growth of output and employment in modern sector. Prof. Lewis assumes that the rural labor supply is considered to be perfectly elastic over a fixed average subsistence wage. When the capitalists get the profits from their modern sectors, they will do re-investment to get more capitals and the expansion of capital sectors, so that, they will hire more labors from rural sectors with constant rate until all surplus labors are absorbed in capital sectors. By this model, migration is the part of labor transfer from indigenous sector to modern sector (Cumper, 1963).

Though the Lewis model has provided a deep and perceptive analysis of the various problems of underdeveloped countries, it is not free from criticism. Lewis model has been criticized theoretically and empirically by many economists from southeastern Asia and Latin America. There are too many weaknesses in Lewis model those are wage rate does not constant in the real world, capitalists do re-investment in more labor-saving equipment that can't save the more labor, skilled labors do not temporary bottleneck, one-sided theory without consideration the progress in the agricultural sector, labor mobility is difficult in reality, marginal productivity of labor is not zero and the surplus rural labor might receive something as in cash or in kind as their subsistence wages and rural-urban migration may fall in rural production (Pragyandeepa, 2017). Ho (1972) analyzed Lewis model on Taiwan at 1951-1965 periods and what he found that technological progress is more important on economic growth than the sectoral labor migration (Ercolani & Wei, 2010).

2.3.4 Fei-Ranis Model

John Fei and Gustav Ranis (1961) re-modified and extended Lewis's model by combining it with Rostow's (1956) three "Linear-stages-of-growth" theory (Ercolani & Wei, 2010). They presented in "A Theory of Economic Development" article as the process of rural-urban migration in underdeveloped countries. It is also known as the Surplus Labor model and it also recognizes the presence of the dual economy like Lewis. By this model, there is surplus labor in the underdeveloped economy, but the capital is scarce. The major part of the population is working in the agriculture sector that is stagnant. There also exists an industrial sector and non-agricultural sector can't use the large capital for economic growth. In the process of development, there must

be transfer surplus labor from agriculture sector to industrial sector, so that, the productivity will be increased and finally, there is no different on wage between agriculture and industrial sectors. At the same time, agricultural growth must not be negligible, and its outputs should be enough to support the whole population (Divisha, 2017).

There are three phases in this model instead of two in Lewis model those are (1) breakout point leads to phase one growth with excessive agricultural labor (2) shortage point leads to phase two growth with disguised agricultural unemployment and (3) commercialization point leads to phase three of self-sustaining economic growth with the commercialization of the agricultural sector. The main differences with Lewis model are that Fei-Ranis model takes into account the important role of agriculture in boosting economic growth and acknowledgement of increasing in labor productivity by changing and development in agriculture sector. Saving and investment are the key for economic development (Ercolani & Wei, 2010). Fei-Ranis model also faces criticism based on their assumptions that land supply is not fixed in the long run; institutional wage paid to the agricultural workers are much lower than their marginal physical productivity of labor and the institutional wage is not also constant, it is not the closed economy in reality, marginal productivity is not zero and commercialization of agriculture leads to inflation (Divisha S. , 2017).

2.3.5 Harris-Todaro Model

In 1970, Prof. J.R. Harris and P.M. Todaro presented a model on rural-urban migration of underdeveloped countries in an article of Migration, Unemployment and development: A two-sector analysis. The main idea is that in underdeveloped countries, labor migration is because of the expected average wage differences between rural and urban rather than actual wages. The assumption of this model is that migration is primarily on economic phenomena and the individual migrants make their decision rationally for migration. And, rural-urban migration is as an economically rational process despite high urban unemployment. Migrants calculate (preset value of) urban expected income (or its equivalent) and move if this exceeds average rural income. There are four characteristics in this Harris-Todaro model that are (1) Rational economic considerations of relative benefits and costs, (2) Expectation for better employment and wages, (3) Urban job getting and (4) Rural-Urban expected income differentials (Bhagwati & Srinivasan, 1974).

People make comparison various employment opportunities available in rural and urban areas for them and then select the one that has more expected gains than cost of migration. Generally, minimum urban wage is higher than the rural wage and if there is more jobs creation at urban area, there will be more rural to urban migration with minimum wage because expected income in urban sector is higher than the rural income for a given time horizon. By this model, there is wage or income gap between rural and urban sectors. Although urban sector can't give them enough jobs, more and more rural people migrants day to day, so that there are increasing urban unemployment with urbanization problems. And many migrants can't find a good job, and some has to work at informal sectors at wages may be lower than in rural sector. By this model, migration is the adjustment mechanism for workers who divide their labors by themselves between different labor markets, expecting maximum income for them (Miheretu, 2011). Because of expectation for a better income in the future, migrants could continue migrate although their income in the place of destination is lower than the income in origin and they believe that they can compensate their past losses in the long run (Todaro & Smith, 2008). Similarly, migration happens when conditions in the area of origin became intolerable or when the destination appeared attractive (Bekure, 1992).

2.4 Causes of migration

A root cause is the fundamental reason for the happening of an event, in this case, migration. Prior studies have identified the causes of migration in which some are due to push factors and some are for pull factors. Push factors are those factors forcefully push people from one geographic and administration area such as war, conflict, natural and man-made disasters, rare job opportunities, scare resources, limited movement. Pull factors are those factors attract people to move from one geographic and administration area to a certain area such as the good climate condition, rich job opportunities and a good income, human development, freely movement, high security and freedom from fear. Therefore, push-pull factors depend on the various economic, environmental, cultural, socio-politic and physical reasons (What are push and pull factors of migration, 2019).

As another definition, push factors refer to conditions that force people to leave their homes. For example, a person moves because of distress. Migration is triggered by the promise of an easier and more enjoyable life elsewhere. Examples of push factors

can include unemployment, insecurity, scarcity of land, political instability, drought and famine. Often, people leave places where they are less likely to get employment (such as rural areas) and go to urban areas where job opportunities are more plentiful. This factor has been the major reason cities and towns are highly populated. Individuals leave their homes to search for employment in more industrialized areas. And, normally people move away from places that experience terrorism, violence, and high levels of crime, and they move in search of a peaceful and secure environment. Because of the scarcity of land issue, people are forced to migrate in search of more land to cultivate and live in. Individuals in need of undertaking extensive agriculture move to less populated areas. And political instability is also one of the push factors in which the effects of politics force people to move out of their homes or even countries, in search of a peaceful environment. In some areas, people face severe drought and famine issue so that some communities are nomads in that they move away from their land in periods of severe drought and famine in search of water and food (Gilbert, 2017).

On the other hand, pull factors refer to the factors that attract people to move to a certain area. Examples of pull factors include the availability of better job opportunities, religious freedom, political freedom, fertile land and environmental safety. To be the availability of better job opportunities, people seeking employment leave their home to the places where they can access better opportunities. There are places in the world where free worship is not protected, and people will flee from religious prosecution. For getting political freedom, people are attracted to governments that exercise democracy as opposed to dictatorship. People interested in farming are attracted by fertile lands for growing and plantation. Places free from environmental hazards like flooding, earthquakes, tsunamis, and hurricanes attract many people (Gilbert, 2017).

Many studies and researches show that the main causes of migration are mostly due to push factors such as scarce job opportunities, poor education and health systems or services, poverty and debt trap, low return from agricultural works, landlessness and land scarcity, low wages and incomes, civil unrest and less economic opportunities, respectively. The most prominent pull factor is better living standards and income. Poverty and oppression are mainly seen as the root causes of migration and the socio-economic development by rising income, higher education levels and information accessibility are initially associated with increasing migration. Push factors are stronger than pull factors in some cases (Gebru & Beyene, 2012).

Otherwise, migration is a complex phenomenon where macro-, meso- and micro-factors act together to inform the final individual decision to migrate, integrating the simpler previous push–pull theory. Among the macro-factors, the political, demographic, socio-economic and environmental situations are major contributors to migration. These are the main drivers of forced migration, either international or internal, and largely out of individuals’ control. Among the meso-factors, communication technology, land grabbing and diasporic links play an important role. In particular, social media attracts people out of their origin countries by raising awareness of living conditions in the affluent world, albeit often grossly exaggerated, with the diaspora link also acting as an attractor. However, micro-factors such as education, religion, marital status and personal attitude to migration also have a key role in making the final decision to migrate an individual choice. The stereotype of the illiterate, poor and rural migrants reaching the borders of affluent countries has to be abandoned. The poorest people simply do not have the means to escape war and poverty and remain trapped in their country or in the neighboring one. Once in the destination country, migrants have to undergo a difficult and often conflictive integration process in the hosting community (Castelli, 2018).

As the economic and demographic drivers, economic opportunities, demographics, and poverty/food insecurity are prime influencers in the migration decision-making process and interact to greater or lesser degrees, depending on the specific context, to drive migration. The search for livelihoods and economic opportunities are decisive factors for many in migration decision-making. In developing countries, lack of job opportunities, wage differentials, and aspirations propel young people away from home in search of employment and income opportunities. As environmental drivers, a great number of countries identified as ‘climate vulnerable’ tends to experience high rates of emigration. Environmental factors, including those related to climate change and natural disasters, directly and indirectly impact the resilience and vulnerability of individuals, households and communities, and may lead to migration. How climate change drives migration depends heavily on its interaction with other factors, including the perception of risk by affected communities and varies among and within communities.

Most people displaced by disasters remain within their own countries, but cross-border disaster displacement also occurs due to drought, floods, storms, and non-climate related disasters (e.g. earthquakes and nuclear disasters). The effects of slow

onset climate and environmental change are also key drivers. Human-made crises are today among the primary root causes of refugee flows and have an important impact on population movements more generally. People displaced across borders by conflict are refugees rather than migrants. The negative socio-economic impacts of war or permanent unrest may drive migration through negative impacts on labour markets, livelihoods, food and health security, social service delivery and through political instability and social tensions (including the psychological pressure on people living near conflict situations) and the growth of criminal networks.

By knowing the fundamental root causes of migration, policy makers and international governments can develop the concerned policies and interventions to control and manage the huge migration and illegal migration as the international cases. Urbanization is also the key factor for rural-urban migration and the national governments will need to set and implement the rural and urban development strategy and programs to be balanced the growth and development between rural and urban areas.

2.4.1 Migration and Climate Change

There has always been a fundamental interdependency between migration and the environment, but the reality of climate change adds a new complexity to this nexus, while making the need to address it even more urgent. Both gradual environmental change and slow- or sudden onset natural disasters influence population migration patterns but in different ways. Natural disasters may include geological hazards such as earthquakes or volcanic eruptions. They may also be of an atmospheric or hydrological nature, such as tropical storms or floods, with secondary impacts such as landslides. Climate change may exacerbate some latter. Any natural disasters may cause affected populations to leave their homes at least temporarily, although return is often feasible in the long run (Narusova-Schmitz & Lilleorg, 2008). Climate change will cause population movements by making certain parts of the world much less viable places to live and by causing food and water supplies to become more unreliable and increasing the frequency and severity of floods and storms (Brown, 2008).

Although sudden-onset natural disasters are more likely to result in mass displacement, a larger number of people overall is expected to migrate due to a gradual deterioration of environmental conditions. Slow-onset disasters and gradual environmental degradation, including phenomena such as desertification, reduction of

soil fertility, coastal erosion and sea-level rise, which may be associated with climate change, impact existing livelihood patterns and systems of production and may trigger different types of migration (Narusova-Schmitz & Lilleorg, 2008).

Migration, especially a mass influx of migrants, can affect the environment in places of destination. Unmanaged urbanization as well as camps and temporary shelters may produce strains on the environment. In places of origin, on the other hand, out-migration may alleviate population and land use pressure, sometimes allowing a degraded local ecosystem to recuperate. The relationship between environmental and climate change and migration is often complicated by the multifaceted associations with other factors, such as population growth, poverty, governance, human security and conflict (Narusova-Schmitz & Lilleorg, 2008).

There is increasing debates among researchers and scholars about the relationship between climate change (especially degradation) and migration but there are still less empirical studies to show approvals of very large migration flows due to the climate change until now (Campbell, 2014). There is a potential cause for large-scale migration and population displacement due to climate change such as flooding, tropical storms, high temperature, most frequent and more extended droughts and sea-level rise and it will be more significant if the local affected society highly depends on the environment for their livelihoods and if the social factors are more worsen the impacts (Piguet, Pecoud, & Guchteneire, 2012). Climate change will have a progressively increasing impact on environmental degradation and environmentally dependent socio-economic systems with potential to cause substantial population displacement (Warner, Renaud, & Julca, 2010).

There are three options for the people who face the severe environmental degradation those are (1) stay and adapt to mitigate the effects (2) stay, do nothing and accept a lower quality of life and (3) leave the affected area. Movement and mitigation process are mostly related to the complex set of push and pull forces in which push factors relate to the origin area and pull forces relate to the destination (Warner, Renaud, & Julca, 2010). According to the Global report on internal displacement (2018), there are 30.6 million new displacements related with conflict and disasters recorded in 2017 across 143 countries and territories worldwide in which 18.8 million displacements are due to disasters such as landslides, cyclones, floods, droughts, earthquakes, extreme temperature those all are regarded with climate change (Bilak, 2018).

