

**TRANS BORDER MIGRATION AND LIVELIHOOD:
THE CASE OF MIGRANT WORKERS FROM MYANMAR IN MIZORAM**

**Dissertation submitted to Mizoram University in partial fulfilment of the requirements for
the degree of Master of Philosophy in Social Work.**

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Mizoram University

December 2016

Certificate

This is to certify that the thesis *Trans Border Migration and Livelihood: The Case of Migrant Workers from Myanmar in Mizoram* submitted by Miss Lily Sangpui for the award of Master of Philosophy in Social work is carried out under my guidance and incorporates the student's bonafide research and this has not been submitted for award of any degree in this or any other university or institute of learning.

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ABBREVIATIONS

CDA	Cultural Domain Analysis
CNF	Chin National Front
CHRO	Chin Human Rights Organisation
DFID	Department for International Development
GoI	Government of India
GoM	Government of Mizoram
IOM	International Organisation for Migration
LAD	Local Administration Department
MHIP	Mizo Hmeichhia Insuikhawm Pawl
MULCO	Mizoram Multi Commodity Producers Cooperative
MUP	Mizoram Upa Pawl
NLD	National League for Democracy
ODI	Overseas Development Institution
FFA	Force Field Analysis
KIO	Kachin Independence Organisation
KII	Key Informant Interview
KSW	Kawl Social Welfare
UN	United Nations
UNHCR	UN High Commissioner for Refugees
WST	World System Theory
YMA	Young Mizo Association
VDP	Village Defence Force
SLF	Sustainable Livelihood Framework
SPSS	Statistical Package for the Social Science

CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

The present study attempts at understanding the nexus between trans-border migration and the livelihood of Myanmarese migrants in Mizoram.

From time immemorial, human beings have been migrating from place to place. To put in other words, migration is as old as human history. People migrate with the sole purpose to ameliorate their living conditions. Migration in a broad term means movement of people from one residence to another residence voluntarily or involuntarily which may either be permanent or temporary in nature. According to Eisenstodt, migration is defined as, “the physical transition of individual or group from one society or another. This transition usually involves abandoning one social setting and entering another and different ones” (Prasad, 2006:471). Therefore, migration assumed crossing over one’s political or geographical boundaries. Words like ‘current’, ‘gravity’ and ‘streams’ were used to explain different exertions of migration depicting the existence of certain elements that push and pull people to places.

In spite of being an age old phenomenon, ours is the age of migration. The globalisation process and liberalisation of markets followed by proliferation of capitalistic mode of production, and development initiatives have all accelerated the pace for people’s migration. According to UN Department of Economic and Social Affairs, Population Division (2016), there are around 244 million international migrants worldwide. The causes of migration may be due to different circumstances. In some context, the prevailing general conflicts clubbed with political turmoil induced people to migrate. According to a report prepared by UN High Commissioner for Refugees (UNHCR), 2014 saw the highest record of 59.5 million of individuals forcibly displaced due to persecution, generalized violence, and human rights violation (UNHCR, 2014). The mass movement of people on account of displacement, wars and conflicts may well assume differences in understanding with those who move with the intention to eke out their living conditions. Poverty, harsh living conditions and lack of opportunities may well induce people to migrate. But, it is to some extent an option available without which their existence might not be in much threat, than those who move under the circumstances of wars, conflict or that which is induced by development initiatives.

Albeit major traditional migration studies mostly focusing on demographic change, social change, drivers and consequences of migration. However, the nexus of migration and

development has not been in the forefront of migration studies (Skeldon 2008). Reasons could be deduced to the fact that, ill treatment and negative projection of international migration during the 1980s and 1990s sidelined it away from being a key factor or a developmental issue that needs concerted policy intervention (Skeldon, 2003; De haan, 2012). In South East and South East Asia, the emergence of new nations as a result of liberation process during the late period of 1940s resulted in out pouring of migrants across borders. The unprecedented out pouring of migrants was initially conceived as a problem that could impinge upon a new established nation's stability. In addition to it, trans-border population movement was seen as a challenge to the neo liberal world order (Samadar, 1995). The sudden mass exodus of people posed a concern in regards to distribution of scarce resources. Border became a cartographic representation of nationalism (ibid). As such, cross border issues became a representation of one's nationalism and superimposition of State power to either coerce or admit migrant. Nevertheless, population mobility still persists and will continue so even in the absence of coercive forces. In fact, in the era of globalisation the traditional assumption of human beings as sedentary is impractical. The securitization of border alone cannot contain people movement and that migration is here to stay. Riveting on the flipside of migration and focusing on its role towards development and in poverty reduction became more practical. It is therefore, imperative and pertinent to recognise migrants' potentials through remittances, migrants' skills, and migrants' Diasporas. But this aspect of migration was not adequately represented nor did it come to the forefront in policy debates. On an axiomatic notion, migration is seen as one of the many strategies adopted by people to cope with their changing surroundings. A response vying for better prospect to the changing scenario induced by wars, conflicts, unrest, and environmental stress or by poverty.

The emergence of livelihood studies which took a centre stage during the 1990s with the adoption of Sustainable Livelihood Framework (SLF) developed by Department for International Development (DFID) identify migration as one of the many key strategies adopted by people to enhance their livelihood. SLF assess the impact of migration in the areas of both international and internal migration .The inclusion gave the necessary stance, and backdrop to further look placidly into the role of migration as a part of people's livelihood strategy. This accentuates a key forward policy to link migration as an enhancement strategy, and as a social process (De Haan, 2000, Ellis, 2003, Skeldon, 2008). Assembling the link between migration and livelihood Tanle (2015) listed that both needs resources and both rely on capabilities and activities. In another instance, the UN in order to

further assess and probe more into migration and its subsequent contribution to development had organised events like conference on *Migration, Development and Poverty Reduction in Asia*(2005) followed by High Level Dialogue on *International Migration and Development*(2006, 2007). Consequently, these events eventually led to the formation of Global Forum on Migration and Development at Brussel.

Drawing from Chambers and Conway (1992) definition of livelihood adopted by DFID, “*A livelihood comprises the capabilities, assets and activities required for a means of living. A livelihood is sustainable when it can cope with and recover from stresses and shocks and maintain or enhance its capabilities and assets both now and in the future, while not undermining the natural resource base*”(DFID, 2008). As such, livelihood strategies can be understood as the capabilities employed by people comprising a range of activities in the form of either material and non- material aspect of assets/ resources/ capitals. Activities in which people engage in order to survive or earn a living encompassed livelihood strategies. People could employ multiple livelihood strategies across space and time and in a different multi local setting. Dwelling on this spectrum, Thieme (2008) put forth that livelihood strategies can be seen as a continuum that covers the range from a struggle to survive, security and growth. People coupled multiple strategies in specific living space or across different span of multi local setting traversing between two worlds as a transnational migrant. Ravenstein, known as the father of modern migration studies observed, economic predisposition to be the major cause of migration (Sheldon, 2008). Despite the fact that economic aspect takes central stage in understanding migration processes, it needs to be considered as a multifaceted process, denoting not only the physical movement of people but also as having other dimensions. As such, according to Ellis (2003) migration drivers may correspond closely to social, cultural and historical context of migrants’ place of origin and destination.

1.1 Indian Scenario: Wave of International Immigrants

The South Asia region accounts for nearly 12 per cent of the total world refugee population (Chowdhory, 2004). The peculiarities of migration patterns in South Asia and Southeast Asia stem from the rise of nation states with the end of colonialism. The demarcation of borders divided people of same ethno cultural roots into different space and time. As such, border became a representation of one’s nationalism based on the notion of citizenship rather than on one’s own ethno cultural roots. In a critical study, on the aftermath of partition in South Asia by Tai Yong and Gyanesh Kudaisya (2000) cited in Singh(2010)

Stateless in South Asia, commended that partition was an epic tragedy that change the destinies of people triggering for further manifestation. The consequences of which can be felt in the successive out pouring of Muslim, Tamils, Myanmarese, Tibetans, Afghans etc streams of refugees across the states. In the context of North East India, the persistence fleeing of people on account of conflicts and displacement has its roots in the transformational changes in the frontiers (Barbora *et al*, 2008) .Yet, in spite of the securitization of borders , cross borders migration continued to persist even today in which India is not an exception in receiving host of refugees, asylum seekers and illegal migrants from across its neighbour States such as Bangladesh, Pakistan, Tibet, Afghanistan and Myanmar. The wave of international migration to India arose in successive waves differing in nature and context. The proximity of India to its neighbouring countries has accentuated the inflows of refugees or migrants to its soil. The North East Region of India in particular has become a theatre ground for the inflows of illegal migrants mainly from States like Bangladesh and Myanmar.

As per 2001 Census of India, migrants from other countries by place of birth accounted for 6.1 million (2%). In terms of by last residence migrants from other countries accounted for 5.1 million, where 4.9 million(96.9%) were from neighbouring countries like Afghanistan, Bangladesh , Nepal, Myanmar, Sri Lanka, China, Bhutan , and Pakistan . The bulk of migrants originated mostly from Bangladesh (3.0 million) and Myanmar accounted for 49,000 only.

Myanmar erstwhile Burma, which is a neighbouring county of India to the east, shares its boundary with Manipur, Mizoram and Nagaland where its people exerted the same linguistic affinity to Tibeto-Burman race. Throughout centuries people from these regions have maintained a free flow of movement. Myanmar holds a place in the history and legacy among the tribes of Chin –Kuki- Mizo as their onwards abode of migration to India, having had their settlement in Chin Hills , Shan and Kabaw valley of Myanmar (Phukan 2013; Pudiate 1963). Different terminologies were used to identify the people of Chin-Kuki-Mizo. During the colonial they were known to outsiders as Kuki and as Chin in Myanmar. Later, an indigenised umbrella term ‘*Mizo*’ was used to identify this ethnic group that became popularised in Mizoram state of India during the mid-1940s. Another terminology like *Zo* was also used as an inclusive name for the kindred tribes of Chin- Kuki – Mizo who are spread across India, Myanmar and Bangladesh. Myanmar was part of British India from 1886 until 1937. Until then, people move freely as both the countries were part of British India.

Even after the attainment of Independence by both the countries, being close neighbours, there was a free flow of population from both sides especially between the Mizo District and Chin Special Division. Whenever there exists better economic opportunities on either side, people would move freely (Sangkima, 2004). According to the late Prime Minister Jawaharlal Nehru, the main reason for the flow was due to Mizo expectation of employment in Burma Army and also due to the close ethnological and linguistic affinity with common history (Pakem, 1992). India too did not enforce passport rule to the Hills tribes of Myanmar border lands and were allowed to enter India provided they do not proceed beyond 25 miles. According to Sangkima, some of the kindred tribes of Chin -Kuki -Mizo from Mizoram returned to Myanmar for three specific purposes:-

1. They found life to be difficult in Mizoram due to its topography and terrain
2. To improve their economic conditions by practicing wet rice cultivation in Myanmar, and
3. Due to Khampat legacy¹

The problem persists in labelling and according legal status to migrants since none of the States of South Asia ratify to the 1951 Refugee Convention and its additional protocol of 1967(Ahmed, Dasgupta &Kerkhoff, 2004). India in spite of being a non-signatory to the 1951 Refugee Convention and its 1967 Protocol on the Status of Refugees holds some provision for the protection of refugees on humanitarian grounds. In India, refugees are broadly categories into three, primarily on the basis of living conditions of each refugee (South Asia Human Rights Documentation Centre, 1997).

Category I - Refugee who receives full protection according to the standards set by the Government of India (GoI).

Category II - Refugee whose presence in Indian Territory is acknowledged only by the UNHCR and are protected under the principle of non-refoulement.

Category III - Refugees who have entered into India and have assimilated into the host communities whose presence is neither acknowledged by the Indian Government nor by the UNHCR.

In most of the cases, Myanmarrese migrants fall under the category of II and III; those who could afford transportation cost to New Delhi and register with UNHCR and those

¹ Khampat, a small village on the side of Myanmar is known to occupy a predominant place in the heart of Zo people as their first sedentary settlement. Khampat legacy hover around a Banyan tree planted by the Zo elders before they leave the town with the solemn oath that when its branches touched the earth, the descendents of Zo people will return to rebuild their settlement again at Khampat.

who have entered India but yet to register with UNHCR. The limited reach of UNHCR hindered migrant's access to UNHCR assistance, especially for those who located in the remote parts of India. As a result, most of the Myanmar migrants or refugees living in Mizoram live as illegal immigrants or undocumented migrants (Sengupta, 2008; Human Rights Features, 2011).

Commenting on the historical migration and migratory practices by the ethnic groups, their migratory practices were exerted for a struggle to survive, which dovetailed with economic imperatives apart from the existence of socio-cultural affinity influencing their migratory path. In the context of South Asian countries and Southeast Asian region which share the same colonial dominance, partition, and race, it calls for understanding migration from the shackle of survival. The need arises to understand how South to South migration could accentuate development per se and foremost how the developing countries use migration as a tool for development. It is pertinent to document and assess how the Myanmar migrants in particular use migration as a means to enhance their livelihood in mid of their blurred category.

1.2 Overview of Literature

The Livelihood Approach placed people at the core of poverty reduction assuming people to undertake diverse strategies to enhance their livelihood. Under the Sustainable Livelihood Framework (SLF), migration is seen as one of the many strategies adopted by people to enhance their livelihood. Migration is seen from the stance of development as a tool for leveraging people's livelihood. It provides a conceptual framework for understanding migration from the perspective of livelihood approach. It looks at the way migration contributes to livelihood in addition to understanding the onus under which people carried out their livelihood (Skeldon, 2008; McDowell & De Hann, 1997; De haan, 2000; Ellis, 2003).

Migration theories assigned different factors to have induced migration. The neo classical model assumed the decision to migrate to have based upon rational choice of people in order to maximise their income or lessen their risk (Ravenstein, 1889; Lee, 1966). The Dual Labour Market theory on the other hand assumed migration to happen due to the demand of labour in developed economies. The World System theory argued that migration is a by product capitalist market that has lead to people mobility (Massey et al, 1993, Yang, 2011). Network theory explained how migration occurred at the first place and how it is sustained. The integrated models on the other hand assumed migration to have occurred due

to existence of multiple causative agents or factors that eventually builds upon one another (Massey *et al* 1987, Yang, 2011)

Studies by Chambers (2006), Moret (2014), Bustamante (2002), Magis- Rodriguez *et al* (2009) look at the concept of vulnerability and various types of vulnerability. There are some studies which focuses on Household Assets Vulnerability framework to assess the determinants of migrate and factors that acted as a deterrent to migrate (Moreda, 2012; Osawe, 2013; Chun 2014). Migration could also be induced by environmental stressor that becomes embedded in course of time as a part of people culture and practices prompting to undertake seasonal migration as part of their livelihood strategy (Chand, 2013; Brusle, 2008 Le de, 2014). On the other hand, studies by Sundari (2008), Awumbila & Schandorf (2008) deals with the feminisation of migration and asses the various vulnerabilities experience by the female migrants.

There are studies which assess the impact of conflict on the livelihood of the people and how it changes the traditional livelihood patterns of the people (Nigel, 2009; Young, 2006). The choice of destination depends upon numerous factors like higher income, cultural value to work, and most importantly on migrants' social networks. In most of the studies it was found that migrants are concentrated mostly in informal sector thereby increasing their exposure to risk. Migration was also used by people as an ex ante response to vulnerability rather than ex post coping strategy (Amisi, 2006; Brusle, 2008; Siddiqui, 2003). Study by Banki (2006) dwells on the role of policy and its impact on livelihood on migrants. It also depicted livelihood challenges and their coping strategies in the face of those challenges. Studies by Mena (1987), Berry (1997), and Polay (2012) discussed some of challenges face by migrants on account of acculturation and homesickness and subsequent coping strategies.

Lastly, some studies deals with the implication of international immigration in India and impact on socio economic front in the host destination (Kharat, 2003, Bose.2006, Sangkima, 2004).

The overview of literature suggested that there is scanty literature on migration and livelihood studies in Indian context and even less in North East region. There are hardly any study conducted using Migration and Livelihood Framework. In addition to it, migrant's socio economic conditions that would provide better understanding of households conditions who undertook migration is inadequately probe into. Pertaining to Burmese Migrants in India and in particular to Mizoram there is no substantial study on it. Apart from that, most studies focus on household as the unit of analysis. As such, the present study focuses on individual

migrants. Also hardly any studies incorporated emic perspective in understanding migrants vulnerability. With respect to methodology only few studies employed mixed method. It is on this light that the present study will address these gaps by using Migration and Livelihood Framework.

1.3 Theoretical Framework

The study will incorporate Migration and Livelihood Conceptual Framework, which is an adaptation from Cahn (Tanle, 2015) to understand the nexus between migration and livelihood.

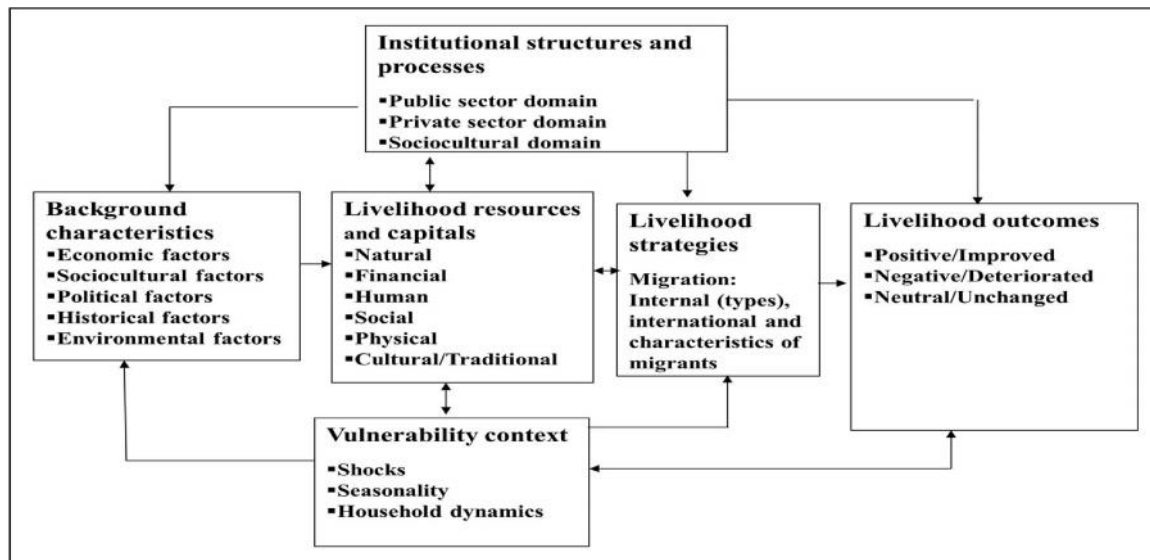
The Livelihood Approach promoted by Department for International Development (DFID) identified core areas that act as building blocks for people to sustain their livelihoods and decrease their vulnerable that could arise from any kind of risks and shocks. Under this framework it incorporated five basic components known as Capital/Asset and underlined three broad livelihood strategies viz., agricultural intensification, livelihood diversification and migration (Mcdowell & De Haan, 1997). Though migration is listed as one of the strategies, its representation under the Livelihood Framework is still unclear. In fact, it does not depict any direct linkage between livelihood and migration (De Haan 2000; Ellis 2003; Tanle, 2015). The study of migration and livelihood fall short mainly in assessing the dynamic interplay of power at different levels. Commenting on this aspect De Haan (2012) cited in Tanle (2015) states that livelihood approaches cannot be neutral towards power relations, as they determine access to resources and also in determining inclusion or exclusion in livelihood activities and ultimately livelihood outcomes (2015:5). Commenting on the weakness of livelihood approach Tanle (2015) further pointed out that policy, institutions and processes are too broad which may not be relevant for micro level analysis, and that livelihood approach glossed over power relation and inequalities within or between households or communities.

In the framework of migration studies, power plays a considerable role. Immigration and emigration policy, state policy, ethnicity, and institution structures along with its rules implicitly displayed power connotation, which can dictate the course of migration processes. Besides, the engagement of strategies centres around and is governed by structures, institution and cultural factors that amount to display off power at different level and context.

Building on the shortcoming of Livelihood Approach in linking migration and livelihood, Cahn's Conceptual Framework on Migration and Livelihood recognised migration

as a strategy of livelihood approach (Tanle, 2015). The framework consists of six interrelated components.

Figure 1.1 Frameworks for Migration and Livelihood



Source: Adapted From Cahn n.d. by Tanle, 2015.

Vulnerability Context: Vulnerability context of migrants includes shocks, seasonality and household dynamics. Shock could be in the form of informal setting, seasonal change, change in policy etc. Vulnerability due to seasonality encompassed change in prices, drought, disasters etc. Lastly, vulnerability on account of household dynamics includes addition to family, turns of events such as death, ill health which could impinge upon household livelihood activities and outcomes.

Background Characteristics: Background characteristics consisted of economic, social, cultural, political and environmental. The background characteristic provides the characteristics of migrant within which migration (either national or international) occurred.

Livelihood Resources: It consisted of financial, natural, social, cultural, physical and traditional resources. Access to these resources could dictate the course of livelihood activities and outcomes. Access to some specific resources will depend upon migrant's network and largely on the prevailing power relations that exist in the social field.

Livelihood Strategies: People choose and adopt different strategies according to the availability and ease of access to resources with the intention to optimise their livelihood and to eke out better living condition.

Institutional Structures and Processes: Laws, policies, norms, beliefs, and incentives come under institutional structures and process. It is under institutional structures and processes that people stage their livelihood. Some aspects of institutional structures could influence the outcomes of migration either in a positive or negative manner. Moreover, migrants on the one hand could be endowed with capitals at their disposal yet their ability to utilise depends upon the context of institutional structures and process.

Livelihood Outcomes or Well-being: Livelihood outcomes can be positive, negative, or neutral (Tanle, 2015). The assessment of livelihood outcomes can be otherwise subjective since people's assessment of improvement depends on different level of socio economic. Also, outcomes may not be visible directly in due course especially among first generation migrants.

1.4 Statement of the Problem

Political turmoil and conflicts coupled with deteriorating socio-economic conditions often force people to migrate in search of alternative means of livelihood. Among the major top ten sending countries of migrants, Myanmar occupied the seventh position at a global level (UNHCR Report, 2015). UNHCR (2014) reported there are 31,000 refugees and asylum seekers registered with the UNHCR in India, out of which 14,300 refugees and 2970 asylum seeker were from Myanmar. This figures depicted only those migrants who are registered with UNHCR. It is difficult to estimate the number of migrants from Myanmar in India, since most of them fall under the category of undocumented migrants. The limited reached of UNHCR in the far flung corner of North East India curtail in estimating their numbers in India. In Mizoram, it is estimated that there are approximately 50,000 illegal Myanmarese migrants in and around Aizawl town alone (Lalremsiama, 2004).

Cross border migration between India and Myanmar has been taking place prior to British rule. Hall traces the immigration of the people of both the countries back to 500 A.D (Pakem, 1992). However, the persistent ethnic conflicts and the suppression of minority accentuate the migration process of Myanmarese migrants to neighbouring states of North East India. Proximity and close affinity to kindred tribes in bordering states of India accentuated cross border movement.

Amidst the persisted problem in labelling these Myanmarese migrants and in according legal status in the absence of proper legal documentation, the present study aims to understand the nexus between migration and livelihood of trans border migrants from Myanmar. It also tries to find out the drivers, and to probe into the vulnerability context upon

which they operate their livelihood. Understanding the nexus between migration and livelihood as a trajectory path for development will further enhance the role played by migration and help frame policies that will harness the potentials of migration especially in the context of south to south migration.

1.5 Objectives of the Study

The following are the objectives of the study:

1. To understand vulnerability in the native and host context of trans-border migrant workers from an emic perspective.
2. To probe into the demographic, social and economic structural bases of trans-border migrant workers from an etic perspective.
3. To identify the pull and push factors contributing to trans-border migration of Myanmar migrants into Mizoram.
4. To understand the livelihood challenges experienced by migrant workers in the host context and identify the coping strategies adopted by them.
5. To assess the impact of migration on Myanmar migrant's livelihood and living conditions.

1.6 Hypothesis

The study attempts to test the empirical validity of the hypothesis that '*Enhancement of Living conditions of trans border migrants depend upon increase in their livelihood resources*'. This hypothesis is drawn from SLF (Scoones, 1998). It has been validated in the context of Mizoram in the contexts of ecological disaster of bamboo flowering (Zaitinwawra, 2014), and urban livelihood and poverty (Sailo, 2015).

1.7 Chapter Scheme

Chapter I : Introduction- This chapter delved into understanding of migration and its linkages within the livelihood framework. It also discussed migration scenario at international level and national level in context to Indian experience with immigrants. It also highlighted the core focus of the study.