2.4.2 Migration and Urbanization

Migration, whether internal or international, has always been one of the forces driving the growth of urbanization and bringing opportunities and challenges to cities, migrants themselves and governments. Increasingly becoming recognized by local governance as key actors in managing migration and have started including migration in urban planning and implementation. For cities to better manage migration, data on migration and urbanization are essential (IOM, Urbanization and migration, 2019).

According to the World Urbanization Prospects report, today, 55% of the world's population lives in urban areas, a proportion that is expected to increase to 68% by 2050. The gradual shift in residence of the human population from rural to urban areas, combined with the overall growth of the world's population could add another 2.5 billion people to urban areas by 2050, with close to 90% of this increase taking place in Asia and Africa (DESA, 2018). Mostly, urban growth has currently occurred in Asia and Africa' cities that will grow from 414 million (2012) to over 1.2 billion by 2050. Asia's urban population will grow from 1.9 to 3.3 billion. So that, there will be much rural-to-urban migration in Asia (Todaro & Smith, 2008). Urbanization is closely associated with economic growth, but it is not only driven completely by income. Empirical studies found that income differentials between rural and urban areas are the key pull factor and environmental degradation such as loss of farmlands, forests and pastures which is the main push factors as well. The main reasons for rural-urban migration are economic opportunities and earning disparity by the supporting of social networks channels (Malik, 2015).

In 1970, there were only 2 megacities but in 1999, there were 10, and by 2011, there were 23 metropolises in which 18 were located in the developing world. By 2025, over 80% (30 out of 37 megacities) will be in developing countries. Rural-urban migration is the main cause for rapid urbanization, and migrants are continually flowing into cities from rural areas. There are also urbanization problems and informal sectors development altogether with rapid urbanization. Urban problems such as increasing in living costs, scarcity of urban job opportunities, increasing in urban population, congestion costs, health care problem, electricity, water and sanitation problems in urban areas, other social and environmental problems are more prominent in those days (Todaro & Smith, 2008).

Urbanization can place stress on the land through sprawl and coincident industrial development may threaten air and water quality. Rapid urbanization is also

linked to problems of unemployment and the social adaptation of migrants in their new urban setting. Cities advertise society's inequalities in income, housing, and other social resources, whether these problems are new or just newly manifest in urban settings. The changes in the technology of communication and transportation have made it easier for migrants to stay in touch with their origin communities. This is more than maintaining simple social ties. The tightness and stability of these connections can reinforce the implicit contracts that generate sharing of resources across locations. The technologies of communication help impart knowledge of job market opportunities within and across national borders (White, 2011).

In low and middle-income nations, urbanisation is driven by net rural-urban migration responding to better economic opportunities in urban areas, or by the lack of opportunities in rural home areas. In many low and middle-income nations, urban growth has been accompanied by the rapid expansion of unplanned, under-served neighbourhoods with high concentrations of poor people. In many urbanising nations' urban poverty is an important and growing problem. Excessive migration is not its source, however, and measures to curb migration can easily make both urban and rural poverty worse. Local governments play perhaps the most important role in ensuring that urbanisation is inclusive and that its benefits are shared. While migrants are often perceived as increasing urban poverty, it is important to keep in mind that the very large proportion of the urban population of low- and middle-income nations that lack access to adequate housing, basic infrastructure and services comprises migrants and non-migrants alike (Tacoli, 2017).

2.5 Effects of migration

According to Mckinsey Global Institute Report (2016), the world's 247 million cross-border migrants contributed absolutely to global output of roughly USD 6.7 trillion, or 9.4 percent of global GDP, in 2015. And, migration can improve labor allocation for more productive regions and occupations as a global level and mostly both origin and destination countries get the benefits from migration (Woetzel, Madgavkar, & Rifai, 2016).

But there are benefits and costs as the consequences of migration. Migration is the root causes of rapid and excessive urbanization, high urban unemployment, income disparity and inequalities, "ecological stress and population mal-distribution" but at the other hand, migration is the essential part of economic growth and development by

facilitating industrialization, increasing income and resources re-distribution, introducing new technological changes in agriculture sector. And, migration is also the basic human right by ensuring one's choosing places to improve their welfare and economic benefits (Cumper, 1963). Remittance is the most notable benefits of migration especially for the people in origins.

Migration is becoming a very important subject for the life of cities. Many opportunities and attraction of big cities pull large numbers of people to big cities. Migration can have positive and negative effects on the lives of the migrants. As for the positive impact, unemployment is reduced and people get better job opportunities, migration helps in improving the quality of life of people, migration helps to improve the social life of people as they learn about the new culture, customs, and languages which help to improve brotherhood among people, migration of skilled workers leads to a greater economic growth of the region, migrated families' children get better opportunities for higher education, migration helps to reduce population density and decrease the birth rate. As the negative impact, losing a person from rural areas impacts on the level of output and development of rural areas, the influx of workers in urban areas increases competition for the job, houses, school facilities etc., having a large population puts too much pressure on natural resources, amenities and services, it is difficult for a villager to survive in urban areas because in urban areas there is no natural environment and pure air.

Migrated people have to pay for each and everything at the destinations and migration changes the population of a place. And, many migrants are illiterate and uneducated, therefore, they are not only unfit for most jobs in the cities but also lack basic knowledge and life skills. Poverty makes them unable to live a normal and healthy life and their children are growing up in poverty and then have no access to proper nutrition, education, and health. Otherwise, migration increased the slum areas in cities which increase many problems such as unhygienic conditions, crime and pollution. Sometimes migrants are exploited and migration is one of the main causes of increasing nuclear family where children grow up without a wider family circle (Migration and Its Effects, 2019).

The economic effects of migration vary widely. Sending countries may experience both gains and losses in the short term but may stand to gain over the longer term. For receiving countries, temporary worker programs help to address skills shortages but may decrease domestic wages and add to the public welfare burden. The

economic effects of migration for both sending and receiving countries may also vary depending on who is moving, specifically regarding migrant workers' skill levels. For sending countries, the short-term economic benefit of emigration is found in remittances.

The social effects of migration amongst others consist of a change in family composition, family separations and the abandonment of old people, child outcomes in terms of labour, health and education (Markova, 2005). Conditions affecting health in the country of origin and during the journey may include war, torture, loss of relatives, long stays in refugee camps (which may have poor sanitation and overcrowding), imprisonment, and socioeconomic hardship. After arriving in the host country migrants may experience imprisonment, long-lasting asylum-seeking processes, language barriers, lack of knowledge about health services, loss of social status, discrimination and marginalization (Patterson, 2003).

Migration may also affect risk perception and risk behaviour. Feelings of loss and psycho-social issues related to lower social positions, unemployment and being in a minority may lead to a feeling of lack of connection between current risk behaviour and future health effects (i.e. migrants may be forced to focus on their current feelings rather than the future health effects of their current health behaviour). Migration also has the health implications for the country migrants have left. Individuals who emigrate for economic opportunities may cause a 'brain drain' in their country of origin, when many individuals with technical skills or knowledge leave, potentially depleting the local infrastructure. This particularly affects healthcare because there are often economic incentives for healthcare professionals to migrate. There are health implications of migration in the host (destination) country. Some host countries are worried about the presence of infectious diseases in migrants, and screening of migrants (though a contentious human rights issue) has been adopted, to varying degrees, by several countries throughout the world (Patterson, 2003).

When people migrate from one nation or to another, they carry their knowledge and expressions of distress with them. On settling down in the new culture, their cultural identity is likely to change, and that encourages a degree of belonging. They also attempt to settle down by either assimilation or biculturalism. Then, migration has contributed to the richness in the diversity of cultures, ethnicities and races in developed countries. Individuals who migrate experience multiple stresses that can impact their mental well-being, including the loss of cultural norms, religious customs, and social

support systems, adjustment to a new culture and changes in identity and concept of self. Indeed, the rates of mental illness are increased in some migrant groups (Bhugra, 2004).

As demographic effects, migration reduces population growth in rural areas. Separation from wives for long periods and the use of contraceptives help control population growth. When very young males migrate to urban areas, they are so influenced by the urban life that they dislike marrying at an early age. The aim of migrants is to earn more, settle in any vocation or job, and then marry. Living in urban areas makes the migrants health conscious. Consequently, migrants emphasize the importance of health care and cleanliness, which reduces fertility and mortality rates. Otherwise, migration increases the population of the working class in urban areas. And the majority of migrants are single young men or women and married men who leave their families at home. This tendency keeps fertility at a lower level than in rural areas. Even those who settle permanently with their spouses favour the small number of children for high costs of rearing them. The other factor responsible for low fertility rate is the availability of better medical and family planning facilities in urban areas (Divisha S., 2017).

Studies show that most of the positive migration consequences are increasing income, better quality of life, fulfillment of food shortage, increased in productive assets, promote poverty reduction, better health care and children's education. As the negative consequences, there are scarcity of job opportunities, housing issues, electricity, water & sanitation problems and cultural differences at urban areas. At rural agriculture sector, there are increasing workloads on rural women, but it may also be signs of women's empowerment (Gebru & Beyene, 2012). Migrants and their families have to accept both the positive and negative consequences of migration.

2.5.1 Role of migrant remittance

Migrant remittance is the one kind of economic effect of migration. Remittances are usually understood as financial or in-kind transfers made by migrants to friends and relatives back in communities of origin. Financial remittance is a private transfer of funds by a foreigner to an individual in their country of origin. Financial remittances have been recognized as playing a key role in reducing poverty and improving the lives of both migrants and their families. Remittances can also be sent within countries and not just across borders. These are called internal remittances. Furthermore, not all

remittances are of financial or in-kind nature. Social remittances are defined as “the ideas, behaviours, identities and social capital that flow from receiving- to sending-country communities” (Levitt, 1998). Social remittances include innovative ideas, valuable transnational networks, knowledge, political values, policy reforms and new technological skills. In numerical terms, there are more international migrants around the world than at any other period in history, and most of them are migrant workers. The World Bank estimates indicate that in 2017, USD 466 billion was transferred in financial remittances to low- and middle-income countries –and this trend is likely to continue upwards. Financial and social remittances have an important role to play in the achievement of individual family goals (IOM, Press Releases, 2018).

Migration itself brings about positive effects in home countries. It contributes to reducing poverty. While it may vary by labor market conditions in the home country, out-migration would also release the pressure from unemployment and could increase wages. Furthermore, returning migrants or diaspora could contribute to economic development through generating investment and trade, transferring know-hows and technology, strengthening business networks, and returning with strengthened human capital. Migrants themselves also gain. According to the United Nations data, poorest migrants, on average, experienced a 15-fold increase in income, a doubling of school enrollment rates, and a 16-fold reduction in child mortality after moving to a country with higher standards of living than their home countries (Caplan, 2018).

Empirical evidence also suggests that remittance receiving households spend more on housing, health, and education than those with no remittances. Remittances also helped to receive households to smooth out consumption and enable them to better cope with disasters or sudden economic distress. Receiving households spend remittances on necessities, education and health and have little left to invest in financial instruments or other income-generating opportunities. This is due to overall financial sector underdevelopment, lack of suitable financial instruments, insufficient knowledge and financial literacy among migrants and their families. Remittances, if channeled through the formal financial system, can be significant resources for the countries’ growth and development; and effective measures to leverage remittances (Ratha, Yi, & Yousefi, *Magnitude and Pattern of Migration and Remittances*, 2018).

The global remittance market is vast and impacts both low income and high-income countries in significant ways. Salary levels in high-income countries are approximately five times higher those in developing countries for similar occupations,

creating a massive incentive to emigrate. Migrants are earning industrial country salaries yet sending and spending that money in their native countries. The additional income created by remittances goes much further in developing countries where domestically generated goods are traded in local currencies. As the benefits of remittance, it enables the standard of living of the recipient and the overall economy of the receiving country, to improve due to an influx of wealth and buying power. Migrant remittances have become an increasingly important feature of modern economic life. International migration generates significant benefits for originating countries with by far the largest of these being remittances. As migration rates increase, so do remittance levels. The latest figures estimate the global market value of remittances is \$268 billion, and that it is growing at a rate of 8% a year (Caplan, 2018).

Remittances may help improve economic growth, especially if used for financing children's education or health expenses. Even when they are used for consumption, remittances generate multiplier effects, especially in countries with high unemployment. In many other countries, a large part of remittances are invested in real estate, reflecting both a desire of migrants to provide housing to families left behind, and a lack of other investment instruments in the recipient community. Whether remittances are used for consumption or buying houses, or for other investments, they generate positive effects on the economy by stimulating demand for other goods and services (Ratha, *Workers' Remittances: An Important and Stable Source*, 2005).

Otherwise, remittances as a source of capital and support affects millions of households around the world. Remittances play an increasingly significant role in migrant households by influencing their economic activities, such as consumption or savings and investment (Nayyar, 2002). Some empirical studies on remittances show that remittances in labor exporting poor countries are largely used for consumption needs; mostly to buy food and clothing, to pay for housing and health care expenses. Private remittances are becoming an increasingly important part of the financial landscape of many developing countries. Indeed, for some such countries, these flows are the single most important type of international capital inflow as public or private and they have become an important source of purchasing power and foreign exchange. The growing importance of remittances has stimulated a great deal of discussion among scholars and policymakers (Gabel, 2010).