Chapter II : Review of Literature – This chapter is devoted to various reviews of literatures pertaining to theories of migration, migration, development and nexus with livelihood, studies on concept of vulnerability and migrant's area of vulnerability aspect,. It also looked into literatures on migration as livelihood strategies along with studies on

livelihood challenges, and migrants coping strategies. It ends with studies on Indian experience of immigrants.

Chapter III : Methodology - This chapter highlighted the methodological aspect of the study. It includes description of the study area, research design comprising sampling, methods of data collection, and tools and process of data analysis. It also included concepts and operational of definitions. The chapter concluded with limitations of the study

Chapter IV : Vulnerability and Dynamics of Migration- This chapter focused on the vulnerability of migrants in the host and native context. It also captures the dynamics of migration.

Chapter V : Trans Border Migration and Livelihood- This chapter highlighted the findings of quantitative data which includes demographic profile of migrants, history of migration, socio economic bases of migrants, migration drives, livelihood of migrants and their perceived impact of migration. The chapter end with findings on migrant's livelihood challenges and their coping strategies.

Chapter VI : Conclusion – This chapter weaved a conclusion based on inferences derived from the major findings along with the emerging implication of the study and scope for further research.

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

Review of literature is an essential component of a research project, as it provides the researcher with knowledge about the topic. In addition to this, it also helps to understand the theoretical background as well as the methodological issues encountered in the earlier studies. Another indispensable role of literature review is that it helps in the identification of existing gaps in literature, providing further scope for empirical enquiry.

Based on the objectives of the study, the present chapter on review of literature is presented into six sections. The first section critically examines the various theoretical orientations on migration. The second section looks at the literature on migration, development and livelihood and the nexus between them. On the other hand, the third section deals with livelihood vulnerabilities of migrants. The fourth section presents a review of literature on migration as livelihood strategy and the various implications that accompanied with migration. The fifth section reviews the literature on the issues related to livelihood challenges and also capture some aspects of coping strategies adopted in the face of livelihood challenges, and the last section looks into India experience with international migration, nature of migrants, and implication placed by Indian policy.

2.1 Theories of Migration

Migration is a universal phenomenon that dates back to times immemorial. Various circumstances compel people to move from one place to another place. The earliest systematic explanation of migration traced back to the work of Ernst G Ravenstein. He opines the existence of Pull and Push factors which induce migration. His theory of 'Laws of Migration' which is based on his empirical study of migration stills continued to form the basis for modern theory on migration (Zankar, 2008). Ravenstein (1885), Laws of Migration states:

- a) Majority of migrants proceed towards a short distance and are attracted mostly to centres of commerce and industries.
- b) Gaps left by the departure of migrants are filled in by people from more remote areas.
- c) The process of dispersion is inversed to absorption.
- d) Migration produces counter currents.
- e) Migrants proceeding to a longer distance moves towards great centres of commerce or industry.

- f) Rural areas exert more migration than town or urban areas.
- g) Females are more migratory than males.

Everett Lee later modified Ravenstein theory to give a comprehensive understanding on factors that determine people to migrate. Factors associated at places of origin and destination, personal factors and also the existence of intervening obstacles. Migration is understood from the context of push factors and happens due to the existence of drivers that push people to migrate. The classical Pull and Push Theory could not however explained the role of cross country policy nor that of migrant's social networks to give a better understanding of who could and could not migrate (Yang, 2011).

With the process of economic development and advancement, the economic model of migration was developed to understand international migration from the shackles of demand and supply of labour. The equilibrium model postulated that migration occurs on account of imbalance in the demand and supply of labour due to wage differential. It holds the assumption that once a wage differential is eliminated, migration will not occur (Massey, Arango, Hugo et al 1993). The neo classical model looks at migration as an individual decision. In contrast to this, the new home economics of migration hold the idea that the decision to migrate is not just an individual actor decision but rather it is a household decision. It assumed migration as a strategy adopted by families to lessen their risk and maximise household opportunities, as such migration does not happen only on one individual decision. The new home economics theory identify household as a new level to analyse migration. In contrast to the two views, Michael Priore in 1979 proposed the Dual Labour Market Theory that assumes international migration to have occurred due to demand of labour in developed countries. Unlike the neoclassical or new home economics which rested on rational choice (individual/ household), and idea of maximise or minimise (income or risk), this model assumed migration to have occurred due to the requirement of labour in developed countries. It attributed pull factors to have exerted more pressure than push factors. The opportunities in host countries attracted new migrants than those prevailing forces that existed in the sending countries.

Building on sociological models, the World System Theory attributes the development of world capitalist market for the mobility of people. Contrary to the economic model that assumes the bifurcation of labour as the origin of migration, the World System theory deduced migration as a result of the ever expanding structure of capitalist economy. The penetration of capitalist economy to periphery and non capitalist countries open up for

people to migrate abroad (Massey, Arnago & Hugo et al 1993). Capitalist market has not only lead to people mobility, but also resulted in the transfer of other capitals like information, technology, and commodities; thereby, bridging the world into a more compact community. The World System Theory contributed to the understanding of migration as an international process and takes into account the demand and supply for cheap labour and also the prevailing migration policy (Yang, 2011). For the first time, it gave greater emphasis on the interconnection between countries through the adoption of migration policy determining who can be admitted or not. On another note, the Social Network Theory emphasise the role play by networks, and explained why people could migrate from one place to another on account of the established networks between sending and destination countries. It explains how migration occurs at the first place and how it continued to be sustained by networks. The theory illuminates that migration is not just an economic or political products, but it is also a social product, where people relies on personal networks from finding accommodation, jobs and other resources for their living and sustenance.

The integrated theories on migration assume that migration is caused by multiple factors. Migration does not occur in isolation but rather due to the working and interplays of different factors. Apart from Networks and Structural Determination theories, Myrdal posits Cumulative Causation Theory that explains the sustaining nature of migration. The causation of migration alters the social context in which migration occurs, which later become the agent or the cause for another decision to migrate. As such, this theory hypothesised that migration sustains itself and tend to create another migration. Stark and Taylor (1986) identified six factors that potentially influences reoccurrence for subsequent mobility of people viz., distribution of income, land, organization of agriculture , redistribution of human capital , culture, and social value ascribe to work (Madhu, 2015;17)

2.2 Migration, Development and Livelihood.

Leo .J. De haan (2012) paper critically examined livelihood approach from the onset of its application into development studies. Earlier livelihood approach neglects the interplays of power relation in its analysis. The role play by power relation between people and their environment and how it interacts to determine the nature of their entitlements and subsequent outcomes came to be projected more into the forefront with the development of various inter disciplinary studies, such as political ecology, gender studies, and political economy.

Christopher McDowell & Arjan de Haan (1997) paper examined the institutional factors that link migration and sustainable livelihood, by focusing on migration studies in

Ethiopia, Bangladesh, and Mali. Commenting on the link between migration and development, it narrated how it works in two ways. Development policy accelerates migration process while on the other hand migration also exhibit development. In the interface of the two sides, the paper articulates for understanding development and migration vis a vis from the onus of securing people's livelihood. The paper put forth that migration studies should be built upon by overcoming the weakness in migration studies by understanding the multi-dimensional aspects of migration. Migration as such, is not an isolated event but rather it encompassed complex events engulfed with a means to survive and strategies adopted by people .The continual linkage that existed between place of destination and origin open up space for development and exchanges of information. It also discussed on social structure and the subsequent role played by migration. Changes in social structure often comes with either re strengthen the existing social structure or weakening of social bonds. The paper also discussed the pro and cons of remittance. On one hand, remittance could usher in terms of improvement in household conditions of migrant family, yet at the same time it can also lead to depletion in work ethic among members of migrant family. The paper as such, calls for understanding the muti faceted of migration.

Contesting on the relevance of migration in development policy Arjan de Haan (2000) assessed migration as a strategy of the poor to enhance their opportunities, which is by and large a social process. In spite of different streams of migration, the paper focuses on rural migration and examined the interplays of household structure and gender in deciding who could migrate or not. The paper highlighted the potential areas that migration could contribute in the form of increase in capabilities of migrants, decrease in vulnerabilities, and in enhancement of migrant's social status in native communities. However, it also noted that assessment varied across and is often based on different economy. As such, migrants are welcome as long as there is demand, but tended to tilt when supply side overrides the demand. It also stated the segmented characteristic of migrants and the interplays of gender that contributed to unequal access to resources and opportunities. In an attempt to link migration, poverty, and development the paper illustrated that outcomes may differ across migrants according to context specification. In spite of the lack of direct linkages, understanding the role of migration and its contribution and opportunities for people's livelihood would rather help curb those negative nuances on migration. Arjan de Haan(1999) commenting on another note, observed the difficulty in predicting whether labour migration as such is declining or increasing ; yet , the fact remain that population mobility is here to

stay. The paper argued that framing conducive policy for migration by wider locating its contribution can heighten migrant's livelihood opportunities and decrease vulnerabilities associated with migration.

Frank Ellis (2003) in *A Livelihoods Approach to Migration and Poverty Reduction* set out to provide new policy thinking on the line of understanding migration from the context of livelihood. It summarised the core of livelihood framework and its components. The paper discussed migrant's livelihood activities within both national and international migration. It argues that migration patterns and decision may also correspond closely to historical and cultural attributes, apart from the primary motive of economic disposition. It highlighted the areas of positive aspect of migration in reducing poverty; how it is an integral part of livelihood strategies of the poor, which by far are often missed out in migration studies due to the larger prevailing negative notion on migration. It further discussed the challenges posed by negative stance on migration. Among other thing, policy and institutional context on which livelihood activities is carried out factor in for the success of migration outcomes. The author opined that it could acts as a force capable to impinge upon securing migrant's livelihood. The article also highlighted aspect of migration, towards reducing poverty at a larger and at individual level in the form of remittance, assets creation, and in dissemination of information.

Ronald Skeldon (2008) in his article examined the development of migration studies and the recognition of migration in the realm of development policy. It assessed as to why migration is not seen as a development tool that can be subjected to policy intervention. He highlighted the onus of bringing it to the forefront of policy as it could entail implications in the form of its measurability, security issue which could stage upon state powers. Narrating from traditional migration studies to the present context, the paper captured though not in an explicit manner, some aspect of migration contributing towards development. Commenting on the approach towards locating migration in the context of development, it discuss on seeing remittance, diaspora , and skilled migration as factors that could bring in changes. However, it postulate for understanding population mobility as an integral part of development process rather than advocating or promoting development through migration in an isolated context.

Susan Thieme (2008) examined the relevant of Bourdieu's Theory of Practice to fill in the theoretical gaps that existed between livelihood approach and transnational migration. In the absence of theoretical linkages between the two, it limits understanding on the

relationship between state and subject and also on power relation across gender, age, and ethnicity. The globalisation process has induced people to migrate, thereby, subjecting to live between two worlds. In this context, it becomes pertinent to understand their livelihoods and ways adopted to sustain their livelihood across multi locality setting. Building on the weakness of livelihood approach, it calls for theoretical orientation in understanding the link between it livelihood and migration. Her studies on Nepali migrants and Kazakhstan migrants depicted different dimension to their changing social structure, practices and outcomes of migration. However, with the lack of social theory linkages, it does not explain much the interaction between migrants and their social space which differ across migrant's socio-economic background nor the power inequality that existed in the society. The paper examined the Theory of Practice in the light of interaction between Social field (host society norms and regulation, cultures) and Habitus (internalised social and cultural norms of migrants) that determine migrant's practices. It also widen the scope of capital by inserting symbolic capital to basically understand how migrants legitimise their various accumulated capitals to create or carved for their recognition, space or niches.

2.3 Studies on Livelihood Vulnerability

Vulnerability is an elusive term connoting different meaning in its application to different context. Vulnerability studies can be seen from multi-disciplinary of schools like disaster, health, psychology, environment science and in economics. Its concept is applied ranging from health to sustainable livelihood, poverty, migration and especially in developmental policy. Vulnerability assessment has become an important concept in development studies as a guide to design, implement, and in the evaluation of programmes (Moret, 2014). In the scope of livelihood studies, vulnerability is understood from the context of stress and shock (Chambers, 2006; Tanle, 2015). Chambers (2006) noted that household net asset is a major indicator of household vulnerability. According to Chaudhuri (2002) vulnerability is defined as an ex ante risk today that a household will if eventually poor remain poor , or if currently non-poor will fall below the poverty line next period (cited from Osawe, 2013). Scoornes (1998) on the other hand differentiate risk from vulnerability. According to him, risk is the likelihood to face shocks while vulnerability is the degree of exposure to risk. Risk and vulnerability may exist on the same side of the coin. According to Chambers (1989) vulnerability has two sides: an external side of risks, shocks, and stress to which an individual is subjected, and an internal side which is defenceless, meaning lack of means to cope with damage or loss. Thus, a livelihood is sustainable if it can overcome from

stress and shocks with means to cope with lack of assets, and vulnerability implies the possibility to fall below, in the events of external or internal stressor or shocks. Pointing out further, vulnerability and poverty as such are not the same. Changes in policies, deterioration in health, calamities may push people to fall below the level of sustenance. At times, vulnerability assume to be at a far length of people's surrounding, yet its manifestation can be seen in people's life effecting them in one way or the other.

Whitney Moret (2014) review various vulnerability assessment methodology adopted in different discipline of Psychology, Economics, Disaster, and Science. The review on vulnerability is drawn from different literature but it excluded literature on health and environment, as their focus is narrow and does not deal much on social impact. Her reviewed focus on assessing in particular, development interventions aim at economic improvement of population, household, and at individual level. At the population level, vulnerability is measured mostly through a country or international policy and intervention, apart from census data or statistical data. Pertaining to micro level analysis of household and individual, most approaches adopted participatory and qualitative methods to assess vulnerability. Tracing the epistemology of vulnerability studies, it stem from economics in their understanding of external and internal vulnerability. However, sociological understanding adds to the literature on social vulnerability. As such, the concept of vulnerability is multidimensional and multidisciplinary. The adoption of different framework adds to the existing diversity of tools and measurement of vulnerability. The paper concluded that measurement of vulnerability should be predictive and should employ mixed method to provide deeper understanding of people's vulnerability to stress and shocks.

Jorge A Bustamante (2002) paper discussed on the vulnerability context of migrants using the lens of human rights in country of destination rather than in one's own country. The study was conducted among thirty eight governments across different countries, and among twenty four international NGOs. It discussed the structural and cultural vulnerability of migrant in a host country. Human rights violation of migrants is an off shoot of vulnerability in destination. It implies difference in the power structure and the ability to make rules and decision. Power is constituted and reinforced further in terms of access to rights, entitlements, and services as migrants are left out in general. In most cases, migrants faced structural vulnerability. On the other hand, cultural vulnerability refers to attitudes like xenophobia, racism, labelling that a migrants often face in the host countries. This shows the social nature of vulnerability.

Osayanmon Wellington Osawe (2013) examined the process of migration decision making based on Household Asset Vulnerability. The study submitted that migration as a livelihood strategy of a household is mainly used as an ex-ante risk management accumulative strategy rather than ex post coping strategies. It linked vulnerability to asset ownership and the decision to migrate is a result of high vulnerability and poverty. It also highlighted that the decision to migrate is not embedded on individual decision only but also rested on a complex interaction of individual attributes. The findings of the study also indicated that age, kind of occupation and size of household and household assets are crucial in determining the extent of vulnerability and have bearing on sustainability of livelihood.

In another study by Moreda (2012) in Rural Ethiopia among the Amhara region it examined how resources are access, utilised, and contested. It asserted the importance of understanding vulnerability of a household in order to address poverty. It places an empirical link between land deterioration and seasonal migration adopted by people as a survival strategy in Amhara region.

J.M.Chun (2014), attempts to understand household response measure to vulnerability in Vietnam and how household vulnerability shape mobility using Household Asset Vulnerability Framework. The study submits that household with permanent homestead and land ownership acts as a deterring factor for mobility, in spite of the impending risk associated with natural hazards. Poverty, livelihood difficulties, and seasonal nature of agriculture drive people to migrate. The study also found that potential aspects for higher incomes determine the choice of destination.

C. Magis-Rodriguez, G. Lemp, M. T. Hernandez, M. A. Sanchez, F. Estrada, and E. Bravo-Garcia (2009), examined vulnerability associated with Mexican migrants to HIV risk infection. The study was conducted across Mexican, who has migrated to United State even at some point of the time and among non-Mexican migrants. The study revealed that migration in itself tends to create vulnerability among migrants. In the absence of family protection, guidance and controlling, migrants are more at risk to exposure to activities which can be detrimental to their health and well-being .They are left alone to fend and engaged in activities that might place them at risk. In the absence of social networks, newness, feeling of isolation, migrant's access to preventive health care services is low and minimal. Cultural, language, and geographical barrier factorised in for migrant's low access to health care services. The study indicated that migrants are more exposed to higher HIV risk related behaviours than non-migrants. On the contrary, migrants are also more exposed to preventive

intervention measures than non-migrants. However, the study concluded that the risk associated with migrants and non-migrants differ in behaviour and practices.

On another light Awumbila&Schandorf (2008) study the feminization of migration employing mixed method to discuss the survival strategies of female porters in Accra, Ghana. The gendering of poverty among men and women on different terms equates to their different level of vulnerability and survival strategies as well. It is seen that poverty, lack of employment and the need to meet other necessity of life are among the determinants of migration.

Reshmi Sharma (2011) in her paper described the profile of female migrant from India. In the age of globalisation, migration is not restricted to male only. Trends in migration have indicated large scale presence of women migrants. The nature of work associated with women migrants differ in comparison with men. The rise in services sector and the slowing down of production services, induced women to migrant as service sector favours employment of women. The gender dimension of work leads women to work mostly in low skilled job. And women migrants in some skilled job are found to be relatively low. India, in spite of patriarchy society where male out migration is in vogue, recent trend in Kerala, which is one among the highest sending state of emigrants, shows a palpable number of women migrations to the gulf region. As labour migration is subjected to demand and supply, the demand for female workers in high income level countries is high. The demand for female workers for domestic service is high due to the need to maintain status and for convenience. However, the extent of vulnerabilities associated with women migrants differs in comparison with men. Female trafficking, harassment, and lower salary are some of the vulnerable areas face by female migrants. Immigration laws of some countries subjected towards women's vulnerability. Deportation on account of separation from spouse, pregnancy and contracting of HIV/AIDS lead to further complication for female migrants, as they face social ostracise with minimum support from community and state laws.

2.4 Studies on Migration as Livelihood Strategy

Baruti Bahati Amisi (2006) study explored livelihood strategies of Congeese refugees in Durban region that range from the need to survive and make a living. The paper looks into the economic activities of refugees and how they integrated into the local economy. Social networks form an important aspect in the lives of the refugees. From finding accommodation to new job, social network plays a vital key to their livelihood strategies. The strengthening of both formal and informal social networks creates a strong community solidarity that helps

them to adapt to new settings and environment. The finding shows that most of the refugees are skilled, yet in terms of making a living most of the refugees are concentrated in the informal sector which at times is not dependable to secure for their economic wellbeing, making them to live on the edge. It also assessed problems faced by migrant population in their new host countries which range from exploitation, social exclusion and xenophobia. Among migrant population, women in particular form one of the most the vulnerable group. The study concluded that Congolese refugee in Durban remain poor and vulnerable due to their lack of access to formal employment and social protection.

Labour Migration as a Livelihood Strategy in Far East Bhutan. A Case Study of a Marginal Bhutanese Community by Raghubin Chand (2013) assessed how environmental condition and regional disparity drives Bhutanese to engage in seasonal migration. Seasonal migration among Bhutanese has become a traditional mode of survival, driving them to migrate and work mostly in informal sector during the harsh winter. The finding revealed that most of the migrant's labourers are neither trained workers nor are they accustomed to or specialised in one particular job.

A study by Tasneem Siddiqui (2003) explored migration as a strategy for securing livelihood among the Bangladeshi poor. The study acknowledged the importance of remittance for the development of the sending country. The study captured that social networks and individual linkage accounted for 60 percent of the decision to migrate. The interplay of macro and micro factors induced migration in Bangladesh. It highlighted that though international migration is considered only for those households who could afford high transportation cost and expenses however, there are cases of poor people who could migrate with the help of assistance. As such, the study underlined the need to conduct a study on migrant's socio – economic conditions in order to provide a better picture on households conditions that undertook migration as a livelihood strategy.

Adopting the livelihood framework, Tristan Brusle (2008) in *Choosing a Destination and Work: Migration Strategies of Nepalese Workers in Uttarakhand Northern India* found that family size influences the choice of destination and type of work. The cultural value attach to work, social network, relation to place are some of the other reasons that influence people choice in destination and choice of work. The author narrated that migratory practice among the Nepalese has become a part of their culture that younger generation assumed to follow the same suit one day. Migration or Mobility and diversification of income are the two

livelihood strategies adopted by the Nepalese. The study also shows that migration is used mainly as coping strategies rather than as ex ante accumulated strategies.

John Nigel (2009) paper deals with the case study of displaced people in Ampara District in Sri Lanka and tried to identify and discuss the impact of ethnic conflict on the livelihoods of households in conflict affected areas. The research revealed that conflict has a devastating effect on the livelihood of the people and that people created strategies to diversify their livelihood by adopting different means and measure to increase their assets for survival. To cope with the aftermath of conflict, people sold their tangible asset, reduce consumption and develop social networks across their area of domicile.

Livelihoods, Migrations and Remittance Flow in Time of Crises and Conflict: Case Studies for Darfur, Sudan by Helen Young (2006) examined the role of conflict in changing the traditional livelihood strategies of Darfurians which is based on labour migration and remittances. It highlighted the changing occupation pattern among those migrating household and non-migrating household. The case studies among the five tribes of Darfur illustrated the need to develop better transfer mechanism for remittances especially across countries.

Migration as livelihood strategies has been part of historical culture among the people of Bihar. Arjaan de Haan (2002) analysed the pattern of out migration of people from Saran district of Bihar. The analysis found that men out migrated women. Though women migrate yet, their proportion was lower than that of male out migration. It also examined the linked between migration and poverty. Contesting on the popular notion that the poorest could not afford to migrate due to lack of resources; the paper presented that in spite of being poor, the existence of networks and easy transportation help people from lower income groups to migrate. Personal contacts help sustain the migratory process and outcomes of migration. The kind of networks shaped a particular movement of people to a specific areas or location. It highlights that migration as such is not always a result of the prevailing socio economic circumstances. In spite of the existence of negative aspect of migration, the paper indicated the changing nature in household strategies to ameliorated scarcity of labour exerted by high incidence of male out migration. The impact created by remittance might be minuscule for a while yet it forms as a livelihood security for those families who are left behind. Remittance as such, contributed to additional income of a household and as a means to increase the asset base of the household.

AbdurRafique, Deeptima Massey and Ben Rogaly (2006) examined labour migration in Jalpara, in Murshidabad District of West Bengal. Their study captured the different

patterns of migration exhibited across a range of period. In their ethnographic study, seasonal migration is the norm, as wage employment in other places acts as another source of income for family during the lean season. The study also indicated stances of one time migrant. Till 1999, it indicated that men folks migrated mostly, yet with the passage of time, women too are seen to undertake migration mainly to work as wage earner for a short duration. Women migrant mostly accompanied people from their own locality when they migrated. In the absence of men folks, women played a dual role, as provider and as head of the household. Studying on the dynamics of household strategies adopted by those who stay behind, it was found that women at times resorted to lesser consumption of food, seek the support or help from close kin, or at times borrow money. Shortage of money is also substituted sometimes by searching for wage employment in a nearby place or village. Health problems and access to health care is seen as one of the most challenging aspect for those who are left behind.

L. Le De, J. C. Gaillard and W. Friesen (2014) attempted to assess the role of remittance in the events of post disaster among the effected community and its impact on the poor families. Under the sustainable livelihood, remittance is deemed as one of the livelihood diversification strategies. The significance of remittance on the one hand indicates an increase in the resources and capacities of household or an individual. Yet, on the other side, it can create inequality across communities. In addition to it, it also created deterioration in work ethics and culture, creating dependency syndrome among the receiving families. The study found that remittance assumed greater importance in times of disaster. However, the study among poor household indicated that usage of remittance on items during pre and post disaster varied. In post disaster scenario, it is use mainly for rebuilding of house, on food and for clothing. It is also used as a strategy to invigorate their livelihood and to meet emerging needs of the people. Limited access to remittance accounted for low skilled and lesser opportunity for family members to migrate.

S. Sundari (2005) study looks at migration from a gender perspective among a sample survey of rural migrants in Tamil Nadu. The paper highlighted the patterns and trends of migration undertook by female. It assessed the role played by social network in sustaining migrants at their new environment. The study also pointed out that though migration sustained the basic needs, yet it doesn't altogether enhance the well-being of some section of migrants, especially among those who are concentrated in informal sector. Lack of securing and facilities deprived their access to quality of life. The study concluded that at international level migration may help in poverty reduction, but at local level it also increase urban

poverty, degradation and put pressure on provision like water supply, health care, housing and sanitation.

2.5 Livelihood Challenges

Berry (1997) paper examined the influence of acculturation on individuals. The paper focus on how an individual with learnt culture of its own adapt to a new culture on account of migration. Acculturation refers to changes brought out by the interaction of cross cultural groups. Individuals on account of cross cultural exchange experience psychological changes from exposing to the forces of acculturation. It looks in particular the socio-cultural, economic, and psychological adaptation of an individual on account of acculturation. Across the typology of mobility, adaption process is common in general but what differs is the level of difficulty and degree of adaptation. Nature of mobility and extent of stay accounted for the difference in the degree of adaptation. The paper also discussed the acculturation strategies viz., assimilation, separation / segregation, integration, and lastly marginalisation. It noted that acculturation strategies depend mostly on individual choices, yet choices are constraint by the prevailing situation like dominant ideas, rules and policies. Psychological adaptation basically refers to psychosocial and physical well-being of an individual and socio-cultural adaptation implies to the degree of managing daily life in a new cultural environment. At times, people adapted passively or actively. In the event of negative or hostile attitude by the host society, it may induce problems like marginalisation, discrimination in the society which can eventually lead to mental stress. On the other hand, economic adaption is predicted by the extent of pressure and valance which may result in deprivation of recognition and lowering of status. Age, gender and educational level of migrants exemplifying the level of acculturation stress among different groups.

On another similar findings conducted by Francisco J Mena, Amada M Padilla and Margrita Maldonado (1987) among multicultural undergraduates students, acculturative stress differ among different age groups and timing of immigration. Apart from this, coping strategies adopted across different status groups of migrants depend upon age of the migrant at the time of immigration. Also, second and third generation immigrants reveal different strategies. Late immigrants, who migrated after the age of 12, took more proactive individual actions. But among the second and third generation they coped by talking and sharing among their networks, while early immigrants who migrated before the age of 12 employed both the coping strategies.

Dieu Hack Polay (2012) examines homesickness and its manifestations among migrant workers and expatriates. The study draws from literature and interview among migrants and expatriates, to examine the effects of homesickness and the subsequent coping strategies adopted to overcome it. Homesickness is understood as a psychological distress state of mind that occurs among people who move from home to settle in another place on temporary or permanent basis. Homesickness is manifested physically and psychologically. Some studies indicated that homesickness is a stressor for some other health problems like gastric, headache and also leading to feeling of low esteem, isolated and depression. This further resulted in maladjustment problems among the migrant workers and expatriates. The timing of feeling homesick among migrant workers and expatriates differ. Most expatriates feel homesick much before the onset of movement and most migrant workers normally develops during the first three week of arrival. Narrating on the causes of homesickness, the paper indicated crossing another cultures and the exemplification of fear at different level, of integrate in new situation, of security and others reasons attributed to the development of homesickness. In addition to this, language barrier remind most migrant workers and expatriates of their home thereby tending them to feel dislocated in new surroundings. Language plays a vital role for socialisation process and language barrier block certain opportunities which they could otherwise avail it. A similarity exists between them in the grieving process. Most acknowledge that they went through shedding of tears and in displaying it through body language and in behaviour. Symptoms of homesickness are displayed physiologically and psychologically. The feeling of being sick, lack of appetite, mood swing, irritation were some of the common problems observed in the study. The study also observed that migrants and expatriates cope with homesickness by integrating with local people, exploring and discovering host cultures and through same community solidarity. Social networks form a larger part in migrant's life in helping them to cope with the problem of homesickness.

Susan Banki (2006) paper examined Japan's refugee policy and its impact on urban livelihood activities of Burmese migrants. It paper explored livelihood activities of Burmese migrants in the key areas of employment, housing, health and in education sector. The paper being part of the larger research work incorporated only the findings on Burmese's refugees, and asylum seekers living in Tokyo. 15 Key Informants Interview (KIIs) were conducted along with interviewing 31 individuals. Sample selection was done across various variables like rural, urban, duration of stay, age, gender and ethnic minorities. The fight of Burmese

migrants to Japan began following the student pro led protest in 1988. At the same time, sectoral and demographic changes in Japan compounded the need for low skilled labourer which is filled mostly by migrant. The study revealed that in spite of the well founded need for low semi-skilled, Japan immigration policy emphasis for skilled labour. Under the Immigration law it categorise migrants into four categories viz., Resettled Refugees , Convention Refugees , Asylum Seekers and Special Permission grantees on humanitarian ground. Commenting on Japan new immigration policy, it emanate from the desire to carve for temporary settlement of migrants. The findings revealed that immigration policy impacted upon the living conditions of the migrants leading to unfounded fear among the migrants, lower health status, and adjustment problems hampering their livelihood activities. Among other aspect, the study also indicated changes in the structural occupation of migrants post migration scenario. The paper concludes that immigration policy is inadequate to meet the diverse needs of the migrants and in proving adequate living conditions.

2.6 International Migration in India

Rajesh S Kharat (2003) book deals with Tibetan refugees in India. It narrated the historical background of Tibetan refugees into India, and the reconstruction and resettlement of Tibetans in India. It also assessed the implications of Tibetan settlement in the host country. Kharat gave a broad preview of refugees, its meaning, definition and laws associated with it. It also listed India's position in dealing with refugee's problem. Being a non-signatory to the 1951 and its subsequent declaration to the Convention on Refugees, India does not formulate any laws pertaining to refugees except that it deals on humanitarian ground only. The earlier settlement of Tibetans at West Bengal doomed to be problematic due to unfamiliar climatic conditions. The new settlement was sorted out in cooler and hilly regions akin to their homeland. However, overcrowding and socio economic adaptations are some of the problems Tibetans faced in India. Strife between the local population and Tibetans was also reported on account of sharing some economic opportunities. In spite of the provision for education and employment opportunities meted out to them by the Government of India, the urge for economic survival induced them to drop out of school making them to concentrate mostly in informal sector for their livelihood.

Bose (2004) article on Afghan Refugees in India shed light on the implication faced by Afghan's Hindu, Sikh and Muslim refugees in the absence of refugee policy in India. The limited provisions meted out to them help them to meagre survive, but not to the extent to see improvement in their livelihood and living conditions. The paper also narrated the hurdles

they have to wade through to secure for legal status in India. Licensing for establishment of business enterprise, children's access to higher education and basic health care were some areas that most migrants faced problems. The paper calls for the need to come up with viable financial scheme that will link them with banking system and to usher a modern management humanitarian system to deal the on-going problem of refugees or undocumented migrants in India

Sangkima's (2004) edited book on Cross Border Migration: Mizoram contains articles by different scholars and writers about the coming and settlement of immigrants like the Chakma, Myanmar, Reangs and Gorkha in Mizoram. It also traces the historical development of their settlement in Mizoram and factors that push them to migrate and their impact on the socio-economic and political front on the Mizo society.

The forgoing review of literature suggested that there is scanty literature on migration and livelihood studies in Indian context and even less in North East region. Many studies have used Sustainable Livelihood Framework and Household Asset Vulnerability Framework. However, there is hardly any study conducted using the Migration and Livelihood Framework. In addition to it, most of the studies have concentrated in the area on remittance, social network, vulnerability, determinants and deterrent of migration. Migrant's socio-economic conditions that would provide better understanding of households that undertook migration is inadequately probe into. Apart from that, most studies focus on household as the unit of analysis. The present study will focus on individual migrants. Pertaining to Myanmar Migrants in India and in particular to Mizoram there is no substantial empirical study on it. With respect to methodology only few studies employed mixed method. It is on this light that the present study will address these gaps by using Migration and Livelihood Framework at understanding migration and livelihood of trans border Myanmar migrants in Mizoram.

In this chapter an attempt has been made to present review of literature on the migration and livelihood and the various gaps in the literature have also been presented. In the next chapter, the methodological aspects are presented.

CHAPTER III

METHODOLOGY

Employing a sound design and methodology is vital to ascertain that the objectives of the study are met and capture the most accurate findings. It also helps to formulate a comprehensive plan pertaining to utilisation of techniques and tools that will suit best to meet the aim of the study. The present study is ex post facto in design. The study is centered on migrants who had undergone migration and focus on their livelihood aspects. Primary data was collected from 4 localities of Aizawl town, where two localities representing core areas and another two localities representing periphery areas were identify. This chapter begins with a description of research setting, followed by a description of methodologies employed in each stage and definition of concepts used in the study. The chapter concluded with ethical issued that were considered during the course of research work.

3.1 Research Setting: Profile of the Study Area

The setting of the present study describes profiles of the Mizoram, Aizawl district along with the profile of four localities of Aizawl and a brief profile of Myanmar.

3.1.1 The State of Mizoram

Mizoram, erstwhile Lushai Hills is located in the southernmost tip of North East India. It occupies a strategic location, flanked by a total of 722 kms international boundary with Bangladesh to the west and with Myanmar to the East and South. It also shares its boundary with three Indian States to the North by Assam, and Manipur, and on the west by Tripura. Mizoram became the 23rd state of Indian Union in February 1987. For administrative purpose Mizoram is divided into eight (8) districts viz., Aizawl, Mamit, Champhai, Kolasib, Saiha, Lunglei, Lawngtlai and Serchhip. Agriculture is the main backbone of economy. Small scale industries like handloom, agro based industries are scantily present.

Mizoram is mainly inhabited by kindred tribes of Mizo like Lusei, Hmar, Ralte, Paite, Lai, Mara etc. Mizo social structure is structurally based on Family-Clan-Sub Tribe-Tribe pattern (Vidyarthi & Rai, 1976:153). Christianity is the main religion of the area. Mizoram also host a large number of diverse ethnic groups of immigrants like Chakma, Myanmarese, Bru, and Gorkha.

3.1.2 Aizawl City

The study is carried out in Aizawl, the state capital of Mizoram. Aizawl District is located in the northern part of Mizoram with an area of 3,576 sq.km. As per 2011 census, Aizawl has a population of 4, 04,054 where male constitute around 49.8 % of the population and female constituted to around 50.1 percent of the population¹. Aizawl is governed by Municipal Corporation and is the only urban agglomerate in Mizoram.

3.1.3 Profile of Sample Localities

The sample localities were classified as core area and periphery area. Two localities representing core area and another two localities representing periphery area were selected purposely. Identification of localities which comes under core area and periphery area was based on the classification and grading of land value in Aizawl by the Department of Revenue and Land Settlement, Government of Mizoram (GoM). Electric locality and Saron locality were identified as core area. And for periphery area Zuangtui locality and Thuampui locality were selected.

3.1.3.1 Electric Locality

Electric locality is one of the oldest and one among the largest localities in Aizawl. It is located adjacent to Bara Bazaar, the main market of Aizawl. Settlement at Electric locality began way back in 1936. Earlier it was known as Tuitu village. The locality comes under Dawrpui Locality until 1963. Subsequently Tuitu Village was renamed as Electric locality after it got its own village council in the year 1963. As per the record of Local Council till 2016, it has a population of 6500 with 1200 number of households. The locality is divided into five (5) sections for administration. There are seven denominations, where Presbyterian Church forms the largest. Methodist Church, a denomination that has its presence even in Chin State is also present in the locality. Most of the ethnic Myanmarese migrants belonging to Christianity are members of Methodist Church. Voluntary organisations like the Young Mizo Association (YMA), Mizoram Upa Pawl (MUP) and Mizo Hmeichhia Insuikhawm Pawl (MHIP) are the main organisations. Village Defence Force (VDP) was also constituted to maintain law and order with the main objective to keep the locality clean from drugs and alcohol. In the year 2004, the locality was awarded the Best Community Award on International Day against Drugs Abuse and Illicit Trafficking. Important Government offices

¹ www.mizoram.nic.in

such as Power and Electricity Department, Mizoram, main community health center under Anganwadi are located at Electric Locality. There are eight (8) schools in the locality.

3.1.3.2 Saron Locality

Saron locality was part of larger Dawrpui locality until it got separated in the year 1962. Previously it was known as Police locality until 1959. As per the record of Saron sub center till 2016 it has a population of 1700 with a number of 705 households. There are four local denominations apart from Methodist Church where its congregation members mainly are makeup of Myanmarese migrants. For administrative purpose, it is divided into three sections. Different voluntary organisation existed of which YMA, MUP and MHIP are the main organisation. It center four schools that provided education till high school and below.

3.1.3.3 Thuampui Locality

Situated in the eastern flank, it is the gateway to Aizawl city where the National Highway- 54 passes through it. Thuampui locality was earlier known as ‘Kelpu locality’ due to the large presence of Gorkha population who were mainly cowherd. The locality was separated from Zemabawk locality and started to function as separate locality with its own Local Council. Thuampui is mainly inhabited by Mizo tribe, followed by Gorkha. According to Aizawl Municipal Council record it has a population of 4021 with 887 number of household. The locality is divided into four sections for carrying out better administration. Organisation like YMA, MUP, MHIP are some of the prominent voluntary organisations present in the locality. Some important Government offices are located in Thuampui like the Aizawl Municipal Corporation, Assam Rifles Cantonment and Helipad, and one Co operative Society known as Mizoram Multi Commodity Producers Cooperative (MULCO). There are four government schools and three private schools.

3.1.3.4 Zuangtui Locality

Zuangtui is located in the eastern part of Aizawl surrounded by localities like Durtlang, Thuampui, Muthi and Falkland. Zuangtui locality came into existence when the Durtlang locality decided to distribute land to 30 families for cultivation under Garden Colony in the year 1975. It continues to be administered under Durtlang Locality until the Local Administration Department (LAD), Government of Mizoram (GoM) declared Zuantui as separate locality in the year 1990. It has a population of 2833 with 750 households. Zuantui is an industrial estate for handloom industry as such it host the highest Myanmarese migrants who were mostly employed in handloom industry. According to YMA President of

Zuangtui there were around 700 Myanmarese migrants before the 2015 general elections at Myanmar.

3.1.4 Brief Profile of Myanmar

Myanmar is bounded in the East by China, Laos and Thailand, on the west by Bangladesh and India. It has an area of 676,552 square kilometres and a population of 53.90 million in 2015 (World Bank, 2016). Buddhism is the main religion and literacy rate of Myanmar is 83% with life expectancy at 64 years (Oxford Business Group, 2016). Myanmar holds a strategic geo political location as it is the gateway to Southeast Asia. The country is made of diverse ethnic conglomeration with a federal type of Government. The Union of Myanmar is constituted by seven States and seven Divisions.

Prior to Myanmar Independence, the Government of Burma Act 1935 incorporated a separate administration set up for minority tribes under the Excluded Areas. In order to further the interest of the minority tribes, Aung Sung concluded the Panglong Agreement with ethnic leaders where it has provisions for equal rights and right to secession from the Union of Burma, after a period of ten years. The failure to implement the Panglong Agreement resulted in the rise of different militancy groups particularly among the minority ethnic groups like Chin National Front (CNF), Karen, Kachin Independence Organisation (KIO), Mon etc. The newly Independent Myanmar was faced with political insecurity culminating in a series of changes from pro-democratic stance to isolationism and socialism under the Military coup in 1962, to moving forward towards restoring peace and political stability with the general parliamentary elections of 2015.

Myanmar is indeed a country with diverse ethnic groups. The States are formed by the principal minority ethnic tribes of Chin, Karen, Rakhine, Mon, Shan, Kachin and Kayah who occupied mostly the States and hilly region of Myanmar. On the other hand, the Divisions are mainly inhabited by Bamar who are otherwise also known as the Burman .

The Bamar ethnic group make up about 70 % of the population and they are the main principal group found in Myanmar belonging to Sino – Tibetan origin. They are predominantly Theravada Buddhist. Due to the dominance of Bamar group in Myanmar, it influences Myanmar culture and custom and controls the government and military. On the other hand, the Chin people who are estimated at 1.5 million comprising of diverse sub tribes formed one of the largest ethnic minority group in Myanmar. They live mainly in north western Chin State of Myanmar. They are predominantly Christian and belong to Tibeto –

Burman origin. According to the report of Chin Human Rights Organisation (CHRO), over 60,000 Chin live as refugees in India (Human Rights Watch, 2009).

Location Maps of Mizoram and Aizawl District within India Map

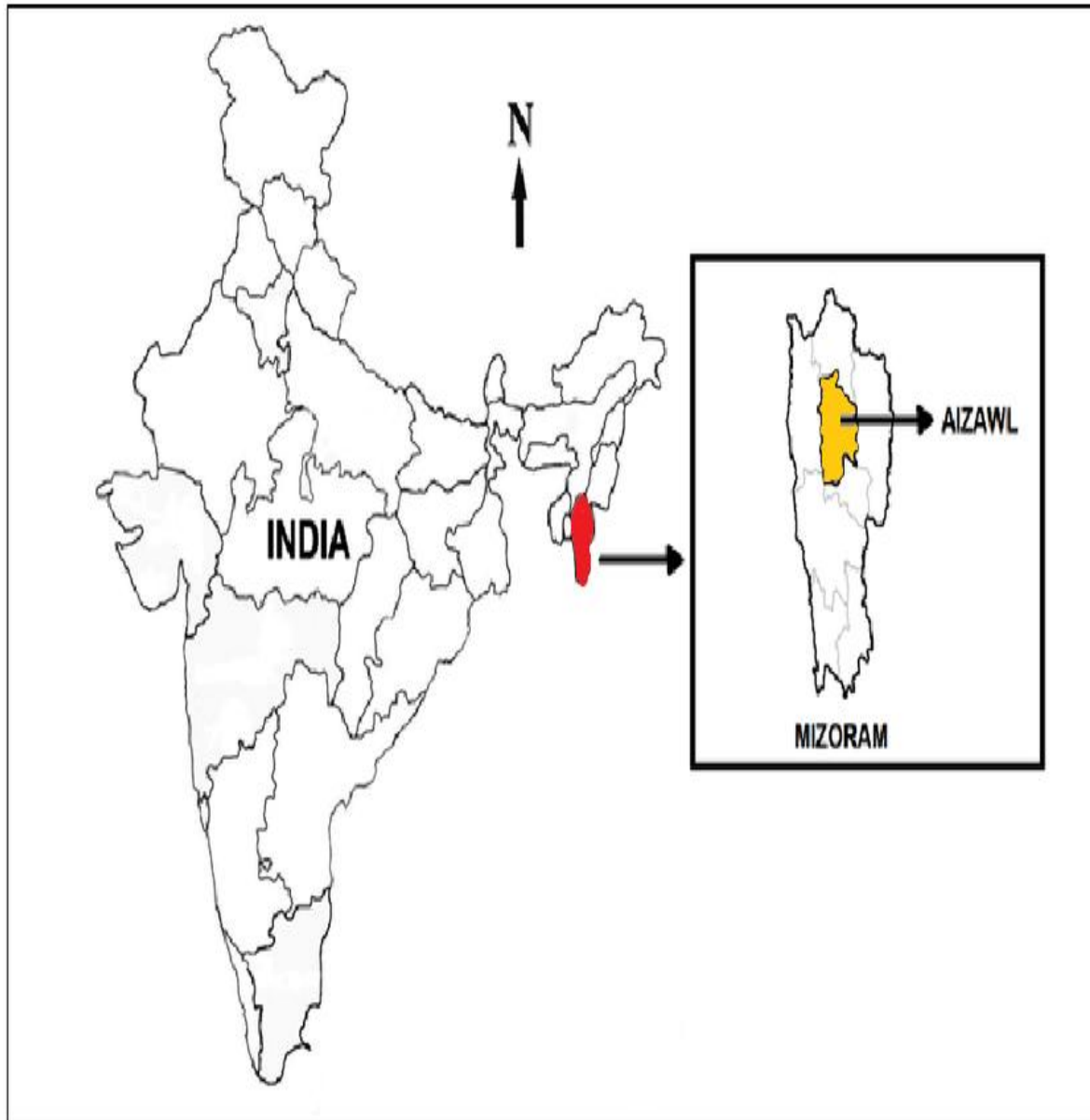


Figure 3.1 Location maps of Mizoram and Aizawl District

Source: <https://www.worldatlas.com/India.com>



Figure 3.2 Map of Aizawl Municipal Area

Source : Aizawl Municipal Corporation (AMC).

Map of Myanmar

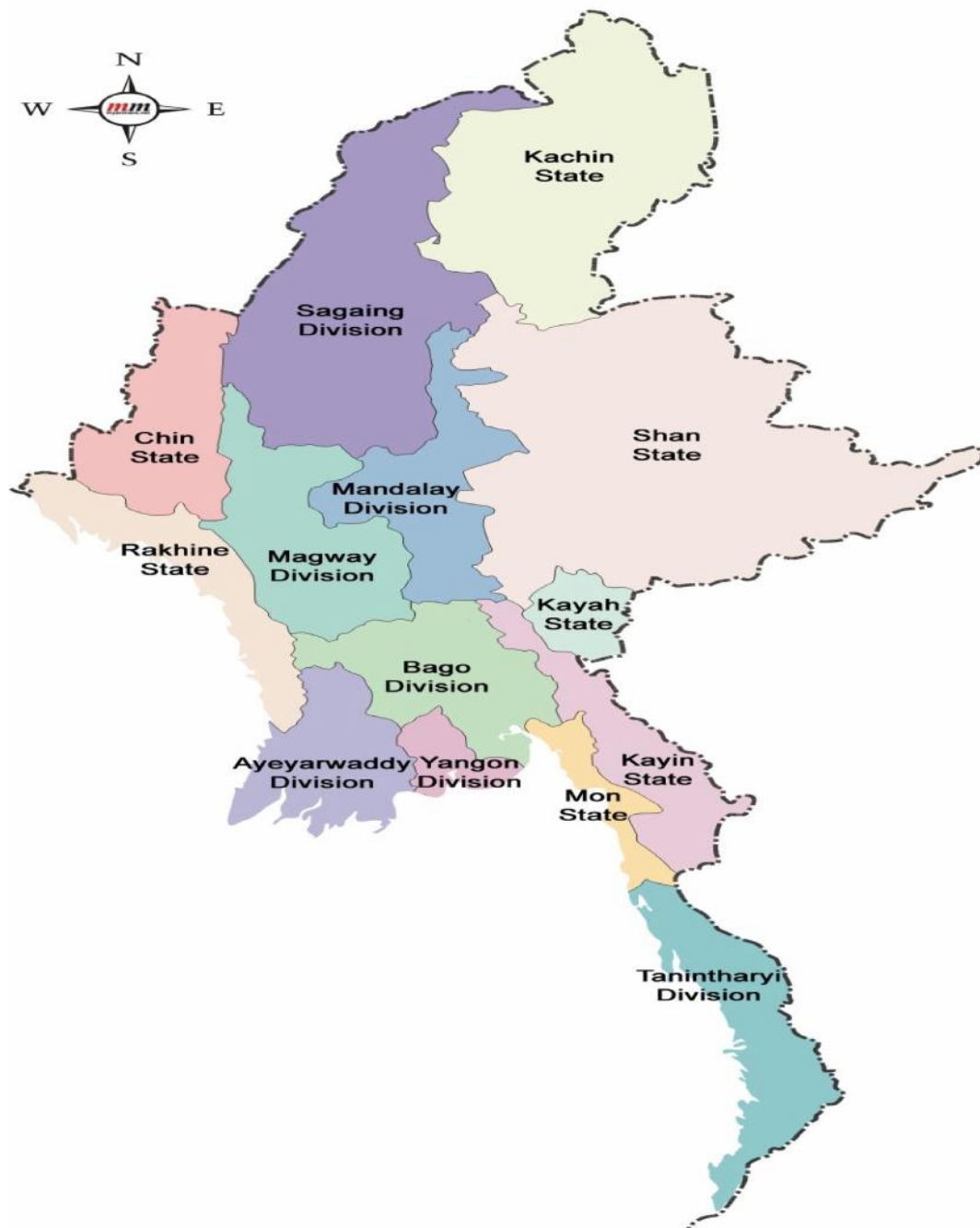


Figure 3.3 Map of Myanmar

Source: <https://www.worldatlas.com/Myanmar.com>

3.2 Research Design

The research is cross sectional in nature and ex post facto in design. Ex post research design studies events and circumstances of the past in the present environment. It uses mixed methods with the lens of emic perspective.

3.2.1 Mixed Method

Livelihood studies aim at people centric development (Kaag, Berkel & Brons et al, 2004). The study of livelihood is dynamic, as it encompasses human milieu and their activities. Livelihood approach basically put people and their activities at the central stage and seek to understand it from the perspective of people. Capturing the complexity of human dynamics and livelihood through a single isolated method would yield only certain aspects of it. Mixed methods allow to captures the multi faceted and complexity of livelihood and migration. The present study employed mixed method in a sequential order of qualitative and quantitative methods. Primary data was collected through qualitative, quantitative and participatory method.