And the financial position of the migrant household plays a significant role in the utilization pattern of remittances. When the domestic financial position of a

household is weak, a large proportion of remittances may be used to meet the basic consumption needs. It implies that at low levels of income a large number of essential needs are not met. But, once the inflow of remittances removes liquidity constraints in the poor household, firstly, a large share of remittances may be devoted to consumption expenditure. But, when the domestic financial position of a household is strong (the higher income level of a household), in contrast, a significant share of remittances may be devoted to the investment activities. For these households, basic needs are already met with the household's domestic income.

Thus, as income rises with the inflow of remittances, a large share of remittances would be devoted to investment activities. The utilization pattern of remittances changes with the length of the stay of the migrants in a host country, value of remittances received per household, destination country of migrants and legal status of migrants in the destination country. As debt settlements are completed in the early years of the international migration and also the basic needs of migrant households are met with the smaller share of remittances, an increasing portion of remittances is oriented towards investment. There is evidence that the utilization patterns of remittances are different among the different categories of migrant households (Awan, Khan, & Khan, 2013).

One major contribution of migration excluding Western populations is the cash or other resources transfer between migrants and their families who remained in the place of origin. But it cannot say exactly that savings or support may only come from urban areas to rural origin (Leinbach & Watkins, 1998). For developing countries, remittance money is a very important and main income source for the people of origin because most of them solely depend on it. According to World Bank and Asia Development Bank co-publication report in 2016, estimated amount of remittance is \$250 billion in which more than half of the total remittance flows to the developing countries. These remittances help for macroeconomic stability, poverty reduction, and human capital building of developing countries (Caplan, 2018). International remittances are more efficient for significant household incomes, livelihoods and living conditions improvements by remittance investments than internal migration (de Haas, 2007) .

Pant (2008) argues that, whether remittances are utilized for consumption or purchasing houses, or other investments, they produce the positive impact on the economy by stimulating demand for other goods and services. Migrants provide

different forms of capital that have the developmental impact on their countries of origin. These impacts may be in the form of financial, social, cultural, political and/or economic impacts. The impact can be examined at both micro levels, like in case of households, and macro-level like impact on GDP growth, poverty and development (Pant, 2008). Most percentage of remittances is used for consumption. Remittances support for basic human needs such as food, clothing, shelter, educational expenses, consumer goods, property and livestock in the countries of Asia, Africa, Middle East and Latin America. Only a small percentage (10-15%) is saved or invested for production (Buch & Kuckulenz, 2004).

The majority of the existing studies, which focus on the impact of migration on household members left behind, have shown positive impacts in both the short and long run. Rapoport and Docquier (2006) show how the household members who are left behind use migrants' remittances. Remittances are used to repay loans taken to finance migration or education, and insurance and strategic motives. It also directly contributes to household income, allowing households to purchase more assets; enables higher investment in business; and facilitate buying more goods, including education and health inputs (Rapoport & Docquier, 2006). Hildebrandt and McKenzie (2005) emphasized the knowledge transfer and change in attitudes of the remaining family members of the migrants (Hildebrandt & McKenzie, 2005).

There are both positive and negative factors regarding remittances. As the positive factors, remittance can assist in poverty reduction, human capital building and development, the collection of financial resources lead to increasing national gross domestic products (GDP) of migrants sending countries. As the negative factors, there will absolutely depend on remittance and loss of labor forces, litter or no investment in capital generating activities, reducing good work habits by high dependency, increased demands on consumer goods lead to inflation and higher wages (Coon, 2007).

2.6 Review on previous studies

There were limited studies upon the topic of causes of out-migration and its effects on left-behind households in Maubin township. The following studies were observed as parts of the literature review on the causes of migration and its socio-economic impacts on their respective families applied in the present study.

Aung Kyaw Thu (2013) studied on socio-economic status of internal migrants in Hlaingtharyar Township. The results of this study showed that low income in rural

area, scarcity of job opportunities, less economic opportunities, crop failure, family problems and many of crimes as the major causes of rural-urban migration. As the consequences, it was found that increased living cost in urban areas, scarcity of urban job opportunities, increased population congestion. There was statistically significant correlation between current income of respondents and satisfactory of socio-economic status. Result of this study showed that there was also statistically significant correlation between marital status of respondents and improvement of health status.

Khin Soe Soe Moe (2014) studied the labor migration and its socio-economic impact on their respective families (A case study of four villages from Kyauk Taw township). The results of the study showed that migration and remittances could have mixed impacts on migrant sending households. It helped the households to solve faced hardship of families and provide for meeting the basic needs for the poor and then access to invest on small-scale economic activities but there were many adverse effects of migration on families as well as community due to migration. However, the study did not find any convincing proof regarding the impact of remittances on sustainable livelihood solutions for migrant sending households. It was recommended as the original insight for the consequence of rural poor migration and adaptable idea or activities on the local situation.

Kyaw Zin Oo (2017) studied about effects of migrants' remittance on living conditions of rural areas in Mon state (Case study: four villages in Mawlamyine Township). Major findings showed that the amount of remittances was not large enough for many recipients to make investments and that despite this saving and investment situations of rural households being not remarkably improved, the education, health care, communication, transportation, knowledge and the living standard of rural people had been developed. Mostly migration brought huge benefits, fueling growth and innovation in both their host and source countries.

Miheretu (2011) investigated the causes and consequences of rural-urban migration, the case of Woldiya town, North Ethiopia in June 2011. As the major findings, the causes of migration were seeking employment, famine, poverty, crop failure, lack of oxen, land shortage, poor families, free from family or cultural restrictions and obligations, join immediate relatives and friends or following them, gain education and training, seek modern urban services and facilities, job transfer, extended personal business and seek good climate. As the consequences of migration,

housing/shelter problem, job problem, cultural differences, un-accessible social services and other amenities.

Moses Lomoro Alfred Babi, Xiong Guogping and John Leju Celestino Ladu (2017) studied about causes and consequences of rural-urban migration: The case of Juba Metropolitan, Republic of South Sudan. The major causes of migration were seeking for employment, educational attainment, being in rural poverty, crop failure, land shortage, lack of cattle and poor facilities, job transfer and seeking for good climate. As the consequences of migration, remitted money was expensed as an ingredient in agriculture, purchasing of consumption items and invested in other livelihood activities. But, as the negative points, the migrants faced the housing and transportation issues, health care problem, electricity, water and sanitation problems at urban areas (Babi, Guogping, & Ladu, 2017).

CHAPTER 3

MIGRATION IN MYANMAR

In this chapter, Myanmar's migration situation from 2007 to 2017 is presented as brief migration situation, patterns of Myanmar migration, demographic characteristics of Myanmar migrants, migration destinations, remittances of Myanmar migrants, main drivers and its implications.

3.1 Brief overview on Myanmar migration

Migration is the world's oldest poverty reduction strategy. It is an indispensable engine for human development; a driver of economic growth and a source of dynamic and innovative cultures. There is a growing recognition that migration is an essential and an inevitable component of the economic and social life of every country. Migration has always played a vital role in providing people with a means to maintain and sustain life. People have gathered resources and accumulated wealth through migration that has helped them to address poverty (Griffiths & Ito, 2016). The people of Myanmar have long used migration as a survival strategy for the safe refugee and for the livelihood. Those who have migrated not only support themselves but also try to remit enough money to allow their families and communities to manage (ILO, 2019).

Myanmar has long borders with Thailand, Laos, China, India and Bangladesh. Myanmar migrants move within country and across its various long borders. But most of them are labor migrants. Drivers of migration are complex that those are due to both push and pull factors. Most Myanmar migrants' main international destination is Thailand where 67% of migrated male and 77% migrated female are working there. As international migration, there are up to 10% of Myanmar population (4.25 million) and as internal migration, there are almost 20% of population (9.39 million). As the positive impact of migration, there are 10% increases in international remittance that can support to reduce 3.5% in poverty. Then, in Greater Mekong Sub-region (GMS), Myanmar is the largest source of labor migration (IOM, 2019).

As the international migration, the growing number of migrant workers from Myanmar are attempting to use official channels to migrate, either through licensed overseas employment agencies or in the case of Republic of Korea through a government-to-government arrangement. However, due to the costs, the time, the lack of assurances of better conditions, the vast majority of migrants from Myanmar continue to migrate irregularly. Thus, creating a dependency on brokers and an urgency for the jobs which exposes the migrants to exploitation and extortion. Only when it is a choice will migrants be able to select the safest methods of recruitment and the jobs and destinations that offer true labour protections (ILO, 2019).

New patterns of internal migration are also developing in response to new developments in the country. Growth of industries, including manufacturing and construction, draw young people from the rural areas to urban areas. Young women also move to work in domestic work. There is also considerable rural to rural movement especially for seasonal agricultural work and mining. Internal migrants, far from home and often experiencing a different culture and language, can be vulnerable to exploitation in the migration process and in the workplace. Finding suitable accommodation at an affordable price is also a major challenge. The risks for internal migrants are increased if they don't have full citizenship documents and if they have to pay brokers to migrate. Their risks of being in situations of forced labour increase in work sectors which have few labour protections especially domestic work, fishing, mining and construction (ILO, 2019).

Remittance is a key benefit of migration for families who send migrant workers to both internally and internationally. According to the World Bank report, in 2015, official remittance to Myanmar was USD 3.5 billion. Then Ministry of Labor, Employment and Social Security estimated that there could be USD 8 billion remittances to Myanmar via official and un-official flows in 2015. Migrants use both formal and informal channels for sending remittances so that some can be recorded but some are not (IOM, 2019).

Otherwise, Myanmar migrants use official and un-official ways to go abroad. So, they all have the risks of trafficking, exploitation, and abuses, but the majority of Myanmar migrants do not face those issues. National and international governments have duties to protect migrants according to international laws and regulations that is their national priority because migrants can benefit to both origin and destination countries. Myanmar national government cooperates bilateral and international

governments, UN and NGOs/CSOs for strengthening migration managements, border management, human trafficking within and across borders too (IOM, 2019). Migration itself is not always straightforward. Human patterns of movement reflect the conditions of a changing world and impact the cultural landscapes of both the places people leave and the places they settle (Hunter, 2019). There are two main types of migration those are internal and international migrations.

3.1.1 Internal migration

Since 2012, Myanmar's economy has seen a slight shift away from agriculture toward industry and services. This may mark the beginning of a structural transformation away from a rural, agricultural economy toward a more urban, industrial, and service-based economy. Urbanization and job creation in urban areas have the potential to have a significant impact on labor and mobility patterns, especially for the landless and land-poor workers that account for a large part of the rural workforce. Migration flows can also have long-term social and economic consequences in rural areas as members of the labor force, particularly young people, move into cities and towns (World Bank, 2016).

There is no international definition for internal migrant workers. Similarly, no legal definition of internal migrant workers has been formally adopted by the Government of Myanmar (Griffiths & Ito, 2016). By 2014 National census document, internal migration is defined as “movements between townships” over 6 months and migrant people change their residence “permanently or semi-permanently” (Gupta, 2016). International Labor Organization (ILO) defined that internal migrant worker is “a person who migrates or who has migrated from one place to another inside the country to be employed”, beyond his/her native village or ward of origin for the duration of over one month (Gupta, 2016).

Internal migration generally refers to the mobility of people from their origin areas (departure area) to a new place (destination area) for work purpose but remaining in-country. Distance, frequency and duration of such movements vary accordingly to which they are given by various terms such as seasonal, temporary or permanent migration (Maharjan, 2015). By the International Organization for Migration (IOM), internal migration is a movement of people from one area of a country to another area of the same country for the purpose or with the effect of establishing a new residence. This migration may be temporary or permanent. Internal migrants move but remain

within their country of origin (e.g. rural to urban migration) (Perruchoud & Redpath-Cross, 2011). And, lifetime migrants are defined as those persons who moved between townships at any time since their birth. According to thematic report on migration and urbanization, 21.5 percent of lifetime migrants moved between districts within States/Regions, and 49.4 percent moved between States/Regions (Population Department, 2017).

According to Myanmar national census data (2014), total numbers of internal migrants are 9,391,126 in which males are 4,453,017 and females are 4,938,109. It follows top three main reasons for movement as followed family - 40.8%, employment/searching employment - 34.3% and marriage - 15.7% (Population Department, 2017). As geographic patterns, across state/region for labour migration is 62% and within state/region is 38% by ILO report, 2015 (Rogovin, 2015). According to LIFT's formal sector survey (2014), at 2013-2014, only 38.9% of migrants moved from one state/region to another for their jobs and the intra-regional migration was 48.7% (Griffiths & Ito, 2016). By comparing these two reports, across the state/region migration rate is higher but at the same time intra-regional rate is lower within one year. Top three major occupation sectors are construction (28%), manufacturing (25%) and agriculture (11%) and migrants' average monthly income is MMK 108,180 or USD 85 (overall) in which male migrants' monthly average income is MMK 121,775 or USD 96 and average monthly income of female workers is MMK 82,319 or USD 65 (Rogovin, 2015).