Qualitative method tools of data collection like key informant interview (KII), case study along with participatory method like Force Field Analysis (FFA) were conducted. Force field analysis was employed to understand migrants' vulnerabilities on account of migration from their own perspectives. Case studies was taken to comprehend the dynamics nature of migration, role of social networks, perceived challenges and coping strategies of migrants. Field survey with pretested structure interview schedule was used for quantitative method.

3.2.2 Sampling

Multi stage sampling was used for the study. In the absence of proper statistical document regarding Myanmarese migrants in Mizoram and the fact that they constitute mostly under undocumented migrants, purposive sampling was used for the selection of area and localities and sample. Aizawl Municipal Area was selected purposely and based on preliminary survey of Myanmarese migrant area of concentration across localities, four localities representing two each from core and periphery areas were further selected purposively. Which localities constituted under core and periphery areas was identified as per the classification of land within the specified town area of Aizawl city, Department of Land Revenue and Settlement, Mizoram.

Quantitative data was collected among a sample of 73 respondents through snow ball sampling and through different gateways like Church, Community Leaders, and Employers.

3.2.3 Tools of Data Collection, Processing and Analysis

The emic perspectives of migrants on migration drivers, impact of migration, their livelihood challenges post migration, and coping strategies they adopted. Also, free *listing* one of the techniques of Cultural Domain Analysis (CDA) was conducted to generate items in the areas of migration drivers, livelihood challenges, coping strategies, and impact of migration to mainly comprehend the emic perspective. A loose sheet with four head themes as mentioned above was prepared and administer among 20 respondents, five respondents from each locality. The findings from free listing were analysed using Visual ANTROPAC software (Borgatti 1996) and incorporated in the schedule to collect quantitative date. Apart from this findings from literature review, and pilot survey structure interview schedule was prepared to be administered to the migrants.

Unstructured interview schedule for key informants interview with 26 community leaders, 3 NGOs working for migrants and 2 handloom owners was conducted to illicit information on migrant's nature of settlement their vulnerability aspect and perception of host community regarding Myanmarese migrants in general. Case studies were also collected to showcase the dynamics nature of migration, their challenges and subsequent coping strategies they employed in the face of problems. Force field analysis was done with participants from one locality to understand the vulnerability context of migration in the lives of Myanmarese migrants.

Structured interview schedule was administered to the migrants to collect detailed information about socio - economic profile, livelihood resource base at place of origin, history of migration, livelihood challenges of migrants and their coping strategies, and migration outcomes on their livelihood and living conditions.

Quantitative data that was collected through structured interview schedule was processed with the help of Census and Survey Processing System (CSPro). It was further analysed with the help of SPSS. For analysis of quantitative data percentages and averages were used. Independent t test and Karl Pearson's coefficients of correlation were used.

3.3 Concepts and Operational of Definitions

In this section, some of the important concepts related to the present study are presented along with their operational definitions.

3.3.1 Migration

Human adhere to movement, and migration is one of the oldest phenomenon that is associated with human being. However, the connotations assigned to migration differ from context to context. This contextual difference adds to different assumptions and meaning to it. Migration may refer to movement from one residence to another, but all movement does not entail migration nor does it comes under the ambience of constituting a person a migrant, just because they undertook a movement.

Different authors attempted to narrow down the definition of migration. Yet, as the nature, purpose, and circumstances differ, it became a colossal task to frame a definite universal definition. Also, depending on duration, migration is further classified into numerous categories like short term, long term, or depending upon the nature it can be temporary, semi permanent or circular migration etc. On the other hand migration can be circular in nature which is basically short term, repetitive movement that lack the intention of becoming permanent and long standing residency. As such concepts like ‘transnational movement’ have found entry in the dictionary of migration. Transnational basically implies where people’s lives span across two countries commuting across trans border. On the other hand migration can take place to short or longer places where the exertion may be voluntary or involuntary. To conclude, the definition of migration may well depend on the purpose for which it is defined. The United Nations Multilingual Demographic Dictionary defined, “migration as a form of geographical or spatial mobility between one geographical unit and another. It involves a change in residence from the place of origin or departure to the place of destination”. The definition adheres to permanent type of migration and depicted in terms of present and previous residency. On another note, Glossary on Migration (2004) by International Organisation for Migration (IOM) defined, “migration as a process of moving, 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 include migration of refugees, displaced persons, uprooted people, and economic migrants”. The definition entails a broader aspect of people movement and recognised the variations of movement.

For the study, migration here would refer to as movement of individuals or group of people across international border, for the purpose of employment or to seek better living conditions wherein their nature of settlement in the host country may be temporary or may have assumed semi permanent or permanent in nature. The study also considered movement of individual or groups of people or families who migrated to countries other than their place of birth, for a considerable period of time so as to have acquired the citizenship of that country and return back to re settle in their original place of birth alone or with their families. The definition refers to migration of people across international border. The study will focus on Myanmar migrants who migrated to Mizoram temporarily or semi permanent or permanently for employment or for better living conditions or for any other reasons.

3.3.2 Migrant worker

Like migration, the understanding of migrant spun across differently. IOM also states that no universally accepted definition of migrant exists (IOM, 2004). The term migrant applies basically to persons, family members moving to another country or region to better their tangible and non tangible conditions for better prospect for themselves or for their family. In Indian context, as per Census of India, 2001, “A person is considered as a migrant by place of last residence, if the place in which he is enumerated during the census is other than his place of immediate last residence.”

According to IOM(2004) and United Nations Convention on the Protection of the Rights of all Migrant Workers and Members of their Families(1990), a migrant worker is defined as a person who is to be engaged, is engaged in a remunerative activity in a state of which he or she is not a national or citizens. According to International Labour Organisation(ILO), a migrant workers is one who migrate from one country to another with the objective to be employed voluntarily , and include any person regularly admitted as a migrant for employment. Pointing out to the definition, in some cases migrant workers are understood in general without either classifying those who fall under document or un-document migrants or presumed as regular documented migrants.

For the study, migrant worker applies to people or family members who had undergone international migration and irrespective of their place of birth, duration, status and nature of their settlement in place of employment, is employed for remunerative activities or are self employed.

3.3.3 Livelihood

Livelihood aspect of Myanmar migrants is the main focus of the study. The study of livelihood takes a central stage with the development of Sustainable Livelihood Framework by DFID. Livelihood encompasses a combination of activities and choices in order to make or undertake a living. Chambers and Conway (1992) defined livelihoods to comprise of capabilities and assets. Capabilities refer to individual dimension; what they can do through acquisition of knowledge, health, and networks. It covers material as well as non material aspect of access to assets (Scoones, 1998). Assets imply capitals or resources in the form of human capital, natural capital, social capital, financial capital and physical capital. Access to these capitals undermines the outcomes of livelihood. As such, higher the assets or diverse the assets there is greater capability to ward off risk (Tanle,2015). Drawing from Chambers and Conway definition livelihood is understood as which comprises capabilities, assets, and activities which can maintain and sustain a living.

3.4 Limitations of the Study

The major limitations of the present study are

1. The generality of findings may be limited as the study concentrates only in four localities of Aizawl Municipal Area.
2. Another limitation of the study is that it is one sided study that focuses only within the host context relying mainly on retrospective memory of migrants.

3.5 Ethical Considerations

Ethical considerations that were applied during the study includes:-

- I. Permission to interview migrant workers from employers or owner:** the researcher approach handloom owner or employers to gain permission to interview Myanmar migrants.
- II. Informed consent:** The researcher before proceeding for interview, brief about the study area and seek their consent to be interview. Only those who were willing and gave their consent were interview. The researcher also encountered migrants some who are unwilling to be interview, and some who hesitated to identify themselves as migrants from Myanmar. Only those who gave consent to quote their name was inserted in the study. Some especially among the community leaders wishes to remain anonymous consenting only to write their designated title.

- III. Confidentiality:** The researcher informed the respondents that anonymity of respondents will be maintained and that all information shared will be used only for the purpose of the study.
- IV. Flexibility and right to withdraw.** During the process of interview, the researcher gave the liberty to the respondents to skip any information that he /she didn't wish to disclose. Also, it was put at the discretion of the respondents to withdraw at any stage of interview.

In the present chapter, an attempt has been made to describe the context of the present study and various components of research design. In the next chapter, an attempt is made to discuss the findings of the quantitative data analysis.

CHAPTER IV

VULNERABILITY CONTEXT OF MIGRANTS

The study of migration and livelihood involves at understanding people vulnerability upon which they make decision. Livelihood activities of people are centered around people's choices and decision. And these choices and decision are governed by both external and internal factors, which could either drive towards positive or negative changes or at times acts as a restraining force towards change. Like livelihood, migration itself has a tendency to create its own vulnerability (Osawe, 2013). To understand the context under which it is operationalised different framework have indentified various factors that attributes to vulnerability.

The DFID (2002) identified shock, trends and seasonality as the underlining vulnerability context upon which people operates their livelihood. The sustainable livelihood framework for Pacific Island identified five components of vulnerability viz,. shocks, seasonality, trends, cultural and household elements (Tanle, 2015). Under the integrated framework for Migration and Livelihood, it identified three major components of vulnerability, such as shocks, seasonality and household dynamics. Vulnerability is understood as the exposure or proneness to factors that can place household or people at the risk of living on the edge. People's experiences and understanding varies depending upon their degree of exposure to various factors of vulnerability. Understanding the dynamics of migration unfold the complexity within which they undertook migration, which varies from person to person. It is impertinent to understand the basic premise of their vulnerabilities upon which they operate their livelihood; how people assess their vulnerability, and their interpretation of reality that emits from their own experiences. Engaging the perspective of the host community unfold a clearer understanding about those underlining forces that drives them and also those forces that restrained it in the host context.

This section attempts to explore vulnerability of trans border migrants in the native and host context using qualitative methods of Participatory Rural Appraisal (PRA) technique, key informant interview and case studies.

4.1 Vulnerability Context of Migrant

This section explores the vulnerability of trans – border migrants in the native and host context employing Force Field Analysis (FFA), and substantiated along with the

findings from key informant interviews and through case studies. The first sub section presents findings from FFA. The second sub section discusses major findings from key informant interviews with community leaders, service provider and from key personnel. The third sub section highlights the dynamics of migration by capturing lived experiences of migrants through case studies.

4.1.1 Force Field Analysis

Force Field Analysis (FFA) was developed by Kurt Lewis in 1951 to understand primarily forces that act upon complex problems. It is used as a tool or technique to manage change by analysing factors that acts as driving force and forces that restrain the change. FFA gave knowledge about the underlining forces that accompanied with change and gave direction on how to manage change.

Force Field Analysis was facilitated among a group of six (6) participants with diverse socio economic background from Thuampui locality. The findings revealed the major driving forces of vulnerability in their native context which spring from poverty, military regime, and minority, lack of development and lack of employment opportunities. On further probing, participants informed that poverty was rampant due to low currency value clubbed with high inflation rate and arbitrary taxation. Under military regime, people's voice and choice were suppressed and the military could exploit them anytime through arbitrary forced labour and taxation. One participant further elaborates his experience of forced labour, "I was asked to offer my labour for the construction of rail roads, roads a couple of times. We offered not only our labour, time and energy. But we also had to shell out from our pockets to buy for our own ration. At times, we worked for a month or longer than that". He further mentioned that whenever he was away on forced labour he used to worry a lot about his family and how will he feed them in the coming month since he was away and could not earn money. Lack of welfare scheme and inputs from ruling government and opportunities for employment was also another dimension that leads to their vulnerabilities. In the absence of policy like reservation for minority in educational and employment facilities and lack of scope for social and occupational mobility, it inculcates a sense of despair and dejection among parents to send their children for higher education. This is more acute among the ethnic minority. Another factor that induced their vulnerability is lack of development initiatives in the form of provisions, services and infrastructure development. On further

probing people's expectation from the then ruling government for their development was non existence. One Bamar woman participant elaborated in this manner, "You tend to follow the same family trade because of lack of employment opportunity in other trade".

In the host context migrant's vulnerability is induced from their legal status that hampers their access to basic services and facilities in the host community. On account of their migration status Myanmar migrants had to rely entirely on informal transaction of money as they are unable to access to minimum banking services. They had to rely on black market exchange rate where 1 INR equals 17 Kyat¹ as against the official exchange rate of 19.137 Kyat for 1 INR ²(Exchange Rate of Central Bank of Myanmar, 2016). At times, the issuance of eviction notices to Myanmar migrants creates a sense of unfounded fear and insecurity among the migrants. Lastly, the non existence of functional organisation or institution that will see into their problems and welfare further compounded their vulnerabilities when they encounter problems like eviction notices. Eviction notice has been issued to Myanmar Migrants on four occasions (Singh, 2014; Lavesque & Rahman, 2007; Human Rights Law Network, 2005). Most of the eviction notice was issued by non state actors organisation like Young Mizo Association (YMA), the largest voluntary organisation in Mizoram that has its presence in every localities and villages or at times issued by joint committee of YMA and other larger voluntary organisation like Mizo Hmeichhia Insuikhawm Pawl (MHIP) which is a body of Mizo Mother's Organisation and Mizo Upa Pawl (MUP) a body of Mizo Elder organisation.

Their legal status as undocumented and illegal migrants subjected them to face problems in the event when they required the services of state enforcing law and in the face of existing law in India like Foreigner Act of 1946. Under this Act, illegal migrants can be detained, arrested and deported back to their origin country. Commenting on an anonymous, a high ranking police officer with the Mizoram Police states that whenever the market area

¹ The prevailing exchange rate at black market till the time of field survey was one Rupee (1 INR) equal to 17 Kyat i.e. till December, 2016.

² Foreign exchange rate as of 2nd December, 2016 was one Rupee (1 INR) equal to 19.137 Kyat. Source www.forex.cbm.gov.mm/index.php/fxrate

(Bara Bazaar) become crowded with street vendors especially during the Christmas season, we normally take a round and arrested those street vendors. Those arrested were mainly found to be Myanmarese migrants. Commenting on the same line Mr Lawma, president of Kawl Social Welfare (KSW) that looks into the welfare of Bamar in particular at Aizawl mentioned that the slightest complaint from local neighbour can resulted in the arrest of Myanmarese migrants. Their legal status also implicates them to assess to formal banking services. Myanmarese migrants had to rely for transaction of money across border through informal channels or through hawala system which lacks safety and also incur them additional cost.

In the absence of functional organisation or institution migrants are left vulnerable as they don't have functional organisation that will look into their problems and address their problems at higher level or when the need arise to approach higher authority to stand on behalf of the migrants community. However, this does not testify that organisation which work for Myanmarese migrants is non existence in Mizoram. It existed, but their existence is minimalistic and caters to some issues and section of the population only. For instance, the Kawl Social Welfare (KSW) came into existence on account of language barrier face by Bamar migrants in access to health care services. It was on the advice of doctors at civil hospital that the KSW came into existence primarily to help translate language for Bamar migrants when they need to avail health care service. Moreover, the welfare provides help and support to migrants in times of sickness and death. The welfare has also helped in acquiring a burial place for Myanmarese migrants at Damna Locality. At the most only Bamar migrants are members to this organisation. During the researcher field survey it was found that even among Bamar migrants some are not even aware of the existence of KSW and evenly remotely known among the Chin migrants. Among the Chin ethnic tribe association existed which is based on inter household village social network like Khampat Welfare Association, Avanva Welfare Association etc. These associations existed to condole and expressed solidarity, based on mutual aid in times of sickness, hospitalisation, and death of its members.

FORCE FIELD ANALYSIS

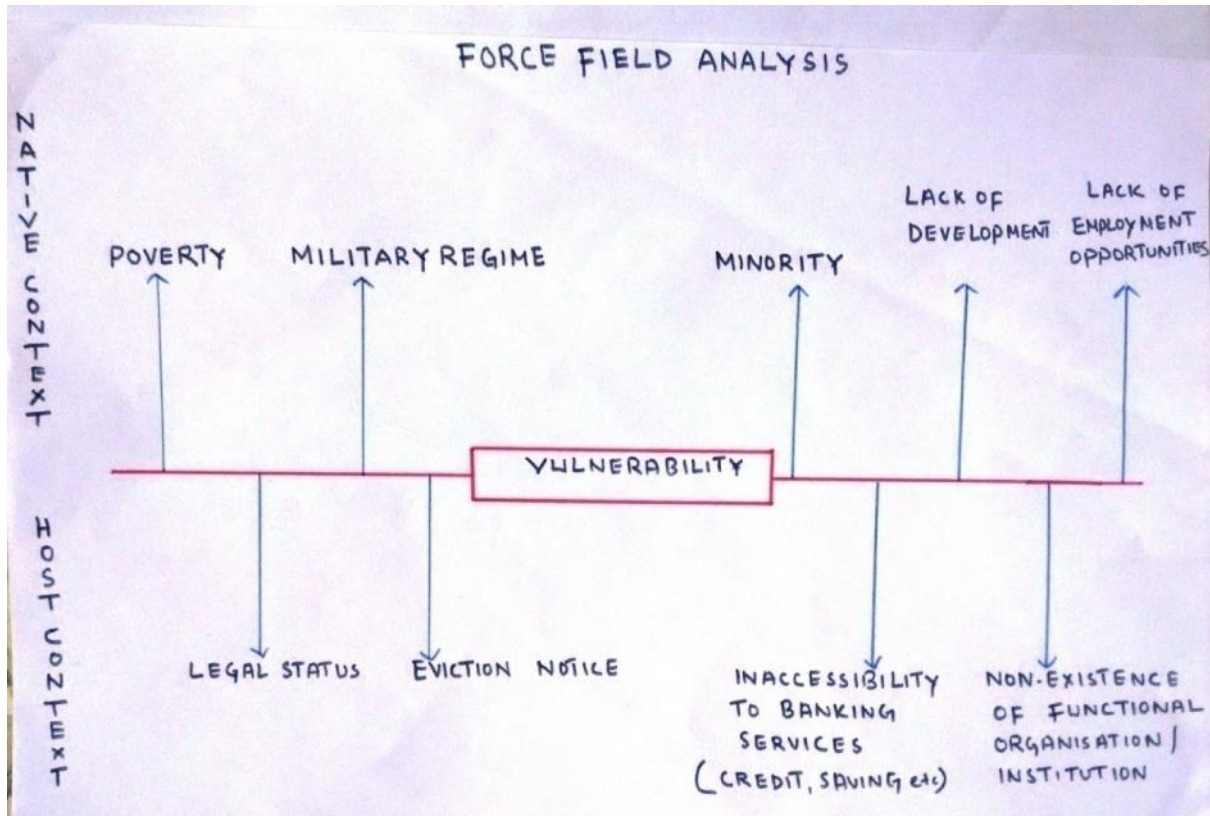


Figure 4.1 Force Field Analyses

4.1.2. Perception of Myanmarese Migrants by Host Community

In order to have a balance analysis of migrant's vulnerability it is indeed necessary to incorporate perception of host community. Relation between host and migrants community can be of conflicting in nature or that of mutual benefits or one that oscillate between rejection and acceptance. Understanding factors that influence positive and negative relation from the notion of host community will help to throw light on migrant's position in the larger domain of society and the angle of their vulnerabilities. And this section attempts to capture migrant vulnerability and their larger relationship with the host community from the perspective of host community.

4.1.2.1 Summary of Key Informant Interviews

Key informant interviews (KII) are qualitative interview that involves a select group of individuals or groups who are likely to provide the much needed first hand information, ideas and insight into a particular topic or event.

Findings from interview with community leaders like YMA, MHIP, Local Council and MUP revealed their relationship with the host community sandwich between acceptance and rejection. Similar finding pertaining to their relationship was also found in the study conducted by Lavesque & Rahman (2007) which found that their relationship oscillates between acceptance, solidarity and rejection. Their acceptance comes from the demand for cheap labour and skilled workers in handloom industry and in other arenas. "Myanmarese migrants help the handloom industry in Aizawl in terms of their skilled and cheap labour" states Lalditum owner of LR Handloom. Moreover, ethnicity also factor in especially with the Chin group who share the same ethno cultural roots with that of the Mizo of Mizoram. However, on another stance the community leaders felt that the coming of Myanmarese migrants in Mizoram have brought along with them social vice like increase in drugs circulation, crimes etc. They also perceived them to lack Mizo ethos like '*Tlawmngaihna*' which means effacement of self in the service of others (Zama, 2009) which is inherent in Mizo culture. It is on this spirit of '*Tlawmngaihna*' that the YMA was constituted and other voluntary organisations like MUP, and MHIP.

Chin migrants and Bamar migrants exerted different level of perception and threat. Bamar migrants as such does not create much problems as they are mostly engaged in

handloom industry and their work nature and language barrier left them with scanty opportunity to associate and involve at the community level wholly. Bamar community mingle much among themselves and since they stay in group housing it was easy for community leaders to manage them. What makes the Chins migrants different from other migrants is that their acceptance level and integration level among the host community looms larger than other migrants stocks like Bamar, Chakma, Bangladeshi or Bru. Unless Myanmarese migrants are involved in anti social elements and play by the rule of the society, they were not differentiated much .However, in the face of wrongful activities committed by Chin, it does not either safe them from the wrath of host community. The involvement of some Chin migrants in drug trafficking, illegal liquor brewing and for petty crimes, pervade among the general population to stereotype Myanmarese migrants in general and particularly the ethnic Chin migrants . In order to curb their bad influence, assertive steps were taken to deport the Chins migrants. For instance, eviction notices directed in particularly to Chin migrants were issued. On 14 November, 2010 one that is issued by Joint Committee of the Village Councils of Aizawl South III Assembly Constituency following the gruesome rape and murder of a minor by Chin community. And in 2003, the Central YMA issued a quit notice following the alleged rape by Chin migrant at Vancy Hotel in Aizawl. On April, 2013 it was issued again to Chin settlers in two localities of Phunchawng and Rangvamual. Inspite of the prevailing stereotyping, the Chin community still exerted solidarity among the host community based on ethnicity, brotherhood and religion. Commenting on this Lala Khobung , a retired Mizoram Judicial Service states that Mizo society in general is accommodating and from legal perspective their coming and settling in Mizoram is illegal under the Foreigner Act 1946 which comes under cognizable offence. But in most cases they are deal on humanitarian grounds.

4.1.3. Lived Experiences of Myanmarese Migrants

This section highlights the dynamics of migration, migrant's coping mechanism and survival strategies in the face of vulnerabilities through case studies.

4.1.3.1 Case Studies of Myanmarese Migrants

Case study which is a form of qualitative descriptive research looks at individuals, small group or group as a whole. It focus on capturing individual or group experiences ,

views and insight into their subjective world rather than positioning to discover universal generalisable truth.

Case 1: Migration as an ex ante coping strategy in the face of livelihood vulnerability.

Mrs X, aged 47 hails from Tuivar village under Sagiang Division, Myanmar. She belongs to Lusei, a sub tribe under Chin – Kuki- Mizo ethnic group or *Zo*³ as other would like to put it. She got married at the age of 19 years to Mr M whom she claimed to have hail from one of the village under Champhai District of Mizoram. She met her husband at Tuivai who at that time was in search of menial job. He took up any kind of job that could fetch him some money. After marriage, her maternal parents gave them land to cultivate. They used to rotate their crops twice in year cultivating rice, and vegetables during the lean season. The occurrence of floods each year slowly washed away their fertile land, resulting in the accumulation and deposition of silt. The productivity of their land decreases each year. Though their land could feed them for a while, but with increase in family size it became difficult to sustain them especially in the coming future. To meet the additional needs of their family her husband used to frequent Aizawl supplying vegetables to main market at Aizawl. In 2011, the whole family along with her three children migrated to Aizawl as they feel that there are ample scopes for diverse livelihood opportunities, if one is willing to work. Apart from that migrating to Mizoram is like a home coming to them. They perceived Mizoram as the abode of *Zo* people, as they shared a common culture, custom and dialect with the people. Migrating to a new location where they could converse the host language was important to them, as both were illiterate and could converse only in Mizo and Burman languages. At first, they stayed at a friend house who hails from Khampat village, a neighbouring village of Tuivar. Their family friend accommodates them until they could find a place to rent at Electric locality. Her husband continued to import seasonal vegetables from Tahan (Myanmar) and supplied at wholesale rate mainly in Bara Bazaar and its surrounding markets in Aizawl. At times she used to sit in the market open pavement to sell those vegetables. To add their family income her two sons, 24 years and 18 years worked as daily wage labourer, while her youngest son aged 14 worked at a tea stall. She lamented that her children had to stop their education; because of the high fees at private schools and also her children find it

³ At times the people of Chin –Kuki- Mizo are also referred to as *Zo* . The terminology *Zo* is deemed to be more inclusive and it is used as an umbrella term referring to all the sub tribes of Chin, Kuki and Mizo.

difficult to pick up English at their age. Back home they were taught in Bamar/Burman language only

Case 2: Families across different borders

Mrs Y, aged 40, a housewife recollected back her family members, who are now separated across different borders. Mrs Y belongs to Pawi, a sub tribe *Zo* ethnic group. She informed that in Myanmar, the Bamar (the majority ethnic group in Myanmar who are locally referred to as *Kawl* by the kindred tribes of *Zo* who are spread across Mizoram, Manipur and Chin State of Myanmar) ascribed all the sub ethnic tribes that fall under *Zo* as Chin. Her grandfather migrated to Myanmar from Mizoram to enrol himself in Burmese Army during the 1960's, a years when Mizoram was in turmoil due to separatist movement for Greater Mizoram. With the divorce of her parents, her mother who is an employee under Myanmar Government looks after her and her two elder sisters. They lead a contented life. It was during the aftermath of pro democracy wave in Myanmar when her eldest sister unknowingly provided food to volunteer of National League for Democracy (NLD) that consequently changes their live. When the military army got wind of it, they started to frequent their house and search for her sisters. She remember whenever the army pay them a visit, her sisters went into hiding. Mrs Y was just a teenage by then. It was at this instance that the NLD volunteers offered to help her two sisters to cross the border and help them to reach at New Delhi where they can register with the UNHCR as refugees. As of now, both her sisters are married and have settled down at Australia and at Delhi. She stays along with her mother till she got married. After she bore three children Mrs Y family too decided to migrate to Aizawl in order to seek better living conditions in the month of February, 2006.

“With increase in family members it becomes difficult to manage the household, as my husband could earn paltry income from carpentry work which is only 3000 Kyat per day (approximate equivalent to INR 158) which could hardly buy us one buk-khat⁴ of rice. We were just scraping by. And I feel unpleasant to approach my mother for help all the time. What will others think of us? a family who could not even stand on their own feet”.

⁴ Buok-khat is a local measuring unit common among the Chin .One Buok-khat is equivalent to 1kg and 500 gm and the price of one Buok-khat is 4000 Kyat during her days in Myanmar.

It was hard on her part initially to leave her aged mother, who lived alone. But in contrast to Myanmar, she finds life to be much easier in Aizawl. Regular power supply and availability of cooking gas and other modern amenities makes her life much easier. She does not require anymore fetching for wood logs to burn the fire place like in Myanmar. The ability to send her children to English medium school was above all worth that they undertook migration. She finds that at Aizawl there exist ample opportunities to earn money if one wants to do odd jobs. She only lamented that at times she missed her family who had to live across different borders. She kept thinking about her mother, who lived all alone in Myanmar and how she will continue to manage herself in old age. She wishes for a day when all her family could meet again. Even though she keeps in touch with them through phone and social media, but digital cannot satisfy the longing and aching to see them in naked eyes.

Case 3: A Case of retired Ex Burmese Soldier.

Mr XYZ, aged 84 years is a pensioner under the Burmese Army. He hails from Champhai district of Mizoram. He enrolled in the Army in the year 1954 along with 200 others Mizo youths from Mizoram where he served in the Army as a mechanic. It was easy and common among the Mizo youth to enrol in Burmese Army during his times. While he was serving he met and married a lady from Tahan village, whose father was also serving in the Burmese Army. In his words, recounting his life as an army:

“Our lot was different from those of common people. We received provisions like food ration, buy things at subsidies rate unlike common citizens who were deprived of receiving such kinds of facilities. Hardship like forced labour, arbitrary taxation which were faced by the people was unknown to us.”

After his retirement in the year 1980, they settled down at Khampat, a Mizo village under Sagaing Division among his own kindred tribe. However, demonetisation of currency that invalid around 80% of the currency in 1987 rendered most of their hard earned saving into just a pile of papers. This created a sense of fear among people to continue saving. In the face of high inflation with meagre retirement money it was difficult to provide for better living conditions. They began to cultivate rice and seasonal vegetables. The earning from cultivation was not adequate to save extra money to provide them with better living standard.

“We came to know from frequent travellers that those who have migrated to Mizoram are doing well and are in better conditions than when they were in Khampat. With the restoration of peace in Mizoram, around 200 households from Khampat village have migrated to Mizoram and Mizo population in Khampat have dwindled since then. It was when I think for the future of my family, I decided it was best to migrate back to Mizoram and join my family whom I have left them since 1959”.

Initially they migrated to Champhai District of Mizoram and started to work on his father’s land. They cultivated rice and seasonal vegetables. Even after had migrated to India he continued to visit Kalemio (Myanmar) once in a year to draw out his pension salary. With the support from his kins and family they could fend for their living. But the desire to expose to city life and to provide better education for his children compels him to migrate to Aizawl, the capital of Mizoram. He sold off his ancestral land and moved to Aizawl. While in Aizawl he opened up a shop selling mostly ‘*Khawchhak thil*’ (non Indian products that came mostly from the Southeast Asia like eatables, cloths and electric goods through Zokhawthar – Champhai Border Trade are locally referred to as *khawchhak thil*). With the success in their business, he constructed a four storey building where he occupied one floor and the rest was given out for renting. This provided him with a regular source of income every month apart from his income from his shop. Now his eldest son runs the shop. As of now he feels that he lived a contented retirement life and contemplate what will become of him and his family had he not migrated to Aizawl.

Case 4: Finding a new home. A case of successful widower headed household who moved out of poverty.

Mr Sanga, 58 years old is a widower currently residing now in one of the semi posh locality in Aizawl Venglai along with his seven children His second eldest child, a son was born as a special child that needs constant care and attention. He belongs to Lai tribe and a carpenter by trade from Avangva village in Myanmar. Born in a poor family, he was the middle son among three siblings. The untimely death of his father drives them and his siblings to start earning at a very young age. At the age of 16, he started to work as daily wage labourer. During 1980s, he began to sell cheap Chinese goods he bought from Tamu – Moreh Border Trade centre to some of the States in India like Manipur and Mizoram. He has been to Manipur more than 10 times. His business also often takes him to Mizoram, where he

would stay for two to three months at the most and return back to his native place in Myanmar. He carried out his business mostly during the month of June to August. He married at the age of 26; after he bore three children he migrated first to Bilkhawthlir, a village in Mizoram where he intended to settle by cultivating paddy and opening up plantation farm. When it did not work out, he shifted to Aizawl. It was during his business trip that he came to know that there was high demand for carpentry work in Aizawl. At first he moved alone to Aizawl, and then brought along his family when he had settled down at Aizawl. Apart from carpentry work, his wife used to sell vegetables at nearby markets. His life takes toil when his wife died in the year 2010. He was face with the responsibility to look after his six children, at the same time run his household. His eldest daughter had to drop out of school to help his father to run the household, while he went out to earn for money. He sought the help of his relatives who owned a carpentry workshop. He looks after the shop, at the same time took additional work during his free time. His hardship makes him to become closer to God and started to involve more in the Church and community activities. His association with the Church help in different ways. He started to beg more individual projects from some of the church members and from some affluent families of the locality. He was provided with a ration card that entitled him to receive in subsidies rate food articles as part of food security programme in India and also received entitlement provided to disable by the Government of India. Apart from this, some locality members rendered help to him for his children's education. As time rolled by, all his hardships began to subside when his two sons got employment in a private and semi government firms. He recalled the time when they had to survive head to toes, struggling to meet two squared meal a day with rents to paid. Now he owned and lived in a semi pucca Assam type house, sandwiched and shadowed by raising posh architecture design buildings. But to him it is a place where he could call his own, his owned home.

Case 5: Amidst the fear of deportation: A case of economic migrant.

Miss Malai, a 30 years old unmarried Bamar woman came to Aizawl along with her two younger siblings to work in the handloom industry, six years ago. She hails from Monywa, under comes under Sagaing Division of Myanmar. They came to know about the employment opportunities through a native person, a weaver herself in one of the loom at Aizawl. While he was on vacation, Malai and her sister got wind of the news that he was on the lookout for people to work in one of the handloom industry at Aizawl. His employer had

requested him to search for people from their village. On hearing the news they approach the person and within a week they reached Aizawl. Coming to Aizawl was her first experience, but not in Mizoram. She often used to come to Tieu, a border village along the Indian side to avail health care services. The pull factor to come down to Aizawl was due to better wage. Before she migrated to Aizawl, Malai used to work at Tahan as a weaver. The wage she received at Aizawl was much higher than what she used to get at Tahan. In addition to this, the blooming of handloom industry in Aizawl, which is near to her native place and availability of easy transportation, and porous border makes it all favourable to come down to Aizawl. There was no hassle in getting across the border; all they have to do is paid some entry fee at the border gates.

In spite of the absence of formal money transfer mechanism, it was altogether not a problem. They could sent remittance anytime through traders who are more than willing to receive it, as traders in return got some margin when they exchange Indian rupee into Kyats. Apart from this, the existence of Hawala system operated through wire transfer makes it much easier in times of emergency. She could save most of her earning since the employer paid for their rent, electricity bill, and water bill. They paid only for their mess. All the weavers are allocated shelter under the same roof. Sharing her experience living in group housing;

“There’s little privacy in group housing as there is no separate space and partition for sleeping, cooking, and weaving. We all live as well as weave in the same roof. However, we bond better and helping one another in times of problems and help comes naturally”.

Her stayed in Aizawl after a few months was accompanied with the issuance of quit notice to Myanmarese migrants by some non state actors in November, 2010. The situation compels her to return to Monywa . When the situation got improved she returned back to Aizawl, but only to be greeted with another such kind of situation when the largest NGO in Mizoram the YMA issued quit notice mainly directed to Chin settler at Phunchawng and Rangvamuall localities in 2013. On one occasion, policemen came and arrested her and other weavers. They spent one night at the lock up only to be freed the next morning when her employer intervene and bail them out. In spite of the incidents, it does not deter her to keep coming to Aizawl.

“Spending a night in the lock up was one of the bleakest hours in my life. But I wasn’t the only one. Such kind of incidents gave us a sense of insecurity. But our employer always meditates on behalf of us in case we encounter any problems individually or at the community at large. But I don’t understand why we as a whole had to face the consequence of one person wrong doing. Punish the concern person according to the law and not the whole (Myanmarese migrants)”.

Case 6: Networks, Family and settlement in Aizawl: A case of individual migrant from Khampat.

Mrs LK, who is now 26 years old married woman with one daughter, met her husband at Aizawl. She was from Khampat. She belongs to Lusei sub-tribe, the dominant sub-tribe in Mizoram. Her husband belongs to the same native place as her but they hardly knew each other. They came to know one another only after she arrived at Aizawl in 2009. The reason she came to Aizawl was to seek for better employment opportunities. Being unskilled with no higher educational background, it was difficult to get a decent job other than working in their field and involved in agriculture work. She wanted to come to Aizawl but not having any known person in Aizawl prevented her from coming. She finally approached some traders from her village that frequented between Khampat and Aizawl to take her with them. When she first arrived at Aizawl, having nowhere to go she stayed along with those traders who usually put up in Mr KL’s place. Mr KL too belong to the same native place, their family was among the earliest Myanmarese migrant who have migrated to Aizawl permanently who now owned two mechanic workshops. Mr KL forefathers were originally from Zote, a village under Champhai District in Mizoram. They migrated to Khampat along with others to fulfil the Khampat Legacy. It was while she stayed at Mr KL residence that she met her future husband, who was a relative of the host family and who has been staying with them since 2006. He works as a mechanic in one of their shop. Their love blossom but since they were still young it was impractical to get married. Mean while she got offer to work as domestic maid in one family who reside in Shillong, Meghalaya. She went along with them and stayed at Shillong for three years. She returned back to Aizawl and married off with her lover. After they got married they moved out from Mr KL house and rented a place. Her husband was well connected with lots of relatives in Aizawl. In order for them get started Mr KL family offer them to run their mechanic workshop at Bawngkawn locality. Apart from this before her daughter birth she used to sell second hand clothes during Saturday market at Bara

Bazaar⁵. She finds life in Mizoram to be better in terms of being peaceful and easy to get employment if one wants to work. Her husband could secured Indian citizenship which make possible to avail benefits at par with the local.

After the birth of her daughter, she had to stay at home and help her husband to run the shop. But their business started to dwindle as lots of mechanic shop started to spring up in the vicinity. Competition becomes stiff. But since they don't have capital to upgrade their shop it became more difficult than usual. Her husband now being the only breadwinner, she used to take up job like mending cloths to earn extra money. With rent to pay, food expenses, clothing, and for school fees, they had to be contented with one child. Supporting another child was not possible with their current source of income. They scrap by to live but in her word, “ *retheih rau rau ah poh, Aizawl a retheih a nuam zok*” which is explained as , even being poor, it is much preferable to be poor in Aizawl.

However, even in the face of difficulty and hardship their security comes from having strong networks in Aizawl, whom they can approach at anytime. They have well integrated into the society as they don't face any problem in terms of language, customs, practices and takes part actively in community activities.

Case 7: A case of migrant who return back to Myanmar

Miss Nunu, aged 25 suffered from polio rendering her cripple at a very young age. With her parents divorced, she along with her two brothers stayed with his father. In order to support the family her father went to Aizawl in search for employment leaving them behind with their uncle. Her uncle family took care of them provided them with education. She studied till standard eight but decided to drop out.

“The money our father used to send was not enough for us to pay for our education and daily requirements. In most cases we have to rely on our uncle. Look after his three children along with us was like putting a burden on him. It was not that he doesn't want to take care of us, he always does. But looking at him I feel pity for his double burden and feel unpleasant. So, I decided to drop out of school and help them at home instead. I am content; though I always wanted to go for higher studies, so that one day I could enrol myself in a theologian college”

⁵ Main market in Aizawl located at Dawrpui locality.

She self taught herself to learn some of the trade of tailoring. She used to mend some of her neighbour cloths which fetch her some money. Having his father living at Aizawl she wishes to Aizawl someday. She decided to join her father at Aizawl in the year 2011. Her father was a wage labourer, working where ever he could find a job. At times, his works take him to different districts of Mizoram. Since he was alone he attached for accommodation at times with friend or relatives, whichever was convenient. However after her arrival they decided to rent a place at Zaungtui. While her father works as daily labourer she at home did some tailoring work. Initially, they had to live from hand to mouth and do not have any assets apart from few utensils, bedding materials to sleep and a stove. Her younger brother joins them in the year 2012, and work as a helper at one of the grocery shop. With three earning members their situation improves, so also their household assets. For a year she went to tailoring class to upgrade on her skills. She could earn sufficient to take care their monthly expenses, while she could also save some of her money. Within few years, they bought a plot at their native village at Khampat. Her younger brother got married and move back to Myanmar. Their condition took a sea of change, when her father got sick which required medical attention. Her father's failing health conditions rendered him incapacitated to work further. Now they had to depend only on her income to survive. Tailoring work seems to be unprecedented and irregular. At times she could not find any order for two weeks at a stretch. But the constant need for medical expenditure forced her to borrow money from her relatives. Knowing their condition some people from their locality tried to help her receive benefits for handicapped, but to no avail. To meet their emergent expenses she used to sell off some of their assets. Their condition became worse in the beginning of 2016, when her father health deteriorated and required bed rest. They could not even afford to rent a place so they went and stayed at their relative place. This continued for two months. When her uncle from Khampat learnt their condition, he asked them to retune back to Myanmar with an offer to help them in constructing for their own house and provide them with a piece of land to till. She prefer to return back to Myanmar and was hoping that with changes in Myanmar situation there seem to be better odds for them to survive and lead a better life than what they were living now at Aizawl. However, they had to stay another month as she needed to arrange money for their transportation cost. She sold off all their assets like chairs, tables, Television, cupboards and finally returns back to Myanmar in the last week of the month of October, 2016. She left Aizawl with a dream to open up a small tailoring shop in her native

village someday. After all hope and dream is what push people to continue living, even in the face of abject poverty.

CHAPTER V

TRANS BORDER MIGRATION AND LIVELIHOOD

Understanding migrants' background characteristics is essential as the assessment of migration is often based on the idea of different socio –political and economic orientation of the people (Ellis, 2003). Movement of people could either be temporary, semi-permanent or permanent in nature.

5.1 Socio- Economic and Demographic Profile of the Migrants

Migration is not always an option available to all the people. It requires resources, time and networks. As such, the study of migration always involves the question about migrants' socio economic background. Understanding migrants' characteristics throw light on who could migrate and what entails migration. As such, it is pertinent to present the socio-economic and demographic profile of migrants. This section attempts to analyse the socio economic and demographic profile of the migrants.

5.1.1 Profile of the Respondents

Profile of the respondents is presented into six sub sections viz., demographic profile, family structure, social structure, economic based of migrants in terms of occupation structure, annual income and remittance, place of origin and working hour of migrants in the host country.

5.1.1.1 Demographic Profile of Respondents

Demography represents the grouping of people into different sectors which mainly include age, marital status, gender and educational status. This sub section gives a broad picture of the characteristics of the respondents in terms of their age group, marital status, gender and educational status (see table 5.1).

Age is an asset as it dictates the type of employment or work a person can be engaged in. Age group of migrant plays a significant one as it throws light into some of the aspect of migrant characteristics in terms of their level of maturity. The respondents were categorised into Youth (18-34), Middle Aged (35-59), and Elderly (60 and above). Based on these classifications, majority of the respondents falls under middle aged constituting 53% while youth comprised 38% and elderly comprised 8 % only in both the two locations.

However, the sample age group across these two locations differ. Middle aged group made up a little over two third of the respondents in the core area (68%) and periphery area (39%). Youth comprised a little less than one fourth in core area (24%) while in periphery area it accounted higher percentage (53%) On the whole, the mean age (40) reveal that the respondents were predominantly middle age. Based on similar findings by Osawe (2013) indicated that a persons aged between 21- 40 are less vulnerable to poverty because they are at their prime age and they have the strength to provide more labour needed at destination areas.

Gender is another important dimension that regulates social relations between men and women and which display power dynamics. The study found that female migrants (64%) constituted higher proportion than male (36%) across the two types of locations. In contrast to a finding in a study conducted by Amisi (2006) among Durban Congolese Refugees where female representation among the sample was few or smaller in portion than male as there were fewer women migrants. In this study, female is seen to be as mobile as their male counterparts and there is increasing presence of female migrants. This finding is similar to what Ravenstein (1885) had commented in his Laws of Migration which states that female are more migratory in nature. Albeit, the notion where migration is deemed to be male centric and women migrants are generally refer to as tied movers, following either husbands or fathers. However, the higher proportion of female migrants in the study testified that all female migrants do not fall under the category of tied movers.

Marital status is another key factor that indicates current nature of ties that is accorded by the respondents. Marriage forms an important social institution catering the needs of an individual and family for security, companionship, and support. As a whole, majority (70%) of the respondents were married. More than two third in both the core (70%) and periphery (69%) areas are married. Unmarried category (16%), constituted a higher percentage in periphery area (22%) than in core area (11%). However, divorced/separated which constituted (6%) is seen only among the core areas and widowed constituted the same in both the two locations (8%).

Educational status is an important component that determines status in a society and income level and nature of employment. Education conveys the level of achievement and it is an important indicator of human capital. Educational status of the respondents were classified

into illiterate, primary (1-5), middle (6-8), secondary (9-10), higher secondary (11-12), and higher education (Graduate and above). More than two third of the respondents (55%) attained only primary level of education, followed by middle (22%), secondary education (11%), higher education (7%). Both illiterate and higher secondary constituted at 3% each across the two locations. Periphery area education status is slightly lower than those at the core area. A little more than two third (69%) in periphery area attained till primary education while in core area (41%) attained education till primary level. It is seen that core area depicted better educational status in terms of numbers of those who completed middle school, higher secondary and higher education. Completion of secondary school is seen to be the same in both the two types of locations (11%) and number of illiterates accounted the same in both the core and periphery areas (3%). The mean years of education depicted that on an average, migrants attained education till middle school, but in terms of location, respondents from periphery area on an average attained education till primary level only.

5.1.1.2 Family Structure

Family plays an important role in the life span of human being. Family composition is important in determining household decision to migrate some of its member and whom to migrate (Osawe, 2013 and De Haan, 2000). Table 5.2 shows the structure of family of migrants, comprising type of family, form of family and size of family. The type of family is categorised into nuclear and joint family and form of family into stable and broken family. As regard to size of family it is categorised into Small family (1-3), Medium family (4-6), and Large family (7 members and above).

In terms of types of family, nuclear family constituted majority (93%) among the sample respondents and joint family constituted 7% of the sample size as a whole. Nuclear families accounted for 97% in periphery area, followed by 89% in core area. With regard to joint family, core area constituted 11% which is higher to that of 3% in periphery area.

The second indicator of family structure is form of family. Stable family constituted high both in the periphery (94%) and in core areas (87%). Broken families are found to be higher in core area (14) than in periphery area (6%). On further probing into broken family during the field survey most of the family disintegrated post migration. The lure of urban life styles and subsequent change in lifestyle clubbed with the need to survive resulted in growing

misunderstanding resulted in frequent conflict of interests among spouse leading to divorce or separation among the core area.

The third indicator of family structure pertains to size of family. Medium sized family (4-6) is most common among the sample respondents (58%), followed by small sized family (1-3) which accounted for (32%) and large sized family (7 and above) accounted only (8%). Both in the core (60%) and periphery (56%) areas less than two thirds of the respondents belong to medium sized families. More than one fifths of the sample belong to small family in periphery (36%), and core (27%) areas. Large sized families are seen to be more prevalent in core area (14%) than in periphery area (8%). In discussion with family members during field survey, medium and large sized families had an advantage over small sized families. Their nature of work required extra labour from family members at times and with more extra hands their business also improved. In the face of completion they required extra labour to capture more markets among the core area, and in periphery area additional family members provide assistance in household management and help earned additional income. In terms of the mean size of family medium sized families is the norm (5) across both the two locations.

5.1.1.3 Social Structural Base of Migrants

Table 5.3 presented social profiling of the migrants. It includes social groups aligning to their ethnic group, sub ethnic/ sub tribe, religion, place of origin and type of locality. In this study, social group is represented according to the identification rendered by the State in their native place. As identities are fluid and porous, the state in which they live has the capacity to accord and provide them with a clear distinction that may or may not exert the same understanding or assertion within the subjective realm of migrants themselves or across different states or borders. For instance the people belonging to Chin-Kuki- Mizo are known differently in different space, time and context, though they maintained to form the same ethno cultural roots and history, who at times are also to as people of *Zo* (Khamkhenthang and Jamkhenthang, 1976, Vumson, 1986).

Table 5.3 presents the social structural base of migrants. Chin constituted the majority ethnic group among Myanmar migrants in Aizawl (71%) followed by Bamar, those belonging to the majority ethnic group in Myanmar (27%). Chin ethnic group are concentrated mostly in core area (95%) though they are also found to inhabit periphery area as well (47%). Bamar ethnic group are found to concentrate mostly in periphery area (53%)

and only (3%) are found to be residing in core area along with Shan ethnic group comprising only (3%).

Ethnic group are further classified into different sub group / tribe. The Chin is an umbrella terms denoting different tribes that inhabit the Chin State in Myanmar , which includes different sub tribes like Thado, Hmar , Lusei, Paite, Pawi, Lai, Naga , etc. Bamar ethnic group constituted around one fourth of the sample concentrating mostly in periphery area (50%). Among the sub tribes of Chin, Pawi tribe constituted 36% as a whole, and are found to be concentrated mostly in the core area (51%) in compare to periphery area (19%). Lusei accounted for more than one thirds of the respondents where they are spread across core area (32%), and in periphery area (22%). Paite on the other hand which accounted for 8% and they are found to concentrate equally in both the core area and periphery area. On the other hand, Hmar tribe constituted only 4% of the sample and are found to be concentrated only in the core area (8%).

Regarding religion per se, three fourth (75%) of the respondents are Christians and one fourth (25%) follow Buddhism. In core area, all (100%) belong to Christian faith and in periphery area, Buddhism and Christianity are found to prevail equally at 50% each.

5.1.1.4. Place of Origin of Migrants

Myanmar is made up of a conglomerate of diverse ethnic groups. Myanmar political division is divided into seven States and seven Divisions. The political division highlights the composition of its people. The seven States viz., Mon State, Chin State, Kachin State, KayinState ,Kayah State , Shan State ,and Rakhien State represent the principal non Bamar /Burman ethnic tribes (Ghosh, 2008). The majority ethnic group of Myanmar the Bamar/ Burman are spread over the seven Divisions namely, Ayeyarwady Division, Bago Division, Magway Division, Mandalay Division, Sagaing Division, Tanintharyi Division, and Yangon Division. Among the Chin- Kuki-Mizo kindred tribes, Bamar ethnic group are referred locally as ‘Kawl’ and their areas of settlement is referred as ‘Kawlpui’ connoting areas where the Bamar ethnic group resides in particular. Under the administrative set up, a person either belongs from a State or Division (see table 5.4).