Rural-rural or urban-urban is a common type of intra-regional migration but for across region/state type, rural-urban migration is more significant (Rogovin, 2015). There are only four states/regions having net in-migration, namely Yangon, Shan, Kayah and Kachin while Magway, Mandalay, Bago and Ayeyawaddy are the source of out-migration states/regions. Main urban destinations are Yangon and Mandalay (Maharjan, 2015). 71% of all formal sector workers are from Ayeyawaddy, Yangon, Mandalay and Bago.

Most migrants in formal sector labour in Yangon are from Ayeyawaddy region. Otherwise, Ayeyawaddy region and Dry Zone are net exporters of migrant labour to the formal sector, whilst Yangon is a net migrant importer. Yangon imports younger men, but exports older men (Griffiths M. a., 2014). There are also industrial zones that have been established outside of Yangon that is the main attraction for the migrant workers. Then, Mandalay has four zones, Ayeyawaddy has three, Bago and Magway

have two each, and Mon, Sagaing, Shan and Tanintharyi have one. Each of these zones are specifically designed to attract local and sometimes foreign investment. All are attracting workers and are contributing to increasing in-migration (Population Department, 2017).

The Districts with a high volume of out-migration are concentrated in Ayeyawaddy Region. All six districts of Ayeyawaddy lost migrants to districts in Yangon in the five years prior to the 2014 Myanmar national census. The largest loss was from Phyapon District to North Yangon, where a total of 51,806 persons migrated, but Hinthada, Maubin, Labutta and Thayawady all lost over 29,000 people, all of whom went to North Yangon. But besides these internally displaced persons, Ayeyawaddy, a relatively poor agricultural region, continues to lose population through migration to the more developed city of Yangon. Some Townships of Ayeyarwaddy region have experienced high out-migration due to low prices for agricultural products. Yangon experienced the highest rate of net in-migration, while the largest net loss of population was in Ayeyawady (Population Department, 2017).

According to Myanmar national census data (2014), 53% of all internal migrants are women and 70.6% of all internal migrants are under the 35-year. Migrant women are more educated by comparing the 1991 and 2007 data. At 1991, 1 in 2 female migrants was un-educated but in 2007, there was only 1 in 10. Friends and family members are the most reliable sources of information in the case of destination selection for 73% of potential labor migrants. Only 54% of migrants do job arrangements before their moving and 72% of migrants received helps for job finding from their friends, relatives or labor brokers (Rogovin, 2015). Generally, migrants are not accessible the information about safe migration, knowledge on working conditions and migrant workers' rights (IOM, Press Releases, 2018).

According to LIFT's Formal sector survey (2013-2014), 78% of all formal sector migrants sent remittances back in which Ayeyawaddy and Dry Zone had the highest rate of remittance. "Overall, remittance rates were highest for younger and unmarried migrants" (Griffiths M. a., 2014). Because of out-migrations, there are shortage of labors and difficulty to hire workers especially during farming seasons although returned migrants get the new skills, knowledge, attitudes and perceptions (Rogovin, 2015). Casual laborers strongly favored domestic long-term migration, whereas landowners, whether small, medium or large, were equally likely to turn to

international migration. Domestic long-term migration preferred option of casual labourers is a response to limited rural opportunities (World bank, 2016).

From the gender point of view, migration is not gender neutral. Whereas in internal migration, both men and women migrate but international migration is mostly male dominated. Also, the sector of employment has a clear gender division with women in the higher demand in tea plantations, other agriculture works, garment factories, and as domestic help; whereas men are much preferred in the rubber plantation, mines, and the construction sector (Maharjan, 2015). Overall, women were less inclined to migrate than men. The vast majority of women who migrated undertook long-term domestic migration, primarily looking for work in factories in the manufacturing sector in urban areas of Yangon and, to a lesser extent, Mandalay. Destinations for these women varied based on pre-existing migration patterns and geographic locations (World Bank, 2016).

Internal migration is almost exclusively organized relying on social networks and traditional trade/labour routes. With the traditional routes proving to be less attractive, there is more dependence on family, relatives, and friends in deciding when and where to move and in finding jobs. There are also cases where persons arranging the migration of labourers from origin to destination areas - also called labour brokers/agents - are involved in migration organization, for which they are paid either in cash or in kind (Maharjan, 2015).

3.1.2 International migration

According to the UNDESA Myanmar country data (2017), there are 74.7 thousand as total number of international migrants from Myanmar that is the 0.1% of the total population. As the share of female migrants in the international migrant stock, the total percentage is 45.2. The percentage of international migrants 19 years and younger living in the country/region is 27.7 and 65 years and older is 8.8 percent. As the comparison data between 2010 and 2017, the numbers of international migrations were 98,000 (2010) and 75,000 (2017). Then, the international migrants as the percentage of population were 0.2 (2010) and 0.1 (2017). Female migrants' percentage among international migrants was 46.8 (2010) and 45.2 (2017). Median age of international migrants were 31.7 years (2010) and 36.9 years (2017). As the forced migration by UNHCR (2018) data, total number of refugees by the country of origin (Myanmar) is 1.1 million (UNDESA, 2019).

According to Myanmar national census data (2014), total numbers of Myanmar nationals who livings abroad are 2,021,910 and major destination countries are Thailand, Malaysia, China and Singapore. By the Myanmar Statistical Yearbook (2017), Myanmar people's vital destinations for overseas employment were Thailand, Malaysia, Korea, Japan and Singapore (Central Statistical Organization, 2017). Major source regions are Mon–27.2%, Tanintharyi–13.2%, Shan–12.6% and Bago–9% to Thailand; to Malaysia (Yangon–15%, Mon–11%, Mandalay–10%, Magway–10%, Bago–9%, Rakhine–9%, Sagaing–9% and Chin–9%) and to China (Shan–46%, Magway–12%) (Population Department, 2017). As of Employment Department, Royal Thai Government data (Sep 2018), “total Myanmar migrant workers were 2,202,394 in which 1,038,584 had had their nationally verified. And, 385,011 labor workers came to Thailand via MoU process; 777,217 were awaiting nationality verification and 1,582 were seasonal workers with cross border passes” (Choragudi, 2018). Districts in the States of Mon and Kayin are the origin of many of the emigrants to Thailand. There are also large numbers of migrants to destinations abroad from Districts in Bago, Mon, Kayin, and Tanintharyi and, for males, one District in Rakhine State (Population Department, 2017). By these two databases, finding is that Myanmar labors are more and more moving to Thailand for their employments.

Myanmar has experienced net migration out of the country between 2000 to 2010. The rates for Myanmar were estimated at minus 5.6 and minus 5.8 per 1,000 population for the periods 2000 to 2005 and 2005 to 2010, respectively. Emigration is dominated by males but there are variations among the receiving countries. Although the number of emigrants to the Republic of Korea is relatively small, less than 15,000, males are particularly dominant in this migration flow, with almost 3,000 males for every 100 females. Far more males migrate to Malaysia than females, with four times as many males as females reported as living there. As in the Republic of Korea (South Korea), the number of males compared to females is greater in the working ages. Most migrants to Malaysia work in unskilled occupations in a labour force that attracts many more males than females. It is likely that the lack of opportunities for female migrants means that many looks to other countries, such as Thailand, as potential destinations. While many of these female migrants are unmarried, there are also families, especially those of unregistered migrants who move to Thailand (Population Department, 2017).

It mostly takes international migration up by medium to high land holding households to improve their livelihood situations and rarely by landless/near landless

households. The major reason for international migration is the high wages in the destinations. As compared to internal migration, cross border/international migration has both higher costs and risk and returns (Maharjan, 2015). Investment in international migration is not something available to all households. Families with assets such as land are more likely to send household members abroad. It makes investments in international migration on the assumption that returns will be more considerable (Maharjan, 2015).

By gender, the numbers of male migrant were greater than the numbers of female migrants in eight destination countries except Singapore according to the data of Department of Population (2017). Myanmar emigrants to Singapore are more likely to be females than males. Besides the large percentages of recent Myanmar emigrants, both male and female, that originated from Districts located in Bago, Kayin, Mon and Taninthayri States/Regions, there are Districts in Chin State that also reported a large percentage of recent emigrants. There are also moderate levels of migration from Kachin State and Rakhine State. There were a significantly higher percentage of male migrants to Malaysia (81%) and the Republic of Korea (97%) than the percentage of female migrants, 19 and 3 percent respectively. Male and female migrants' percentages (more or less around 50%) were not very different in Thailand, China, USA and Japan.

According to the recorded data of Myanmar Labor department (2017), the numbers of migrated workers have been increasing year by year as well that also records the numbers of oversea people who officially go abroad for employments (Central Statistical Organization, 2017). The number of Myanmar migrants had been increasing to Thailand from 2010 to 2017. For Malaysia, there were the highest numbers of migrants as 35967 during 2015 to 2016 but in 2017, the migrant numbers were slightly decreased to 25154. For Korea, in 2011-2012, the numbers of Myanmar migrants were sharply increased from 666 to 2348 and continuously had been increasing to 5501 at 2016-2017. But there were no Myanmar migrants to Qatar at 2010-2011, 2014-2015 and 2015-2016. For Japan, the Myanmar migrants were prominently increased from 2010 to 2017. And, the following Table 3.1 shows the detailed list of official Myanmar migrants from 2010 to 2017 to different countries.

Table (3.1) Placement of workers for overseas employment

Placement of workers for overseas employment	Year						
	2010-2011	2011-2012	2012-2013	2013-2014	2014-2015	2015-2016	2016-2017
	Numbers of workers						
Thai	1658	12827	43099	33172	35820	62380	113210
Malaysia	2442	12469	28892	23243	29224	35967	25154
Korea	666	2348	2931	4366	4220	4870	5501
Singapore	687	476	605	699	493	432	621
Qatar		13	29	71			131
United Arab Emirates	138	189	20	12	2	170	214
Kuwait		18					
Japan	12	7	8	63	875	1794	2486
Hong Kong				19	154	1	
Maccu						2	2
Laos							62
Total	5603	28347	75584	61645	70788	105616	147381

Source: Statistical Yearbook 2017, CSO

Most of the Myanmar international migrants move to Thailand in both official and un-official ways. In 2012, the number of registered Myanmar migrants stood at 1,186,805 with 619,644 comprising regular skilled and unskilled workers and another 567,161 migrants comprising irregular unskilled workers in various labour-intensive industries, agriculture, trading and services. Major labour market sectors for Myanmar migrants in Thailand include agriculture, construction, manufacturing and service which absorb large numbers of workers. The number of recruited unskilled migrants from Myanmar increases from 4,641 in 2010 to 8,160 in 2011 and 33,697 in 2012.

The registered number of regular migrants who complete national verification have increased while the number of irregular migrants holding temporary work permits have decreased. The highest concentration is in construction 89,883 persons, followed by agriculture and husbandry 83,822 persons, services 52,502 persons, fishery related 52,502 persons, agriculture related 47,133 persons, garment production and sales 45,813 persons, domestic work 38,220 persons, selling food and drink 25,084 persons, wholesale, retail trade and vendor 24,689 persons and husbandry related 21,674 persons. At Thailand, migrant women labor at domestic works, garment production and sales, fishery related jobs, construction and other manufacturing while men's jobs are

at construction, other manufacturing, agriculture and husbandry, fishery related, garment production and sales sectors (Chantavanich, 2012).

In addition, Myanmar has limited systems for regular migration (i.e. legal or formal migration) of its workers overseas. Regular migration from Myanmar is expensive, often more so than irregular migration. Finally, most migrants are unable to gain official documents and/or connections needed to access formal migration quotas to Malaysia, Singapore, and South Korea. Migrant worker's children (often born in destination countries) and dependents account for many Myanmar overseas persons also but no reliable estimates of numbers are available, given such persons are often unable to avail of official registration programmes (Hall, 2012).

3.2 Demographic characteristic of Myanmar migrants

Migrants and non-migrants have different characteristics, particularly in their age profiles. Migrants generally migrate at young adult ages. Although female migrants are more concentrated than male migrants at ages 15-24, both sexes display peaks in migration at these ages and then rapid declines in the percentages migrating at later ages. Migrants to urban areas, compared to other migrants, are less likely to be concentrated at the ages 20-24. Although these ages remain the peak ages for both urban-to-urban and rural-to-urban migrants. Children aged 0-14, while less mobile than young adults, are still mobile. Rural-to-urban migrations were the least frequent and urban-to-urban migrations the most frequent flows. Migration increased for age groups 5-9 and 10-14 and the differentials between migration streams were reduced. Higher proportion of migrants of both sexes between States/Regions who were unmarried rather than married, but lower proportions were observed among inter-district migrants within States/Regions and those who moved only between Townships within Districts (Population Department, 2017).