Sagaing Division (69%) and Chin State (34%) constituted the two principle source of origin for Myanmarese migrants to Aizawl. Only one respondent was found to hail from Ayeyarwady Division as the respondent was employed under the Burmese Army at that time.

Almost three fourth from the periphery area (72%), and almost two thirds (65%) from the core area hail from Sagaing division. Likewise, a little more than one thirds from core area (41%) and periphery area (28%) hails from the Chin State. As such, Sagaing Division along with Chin State constituted the main sender of Myanmarese migrants in Aizawl.

Type of locality pertaining to migrant's place of origin highlights important attributes in migration studies as well as in livelihood studies. The type of locality at a place of origin helps in understanding pattern associated with people's movement and provides a general picture of their attributes. Axiomatic notion placed that people migrate from rural to urban setting; however for international migration especially in the context of South to South migration, it gives somewhat different picture as movement of people are induced mostly by post partition general conflict, war, and political upheavals which cut across every sections of locality. For this study, type of locality was categorised into rural, semi urban and urban area. As a whole, in terms of migrant's place of origin it almost evenly spreads across rural, semi urban and urban areas. Migrants from rural area (36%) constituted slightly more than other areas such as semi urban (34%), and urban (30%). It indicates that the type of location at a place of origin does not have much bearing in terms of decision to migrate.

The finding indicated that 44% of migrants from periphery area had their origin from rural area. Among the core areas, nearly one fourth (27%) of the migrants had their origin from rural area. Migrants from semi urban area constituted more in the core area (41%) in comparison to periphery area (28%). With regards to migrants hailing from urban area, core area (32%) constituted higher percentage than periphery area (28%).

5.1.1.5 Economic Base of Migrant: Pre and Post Migration

Occupation determines social status and position in the society. A glimpse into the kind of occupation migrants are engaged before and after migration is crucial in assessing the impact of migration on their occupational structure and the subsequent outcomes in terms of their livelihood activities. Occupation was categorised into cultivator, agriculture labourer, daily wage labourer, artisan/ craftsmen, petty business, large business, domestic workers, dependent, and professional (see table 5.5).

5.1.1.5.1 Present Occupation

Artisan/craftsmen occupied the major type of occupation migrants are engaged in periphery area (81%), followed by large business which was predominant in the core area (38%). On the whole artisan/ craftsmen formed the predominant occupation which revealed almost half of the migrants are skilled labourer. Petty business on the other hand constituted (18%), daily wage labourer (4%) as a whole. Occupation like cultivator, professional, domestic worker and agricultural labourer are found to be professed only among the core area.

In consideration to periphery area only 8% and 6% are engaged in large and petty business respectively while this type of occupation constituted the predominant type of occupation in the core area. Engagement of core area in business can be attributed to the fact that nearness to market areas, easy transaction and exchanges favour the opportunities to carry conduct business. Daily wage labourer is seen both in periphery area (6%) and in core area (3%).

5.1.1.5.2 Occupation before Migration

Pre migration occupation of migrants indicated quite a shift from their present occupation. Cultivator (36%) which occupied the predominant type of occupation before migration is seen to shift during post migration scenario. The shift comes mainly from the periphery area (from 17% to none in post migration scenario) and in core area (from 18% to 5% in post migration scenario). It can be attributed to the fact that migrant's access to natural capital like land is low in the host community and they are absorbed mostly in occupation like business and some in artisan/ craftsmen. As a result, the proportion of artisan/craftsmen in post migration scenario indicated an increase of 14%.

It is interesting to note that dependents which constituted 16% were actually found to be earning post migration. Among other things, in pre migration scenario less than one fourth are found to be engaged in occupation like petty business, larger business, professional, and agricultural labourer across both the locations. The data indicates that migrants who were earlier engaged under professional dwindle after migration and only few could get employment in professional occupation like journalist, mission workers, and musician etc. More or the less, there was not much difference in pre and post migration scenario in terms of sector where migrants engaged for their livelihood. Majority of them are still found to be

concentrated in informal and unorganised sector. On a similar note, a study conducted by Susan Banki (2006) among Burmese Migrants in Japan also found that there was a structural change in the occupation of migrants post migration scenario. Commenting on this sector, Sundari (2005) study among rural migrants of Tamil Nadu pointed out that although migration sustained their basic needs, yet it doesn't altogether enhance well being of some section of migrants, especially those who are concentrated in informal sector. Pointing in a similar direction Amisi (2006) study among Congolese refugee in Durban reinstated the fact that migrants remain poor, vulnerable as a consequence of their lack of access to formal employment and social protection.

5.1.1.6 Monthly Income at Place of Destination.

Monthly income of migrant is categorised into those who earned in the range of INR 3000-5000, 5000-10000, 10000- 15000, 15000 and above. From field survey, most of the core area source of income comes from running a small scale food industries like chow making, rice cake to owning business enterprise and as supplier of cheap china made products. Small proportions of the population are vendors. Majority of the respondents run their business from home and supply foreign made goods or products like electronic goods, clothing and cosmetics to small and big stores in Aizawl. However, in periphery area majority were handloom weavers and few own grocery shop.

Majority (51%) of the sample respondents earned income in the range of Rupees 5000- 10000. Less than one third (30%) monthly income is in between Rupees 15000 and above 12% of the total sample monthly income fall in the range of Rupees 3000-5000, while 7% are earning in the range of Rupees 10000-15000 (see table 5.6).

Core area earning capacity falls mainly in between the range of Rupees 10000- 15000 (41%) and Rupees 15000 and above (41%). Most of periphery area (61%) income range fall broadly under Rupees 5000-10000, while core area constituted only 41% in this range.

The mean monthly income across core area and periphery area is Rupees 23,520.6 and core area mean income which is at Rupees 34,662.2 is much higher than the mean income of periphery area which is at Rupees 12, 069.4. Reason could be deduced to the fact that the occupation structure of the core area comprises mainly of large business, as such business opens better capabilities to accrue more income than those at the periphery area where artisan/ craftsmen form the majority occupation depending mainly upon wage.

5.1.1.7 Annual Remittance

Remittance is considered an important aspect, as it has the potential to substantially contribute towards development. Remittance acts as additional source of income for sending household. It contributed towards improvement in household conditions by either increasing household income or household assets, which are vital for securing and sustaining livelihood of the family members back home.

The study found that majority (45%) from the total sample does not remit back home. The predominant nature of not having the intention to return back to Myanmar and having being a long settler in Aizawl precluded the chance to remit. Among the core area, movement of family as a whole is found to be predominant. When family as a whole migrated, the chance to return back to native home becomes very less and it is due this factor, core area rate of remittance is low. In spite of it, 25% sent remittance accrued annually in the range of Rupees 11000 and above, 19% sent remittance in the range of Rupees 4000-10000 annually and 11% sent remittance in the range of Rupees 500- 3000 annually(see table 5.6).

Periphery area remitted more than those at the core area. They remitted in range of Rupees 11,000 and above. More than one third (36%) from periphery remitted back home annually and less than one fourth (14%) from core area sent remittance annually. Periphery area (28%) sent remittance in the range of Rupees 4000- 10000 annually constituting more than those at the core area (11%). The same pattern exist in between the range of Rupees 500-3000, where periphery area remitted more than that of the core area.

The mean annual remittance as a whole is at Rupees 9719, periphery area mean annual remittance is at Rupees 15556 and Rupees 4041 in core area. In terms of percentage of annual income remitted, on the whole only 3% of the total annual income was remitted back home. However, there exists a gross difference between core and periphery areas. Periphery remitted 11% of the total annual income while only 1% of the total annual income from core area was remitted. It can be inferred that settlement pattern for those at the core area in Aizawl have become more permanent in nature.

5.1.1.8 Employment: Working Days and Hour in Host Community

Working days and hour indicates working culture and working conditions of migrants. Working conditions enables in assessing their well-being and its implications on their health status. Securing conducive working condition is important to ascertain their well-being and

for securing their livelihood as majority are employed under informal and unorganised sector, which lack security in the events of untoward circumstances.

As regards working days in a week, more than three fourth of the sample respondents worked six days in a week, followed by five days (34%) and only 3% worked for the whole week. Core area (95%) worked mostly for six days in comparison to periphery area (31%). As regards to working five days in a week periphery area (67%) constituted more than the core area (3%). Only few (3%) worked the whole weekday without a break across both the core area and periphery area (see table 5.6).

Regarding working hours in a day, 73% of the total sample worked for more than 10 hours per day, followed by four to six hours a day (15%), and seven to nine hours /day (12%). Periphery area (83%) worked harder than those in the core area (62%).

The finding is in tune with findings from the KIIs where the community leaders subscribed to Myanmar migrants as hard working. The need to struggle and survive in a new environment amidst their blurred category and lack of access to provision and safety nets induced them to work hard. It is because of their long hours at work throughout most days of the week that they hardly have time to spare to involve in other activities.

Table 5.1 Demographic Profiles of Migrants

Sl.No	Characteristic	Location		Total N =73
		Core n = 37	Periphery n = 36	
I	Age Group			
	Youth (18-34)	9 (24)	19 (53)	28 (38)
	Middle Age (35- 59)	25 (68)	14 (39)	39 (53)
	Elderly (60 and above)	3 (8)	3 (8)	6 (8)
	Mean Age	43 ± 12	36 ±12	40 ±13
II	Gender			
	Male	13 (35)	13 (36)	26 (36)
	Female	24 (65)	23 (64)	47 (64)
III	Marital Status			
	Unmarried	4 (11)	8 (22)	12 (16)
	Married	26 (70)	25 (69)	51 (70)
	Divorced/Separated	4 (11)	0 (0)	4 (6)
	Widowed	3 (8)	3 (8)	6 (8)
IV	Educational Status			
	Illiterate	1 (3)	1 (3)	2 (3)
	Primary(1- 5)	15 (41)	25 (69)	40 (55)
	Middle(6-8)	11 (30)	5 (14)	16 (22)
	Secondary(9-10)	4 (11)	4 (11)	8 (11)
	Higher Secondary (11- 12)	2 (5)	0 (0)	2 (3)
	Higher Education(13 and above)	4 (11)	1 (3)	5 (7)
	Mean Years of Education	7 ± 5	5 ± 5	6 ± 5

Source: Computed Figures in parentheses are percentages Mean ± SD

Table 5.2 Family Structure

Sl.No	Characteristic	Location		Total N =73
		Core n = 37	Periphery n = 36	
I	Type of Family			
	Nuclear	33 (89)	35 (97)	68 (93)
	Joint	4 (11)	1 (3)	5 (7)
II	Form of Family			
	Stable	32 (87)	34 (94)	66 (90)
	Broken	5 (14)	2 (6)	7 (10)
III	Size of Family			
	Small(1-3)	10 (27)	13 (36)	23 (32)
	Medium(4-6)	22 (60)	20 (56)	42 (58)
	Large (7 and above)	5 (14)	3 (8)	8 (11)
	Mean Size of Family	5±2	4±1	5±2

Source: Computed Figures in parentheses are percentages Mean ± S.D

Table 5.3 Social Structural Base of Migrants

Sl.No		Location		Total N =73
		Core n = 37	Periphery n = 36	
I	Ethnic Group			
	Chin	35 (95)	17 (47)	52 (71)
	Bamar	1 (3)	19 (53)	20 (27)
	Shan	1 (3)	0 (0)	1 (1)
II	Sub ethnic/ tribe			
	Bamar	0 (0)	18 (50)	18 (25)
	Hmar	3 (8)	0 (0)	3 (4)
	Lusei	12 (32)	8 (22)	20 (27)
	Paite	3 (8)	3 (8)	6 (8)
	Pawi	19 (51)	7 (19)	26 (36)
III	Religion			
	Christianity	37 (100)	18 (50)	55 (75)
	Buddhism	0 (0)	18 (50)	18 (25)

Source: Computed Figures in parentheses are percentages

Table 5.4 Place of Origin of Migrants

Sl.No		Location		Total N =73
		Core n = 37	Periphery n = 36	
I	Division			
	None	13 (35)	9 (25)	22 (30)
	Ayeyarwady	0 (0)	1 (3)	1 (1)
	Sagaing	24 (65)	26 (72)	50 (69)
II	State			
	None	21 (57)	25 (69)	46 (63)
	Chin State	15 (41)	10 (28)	25 (34)
	Kachin State	1 (3)	0 (0)	1 (1)
	Mon State	0 (0)	1 (3)	1 (1)
III	Type of Locality			
	Rural	10 (27)	16 (44)	26 (36)
	Semi Urban	15 (41)	10 (28)	25 (34)
	Urban	12 (32)	10 (28)	22 (30)

Source: Computed. Figures in parentheses are percentages

Table 5.5 Occupation Structure of Migrants: Pre and Post Migration

SI No		Location		Total
		Core	Periphery	
		n = 37	n = 36	N =73
I	Present Occupation			
	Cultivator	2 (5)	0 (0)	2 (3)
	Agricultural Labourer	1 (3)	0 (0)	1 (1)
	Daily Wage Labourer	1 (3)	2 (6)	3 (4)
	Artisan/Craftsmen	5 (14)	29 (81)	34 (47)
	Petty Business	11 (30)	2 (6)	13 (18)
	Large Business	14 (38)	3 (8)	17 (23)
	Domestic Worker	1 (3)	0 (0)	1 (1)
	Professional	2 (5)	0 (0)	2 (3)
II	Occupation Before Migration			
	Dependent	6 (16)	6 (17)	12 (16)
	Cultivator	18 (49)	8 (22)	26 (36)
	Agricultural Labourer	0 (0)	1 (3)	1 (1)
	Daily Wage Labourer	1 (3)	1 (3)	2 (3)
	Artisan/Craftsmen	4 (11)	16 (44)	20 (27)
	Petty Business	1 (3)	0 (0)	1 (1)
	Large Business	4 (11)	2 (6)	6 (8)
	Professional	3 (8)	2 (6)	5 (7)

Source: Computed Figures in parentheses are percentages

Table 5.6 Working Days and Hour: Income and Remittance

SI No		Location		Total
		Core	Periphery	
		n = 37	n = 36	N =73
I	Approximate Number of Working Days in a Week			
	5	1 (3)	24 (67)	25 (34)
	6	35 (95)	11 (31)	46 (63)
	7	1 (3)	1 (3)	2 (3)
II	Number of Woking Hours in a Day			
	4-6 Hours	8 (22)	3 (8)	11 (15)
	7-9 Hours	6 (16)	3 (8)	9 (12)
	10 and Above	23 (62)	30 (83)	53 (73)
III	Level of Monthly Income(INR)			
	Rs 3000- 5000	6 (16)	3 (8)	9 (12)
	Rs 5000-10000	15 (41)	22 (61)	37 (51)
	Rs10000-15000	1 (3)	4 (11)	5 (7)
	Rs15000 and above	15 (41)	7 (19)	22 (30)
	Mean Monthly Income at Present Rs	34662.2±84793.9	12069.4±8058.8	23520.6±61285.6
IV	Annual Remittance in Rupees			
	None	25 (68)	8 (22)	33 (45)
	Rs 500- 3000	3 (8)	5 (14)	8 (11)
	Rs 4000- 10000	4 (11)	10 (28)	14 (19)
	Rs 11000 and Above	5 (14)	13 (36)	18 (25)
	Mean Annual Remittance in Rs(approx)	4041 ± 8786	15556 ± 18044	9719 ± 15181
	Percent of Remittance to annual income	1	11	3

Source: Computed Figures in parentheses are percentages Mean ± SD

5.2 History of Migration, Social Networks and Accommodation Arrangement.

This section is divided into 4 broad sub sections that look into migrant's period of migration, nature of migration, migrant's network and type of accommodation of migrants. The period of their migration informed the prevailing conditions or environment both at the native and host context. How migrants came to a new place created the necessary nuances to probe into how network plays an important role especially at a place of destination and how it sustained migration and also open up scope for new arrivals.

5.2.1 Period of Migration

Period of migration was divided into four decades viz., 1980-1990, 1991-2000, 2001-2010, and 2011-2016. During the 1980-1990, 15% of the total respondents undertook migration. The data revealed that migration takes places at a higher rate during the decades of 2001-2010(34%), and 1991-2000(33%). The decade of 2011-2016 (18%) indicated that migration is still rampant, but in a decreasing order in comparison to the previous years. On further probing during the field survey the political development that is taking place in Myanmar during 2015 lead most of the Myanmarese migrants especially among the Bamar ethnic group to return back to Myanmar. In an interview with the President of Bamar Zuangtui Handloom weavers, a weaver himself who belongs to a Bamar ethnic group states: "With the ongoing parliamentary election in 2015, most of us feel the situation in Myanmar will improve eventually and stabilise the economy as well. It seems people back home could earn better wages, unlike during the previous decades where survival is difficult. Even our one day wage could not buy us one kilogram of meat or even a pair of slippers. But the development that is taking place now at Myanmar is still unpredictable, so some of us still stayed back and some who have returned came back to Mizoram again". In the face of uncertainty regarding the outcomes of 2015 parliamentary elections in Myanmar, some migrants are sceptical about it, as such they stayed back until they are sure that the condition at Myanmar has really improved and change. However their numbers have dwindled. Commenting on the same line, the YMA President of Zuangtui Branch States: "Before the parliamentary election of 2015 there were around 700 Myanmarese handloom workers in Zuangtui, but now their number have decrease to 400".

During the period of 1980-1990 periphery area (17%) shows slightly more the coming of migrants than in core area (14%). The blooming of handloom industry in Mizoram during the 1990s attracted most of the skilled weavers from Myanmar. However, during the decade of 1991-2000, core area (43%) indicated higher rate of immigration than the periphery area (22%). The decades of 2001-2010 also depicted core area (38%) to receive more migrants than the periphery area (31%). But the period from 2011-2016 shows periphery area (31%) to have received more migrants than the core area (5%).

Total mean score with regard to duration of residence in Aizawl city was 13 years. Across the core area the mean score was 15 years and 12 years in periphery area (see table 5.7).

5.2.2 Typology and Nature of Migration

Typology of migration indicates the type of migration they undergone and settlement in host community. Typology of migration was categorised in three broad type viz., returnee migrant, individual migrant, and those who migrated with family as a whole. Returnee migrants are those who hailed originally from Mizoram but whose family has migrated to Myanmar prior to or post upheaval in Mizoram and has settled since then in Myanmar. From the field survey most of the returnee migrants belong to Chin ethnic group where the Lusei sub clan constituted predominantly. Most returnee migrants have settled down permanently in Mizoram and have integrated well into the host community. Those returnee migrants were either cultivators or whose head of the family members were employed as soldier under the Burmese Army (see table 5.8).

Individual migrant constituted the highest type of migration with 53%, and it is high among periphery area (72%) while only one third (35%) in core area constituted individual migrant. As a whole those who moved along with family constituted 41%. This type of migration is seen to be prevalent among core area (57%) and only one fourth (25%) adhered to this type of migration in periphery area. Returnee migrant formed the least type of migration with 6% as a whole, 8% in core area and only 3% in periphery area. From field survey it was observed that when a family as a whole undertook migration it is assumed to be more permanent in nature.

In terms of coming to Aizawl majority (80%) of the respondents came directly to Aizawl, with periphery area accounted for 92%, and core area 70%. Some migrants (19%)

have resorted to have settled at other part of Mizoram before coming to Aizawl. And it was predominant among core area (30%) than in periphery area (8%).

Migrants maintained their ties back home through remittance or through social ties. To understand the nature of these ties, frequency of visiting back home was operationalised into three categories viz., twice in a year, once in a year, and rarely. 53% as a whole rarely pay a visit to Myanmar and core area (62%) hardly pay a visit to their native place after migrated to Aizawl. On the other hand, more than one third (44%) of respondents from periphery area also hardly pay a visit to their native place. 45% on the whole subscribed to have visited once in a year. Periphery area (56%) visited more often in year than core area (35%). However, only one (3%) paid a visit twice in year. The nature of work, transportation cost and the type of occupation they are engaged in makes it difficult to regularly pay a visit to Myanmar. On the other hand, typology of migration also dictated the types of ties migrant maintained with their native place. Core areas which constituted predominantly movement along with family members show that they hardly pay a visit to their native place.

On asking the question whether they will return back to Myanmar in case the situation improves in Myanmar, majority (41%) decided not to return back to Myanmar, and core area (49%) depicted higher intention of not returning back to Myanmar than periphery area (33%). 30% in total intended to return back. However, almost two third (56%) in periphery area said they intend to return back to Myanmar, if the situation improves in Myanmar and core area accounted for only 5%. 29% of the respondents could not decide whether they intend to return back or not and it was found that such response was predominantly high in core area (46%) than in periphery area (11%). On further probing whether they intend to return back to Myanmar in case the situation improves during field survey; a comment by one female respondent, aged 50 years summed up their conditions.

We have sold everything, our land, house and came to Mizoram to seek out better living prospect. If at all we return, what shall we return to? Moreover, our children have long forgotten 'Kawltawng' (Burman language). What will they do? How will they find foothold and earn a living in case we return back? Rebuilding ourselves once again from a scratch, just as we did here in Aizawl, will be hard in old age. It will be like punishing ourselves. It is much better for us to stay back at Aizawl, even though we may exist on the brim, sustaining ourselves on the verge¹.

¹ Excerpt from interview during field survey.

5.2.3 Social Networks of Migrants

The importance of social networks cannot be ignored in the lives of migrants. Social networks sustain migration and help to secure migrant's livelihood. Networking exerted a pivotal role, as it constitutes a part of their safety nets in the events of illness, death and other untoward events. In addition to it, it forms the base for the existence of solidarity where help and support spring from and form as a part of coping strategy among people particularly for migrants.

To venture into a new place, one needs to get familiar with the place. Familiarity to places can take place through tales from acquaintance, strangers, and friends or by accompanying people who are well acquainted to the place. The study attempts to understand how migrants came to Aizawl at the first place. Knowledge of it will help to further understand how migration has been embedded with the people showcasing the historical antecedents, cultural attributes to it (see table 5.9)

On the whole, almost two third (58%) came along with their family members, followed by those who came alone(19%). 14% said they came along with friend, and few came along with person from their own locality back home (6%), and relatives (4%).

Across the areas, they came mostly with family members where it is more pronounced among the core area (73%) than in periphery area (42%). 24% from core area came alone while in periphery area 14% came alone. Only in periphery area do we see migrants accompanied some friend to come to Aizawl (28%) and fellow locality from back home (11%).Accompanying relative is low in both core area (3%) and periphery area (6%).

As regards to having relatives already residing in Mizoram, it was categorised into Primary kin, Secondary kin , Tertiary kin, and None for those who does not have any relatives settling or residing in Mizoram. Those with no relatives constituted the highest percentage at 37%, and periphery area (61%) constituted predominantly in compared to core area (14%). Core area shows higher number with relatives in Mizoram than those of periphery area. Primary kin constitutes 30%, with core area representing 46% and 14% in periphery area. Secondary kin constituted 23% as a whole where core area represented 27% and 19% in periphery area. Tertiary kin constituted 10% with core area constituting 14% and periphery area 6%.

Most of the migrants for the first time based their relatives for accommodation. Supporting relatives constituted 59%, followed by employer (19%), friend (18%) and 4%

mentioned they stayed put at hotel for the first time when they came to Aizawl. Core area (73%) mostly based their relative for the first time which is also in the case of periphery area (44%). Friend constituted 22% in core area and 14% in periphery area. In periphery area more than one third (39%) based their employers for accommodation yet it is not seen to happen among the core area. Those who has no one to approach for their accommodation, they mostly stayed in hotel, two (5%) from core area and one (3%) from periphery area.

Supporting relatives (49%) and friend (43%) constituted the highest percentage in helping migrants to secure a job. Acquaintance from native locality and from host community or locality accounted for just 4%. In core area relatives (60%) help to secure a job for migrants, followed by friends (35%) and acquaintance form both native and host locality constituted just 3 %. In periphery area however, half of the migrants secured a job with the help of their friend (50%), followed by supporting relatives (39%), and acquaintance form native and host locality constituted the least 6%.

5.2.4 Type of Accommodation Arrangement

This section looks into the type of accommodation arrangement, and ownership pattern of house among the Myanmarese migrants. Living standard of migrants is assessed by the type of accommodation arrangement along with ownership of housing. Type of accommodation arrangement is categorised into living alone, living or attached with family or in group housing. Most of those who are employed in handloom lived in group housing where weavers share a common roof for work place and for staying. Ownership of housing was classified into owned and rented (see table 5.10).