The majority of emigrants left Myanmar before the age of 30, with migrants to Thailand and China moving primarily between the ages of 15 and 24, while those to South Korea, Japan, Malaysia and Singapore were primarily between the ages of 20 to 29. Much of the migration to China and Thailand occurred across adjacent borders and may have involved persons from the same ethnic group on both sides of the border. This form of movement often occurs with less risk and lower costs compared to migration to more distant countries. The differences among males and females are generally not large. However, females tend to leave Myanmar earlier in life than males

for moves to China and South Korea. Proportionately, more female than male migrants to Singapore have moved since 2009. The age of recent emigrants at departure varies considerably between countries of current residence. Emigrants to Thailand are concentrated in the young adult ages, with over 77 percent of males and 76 percent of females leaving Myanmar between the ages of 15 to 34 (Population Department, 2017).

The higher proportions of recent female emigrants expressed as a percentage of the District population are much more geographically concentrated than those of male emigrants. While Districts in Bago, Kayin, Mon, Shan and Taninthayri States/Regions and one District in Chin State had a large proportion of females who recently emigrated, among males high levels of recent emigration were also observed for Districts in Chin and Rakhine States, and moderate percentages were found in Districts in Kayin and Magway States/Regions. As the number of migrants builds within an area, this creates migration networks that can be accessed by other persons in those areas who then subsequently migrate. The social networks are also facilitated by cross-border relationships that include shared ethnicity and language. It reflects this in the concentration of Districts with high percentages of emigrants that are found in the southern States/Regions of Myanmar along the border with Thailand (Population Department, 2017).

The Myanmar National Census (2014) data can also be used to highlight key differences in the migrant stock according to major destination and gender. Total males reported to be living abroad is 1, 233, 168 in which Thailand is 66% of males reported to be living abroad that is the highest percentage of male migrants. Then, Malaysia is second highest percentage with 20 and China is third prioritized country of male migrants with 4%. At female migrants' side, there are total females reported to be living abroad is 788,742. 77 percent of female migrants are at Thailand, 7% at Malaysia and 5% at China. And the male-female ratio of international migrants from Myanmar is 69:31, except for Singapore where female migrants outnumber male migrants (51% of migrants in Singapore are female). Migrants to Malaysia and Korea are predominantly male (81% and 97% respectively), which reflects the gendered nature of employment opportunities available to Myanmar nationals in these countries (Gupta, 2017).

3.3 Migration destinations

Myanmar National Census data (2014) shows that approximately 51 percent of the internal migrant population (4,834,345 numbers) moved across states/regions,

and the remaining population moved within a given state/region. The highest level of out-migration is Chin State with a net migration rate of -167.7 per 1,000 residents in conventional households. More migrants from Chin were living in neighbouring Sagaing than in any other State/Region. The second largest flow from Chin is to Yangon where receives large flows from all States/Regions. Ayeyawady, Bago, Magway, Mon, Rakhine, and Sagaing all exhibit outflows of population and the majority of these flows are into Yangon (Population Department, 2017).

The majority of States/Regions adjacent to the border with Thailand: Kayah, Kayin, Shan and Tanintharyi all have positive net migration. Net migration is defined as the in-migration minus the outmigration. A high level of net migration is also observed for Kachin State, in the far north of the country. These patterns suggest that proximity to international borders promotes an economic dynamism that contributes to a high level of in-migration. Migrants are more likely to migrate to States/Regions that are along the border as there are more business or trading opportunities there. Ayeyawady, Bago, Mandalay and Magway are the principal areas of origin, while Yangon, Mandalay, Shan, Bago and Kachin are the prime destination areas (Population Department, 2017).

The major corridors of international migration from Myanmar are focused on three destination countries, namely Thailand, Malaysia, and China, which account for almost 90% of the international migrant stock from the country. The major source regions within Myanmar from where people are migrating to these three destinations are spread out across the country. Mon state is reported as the state/region of origin for 27.2% of the migrating population to Thailand, followed by Kayin (21.5%), Tanintharyi (13.2%), Shan (12.6%), and Bago (9%). Migration to Malaysia happens primarily from Yangon (15%), followed by Mon (11%), Mandalay (10%), Magway (10%), Bago (9%), Rakhine (9%), Sagaing (9%), and Chin (9%). Similarly, majority of the migrant population in China originates from Shan (46%), followed by Magway (12%). Overall, the Census reports that the major source regions of both the male and female migrating populations are Mon state and Kayin State (Gupta, 2017).

3.4 Remittances of Myanmar migrants

The ILO survey recorded an overall average internal migrant monthly income of MMK 108,180 (USD 85), with an average of MMK 121,775 (USD 96) for males and MMK 82,319 (USD 65) for females (Rogovin, 2015). In the field of international

migration, female migrants' monthly average income is 219 USD and 235 USD for male migrants (Maharjan, 2015). There are approximately 3.1 million Myanmar citizens officially living abroad, and in 2015 they remitted approximately USD 3.5 billion to Myanmar amounting to almost 5% of Myanmar's GDP. Including unofficial migrants, remittances are likely to be substantially more significant – perhaps as much as USD 8 billion or 13% of GDP. Data based on household surveys indicate a majority of Myanmar migrants still use informal methods to send remittances and recipient households in Myanmar use the funds from remittances in flows largely for basic necessities (Akee, 2017).

According to Migration in Myanmar report (2016), mostly, international remittances are sent via unofficial channels to Myanmar, so it is uneasy to estimate the real total amount of remittance (Griffiths & Ito, 2016). The existing flow of remittances to Myanmar from overseas migrants is difficult to estimate given that a large proportion of the flows may be sent via informal channels. Nevertheless, the World Bank (2016) estimates that there were 3.1 million official Myanmar migrants abroad. These migrants are estimated to send approximately USD 3.5 billion of remittances into Myanmar in 2015, accounting for approximately 5.5% of Myanmar's GDP that year. The Ministry of Labour, Employment and Social Security (MOLES) estimated total remittances at USD 8 billion, or 13% of GDP in 2015 (Akee, 2017). The IOM estimated in 2013 that USD 2.9 billion were sent back from Thailand to Myanmar, of which 83% were sent through unofficial channels, and 78.2% were sent back to states and regions bordering Thailand, including Mon, Kayin, Tanintharyi, Shan, and Kayah (Gupta, 2017).

According to World Bank (2016) data, top 5 bilateral remittance inflow countries to Myanmar are Thailand (USD 1.8 billion), Saudi Arabia (USD 954 million), United States (USD 189 million), Bangladesh (USD 143 million), and Malaysia (USD 92 million) in 2015 (Gupta, 2017). A study on impact of migration on the rural economy in Myanmar suggests that 65.7% households received cross-border remittances, with 35.8% of the household income coming from remittances (Griffiths M. , 2015). According to a study conducted by the Food and Agriculture Organization (FAO) with the Myanmar Department of Rural Development (DRD), at the Union level 3.75% of all surveyed households were remittance receiving households (classified as those who reported remittances as being at least 10% of their income, but not necessarily their main income source). Among remittance receiving households, remittance accounted for 49.1 of total household income at the Union level (DRD, 2015).

In terms of variation across states/regions, the lowest proportion of remittance receiving households were in Shan State (0.26%), and the highest proportion were in Kayin state (19.49%). Differences were observed in terms of the percentage of household income generated through remittances across the states/regions. For instance, remittances accounted for only 26.7% of household income in Shan state, but accounted for 87.3% of household income in Yangon even though only 0.78% of households in Yangon were receiving remittances (DRD, 2015). The FAO/DRD study also found that at the Union level 2.03% of surveyed households were remittance dependent households (classified as those who reported remittances as their major source of income).

The lowest level of remittance dependence was observed in the Shan state (0%), and the highest Kayin state (12.09%). In Yangon, remittance dependence was found to be 0.78%. The main remittance receiving states/regions according to the FAO/DRD study in terms of percentage of households receiving remittances are Kayin (9.6%), Mon (6.15%), and Chin (4.99%). On the other hand, in Yangon, Mandalay, Ayeyarwady, Shan, and Kayah, the proportion was almost negligible (<1%) (DRD, 2015).

Remittances are potentially an important source of development financing for emerging economies. While foreign direct investment (FDI) is the largest flow of funds to developing countries, remittance flows are a close second. However, they are more resilient and less affected by international shocks. Remittances can play a critical role in alleviating poverty, which is crucial in Myanmar where 26 percent of the population live below the poverty line. Poverty in rural areas, that experience a higher rate of migration, is 1.5 times that of urban areas by World Bank (2017) (Akee, 2017).

Otherwise, Chantavanich and Vungsiriphisal (2012) surveyed 204 Myanmar migrants in 2012 in Thailand and found that the average remittance amount was just about USD 180 per year with 77% of the remittances sent used by the receiving households for daily consumption and basic needs. However, there was some evidence in this survey that the method of sending remittances was slowly shifting towards more formal methods. This survey found that 20% of remittances were sent via bank accounts, a greater fraction than observed in any previous study. The informal method still dominated, but the use of banks appeared to be increasing. The authors noted that registered migrants abroad were the most likely to use formal methods to send remittances to Myanmar. They attribute this to the fact that these immigrants were the

ones who already have a working bank account where they would be paid by their Thai employers. Therefore, the registration and legalization of work for Myanmar immigrants abroad in all likelihood facilitated the opening of bank accounts and the use of more formal channels for remitting (Chantavanich, 2012).

By the collected information and data, migrations to both internal and international can't be inhibited due to various push and pull factors, so local, national and international authorities need to be more coordination and the collaboration to get the maximum benefits and minimum risks via safe migration against international migration laws and legislations with regional and international standard.

3.5 Main drivers and its implications

According to the livelihoods and social change in rural Myanmar report (2016), many people understand that migration is the one source of economic opportunity to save money for capital formation or household income diversification. And, people also have increasingly understanding the risks and benefits of migration and potential migrant workers choose the types of job and destination countries to get higher benefits or lower risks. The major reason for internal migration is the lack of enough and year-round livelihood opportunities at the source communities. For the households in the Dry Zone, migration is often a risk minimizing strategy to overcome the unstable farm production due to adverse climatic conditions and the high percentage of landlessness. Thus, whereas internal migration is more a survival strategy, inter-national migration is more a wealth accumulation strategy. Migrants are mostly employed in rubber plantations, tea plantation, mining, brick factory, construction, restaurants, tea shops, garment factories, and fisheries (Maharjan, 2015).

According to the National census data (2014), the main reasons for inter-State/Region migration, employment or searching for employment was the main reason reported by 55.8 and 32.4 percent of male and female migrants, respectively. The main reason reported by females was 'to follow family' which accounted for 44.5 percent of moves compared with 27.8 percent of male moves. For intra-State/Region migration, employment or searching for employment was provided as the main reason for migration less often than for inter-State/Region migration by both males and females. A higher proportion of females than males reported 'marriage' as the main reason for migration (14.9 percent compared with 9.9 percent). Education was reported as the

main reason for migration by less than 3 per cent of migrants (Population Department, 2017).

In 6 states/regions out of 13 across Myanmar, 17-38% of households have a migrated family member and generally, rural people' migration range are from less than 2.5% in Shan State to over 15% in Mandalay region (Gupta, 2017). For both internal and international migrations, the main drivers are seasonal job variations and less income opportunities in rural areas, excessive rural labor, increased educational level of rural population and less job opportunities for those educated persons, income shocks and less return due to crop failures, natural disasters and environmental changes, loss of livelihoods due to conflict, better and secure jobs with higher income in destination areas and greater professional opportunities in destinations especially outside Myanmar (IOM, 2019). Both push and pull factors are included as the main drivers of migration.

Though, internal migration in general has a lot of the positive impact on migration-related households, there is still scoped to minimize the costs and to maximize and sustain the benefits of migration. This could be done by stabilizing earnings throughout the year, improving the skills of migrant workers, improving productivity of the sectors of employment and improving the financial management skills of migrants. And, internal migration in general does not seem to have a detrimental impact at household levels (Maharjan, 2015).

By the internal presentation of IOM (2016), there are many implications on the high rate of migration in which some key implications are the rapid increase in rural-urban non-seasonal migration, no adequate rural labor during agricultural peak seasons, higher rural labor costs, mechanization or discontinuation of farming, demographic changes due to family migration instead of individual migration, solely dependency on remittances as main income source, increasing income dispensary between migrant sending and non-sending families especially in case of international migration, more reliable and variable livelihood strategy among rural households, skewing age distribution as many aging and children in migrant source areas and many young and productive people in destination areas, more demand on urbanization development planning and services within the country, more financial inclusive opportunities of migrants and their families via saving and credit products; "possibility of increased inter-ethnic issues and/or tensions related to escalated levels of migration, especially in Mon, Kayin, Shan and Rakhine" (Griffiths & Ito, 2016).

Both internal and international migration has the significant impact on migrants' and their households' livelihoods—in terms of access to income, land, labour, services, and social assets. Internal migration in general improves the economic situation of the households. However, the extent depends on the type of migration, skills and the sector of employment. Not all migrations are made for household income maximization but also for risk diversification. So, internal migration has not only improved household incomes but also reduced the risks faced by farm households due to extreme weather or price fluctuations in the farm sector. Internal migration also has a direct and prominent impact on labour markets in both origin and destination locations. It reduces severe labour shortage faced in the destination locations, at the same time solving the problem of un-/under-employment in origin areas by balancing out demand and supply for labour.