5.2.4.1 Present Accommodation Arrangement

Majority (64%) lived with their family , and core area (84%) shows higher indication of this type than in periphery area (44%). 32% had their accommodation arrangement in group housing, and it is most common in periphery area (56%) while only few are found in core area (8%). Only few lived alone with just 4% and it is found only among core area.

5.2.4.2 Ownership of Housing

Majority (96%) of the migrants lived in rented house. None of the respondents in core own a house and they stayed in a rented house (100%). However in periphery area though 92% lived in a rented house it was found that 3(8%) in periphery area owned a house.

Table 5.7 History of Migration

SI No		Location		
		Core	Periphery	Total
		n = 37	n = 36	N =73
I	Decade of Migration			
	1980-1990	5 (14)	6 (17)	11 (15)
	1991 -2000	16 (43)	8 (22)	24 (33)
	2001 -2010	14 (38)	11 (31)	25 (34)
	2011 - 2016	2 (5)	11 (31)	13 (18)
II	Duration of residence in Aizawl			
	Mean Years	15±8	12±9	13±9
	Std. Deviation			

Source: Computed Figures in parentheses are percentages Mean ± SD

Table 5.8 Typology of Migration and Nature of Migration

SI No		Location		Total N =73
		Core	Periphery	
		n = 37	n = 36	
I	Typology of migration			
	Returnee Migrant	3 (8)	1 (3)	4 (6)
	Individual Migrant	13 (35)	26 (72)	39 (53)
	Family Moved	21 (57)	9 (25)	30 (41)
II	Settled in other part of Mizoram before coming to Aizawl			
	No	26 (70)	33 (92)	59 (81)
	Yes	11 (30)	3 (8)	14 (19)
III	Frequency of Visiting Myanmar (your native place)			
	Twice in a Year	1 (3)	0 (0)	1 (1)
	Once in a Year	13 (35)	20 (56)	33 (45)
	Rarely	23 (62)	16 (44)	39 (53)
VI	Intend to return back in case the situation improves in Myanmar			
	Yes	2 (5)	20 (56)	22 (30)
	No	18 (49)	12 (33)	30 (41)
	Cannot Say	17 (46)	4 (11)	21 (29)

Source: Computed Figures in parentheses are percentages

Table 5.9 Networks of Migrant

SI No		Location		Total N =73
		Core	Periphery	
		n = 37	n = 36	
I	Whom do you accompany while coming to Mizoram			
	With Friend	0 (0)	10 (28)	10 (14)
	With Family Members	27 (73)	15 (42)	42 (58)
	With Relatives	1 (3)	2 (6)	3 (4)
	With Fellow from Native Place	0 (0)	4 (11)	4 (6)
	Alone	9 (24)	5 (14)	14 (19)
II	Do you have relative(s) in Mizoram			
	None	5 (14)	22 (61)	27 (37)
	Primary Kin	17 (46)	5 (14)	22 (30)
	Secondary Kin	10 (27)	7 (19)	17 (23)
	Tertiary Kin	5 (14)	2 (6)	7 (10)
III	Whom do you base when came to Aizawl for the first time			
	Relative	27 (73)	16 (44)	43 (59)
	Friend	8 (22)	5 (14)	13 (18)
	Employer	0 (0)	14 (39)	14 (19)
	None (Hotel)	2 (5)	1 (3)	3 (4)
IV	Who helped to find for your first job			
	Relative	22 (60)	14 (39)	36 (49)
	Friend	13 (35)	18 (50)	31 (43)
	Acquaintance from Native Locality	1 (3)	2 (6)	3 (4)
	Acquaintance from Host Locality	1 (3)	2 (6)	3 (4)

Source: Computed Figures in parentheses are percentages

Table 5.10 Type of Accommodation Arrangement

SI No		Location		Total
		Core	Periphery	
		n = 37	n = 36	N =73
I	Present Accommodation Arrangement			
	Lived Alone	3 (8)	0 (0)	3 (4)
	Lived along with Family	31 (84)	16 (44)	47 (64)
	Group Housing	3 (8)	20 (56)	23 (32)
II	Ownership of Housing			
	Owned	0 (0)	3 (8)	3 (4)
	Rented	37 (100)	33 (92)	70 (96)

Source: Computed Figures in parentheses are percentages

5.3 Migration Drivers

Understanding what attract people to places and what prompted them to undergo migration is important to understand the compelling nature of migration. Knowledge on the pull and push factors helps to comprehend the underlining forces and context of migration. Pull and Push Theory, inspite of its simplicity capture the essence of those underlining factors of people's decision to migrate and their choice of destination.

Drivers of migration among the Myanmarese migrants was analysed by employing Pull and Push Theory. The extend of pressure and valence is measured in five point scale of very low(1), low(2), moderate(3), high(4) and very high(5). The mean score was further analysed using Euclidean distance model to indicate the distance among factors that pull and push people to migrate (see table 5.11& 5.12).

5.3.1 Pull Factor

Employment opportunities (4.6) in Aizawl predominantly induced valence among migrants. The existence of social networks (4.2) higher wage rate in Aizawl (4.2) higher Indian currency value (4.1) and porous border (4) factor in high valence across both the core area and periphery area. Employment opportunities and existence of social networks though factor in very high among the periphery area. Those at the periphery area which constituted majority Bamar community predominantly came to Aizawl purely for employment opportunities and the existence of social network or linkages facilitates their flight to Aizawl. Not only that it also sustained migration and open up avenues for new migrants.

Expectation for better living conditions (3.6), ethnic proximity (3.5) and language similarity (3.5) induced moderate high valence as a whole. However, in terms of location, better living conditions, ethnic proximity and language similarity induced a high valence among the core area. The reason for this is that most of the core area is constituted by Chin ethnic group that shared the same ethno- cultural similarity with the Mizo of Mizoram. But in periphery, it exerted moderate valence and language similarity exerted low attractiveness.

Ethnic proximity, language similarity, conducive environment for business opportunities, and religion (Christianity) factor is low among periphery area while it is high in the core area. Factors like peaceful nature of the State (Mizoram), climatic factor, proximity and better education for dependents factor is low among periphery area, while it is

varies across core area from high to moderate. Likewise, diverse livelihood options, better facilities, business opportunities, religion and peaceful nature of Mizoram exerted high valence in core area while it exerted low attractiveness in periphery area. Pleasant climate, proximity and better education opportunities for children exerted very low attractiveness across the two types of locality. As for the case of Bamar community it is seen that they don't vie for other livelihood opportunities other than to work as a weaver in handloom industry.

5.3.2 Push Factor

Lack of employment, low wage rate, low currency value of Myanmar, high inflation rate, inability to save money, difficult living condition and poverty were among those factors that predominantly exerted pressure to migrate. Factors like lack of development initiatives, military junta, lack of government support and initiatives, high taxation, inadequacy of income from agriculture and prevalence of forced labour however, exerted moderate pressure.

On the other hand discrimination, instability/ un-peaceful, weather condition, lack of social mobility, seasonal unemployment, poor quality of education and low pension grant exerted low pressure almost across the two locations. Core area exerted slightly moderate pressure on the above factors except in cases like low pension grant (2) and seasonal unemployment (2).

Therefore, the finding infers that pull factor exerted more valence than push factor to undertake migration among the Myanmarese migrants.

Table 5.11 Pull Factors of Trans Border Migration

Sl.No	Pull Factor	Location					
		Core		Periphery		Total	
		n = 37		n = 36		N =73	
		Mean	S.D	Mean	S.D	Mean	S.D
1	Employment Opportunities	4	1	5	1	4.6	1
2	Social Networks	4	1	5	1	4.2	1
3	Higher Wage Rate	4	1	4	1	4.2	1
4	Higher Currency Value	4	1	4	1	4.1	1
5	Porous Border	4	1	4	1	4.0	1
6	Better Living Conditions	4	1	3	1	3.6	1
7	Diverse livelihood Options	4	1	3	2	3.4	1
8	Better Facilities	4	1	3	1	3.3	1
9	Ethnic Proximity	4	1	3	2	3.5	2
10	Language Similarity	5	1	2	2	3.5	2
11	Business Opportunities	4	1	2	1	3.1	2
12	Christianity	4	1	2	1	3.0	1
13	Peaceful	4	1	2	1	3.0	1
14	Pleasant Climate	3	1	2	1	2.6	1
15	Proximity	3	1	2	1	2.5	1
16	Better Education Opportunities for Children	3	1	2	1	2.3	1

Source computed

Table 5.12 Push Factors of Trans Border Migration

Sl.No	Push Factor	Location					
		Core n = 37		Periphery n = 36		Total N =73	
		Mean	S.D	Mean	S.D	Mean	S.D
1	Lack of Employment Opportunities	4	1	4	1	4	1
2	Low Wage Rate	4	1	4	1	4	1
3	Low Currency Value	4	1	4	1	4	1
4	High Inflation Rate	4	1	4	1	4	1
5	Inability to Save	4	1	4	1	4	1
6	Difficult Living Condition	4	1	4	1	4	1
7	Poverty	3	1	4	1	4	1
8	Lack of Development	4	1	3	1	3	1
9	Military Regime	3	1	3	1	3	1
10	Lack of Support From Government	4	1	3	1	3	1
11	High Taxation	3	1	3	1	3	1
12	Forced Labour	3	1	2	1	3	1
13	Inadequacy of Income From Agriculture	3	1	2	1	3	1
14	Discrimination Against Ethnic Minorities	3	1	2	1	2	1
15	Lack of Peace	3	1	2	1	2	1
16	Harsh Weather Condition	3	1	2	1	2	1
17	Lack of Opportunities for Social Mobility	3	1	2	1	2	1
18	Seasonal Unemployment	2	1	2	1	2	1
19	Poor Quality of Education	3	1	2	1	2	1
20	Low Pension Grant	2	1	1	1	2	1

Source computed

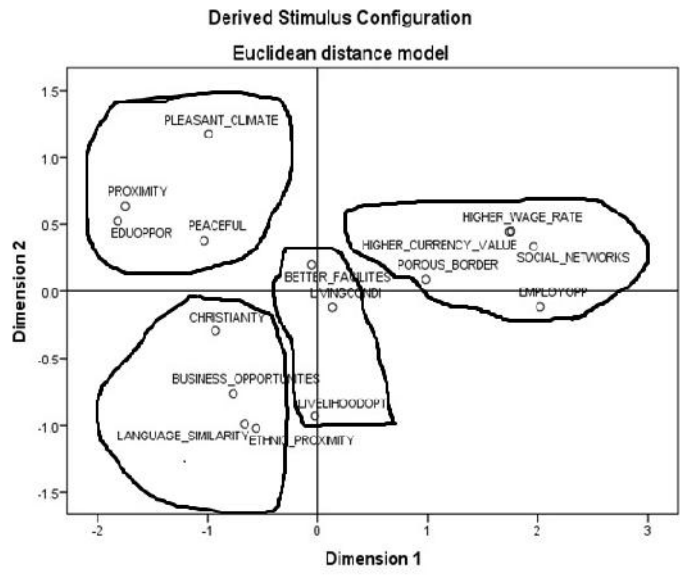


Figure 5.1 Pull Factors of Trans border Migration

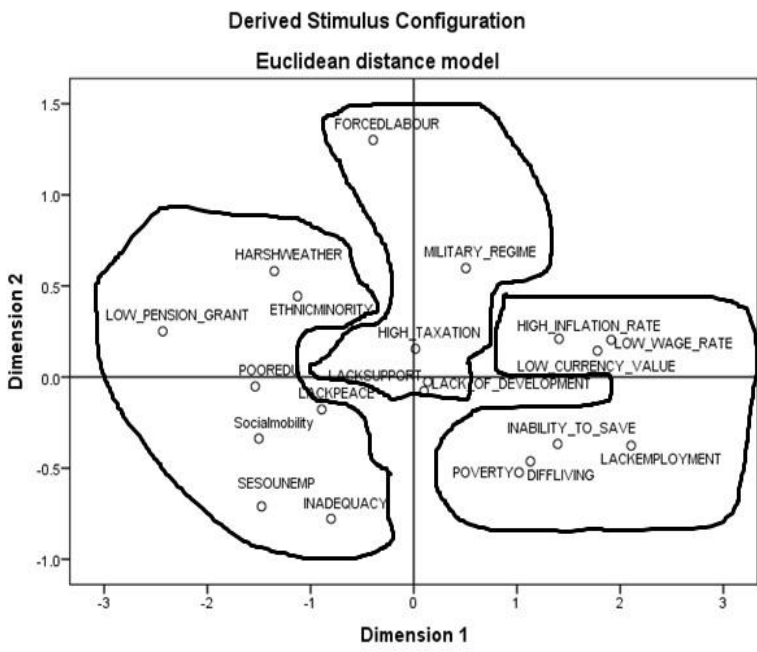


Figure 5.2 Push Factors of Trans Border Migration

5.4 Access to Livelihood Resources and Perceived Impact of Migration on Livelihood of Migrants

This section focused on migrant's access to livelihood resources at native place. It also assessed migrant's perception with regards to impact of migration on their livelihood. Livelihood resource base of migrants were categorised into sub heads like Human Capital, Natural Capital, Social Capital, and Physical Capital. Perceived impact of migration were categorised into Human Capital, Natural Capital, Social Capital, Physical Capital, and Living Conditions. Level of access to resources was measured with five point scale (very low-1, low-2, moderate-3, high-4 and very high-5). In terms of perceived impact of migration on livelihood, respondents perception was measured with five point scale viz., improved a lot (5), improved (4), no change (3), deteriorated (2) and deteriorated a lot (1).

5.4.1 Access to Livelihood Resources

Access to livelihood resources is vital to sustain livelihood as they form the building blocks on which their livelihood rested. Level of access to these resources determines household vulnerability and resilience to shocks, stress and household dynamics (see table 5.13 & 5.14).

5.4.1.1 Level of Access to Livelihood Resources at Native place

Natural Capital

Natural capital in the study is represented by land, water and forest. Access to land and water resources is vital as it form the base to sustain their livelihood and growth. Forest products rendered additional income. Across the core area (4.0) and periphery area (4.1) access to natural resources was high with 4.0 mean score as a whole.

Among natural capitals, access to water sources, forest resources was high across both the two types of location. However, access to land was moderated in periphery area while the core area level access was low.

Human Capital

Human capital refers to competence and knowledge base of human being. Human capitals such as knowledge, skill, labour, good health, increases the value of human capital and social status of people. Access to health care services in turn determines the quality of

labour and productivity. Skills, labour and knowledge on the other hand determine level of income and entry into competitive labour markets.

Human capital in the study is represented by access to primary and secondary education, primary and secondary health care services, and access to telecommunication services and mass media. The level of access to human resources was high as a whole with a total of 4.2 mean score. And core area (4.3) level of access was slight higher than those at the periphery area (4).

Access to human capitals like primary education, primary and secondary health care services were high across the two types of location. Access to secondary education on the other hand was moderated in both the locations.. In terms of access to tele communication services and mass media it was low across the two types of locations

Social Capital

Social capital is an important resource of people. It is the sum of their existence that binds people together. Social capital connotes relationship people maintained through links and networks. It plays a crucial role in opening new ideas, information and availability of resources. Social capital sustained new migrants and the migration process. World Bank (1999) refers social capital to, 'the institutions, relationship, and norms that shape the quantity and quality of a society's social interaction.

In this study social capital is represented by care and support from community, participation in community, civil organisation and participation in elections. As a whole the level of social capital that existed among migrants at native place was moderate (3.2) in both the two types of location. There is statistically significant difference between the core area and the periphery area. Care and support from Community was found to be high (4.6), even across the core area (4.8) and periphery area (4.5). Participation in community and in civil organisation was moderate (3) across the two types of location, but in terms of participation in elections (2) it was both low across the two types of location. The type of government that existed under the Military rule forbade the aggregation of more than ten people at a time. In addition to this elections were held irregularly. Since 1960 only three elections were held in the year 1990, 2010 and 2015. The 2015 general elections were the first openly contested election since 1960.

Physical Capital

Physical capital includes basic infrastructure and production equipments predicating the means that enables people to pursue their livelihood. Access to critical infrastructure is important as it forms the economic base upon which people builds their livelihood. Physical capital in this study was represented by access to market, bank / credit facilities, insurance, road connectivity, and transportation.

Access to physical capital by migrants in their respective native place was moderate (3). However, there was difference in terms of access to different types of physical capitals. Most of the respondents migrant have high access to market (4.7), road connectivity (4.5), and to public / private transportation services (4.4). However, access to bank and credit (1.4) and insurance (1) was very low. The absence of nearby bank deterred them to avail banking services, which were usually located in big towns and cities. In an interview with an ex army pensioner and a woman who work in an office as clerical informed, “inspite of having bank account, there is no provision to avail credit like loans and left along insurance scheme is a far cry”. As such, financial capital in the form of institutional and non institutional access to credit or saving was found to be absent or rare among the sample respondents. Only those who worked in Government establishment had linkage to bank but services were minimal to deposit and withdrawal of salary as stated by some of the sample respondents.

5.4. 2 Perceived Impact of Migration

In the framework for Migration and Livelihood, migration outcomes could be positive, negative or neutral (Tanle, 2015). At times, outcomes can be difficult to measure since perceived outcomes of migration can be subjective in nature and outcomes can take a while to materialise it among the people. As such, it is pertinent to assess the perceived impact of migration. Perceived impact of migration was analysed with respect to formation or accumulation of livelihood capitals and living conditions. Outcomes of migration was captured through five point perception scale viz, improved a lot (5) improved (4), no change (3) deteriorated (2), and deteriorated a lot (1). The sample respondents were asked to rate on their perceived satisfaction across the conditions based on this scale (see table 5.15 & 5.16).

Living Conditions of Migrants

Living conditions encompassed personal income of migrant, improvement in food and nutrition consumption, and employment of migrant. Majority of the sample respondents perceived migration has improved their living conditions (4.4) across the core area(4.2) and periphery area(4.5). There also existed, statistically significant difference in terms of improvement in living conditions across the two types of locations.

Increase in income and better employment opportunities are areas that were perceived to have improved the most by the sample respondents across the two types of location. Periphery area indicated a slight improvement than core area in terms of increase in personal income, employment and improvement in food consumption. Quality of life and labour is linked to patterns of food consumption. Since consumption depends on income and with increase in income and prospect of employment opportunities, capacity to consume better food by migrants is obvious.

Physical Capital

Physical capital entails housing condition of migrant family, household amenities and facilities. On the whole there is improvement in terms of access to physical capital (4) and there is statistically significant difference across the two types of location where periphery area (4.2) indicated higher improvement than the core area (3.8). Improvement is seen in household amenities and facilities (4.1) with slightly improvement in periphery area (4.2) than in core area (4). Housing condition of migrant family also improved in periphery area (4.1) while there is no substantial change among the core area (3.6).

Natures of migration have a bearing on improvement in housing conditions of migrants. Core area is mostly concentrated by migrants who came along with family and most of them have assumed Aizawl as their home town. As such, they hardly maintain ties back home neither do they remitted their income back home. As a result, there was hardly any improvement in the housing conditions among core area. They had to rent a place as the law that governed Mizoram hinders outsiders to own a land. Periphery area on the one hand constituted more of individual migrants who still maintained stronger ties with their families back home. Sending of remittance is much more than core areas. On further probing,

migrants informed that with the money they remitted, they bought new land, renovate or construct better house and purchased livestock and other household amenities.

Human Capital

Children's access to education, access to health care and services, improvement in health status of family and vocational skill of migrants constituted under human capital. There was not much improvement in terms of human capital of migrants in comparison to pre and post conditions (3.6). Although there is statistically significant difference across the two types of location and core area saw improvement slightly over periphery area. Migration has improved access to children education (4), and health care (4) in core area than in periphery area. Access to these services is easier in core area due to its location and nearness to these facilities and also due to the fact that core area which is constituted mostly by the Chins does not face problem like language barrier and could easily integrated in the society on account of their ethnicity.

Social Capital

Social status of migrants in the host community was used to assess social capital of migrants. Migration has not been able to improve the social status of migrants (3.0). Perception of migrants by host community played a great role in ascribing their status in the society and also in the making of migrant niche in terms of their occupation pattern and in labelling them. Migrants occupied jobs that local people mostly deferred from it. Lack of safety nets and social security coupled with the need to survive push migrants to accept any available jobs. In addition to it, their migration status and lack of provision for migrants subjected them to occupy lower position in the society, and prevented them to avail basic facilities like provision under food security, right to education on equal footing with host community.

Natural Capital

Access to land is governed by institutional policies and local policy. Natural capital is represented in this study by access to land, and ownership of livestock by migrant's family. On the whole access to natural capital deteriorated (2.9) post migration. There is statistically significant difference across the two types of location .It is seen to deteriorate in core area (2.3) while periphery area (3.4) subscribed to no change in the mode of their access to natural

capital. Access and ownership of land is difficult for migrants in the host destination. Mizoram is governed under the Sixth Schedule of Indian Constitution, and under this type of administration land cannot be owned and purchased by non tribal population, left alone by foreigners. Also, land and forest comes under the purview of grass root decentralised government in the form of Local Council in urban area and Village Council in rural areas. Access to land by migrants becomes impossible unless they are lease or rented by the local people. This problem is acute and projected more in core area since their type of migration is centre more around more semi permanent to permanent in nature. In addition to this, as indicated in type of migration data, migration along with the whole family was high among the core area. To own a land in the host destination is challenging considering their legal status, occupational structure and competitive price of land. As a result staying on rented house is common among the migrants.

Table 5.13 Migrants Access to Resources in Place of Origin

Sl.No	Resources/Services	Location					
		Core		Periphery		Total	
		n = 37		n = 36		N =73	
		Mean	S.D	Mean	S.D	Mean	S.D
1	Water Resources	4.9	0.4	4.9	0.4	4.9	0.4
2	Market	4.7	0.6	4.7	0.6	4.7	0.6
3	Care and Support from Community	4.8	0.6	4.5	0.5	4.6	0.6
4	Primary Education	4.7	0.7	4.5	0.8	4.6	0.8
5	Primary Health Care Services	4.8	0.5	4.3	1.1	4.5	0.9
6	Road Connectivity	4.5	0.7	4.4	0.8	4.5	0.8
7	Transportation	4.4	0.9	4.4	1.0	4.4	0.9
8	Forest Resource	4.1	1.1	4.4	0.9	4.2	1.0
9	Secondary Health Care Services	4.1	1.2	3.9	1.1	4.0	1.2
10	Secondary Education	3.8	1.1	3.3	1.1	3.6	1.1
11	Participation in Community	4	1	3	1	3	1
12	Land	2.9	0.9	3.0	0.8	3.0	0.8
13	Participation in Civil Organisation	3	1	3	1	3	1
14	Tele Communication	2.5	1.0	2.9	1.0	2.7	1.0
15	Mass Media (TV, Radio, News Paper etc.)	2.4	1.0	2.8	1.2	2.6	1.1
16	Participation in Elections	2	1	2	1	2	1
17	Banking /Micro Credit Facilities	1.3	0.7	1.5	1.0	1.4	0.9
18	Insurance	1.0	0.0	1.0	0.2	1.0	0.1

Source: Computed

Table 5.14 Differences in Migrants Access to Resources in Place of Origin

Sl.No	Resources/Services	Location						t
		Core		Periphery		Total		
		n = 37		n = 36		N =73		
		Mean	S.D	Mean	S.D	Mean	S.D	
1	Human Capital	4.3	0.6	4.0	0.9	4.2	0.8	1.82
2	Natural Capital	4.0	0.6	4.1	0.5	4.0	0.5	-1.07
3	Social Capital	3.5	0.6	3.0	0.6	3.2	0.6	3.50**
4	Physical Capital	3.0	0.4	3.1	0.5	3.0	0.5	-1.16

Source: Computed

*P<0.05

**P<0.01

Table 5.15 Perceived Impact of Migration

Sl.No		Location				Total N =73	
		Core n = 37		Periphery n = 36			
		Mean	S.D	Mean	S.D	Mean	S.D
1	Children's Access to Education	4	0.707	3.58	0.692	3.79	0.726
2	Access to Health Care and Services	4	0.527	3.39	0.645	3.7	0.66
3	Health Status of Family Members	3.89	0.516	3.44	0.607	3.67	0.602
4	Vocational Skill of Migrant	3.38	0.893	3.86	0.543	3.62	0.775
5	Access to Land by Migrant Family	2.73	0.932	3.81	1.064	3.26	1.131
6	Ownership of Livestock of Migrant Family	2	0.624	3.14	0.931	2.56	0.972
7	Household Amenities and Facilities	4.03	0.645	4.25	0.604	4.14	0.631
8	Housing Condition of Migrant Family	3.65	0.889	4.17	0.655	3.9	0.819
9	Social Status of Migrant	3.16	1.041	2.94	0.826	3.05	0.941
10	Personal Income of Migrant	4.35	0.484	4.72	0.454	4.53	0.502
11	Food & Nutrition Consumption of Migrant	4.16	0.688	4.42	0.604	4.29	0.656
12	Employment of Migrant	4.24	0.495	4.64	0.487	4.44	0.527

Source: Computed

Table 5.16 Impact of Migration on Livelihood and Living Conditions

Sl.No		Location				Total N =73		't'
		Core n = 37		Periphery n = 36				
		Mean	S.D	Mean	S.D	Mean	S.D	
1	Physical Capital	3.8	0.6	4.2	0.6	4.0	0.6	2.6**
2	Human Capital	3.8	0.3	3.6	0.4	3.7	0.4	2.9**
3	Social Capital	3.2	1.0	2.9	0.8	3.1	0.9	1.0
4	Natural Capital	2.4	0.5	3.5	0.7	2.9	0.8	7.4**
5	Living Conditions	4.3	0.4	4.6	0.4	4.4	0.5	3.3**

Source: Computed

*P<0.05

**P<0.01

5.4.3 Livelihood in Myanmar and Livelihood enhancement in Aizawl

Migration and Livelihood Framework recognised that livelihood outcomes on account of migration may be positive, negative or neutral (Tanle, 2015). To assess relationship between livelihood in Myanmar and Livelihood enhancement in Aizawl was assessed using Karl Pearson's Correlation coefficients (see table 5.17).