However, it can also in turn create labour shortages in the origin village, particularly during the peak agriculture season when the demand for the labour is at its highest. Similarly, internal migration also impacts on access to the land of poor rural households. Though small incomes from internal migration is insufficient to purchase additional land, it helps in paying off the debt, thus reducing the loss of land to money lenders in the village. Internal migration has also overall improved access of migrants and their households to basic services such as education, vocational skills training and health. However, work in certain employment sectors and their living conditions also exposes migrants to high risks to disease such as malaria, tuberculosis, and HIV/AIDS (Maharjan, 2015).

Safe migration is important for all Myanmar migrants' to both internal and international migrations. Myanmar labor migrants increasingly used the formal and official channels for international migration but there are still migrants who cross the borders illegally through migrant brokers and smugglers. Exploitation risks have on both internal and international migrants. One ILO survey showed that “26% of surveyed internal labor migrants are in the situation of forced labor and 14% are in a situation of trafficking for forced labor” (Rogovin, 2015).

Finally, migrants and their left-behind families must face the positive and negative consequences of out-migration and they all must manage very well to get the maximum benefits and minimum risks regarding migration.

CHAPTER 4

SURVEY ANALYSIS

This chapter presents about the study profile, survey design and survey results. A survey was conducted for the study of causes and its effects on left-behind households in Maubin Township and the results are presented in the following sections.

4.1 Study Profile

Physical background of Maubin Township

As the physical background of Maubin Township, location and drainage, population and ethnic composition and socio-economic background are presented.

4.1.1 Location and Drainage

According to the 2017 township data of General Administration department (GAD), Maubin is the name of town, township and district too; it is one district out of 6 numbers in Ayeyawaddy region as well. It is located between 16.44 latitudes & 95.39 longitudes and also located at elevation 4.15 meters (13.62 feet) above sea level. The area of Maubin township is 1334.8 km² (515.38 square miles) and Maubin town covers the area of 6.1km² (2.356 square miles). Maubin township ranges 42.48 kilometers from the east to west and 40.39 kilometers from north to south. As the border townships, there are Nyaungdone and Twante (Yangon Division) to the east, Wakema to the west, Kyaiklatt to the south and Pantanaw to the north.

There are many rivers that are draining from North to South in the Maubin township and the obvious rivers are Toe and Yazuetaing. Toe River is about 74 km (46 miles) in length and Yazuetaing is 40.23 km (25 miles) long. Most of the water sources are fresh water that are used for irrigated water in agricultures and drinking water too. In the summer, the depth of river is 18.29 meters (60 feet), so the motorboats and big boats can be used (GAD, 2017).

4.1.2 Population and Ethnic Composition

According to the 2014 National Census data, the total population of Maubin township is 314,093 in which male population is 152,940 (48.7%) and female population is 161,153 (51.3%). Percentages of urban population are 13.7% and most of the people live in rural areas. The numbers of ward are 12 and total numbers of village tracts are 76. There are 442 villages in this township. The numbers of private household are 71,804 and the mean household size is 4.3 persons. 63.5% of populations are economically age-groups (15-64 years) and the total dependency ratio is 57.5. 77.89% of total population is Bamar, 21.33% is Kayin, 0.01% is Rakhine & Chin and the remaining 0.76% is others (GAD, 2017).

4.1.3 Socio-economic background

In Maubin township, the total literacy rate for persons aged 15 and over is 94.9% in which male literacy rate (96.7%) is higher than the female (93.3%). Labour force participation rate for both sexes is 68.6% (male - 88.2% and female - 50.4%). Total unemployment rate is 2.4% (male – 2.3% and female – 2.6%). Ownership percentage of housing unit is 95.5. The major livelihoods are agriculture and livestock breeding related activities. The main products are rice, paddy, meat and fish those are mostly exported to Yangon Division. The total numbers of paddy land are 189562 acres; numbers of silty land are 20924 acres, numbers of garden lands are 3373 acres, hillside cultivation land are 6 acres and numbers of grazing land are 5373 acres. In 2016-2017, total numbers of fishpond are 1197 (acres – 45827.725) and total fish products are 223896 visses (364950.48 kilograms). 2016-2017 Individual incomes are 1,627,186 MMK (GAD, 2017). 51.3% of employed workers (15-64 years) are skilled agricultural, forestry and fishery workers that is the highest proportion in labor force participation rate and the followed by 23.8% in elementary occupations. 55% of males and 45.5% of females are skilled agricultural, forestry and fishery workers as per sex analysis (Population Department, 2017).

4.2 Survey design

The goal of the survey was to examine the causes and its effects on left-behind households in Maubin township. To get that information, I conducted firstly sampling process before executing a survey. A sample is a group taken as respondents to represent a larger target population (Sincero, 2019). I selected two hundred and fifty

households as the sample size of in this study in targeted ten villages. Sample households were selected through Snowball sampling method and asked structured questionnaire through face-to-face interview to household members who had known exactly about the migrant. Before actual administration of the survey in the targeted area, a pilot survey was done to 10 percent of sample size (25 households) in Dala Township. And then, some questions were edited and revised based on the results of the pilot survey. As primary data sources, village tract leaders, village leaders and other village key persons such as religious leaders, teachers, elder persons were targeted for the focus group discussion (FGD). Then, secondary data sources such as publications, official reports and scholar articles were examined for data analysis phase. For data measurement and analysis, Microsoft excels, and kobo database software were utilized.

4.2.1 Sampling Design

Total numbers of sample size were 250 households and targeted villages were 10 numbers, so the total numbers of targeted households per village were 25. For selection of the targeted villages, firstly surveyor submitted the requisition letter signed by the head of department to Township Administration department for permission and contribution necessary data. Then, surveyor made the appointments with Township GAD for collection of the updated township population data and migration information.

According to the GAD, they had no detailed information about migration but generally, they could make the suggestion the villages that had many migrant workers. Therefore, the surveyor listed the names of the village where there were many migrants by GAD from the east, west, north, south and central sides of Maubin township and then noted the contact information down as village leaders and phone numbers. Non-probability sampling design (cluster sampling) was applied for the finalization list of targeted villages (2 from east side, 2 from west side, 2 from north side, 2 from south and 2 from central side). For selection of targeted households that had migrants over the 6-month, snowball method was used at targeted villages. Field survey was collected from 18 to 27 July 2019 and two data enumerators assisted for the whole data collection process.

4.2.2 Questionnaire design

There were two types of the questionnaire in which one was for household and another was for the focus group discussion. In household level questionnaire, there were

forty-one numbers of quantitative question and three numbers of qualitative question in FGD. For the household questionnaire, all questions were short, simple, sequential and closed-ended type to gather specific answers from the respondents. For the FGD questionnaire, all three questions were open-ended type and aimed to get data from a purposely selected group of individuals. The primary questionnaire was designed and tested as the pilot and then revised based on the results of the pilot survey. Face-to-face questionnaire administration mode was applied where the interviewers presented the question items orally and the respondents answered by the presented questions. In the group discussion, the interviewer asked the structured questions to the groups who replied to the questions based on their opinions/points of view.

4.3 Survey Results

Field survey was conducted to know the causes of out-migration and its effects on left-behind households in Maubin Township. And, the survey results are presented as follow.

4.3.1 Survey profile of selected villages

Table (4.1) Households and populations of study villages

Village	No. of households	Population			Average family size
		Male	Female	Total	
Htan Pin Kwet	420	1294	1365	2659	6.3
Auk Htone	124	243	270	513	4.1
Bar Ma Nee	287	630	616	1246	4.3
Hlaing Thar	439	1142	1081	2223	5.1
Kokko Su	540	1486	1520	3006	5.6
Pho Yar We	476	998	1030	2028	4.3
Zee Kone	308	802	832	1634	5.3
Pha Yar Kone	89	216	215	431	4.8
Tike Kone	131	419	460	879	6.7
Kyee Pin Su	89	191	195	386	4.3
Total	2903	7421	7584	15005	5.0

Source: GAD, 2017

There are 2903 households and total population is 15005 in which males are 7421 and females are 7584. The average family size is five and the detail list is shown in Table 4.1. The ethnic groups of the villagers are Kayin and Bamar. The religious are Buddhism and Christian. All selected villages are in Maubin township, Ayeyawaddy region. Hlaing Thar and Kokko Su villages are in eastern side of Maubin township. Auk

Htone and Bar Ma Nee villages are in the northwest part of Maubin township. Then, Pho Yar We and Zee Kone villages are in northern part of Maubin township. Pha Yar Kone, Tike Kone and Kyee Pin Su villages are in southern part of Maubin township while Than Pin Kwet village is in central part. The main livelihoods of southern 3 villages and northwest 2 villages are paddy and vegetable growing while in the remaining 5 villages, the main livelihoods are vegetables and cash crops growing mainly the various kinds of banana, betal leaf, etc. in the garden lands. Only one third of the villagers own the small lands (<5 acres) and the remaining two-thirds of the villagers are daily wages laborers. Only a few families own the big lands (>10 acres). Machines are substituted for all stages of land preparation to harvesting instead of cows and buffalos. Most of the small farmers have to rent the machines by working hours, especially for the time of land preparation and harvesting seasons. The villages except Auk Htone and Bar Ma Nee reached by motorbike directly and the travelling time is around from 30 to 90 minutes. Auk Htone and Bar Ma Nee accessed by motorbike (30 minutes) first and then motorboat (70 minutes).

Forty-six percentages of respondent were migrants' mothers (115 numbers) and 32.8 percentages of respondents were fathers of migrants (82 numbers). Four percentages were wives of migrants (11 numbers) and two percentages were husbands of migrants (5 numbers). Nearly two percentages (1.6%) of respondents were migrant themselves and the others such as the aunt, uncle, sister and brother of migrants were thirteen percentages of respondents.

As the sex of respondents, 159 respondents (63.6%) were females and the remaining 91 (36.4%) were male respondents. And, the total respondents were 250 by the ten selected villages. The youngest age of respondent was 18-year and the oldest age of respondent was the 83-year. Sixty numbers of respondents were from 56 to 60 age-group and the second highest age group was 46 to 50 years as 47 numbers. And, the third highest age group was 51 to 55 years and there were 45 respondents in total.

According to the population sizes and accessibility, thirty-nine numbers of respondents were from Htan Pin Kwet village. And, thirty each numbers of respondent were from Auk Htone and Bar Ma Nee villages. Then, twenty-five numbers of respondent were specific villages of Hlaing Thar, Kokko Su, Pho Yar We and Zee Kone. Eighteen respondents from Pha Yar Kone village, 17 respondents from Tike Kone village and 16 respondents from Kyee Pin Su village were collected, respectively.

4.3.2 Demographic characteristics of migrants and their households

Among 250 migrants (male–120; female–120), the highest age-group was 21 to 25-year in which the total numbers of migrant were 72 (male–35 & female 37). The second highest group was 26 to 30-year that male numbers were 30 and female were 31 numbers. The third group was 16 to 20-year that the total male numbers were 27 and female were 25 numbers. And the detail of the remaining age-groups is shown in Table 4.2.

Table (4.2) Age-groups of migrants (by gender)

Age-group	16-20	21-25	26-30	31-35	36-40	41-45	46-50	51-55
Male	27	35	30	17	9	1	0	1
Female	25	37	31	17	16	2	1	1
Total	52	72	61	34	25	3	1	2

Source: Survey data, 2019

There were no illiterate migrants by the survey data. The educational level of 36.8 percent (92 migrants) was secondary education and the educational level of the second highest percentage 25.2 (63 numbers) was primary education. 62 migrants (24.8%) attained the high school level education and 12.8 percent (32 numbers) got the bachelor degree. Only 0.4% (1 number) finished the master's degree. So, by the survey data, most of the migrants (36.8%) completed secondary education. According to the survey data, most of the migrants (209 numbers equivalent to 83.6%) were single, 35 numbers of migrants (14%) were married and 6 female migrants (2.4%) were separate. By the survey result, the migration rate of single persons is higher than the migration rate of married persons.

According to the nature of rural livelihoods, before migrating, 28.4 percent (71 numbers) of persons employed as daily wages workers especially in the agricultural field and 69 persons (27.6%) were jobless. 54 persons (21.6%) were in the school and 18 percent of people (45 numbers) worked at agriculture, forestry and fisheries fields as family businesses, so that, they had no specific income and were only the part of family income winners. As the others, carpenters, masonry workers, sellers, cloth makers, motorbike carriers and photocopier workers were also included as a small percentage (4%). One person worked as a volunteer (0.4%) at the government school before migrating.

Table (4.3) Land ownership and types of land

Land ownership		
	Frequency	Percentage
No	147	59.2%
Yes	103	40.8%
Total	250	100%
Types of land		
paddy land	19	18%
garden land	84	82%
Total	103	100%

Source: Survey data, 2019

As the land ownership data, one hundred and forty-seven (59.2%) out of 250 migrant sending families did not own lands (landless households) and 103 households (40.8%) said that they owned the agricultural land as families' property. As the types of land, among the 103 households, most of the households (82%) owned the garden land and only 19 households (18%) had the paddy land. The main crop of garden lands was the banana, and some households grew the seasonal vegetables as well. Eighty-two numbers (32.8%) were small landowners (<5 acres) and 6.4% (16 numbers) were medium landowners (5 - 10 acres). Only five numbers (2%) owned the over 10 acres of agricultural land. After migrating one or more family persons, 37.2% (93 families) continued the production of agricultural products, but eight families (3.2%) stopped their own production. They rent their lands to others with an annual price. Detailed land ownership and types of land is shown in Table 4.3.

As the other properties of migrants sending families, 65.2 percent (163 numbers) replied that they had no other properties; 67 numbers (26.8%) owned the motorbike and 3.6 percent (9 numbers) had the tractor and motorbike. Seven families (2.8%) said that they had a tractor for paddy land preparation. Then, two families (0.8%) responded that they had the motorbike and motorboat as the families' properties. In the survey area, the motorbike could use only for the dry season, and mostly motorboats were used as the main transportation vehicles. One family (0.4%) replied that they owned the small shop, and another family (0.4%) said they had one motorboat.

The classification of wealth ranking was different depending on the villages. The surveyor allowed the migrants sending families to decide themselves for their

wealth ranking by their villages' situations. According to the survey data, 58.8 percent (147 numbers) answered that their families were middle class in their villages; 37.2 percent (93 numbers) said that they were poor and 3.6 percent (9 numbers) replied that they were rich families in the village. Only one respondent (0.4%) said that a very poor family.

Regarding home ownership, 249 numbers (99.6%) said that they had homes and only one respondent said that there was no home ownership. Among two hundred and forty-nine families, 49.6 percent (124 numbers) owned the timber homes and 35.2% (88 numbers) lived in bamboo homes. And 10.4 percent (26 numbers) stayed in base concrete homes and only 4.4 percent (11 numbers) owned the whole concrete homes.

By the survey data, most of the migrants (124 numbers equivalent to 49.6%) had no income and depended on their families' income. Eighty-one numbers of migrants (32.4%) earned less than 100,000 kyats as monthly income and only forty-five numbers earned their income from 100,001 kyats to 300,000 kyats as the monthly basis. When the expense was compared to income, two hundred and fifteen respondents (86%) said that their monthly expenses were from 100,001 kyats to 300,000 kyats; twenty-seven numbers (10.8%) replied that they had to spend under 100,000 kyats as the monthly expense and only eight persons (3.2%) answered that their expenses were from 300,001 kyats to 500,000 kyats as the monthly basis.

Table (4.4) Average monthly income and expense

	0 MMK	<100,000MMK	100,001-300,000MMK	300,001-500,000MMK
Income	124	81	45	
Expense		27	215	8

Source: Survey data, 2019

According to the Table 4.4, average monthly income was less than the expense and so that families had to borrow money with the high interest rate (15-20%) to cover their daily expenses.

4.3.3 Causes of out-migration

By the survey data, major causes of out-migration were related with the push factors and the detailed list was described in Table 4.5.

Table (4.5) Key drivers of migration

Key drivers of migration	Frequency	Percentage
rare job opportunities	98	39.2
low income	94	37.6
unfavored for rural works	35	14
low return from agriculture	13	5.2
un-accessible education services	8	3.2
family matter	2	0.8
Total	250	100

Source: Survey data, 2019

By the 250 respondents, 39.2 percent (98 persons) made the migration because of rare job opportunities and 37.6 percent (94 persons) migrated for low income. Fourteen percent (35 persons) did not want to do the rural works that was their main reason for migration and 5.2 percent (13 persons) migrated for the low return from agriculture. 3.2 percent (8 persons) were un-accessible educational services in their home villages so they migrated to other areas for their educational opportunities. Only 0.8 percent (2 persons) replaced other areas for the family matter.

According to the survey data, 222 persons (88.8%) decided themselves for migration and 27 persons (10.8%) moved to other areas due to the decision of their family/parents. Only 0.4 percent (1 person) were migrated due to the relative's decision. The survey data showed that some migrants moved to other areas since 1989 that was the earliest year of migration in the survey areas. Most of the people (69 numbers) out of 250 migrated at 2018 and 46 people made migration at 2017. Thirty-seven persons transferred their places as migrants at 2014 and 32 migrants started their migrations at 2016. According to the analysis of collected data, migrants are more and more increasing year by year.

Regarding with the migration cost, internal migration cost was less than the cost of international migration. Most of the people from the Maubin township travelled to Yangon region for their jobs that took only 2 to 3-hour trip by car. By the survey data, internal migrants were more than the international migrants in Maubin township. And the cost of internal migration was less than 1 lakh averagely and for international migration, the migrants had to spend at least 10 lakhs. 64.4 percent (161 numbers) of migrants answered that they spent less than 100,000 kyats as the travel cost and 38 numbers (15.2%) said that they had to spend over 200,000 kyats for migration. 26 numbers (10.4%) replied that they spend between 100,000 kyats to 200,000 kyats for

travel expense and 15 numbers (6%) who were international migrants had to spend between 500,000 kyats to 1,000,000 kyats for migration cost. Only 10 migrants (4%) spent less than 500,000 kyats for migration. The migration cost depended on the destinations where the migrants moved.

As the cost sources, 70.8% (177 numbers) spent their own money for migration, especially for internal migration. Most of the international migrants (20.4%) went abroad with agency funds that had to be paid it back by taking their first 6-month salary out. Twelve numbers (4.8%) borrowed money with high interest (15-20%) for their migration costs, and ten numbers (4%) borrowed money from their relatives that had no interest, but migrants had to pay it back.

Migrants and their sending families used their social network to migrate out of their home villages. The key facilitator of migration for one hundred and thirty-nine migrants were the friends (55.6%) and the second highest facilitator was job agency (28.8%) for seventy-two migrants. Thirty-nine respondents answered that family members (15.6%) were the key facilitators of their migration. According to the survey data (2019), ninety-eight percent (245 numbers) migrated formally and only two percent (5 numbers) migrated informally. As the destination of migration, 67.6 percent (169 persons) migrated to internal places and 32.4 percent (81 numbers) went internationally. By this survey data, internal migration is higher than the international migration. The detail destinations are shown in Table 4.6.

Table (4.6) Internal and International destinations

	Destination	Frequency	Percentage
International	Singapore	32	12.8
	Thailand	22	8.8
	Malaysia	17	6.8
	Korea	6	2.4
	Dubai	2	0.8
	Philippines	1	0.4
	Japan	1	0.4
Internal	Yangon	155	62
	Pan San	4	1.6
	Bagan	2	0.8
	Mandalay	2	0.8
	Hpa-An	1	0.4
	Naypyitaw	1	0.4
	Myitkyina	1	0.4
	Mawlamyaing	1	0.4
	Moe Kaung	1	0.4
	Lashio	1	0.4
	Total	250	100

Source: Survey data, 2019

According to the above Table 4.6, one hundred and fifty-five people (62%) migrated to Yangon as their destination of migration. As an international destination, Singapore was the highest percentage (12.8%) with 32 numbers and the second highest country was Thailand (8.8%). There were seven countries totally as international destinations such as Singapore, Thailand, Malaysia, Korea, Dubai, Philippines and Japan serially. As internal destinations, Yangon, Pan San, Bagan, Mandalay, Hpa-An, Naypyitaw, Myitkyina, Mawlamyaing, Moe Kaung and Lashio were noted down.

As the employment patterns, most of the migrants (63 numbers) worked at service sectors (25.2%) and forty-nine migrants employed at the garment factory (19.6%) especially for female migrants. Forty people migrated for the home-make (16%) especially to Yangon internally and Singapore internationally. Fourteen percent (36 numbers) labored at various factories such as milk powder, noodle, purified water, car cushion, electric cable wire, dyeing cloth, tire production. Eleven percent (27 numbers) worked in the construction field especially for male migrants. In the other, government and permanent staff, car driver, car workshop worker, cloth maker, designer, accountant, beauty pallor worker, nurse-aids, hairdresser were included as 10.4% (26 numbers) and 2.8% (7 numbers) employed as daily wages labourers. Only two numbers (0.8%) worked in the agriculture production field at destination areas.

4.3.4 Effects of out-migration

As the effects of out-migration, remittance was the most prominent economic effect for left-behind families in survey area. According to the survey data, ninety-five percent (237 numbers) could send remittance back to their left-behind families and only thirteen numbers (5.2%) could not pay remittance back because first six months of their salaries were cut out by the job agencies as the cost of migration. After six months, migrants could start sending the part of salaries back to their left-behind families.

Every migrant could not send the remittance back monthly and there was the different in the remittance patterns. By the survey data, seventy-eight percent (195 numbers) sent the remittance monthly back and 13.6 percent (34 numbers) paid quarterly back. Two percent (4 numbers) remitted semi annually and only one percent (2 numbers) transmitted annually. And another one percent (2 numbers) transferred money when the left-behind families asked for.

As the remittance patterns were different, the remittance amount was different too. According to the survey data, thirty-nine percent (97 numbers) sent between

100,001 to 300,000 kyats as one-time remittance and thirty percent (74 numbers) paid less than 100,000 kyats back as per time. And, twenty percent (49 numbers) transferred money back in amount between 300,001 to 500,000 kyats as one-time remittance and only five percent (13 numbers) remitted between 500,001 to 1,000,000 kyats. Only two percent (4 numbers) delivered over 1,000,000 kyats as per time were mostly from the international remittance. The detail destinations are shown in Table 4.7.

Table (4.7) Remittance amount per time

Remittance amount per time	Frequency	Percentage
<100,000 MMK	74	31.3
100,001-300,000 MMK	97	40.9
300,001-500,000 MMK	49	20.6
500,001-1,000,000 MMK	13	5.6
>1,000,000 MMK	4	1.6
Total	237	100

Source: Survey data, 2019

Most of the migrants used the official ways for sending remittance back to their left-behind families. According to the survey data, one hundred and one numbers (40.4%) used bank transfer for remittance and ninety-nine numbers (39.6%) transferred remittance through the official financial institution such as wave money. And, nineteen numbers (7.6%) carried remitted money back by themselves and fifteen numbers (6%) transferred money via their friends or relatives who regularly went their villages back. Only three numbers (1.2%) of family members or parents took the money back from their migrants (husband or daughter or son).

Most of the remittance was spent for the daily food costs and debt repayments. As the key areas of remittance used, one hundred and fifty-eight numbers (63.2%) used for their daily food and thirty-eight numbers (15.2%) paid their debts back. Fourteen numbers (5.6%) re-invested in their agricultural production and only thirteen numbers (5.2%) spent in education of their children. And, seven numbers (2.8%) invested in their health cares and only one person (0.4%) could save the part of remitted money. Then, six numbers (2.4%) spent in the new home building and home repairment.

Survey data showed that most of the left-behind families were moved up due to the migration. By the survey data, one hundred and fifty-one numbers (60.4%) answered that the general situation of their families moved up because of migration but ninety-nine numbers (39.6%) said that they had no change by out-migration of their family members because migrants could not send much money back and they mostly

spent remitted money in daily food and could not save for the future investments. So that, the situation of left-behind families did not change much except there were no food gaps.

As the key advantages on left-behind families, one hundred and thirty-eight numbers (58.2%) said that they increased their family income and sixty-four numbers (27%) answered that they had no food gaps. And, ten numbers (4.2%) explained that they could more invest in the education of their children and seven numbers (3%) said that they could more invest for their health care. And four numbers (1.7%) replied that they could do more saving for the future investments. Each two numbers (0.4%) reacted that they could reduce their poverty level and could build their new homes. The detail destinations are shown in Table 4.8.

Table (4.8) Key advantages on left-behind households

Kay advantages	Frequency	Percentage
increase income	138	58.2
no food gap	64	27.0
more investment in education	10	4.2
promote living standard	10	4.2
more investment in health care	7	3.0
more saving for future investment	4	1.7
poverty reduction	2	0.8
new home building	2	0.8
Total	237	100

Source: Survey data, 2019

As the key dis-advantages on left-behind families, two hundred and thirty-seven numbers (95%) answered that family separation was the key dis-advantage for them; eleven numbers (4%) replied that reduced labour was the main negative effect for their families and the remaining two numbers (1%) gave the feedback that family problem was the dis-advantage of migration. It was found that most of the left-behind families had no big problems regarding with migration of their family members by the survey data.

As the future resettlement plan, one hundred and fifty-four numbers (62%) had the plan to resettle at their home villages when they had enough money for doing small and medium business in their villages. But ninety-six numbers (38%) had no plan to resettle down in their natives and they completely migrated to other areas with their whole family members.

CHAPTER 5

CONCLUSION

5.1 Findings

Current trends of Myanmar migration condition were studied from 2007 to 2017 period and the results showed that Myanmar migrant workers were increasing year by year in both recorded and unrecorded ways to internally and internationally. Migrant sending families or left-behind families had to accept both positive and negative consequences of migration. When the causes and consequences of migration were learned continuously that the results indicated the migration rates of the female was higher than the male migration rate. Age-group between 21 to 25 years of young people were highest rate of migration. Most of the migrants finished secondary education and single persons more migrated than the married persons. Nearly fifty percent of migrants had no income before migrating while their families' monthly expenses were 100,001 to 300,000 kyats. Over fifty percent of migrants were from the middle-class families and nearly one hundred percent of migrants' families had the home ownerships.

As the key drivers of migration, the primary cause for nearly forty percent of migrants was rare job opportunity and secondary main cause for over thirty-five percent migrants was low income in their home villages. According to the focus group discussions and individual household interviews, there were no big negative consequences of out-migration on rural livelihoods and local communities. Indeed, the interesting result was that agricultural production was not reduced as well because of machines' substitutions in agricultural works. Internal migration was higher than the international migration. Otherwise, most of the migrants from Maubin township moved to Yangon as internally for their job opportunities and livelihoods. As an international destination, Singapore was the first prioritized country especially for female migrants according to the survey data. At the destination places, most of the migrants worked at the service sector; the most second prioritized sector was the garment factory, and the third was the home-make industry. Nearly ninety-five percent of migrants could send remittance back to their left-behind families and they mostly used bank transfer. Most

of the remittance was used for daily food costs of left-behind families that was about nearly sixty-five percent of migrant sending families. And, sixty percent of respondents replied that their families' living standards were moved up for the migration of family members that was the positive effect of migration.

As the key advantages of migration on left-behind families, over fifty percent of respondents answered that their families' income was increased, and twenty-six percent replied that they had no food gaps. According to the survey data, out-migration's advantages were higher than the dis-advantages, so that most of the left-behind families had no worry regarding with migration of their family members. Some dis-advantages were explored that there were no youths and young people in the villages that made difficulties for social affairs and community development activities. The middle ages and elderly persons had to lead the social activities in their villages on behalf of young generations. Some families were totally dependent on the remittance and they had no other income sources and regular jobs. Therefore, most of the remittance was used for daily foods and could not be saved for the future investments. Finally, over sixty percent of migrants had plan to do re-settlement in their home villages when they could save enough money for doing small businesses and further investments in local areas.

5.2 Suggestions

Migration is a global concern, and no one can inhibit it. And, it is the human nature as well. When the countries are industrialized, migration from rural to urban areas will be more and more high. Urbanization is also one of the key factors of rural-urban migration.

By the empirical results, most of the remittance was used for daily foods and over fifty percent of migrant sending families or left-behind families could not save the money to do the future business investments for migrant returnees. Therefore, although the family income was increased the welfare condition of some migrants sending families or left-behind families did not change. The following suggestions are provided for long-term improvement and development of migrant returnees.

Migrants sending families should have the regular savings as part of remittance and future business plan for migrant returnees who mostly have no saving money in their hands, and they need the regular income source for their livelihoods when they are back.

Labor migration is a response to spatial inequalities of economic opportunities. Instead of erecting barriers to movement, integrated regional, rural and urban development strategies should be promoted. Supporting on policy makers and stakeholders to better understand the process of internal migration and find effective measures for addressing its challenges and capitalizing on its benefits. This involves raising awareness and effectiveness at various levels of government, engaging employer organizations and labor unions, and civil society organizations.

Local government must have the long-term strategic plan for rural development linked with national development plan because the main causes of migration are linked with the rare job opportunities and low income in rural areas that force young people to migrate other areas. There are no proper records for internal migration that make the barriers for township and regional development planning, so there must be the proper recording system for internal migration.

For international migration, informal and illegal migration cannot be recorded that will force the human trafficking, commercial sexual exploitation and sexual slavery, etc., so migrant sending governments must promote the awareness raising about illegal migration and its complications to the public especially to the working age groups and their families. The national government must cooperate with bilateral and multilateral governments for protecting human trafficking, discrimination and exploitation cases on migrant workers. The national government must have the regular monitor system to the job agencies with standard regulations. Labor sending program must be led by national governmental departments to promote the safety and benefits of migrant workers.

Before migrating, skills of migrant labors such as technical skill, communication skill, language skill must set up by the migrant sending governments and its labor department and institutions cooperated with international governments. Government information centres for both internal and international migrations must be accessible by the people who have the plan to migrate and have migrated as migrant workers.

The prevalence of an informal sector where most rural-urban migrants end up, is closely related to institutional weaknesses. Informal workers often lack secure income, employment benefits, and social protection; thus, informality tends to overlap with poverty. Recognizing the potential of the informal sector to generate employment

and contribute to economic development may be a first step to increase the effectiveness of the sector and stimulate appropriate policies to create decent work.

A holistic view of development needs to be fostered, where the needs of migrants, particularly women and youth, are taken into account. Such policies would contribute to lowering the risk of marginalization, criminality, and environmental hazards, and at the same time benefit the nation's general economy and living standards. A more holistic approach, which takes into consideration all the factors related to internal migration and urbanization, is critical for pursuing constructive solutions based on research and consultation.

Migration flows can also have long-term social and economic consequences in rural areas as the members of the labor force, particularly young people, move into cities and towns. This entails major public policy choices around areas such as spatial development, urbanization, service delivery, and poverty reduction. The government will need information on anticipated migrant flows in order to make the right policy choices and to plan for and provide services to people arriving from rural areas into urban settings.

More specifically, policies/programs on land and agriculture will have a very direct impact. Landlessness and seasonality of agriculture is a major driver for internal migration. Thus, policies focusing on improving land distribution and agriculture intensification would help in making migration a real choice. Similarly, better education and vocational skills training would help in opening opportunities locally and, when a person decides to migrate, it provides the better and higher income generation at destinations. As internal migrants are from among the poorest households in the communities, targeting this population would help in meeting the overall basic objective of most development projects—reducing poverty by improving the livelihoods of the disadvantaged groups and people.

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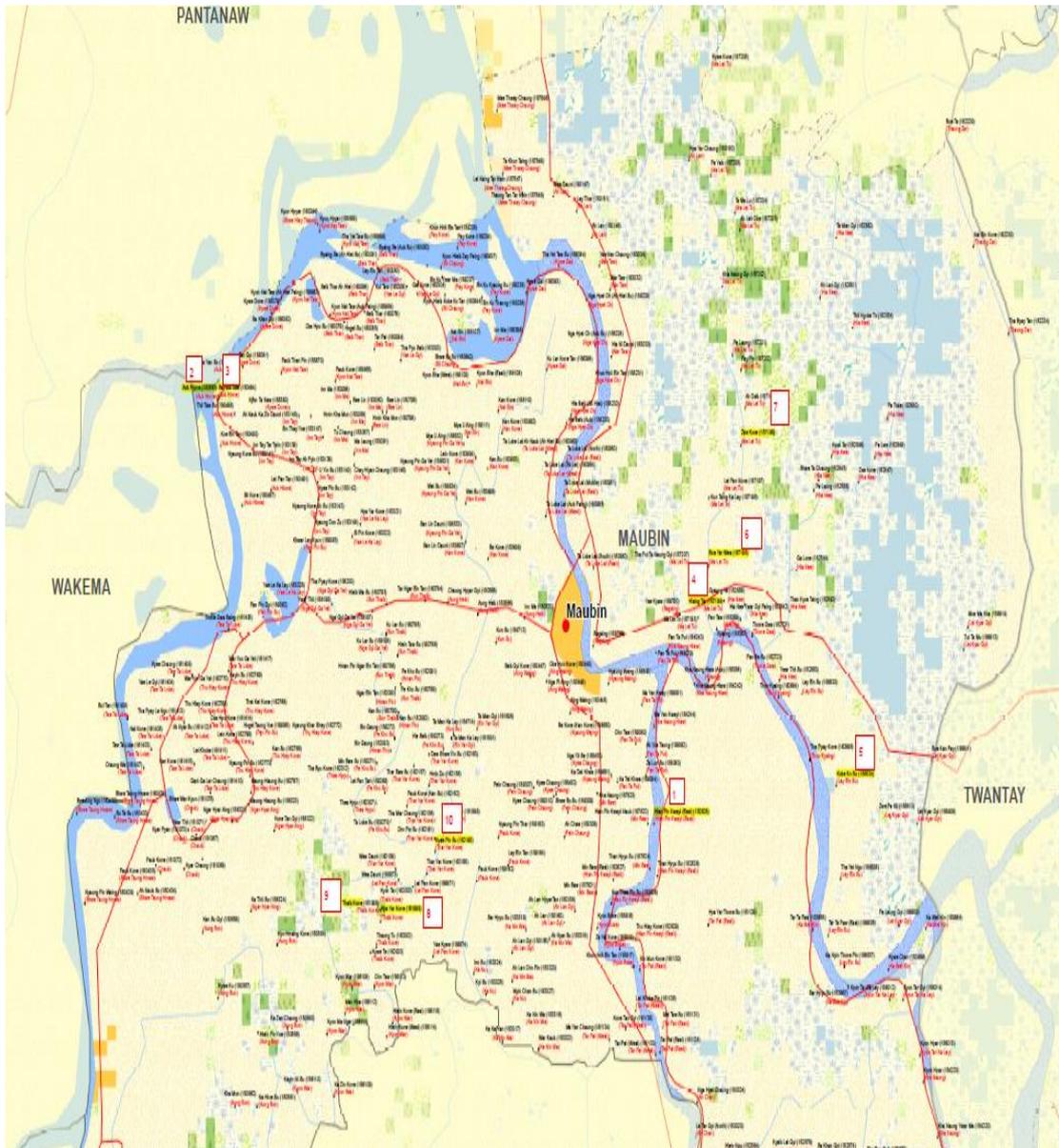
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Appendix A: Selected 10 villages in Maubin township



Source: MIMU website

Appendix B: Household survey questionnaire

Survey question, final 20190712

*Relationship with migrants

- wife
- husband
- mother
- father
- others
- byself

Age of respondent

*Sex of respondent

- male
- female
- others

Date of interview

village name

*Age of migrant

*Sex of migrant

- male
- female
- others

*Education

- illiterate
- can read and write
- primary
- secondary
- high school
- bachelor
- master

*Marrital status

- Married
- Single
- widow
- widowee
- separate
- others

*Occupational status prior to migration

- jobless
- agriculture, forestry, fisheries
- daily wages worker
- looking for work but not find any
- in school
- others

*Average monthly income

- <100,000 mmk
- 100,001 - 300,000 mmk
- 300,001 - 500,000 mmk
- >500,000 mmk
- 0 mmk

***Agricultural land ownership**

If NO, go to other ownership

- Yes
- No

If YES, what kinds of land

- paddy land
- farm land
- others

How many acres

- <5
- 5 - 10
- >10

If YES, own production

- Yes
- No

Estimated values of owned lands

- <1,000,000 mmk
- 1,000,001 - 3,000,000 mmk
- 3,000,001 - 5,000,000 mmk
- >5,000,000 mmk

***Other ownership (motorbike, cows, tractor, etc.)**

If nil, put NA

***Wealth ranking**

- rich
- middle class
- poor
- very poor

***Home ownership**

- Yes
- No

If YES, types of home

- base concrete
- whole concrete
- timber
- bamboo

***Average monthly expenses**

- <100,000 mmk
- 100,001-300,000 mmk
- 300,001 - 500,000 mmk
- >500,000 mmk

***Key drivers of migration**

Tick only one

- low income
- rare job opportunities
- high in debt
- low return from agriculture
- landlessness
- natural disasters
- unaccessible health care services
- unaccessible education services
- unfavour for rural works
- family matter
- loss of family livelihoods
- others

***Key decision maker of migration**

- migrant themselves
- parents/family
- relatives
- wife/husband
- others

Year of migration

Put only year (eg: 1994)

***Total costs of migration**

- <500,000 mmk
- 500,001 - 1,000,000 mmk
- 1,000,001 - 2,000,000 mmk
- >2,000,000 mmk

***Cost sources of migration**

- own fund
- loan from relatives
- agency fund
- borrow money with high interests
- others

***Facilitators of migration**

- family member
- friend
- broker
- job agency
- others

***Migration patterns**

- legal
- illegal

***Destination**

- internal
- international

Internal destination place

Town or city name

International destination place

Country name

***Employment patterns**

- construction
- agricultural production
- service
- garment factory
- home-make
- daily wages worker
- others

***Remittance**

If NO, go to HH welfare

- Yes
- No

Remittance patterns

- monthly
- quarterly
- semi-annually
- annually
- others

One time Remittance amount

- <100,000 mmk
- 100,001-300,000 mmk
- 300,001 - 500,000 mmk
- 500,001 - 1,000,000 mmk
- >1,000,000 mmk

Methods of money transfer

- bank transfer
- carried money by friends or relatives
- carried money by migrants themselves
- official financial institution (eg: wave money)
- Hundi broker
- others

Key areas of remittance use

- food
- education
- health care
- social
- production
- savings
- debt re-payment
- others

***Improvement in HH welfare**

- moved up
- no change
- moved down

***Key advantages of migration on family**

Tick only one

- increase income
- promote living standard
- no food gaps
- more savings for further investment
- more investment in education
- poverty reduction
- more investment in health care
- more social contribution
- others

***Key dis-advantages of migration on family**

Tick only one

- reduce labor
- family separation
- migrant is dead
- family problem
- more in debt
- others

***re-settlement plan to native place**

- Yes
- No

Focus Group discussion questionnaire

1. Advantages and dis-advantages of out-migration on rural livelihoods
2. Advantages and dis-advantages of out-migration on families
3. Advantages and dis-advantages of out-migration on community