Livelihood in Myanmar assessed in terms of indicators like Natural Capital, Human Capital, Physical Capital and Social Capital while livelihood enhancement in Aizawl includes Human Capital, Natural Capital, Physical Capital, Social Capital, and Living Conditions.

Here the first question is concerning the direction and significance of relationship among the various livelihood assets. At the outset it was expected that all the components of livelihood asset endowments in Myanmar the original inhabitation to be significantly related. Contrary to expectation only physical and human capital are significantly related. Among the four components of livelihood assets endowment in the original inhabitation of the respondents' natural, human, physical and social capital only human capital and physical capital are significantly positively related while there is no significant relationship among the pairs of capitals. There is no significant relationship between natural and human capital, natural and physical capital, natural and social capital. Similarly, there is no significant relationship between physical capital and social capital. Likewise, there is no significant relationship between social capital and human capital.

The next question is that of the relationship between the livelihood asset endowment in Myanmar and their enhancement in Aizawl after migration. Natural capital endowment in Myanmar has significant positive effect on the enhancement of physical capital while having no significant effect on enhancement of human, natural, social capital or living conditions. Human capital in nativity has significant negative effect on natural capital enhancement in Aizawl while having no significant effect on the other components of livelihood asset. Physical capital in the nativity has significant negative effect on human capital enhancement in Aizawl after migration. Social capital in the nativity has significant positive effect on enhancement of human capital and significant negative effect on natural capital, physical capital as well as living conditions.

The next question is concerning the direction and significance of relationship among the various components of livelihood assets improvement. Improvement in one component of

livelihood assets is expected to have significant positive effect on all other components. On the contrary to expectation only a few are interrelated. Enhancement of human capital due to migration has positive effect on social capital while having no effect on other forms of livelihood assets. Natural capital enhancement and physical capital enhancement are mutually reinforcing.

Livelihood outcome in terms of living condition is expected to have been positively influenced by all the components of livelihood assets. On the contrary to the expectation, only enhancement of natural and physical capital has significant positive effect on enhancement of living condition. The effects of enhancement of social or human capital have no significant effect on improvement in the living conditions of the respondents due to migration.

Table 5.17 Livelihood and Living Conditions: Pearson's Correlation Matrix

	Livelihood in Myanmar				Livelihood Enhancement in Aizawl				
	Natural Capital	Human Capital	Physical Capital	Social Capital	Human Capital	Natural Capital	Physical Capital	Social Capital	Living Conditions
Natural Capital(1)	1	-0.15	-0.14	-0.10	0.09	0.09	0.25*	-0.01	0.15
Human Capital(2)	-0.15	1	0.44**	0.04	-0.15	-0.23**	-0.23	-0.06	-0.08
Physical Capital(3)	-0.14	0.44**	1	-0.14	-0.45**	-0.07	0.01	0.03	0.05
Social Capital(4)	-0.10	0.04	-0.14	1	.255*	-0.30**	-0.49**	0.00	-0.46**
Human Capital(5)	0.09	-0.15	-0.45**	.255*	1	-0.08	-0.13	.248*	-0.15
Natural Capital(6)	0.09	-.232*	-0.07	-0.30*	-0.08	1	0.34**	-0.12	0.37**
Physical Capital(7)	0.25*	-0.23	0.01	-0.49**	-0.13	0.34**	1	0.20	0.48**
Social Capital(8)	-0.01	-0.06	0.03	0.00	0.25**	-0.12	0.20	1	-0.03
Living Conditions	0.15	-0.08	0.05	-0.46**	-0.15	0.37**	0.48**	-0.03	1

Source: Computed

*P<0.05

** P<0.01

5.5 Livelihood Challenges and Coping Strategies

Livelihood challenges and Coping strategies of migrants was assessed using four point scale of always (3), mostly (2), sometimes (1) and never (0). Assessing livelihood challenges shed light on factors that could impinge or pose implication on sustaining their livelihood and can have impact on the subsequent outcomes of migration. In terms of challenges, migrants faced different challenges across the ethnic groups. The analysis and findings on the coping strategies of Myanmar migrants will shed light on different coping mechanism adopted by migrants in the face of challenges as well as what constituted the most common form of coping strategies among the migrants.

5.5.1 Livelihood Challenges

Livelihood challenges of migrant were assessed using four point scale of always (3), mostly (2), sometimes (1) and never (0). Challenge in the form of heavy work load (1.5) was experience mostly by the migrants. Other challenges in the form of occupational health hazards (1.3), cut throat competition in the market (1.1), late or non repayment of credit(1), language barrier (1) were experience slightly more at times. Stigma and discrimination (0.9), Motherhood(0.9), lack of employment security(0.8), lack of safety net or support system(0.7), homesickness(0.7) , legal status and rights(0.7), lack of access to public services and resources(0.6), and socio cultural adjustment (0.5) were also experience sometimes by the migrants. On the other hand, challenges like dependence on informal financial services (0.3), issuance of eviction notice (0.3), police raids, and extortion in custom check point (0.2) were not experience by most of the migrants(see table 5.18).

The type and degree of challenges experience by migrants across core and periphery however, do differ. In the core areas, challenges like cut throat competition in the Market (1.7), and late or non repayment of credit (1.6) are mostly experience by migrants. The reason being their occupations largely loom on large business and petty business and their livelihood mainly centered around the market. In the event of late or non repayment of credit, they are handicapped and hesitated to seek the help of law implementing agency due to their legal status. They had to rely their business solely on the good nature of their customers which is based on mutual trust. On further probing, almost all those who are involved in business had faced such kind of situation. On the other hand, most of the migrants in periphery area do not experience these kinds of challenges, as they are mostly employed in handloom industry as

skilled workers. In periphery area, they experience challenges mostly in terms of heavy work load (1.9) occupational health hazards (1.9), and language barrier (1.6). They weave cloths more than 10 hours a day. From the field survey, it was learnt that they complaint mostly about joint pain, eye problems and headache. Bamar ethnic group who are found to be concentrated mostly in periphery area find it difficult to communicate with other and they need person to translate for them into local language. Because of language barrier they sometimes hesitate to approach their employer in case they need extra equipments or assistant. At times, they prefer to manage by themselves without troubling their employer for minor requirements. Also because of language barrier they face problem the most during access to health care services.

Lack of access to public services and resources and socio cultural adjustment which were sometimes experience in periphery area was not experience by most of the migrants in core area due to the fact that Chin who are found to concentrate in core area belong to the same ethno – cultural roots with the host population. Lack of employment security (0.8), stigma and discrimination (1.0 at core area, 0.9 at periphery area, Motherhood (0.8 at core area and 0.9 at periphery area) however was experience almost at the same level among the core and periphery areas.

5.5. 2 Coping Strategies of Migrants

Coping strategies of migrants was assessed by using four point scale measurement of always (3), mostly (2), sometimes (1) and never (0).Table No 5.19 indicated the types of coping strategies adopted by the migrants. Coping mechanism adopted by migrants depicted not much difference across the two locations. Praying (2.9), and hoping for better days ahead (2.8) are always part of migrant’s coping strategies. Seeking or receiving solidarity from the community or from same community(2.0),thrift(2.0) and reduce consumption(1.6) are mostly employed by the respondents .Apart from these, at times they seek the help of their friends and relatives(1.3), upgrade their skill(1.3), borrow money(1.2), purchase items on credit(1.2), absorbed extra labour from family members(1), adaptation to local culture or custom(0.8), and diversify their income (0.7).

Seeking help from foreign relatives (0.4), asking for advance wage (0.3), borrow money with interest (0.2), short stayed with friend or relative (0.2) and sell off personal assets/items (0.2) were hardly employed by migrants as a coping strategies.

Table 5.18 Livelihood Challenges of Migrants in Mizoram

Sl.No	Livelihood Challenges	Location					
		Core		Periphery		Total	
		n = 37		n = 36		N =73	
		Mean	S.D	Mean	S.D	Mean	S.D
1	Heavy Workload	1.0	0.9	1.9	0.8	1.5	1.0
2	Occupational Health Hazards	0.9	1.0	1.8	0.8	1.3	1.0
3	Cut Throat Competition in the Market	1.7	1.1	0.4	0.8	1.1	1.2
4	Late or Non Repayment of Credit	1.6	1.1	0.4	0.7	1.0	1.1
5	Language Barrier	0.3	0.7	1.6	1.4	1.0	1.3
6	Stigma and Discrimination	1.0	0.9	0.9	0.9	0.9	0.9
7	Motherhood	0.8	0.9	0.9	1.0	0.9	0.9
8	Lack of Employment Security	0.8	0.9	0.8	0.7	0.8	0.8
9	Lack Of Safety Net or Support System	1.0	0.9	0.5	0.6	0.7	0.8
10	Homesickness	0.5	0.6	0.9	0.9	0.7	0.8
11	Legal Status and Rights	0.6	0.8	0.8	0.7	0.7	0.7
12	Lack of Access to Public Services And Resources	0.4	0.8	0.9	0.9	0.6	0.8
13	Socio Cultural Adjustment	0.2	0.6	0.8	0.7	0.5	0.7
14	Dependence on Informal Financial Services	0.3	0.7	0.3	0.7	0.3	0.7
15	Eviction Notice by Civil Society Organisation	0.2	0.5	0.4	0.6	0.3	0.5
16	Police Raids and Extortion	0.1	0.3	0.3	0.4	0.2	0.4
17	Extortion in Custom Check Points	0.2	0.5	0.1	0.4	0.2	0.5

Source computed

Table 5.19 Coping Strategies followed to manage the Livelihood Challenges

Sl.No	Coping Strategies	Location					
		Core		Periphery		Total	
		n = 37		n = 36		N =73	
		Mean	S.D	Mean	S.D	Mean	S.D
1	Praying	3.0	0.2	2.8	0.5	2.9	0.4
2	Hoping for Better Days Ahead	2.8	0.5	2.8	0.4	2.8	0.4
3	Community Solidarity	2.2	0.9	1.8	1.2	2.0	1.1
4	Thrift	2.0	0.9	1.9	0.8	2.0	0.9
5	Reduce Consumption	1.6	1.1	1.6	1.0	1.6	1.1
6	Seek Help from Friends or Relatives	0.8	1.0	1.8	1.2	1.3	1.2
7	Upgrade Skill	0.9	1.0	1.7	0.9	1.3	1.0
8	Borrow Money from Friends or Relatives	0.7	0.9	1.7	1.2	1.2	1.2
9	Purchase Items on Credit	1.1	1.0	1.3	0.9	1.2	1.0
10	Extra Labour from Family Members	1.3	1.2	0.6	0.9	1.0	1.1
11	Adaptation to local culture or custom	0.9	1.1	0.8	0.5	0.8	0.9
12	Income Diversification	0.8	1.0	0.6	1.1	0.7	1.1
13	Support from Relatives in Foreign Countries	0.4	0.8	0.4	0.8	0.4	0.8
14	Ask for Advance Wage	0.2	0.6	0.4	0.8	0.3	0.7
15	Borrow Money With Interest	0.4	0.8	0.1	0.3	0.2	0.6
16	Short Stay With Friends or Relatives	0.2	0.5	0.1	0.4	0.2	0.5
17	Sell Off Personal Assets	0.2	0.6	0.1	0.3	0.2	0.5

Source computed

CHAPTER VI

CONCLUSION

The present study attempts at understanding the nexus between migration and livelihood of Myanmarese migrants in Mizoram within the theoretical perspective of Migration and Livelihood. The study employed mixed method to collect primary data. The previous chapter discussed about the analysis and findings of the study.

The present chapter is organised into three major sections. The first section is devoted to summarise the findings of analysis of qualitative and quantitative data. In the second section, the conclusion is presented while in the last section suggestions are presented.

6.1 Major Findings

The research confirmed some known facts as well as unearthed some new findings pertaining to migration and livelihood. The major findings are presented in this section.

6.1.1 Vulnerability Context of Migrants

Migrants' vulnerability springs not only from their native context but also from the host context where the existing laws and policies can impinge upon them in a manner that could restrain them to change in their living conditions. Their vulnerabilities differ from context to context. Poverty, lack of employment opportunities, military regime and lack of development initiatives are some of the vulnerability aspects which migrants are exposed to in their native place. At the host context, migrants are vulnerable to forces like change in policies like issuance of eviction notices directed to migrants and lack of safety nets in terms of access to resources and services. Lack of access to informal banking system reduced migrants to rely solely on informal system of transactions and exchanges. Their vulnerability mainly spring from their migration status. For migrants, it is the prevailing migration status that either allows them to access resources or prevent them from access. Their relationship with the host community fluctuates in between acceptance and rejection. Their relationship is also interjected with solidarity on account of ethnicity that counter-balances their vulnerabilities to some extent in the host community particularly among the Chin migrants.

6.1.2 Socio-economic Structural Bases of Migrants

The decades between 2001 and 2010 saw the highest numbers of Myanmarese immigrants into Mizoram in both the core and periphery areas. Regarding the mean year of residency in Mizoram, it stood at around 13 years, indicating migrants are not just short term migrants or floaters but rather that their settlement in Mizoram comes under semi-permanent

or permanent in nature. As regards typology of migration, most of the migrants fall under individual migrants followed by movement along with their whole family. Majority of the migrants came directly to Aizawl and rarely do migrants re visit their native place in Myanmar after they had migrated to Mizoram. As stated in terms of their settlement, majority intend not to return back to Myanmar.

Migrants came to Mizoram mostly along with their own family members across the two types of locality. Migrants moved mainly with family members indicating that at their host destination they have supportive networks in spite of the fact that majority of the migrants do not have relatives residing in Mizoram prior to migration. Across the two types of locality, core area migrants are seen to have relatives residing in Mizoram as compared to migrants at the periphery area. Close kin who have earlier migrated to Mizoram played an important aspect in the life of migrants as they form the initial base of contact for migrants in the new destination providing accommodation and helping migrants to secure their first job.

In terms of migrants' accommodation arrangement at host destination, most of the migrants lived along with their own family in a rented house. Only few of migrants could own a house.

With regards to demographic characteristics of the migrants, middle age (35-59) constituted the highest proportion among the migrants as a whole constituting a sizeable proportion of migrants to have settled down with family. The mean age stood at 40 years indicating that migrants have well past the age of marriage and are at their prime age. In accordance to it, majority of migrants were married. Another significant finding of the study pertains to gender, where female migrants are found to constitute a higher proportion than male migrants. Significantly, migration is not just a male oriented process and there is much feminization of migration. Pertaining to educational status of migrants, majority of them attained primary level of education. However the mean educational level of migrants falls under middle level of education as a whole, on account of slightly higher educational status of core area.

In terms of the structure of family, nuclear and stable are the major types of family among the migrants. Another significant finding of the study is change in family relationship. Post migration divorce/ separation were seen to occur only in core areas. Lack of adjustment to urban environment amidst struggling for sustenance created discord mainly among the spouse leading to disintegration of family among the core area migrants. In terms of size of

family, medium size (4-6 members) was predominant among the migrants as a whole. But in core areas, large size family is also seen to be common.

With respect to social profile of the migrant, the core areas are predominantly constituted by the Chin ethnic tribe of Myanmar while the Bamar who form the majority ethnic group in Myanmar are found to concentrate in periphery areas. Pawi, a sub tribe under Chin constituted the majority ethnic group among the Chin migrants. Also, Christianity and Buddhism are the two major religions found to be professed by the migrants. Chin State and Sagaing Division are the two main senders of migrants in Mizoram and majority of the migrants had their origin from rural areas.

Cultivators and Artisans/ Craftsmen are the two main occupations found among the migrants prior migration. Occupation shift occurred significantly among the core area dwellers from cultivator to business occupation in post migration scenario. Among the periphery, there was hardly any occupation shift on account of migration. In terms of income, core area workers earned more than their periphery counterparts. However, periphery area sent better remittance to their native place. The nature of settlement is semi-permanent in nature and the type of migration was mostly movement of family as a whole. These are some of the reasons why sending of remittance is low in spite of mean income of core area migrants being much higher than those of periphery areas.

6.1.3 Migration Drivers

With respect to migration drivers, pull factors exerted more pressure for Myanmar migrants to come to Mizoram. Availability of employment opportunities in Mizoram is one factor that predominantly attracted migrants from Myanmar. Among the push factors, lack of employment opportunities in Myanmar, low wage rate and low currency value along with high inflation rates are some of the factors that push migrants to migrate.

6.1.4 Livelihood Challenges and Coping Strategies

Migrants commonly face challenges in terms of occupational health hazard on account of their nature of work and working conditions. At the most, migrants worked five days a week on an average, for about 10 hours a day. This type of challenge was mostly acute among the periphery area. Cut throat competition in the market and late or non-repayment of credit type of challenges are mostly experienced by migrants at the core area.

With respect to coping strategies, praying and hoping for better days ahead are among the most common form of strategies employed by migrants apart from solidarity which they received from their own community or from the host community.

6.1.5 Livelihood at Native Place and Impact of Migration on Livelihood of Migrants.

At native place, migrant's access to natural capital like water resources and forest resources was high across both the type of locations. Access to human capital was also high but access to social capital and physical capital at native place was moderate. There is significant difference in terms of access to social capital across the two types of locations.

With regards to perceived impact of migration, living conditions of migrants was seen to improve the most followed by enhancement in physical capital. There also existed a significant difference among physical capital endowment, human capital formation, and natural capital and in living conditions across the two types of location. Access to assets in the form of different capitals has eventually improved the living conditions of the migrants post migration scenario.

6.1.6 Livelihood in Myanmar and Livelihood Enhancement in Aizawl.

It was assumed that all the livelihood capitals would have contributed towards livelihood enhancement of the migrants in Mizoram, but it was seen that only natural capital endowment in Myanmar has significant positive effect on the enhancement of physical capital post migration scenario. Also, social capital in the native land has significant positive effect on enhancement of human capital in Mizoram. On a similar notion, only natural and physical enhancement in Mizoram leads to improvement in the living conditions of migrants. However, as a whole it was seen that periphery area depicted better improvement in their livelihoods in terms of better living conditions and physical endowments, reasons could be deduced to the fact that periphery area are mainly skilled workers.

6.2 Conclusion

Migration has assumed importance in the era of globalisation which accentuates people's movement across the borders of many nation states. The inclusion of migration as a part of people's livelihood strategies gave the nuance to understand migration from the perspective of development. Altogether, when migration is here to stay, understanding migration from the livelihood framework would help in projecting the role of migration at another level. People's choice and decision is always centered around the structural and cultural aspects of vulnerability. The FFA which was conducted among migrants to understand their vulnerabilities revealed that they faced vulnerability both at the host and native contexts though they differ from context to context. Poverty as a stand along factor might not exert much vulnerability but when it is clubbed with other factors such as lack of development initiatives, social protection and Government failure, it could lead people to live

on the edge. On the hand, migration too creates its own vulnerability. At the host context, migrants vulnerability stem mostly from their migration status as undocumented and illegal ones that curtail their access to some of basic services and social protection. However, Mizoram is accommodating to some extent since migrants meet its demands for labour. Much of the restraining forces are counter balanced by the need for cheap labour, skilled workers and by the existence of ethnic cultural continuity between the Chin and Mizo people. The study revealed that periphery area which is constituted mostly by the Bamar community show better improvement and enhancement of livelihood than the core area. The Bamar community are largely skilled workers working as weavers in the handloom industry. Migrants with skilled component indicated better improvement in living conditions and in enhancement of livelihood. Skill level of migrant as such, has a direct bearing on the living conditions and livelihood of migrants. In spite of the existing restraining factors in host destination, migrants could utilise migration positively to enhance their living conditions and livelihood.

The focus of the present study is its hypothesis which reads, 'Enhancement of living conditions of trans border migrants depend upon increase in their livelihood resources'. The hypothesis has been validated in the context of Myanmar migrants in Mizoram. Improvement in the living conditions and enhancement in their livelihood could be seen. In contrast to the assumption, all livelihood resources do not have a direct bearing towards enhancement of living conditions. It was found that only natural and physical enhancement in Aizawl leads to improvement in the living conditions of migrants. It was also found that only natural capital endowment in Myanmar and social capital in the nativity has significant positive effect on the enhancement of physical capital and human capital in Aizawl.

6.3 Suggestions

In the light of the findings of the present study, a few suggestions for policy making and further research are put forward in two sub sections.

6.3.1. Policy Implication of the Study

Myanmar migrants in Mizoram are mostly from rural areas with low levels of education. They are vulnerable to occupational hazards. Apart from this, they encounter adjustment problems in new environment. Access to general health care and services becomes a challenge for migrants in new place. Moreover, migrants are generally left out from the target population of welfare and development programmes. Efforts need to be made to identify them and recognise them as migrants. It will further contribute to their access to education, health care, housing and other social services.

Prevailing institutional structures and processes which stage migrants' livelihood ultimately dictates their ability to access and utilise assets. The study reveals that on account of their migration status and in the absence of recognition, migrants rely mostly on informal transaction thereby depending heavily on fellow native traders, hawala system for necessary transaction and rely on informal saving. As India is not a signatory to the 1951 convention for the protection of refugees, nor its subsequent protocol 1967; it is a herculean task, for policy makers to deal with the inflows of international migrants in Indian soil. Migrants had to rely on the prevailing local policy and conditions. Therefore, it is pertinent to formulate a minimum working status for Myanmarese migrants in order to derive significant dividends from migrant population.

Lastly, social work education in India by and large covers the broad area of working with groups, communities, and individuals apart from targeting other marginalised sections of the society like women, children, and disability. However, working with migrants is still at a nascent stage and understated in the core curriculum of social work education. Targeting migrants and working towards their welfare is important in this era as migration has assumed a new level of importance in the world of development. As such, understanding migrants' peculiar vulnerabilities, problems and challenges which differ in respect to problems faced by other marginalised groups is important in order to plan for a concerted policy for migrants.

6.3.2 Suggestions for Further Research

In the light of the present study, a few suggestions for further research are given below:

1. There is scope to conduct an extensive study of trans-border migration across different districts of Mizoram.
2. The present study does not incorporate gender dimension of trans-border migration from Myanmar. However, some of the findings of the present study indicated that female migrants predominate male as against the general notion that migration is male oriented processes and women are normally attached migrants. A further study can be conducted along the line of feminization of migration or dwell deeply into the experiences of female migrants.
3. The study covers a few aspects of migrants' network and remittances. A more in- depth study on Myanmarese migrants social network and role of remittances can be conducted.
4. A study which can cover both migrants' native and host contexts will provide better and richer understanding on the impact of migration in both the sending and receiving countries.

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**TRANSBORDER MIGRATION AND LIVELIHOOD:
THE CASE OF MIGRANT WORKERS FROM MYANMAR IN MIZORAM
INTERVIEW SCHEDULE**

(Confidential and for research purpose only)

Schedule No

Locality :

Date of interview:

I. Demographic Profile

1. Name of the respondent:
2. Age(Years completed):
3. Gender : 1 Male 2 Female
4. Marital Status:
1 Unmarried 2 Married 3 Divorce/Separated 4. Remarried 5 Widowed
5. Education(Years completed): _____
6. Type of Family: 1) Nuclear 2) Joint
7. Form of Family: 1) Stable 2) Broken 3) Reconstituted
8. Size of Family:

II. Social Profile

9. Ethnic Group :
1)Chin
2) Bamar
3) Kachin
4) Karen/Kayin
5) Shan
6) Rakhine/Arakanese
7) Kayah /Karenni
8)Other (Specify)_____
10. Sub Tribe(Please Specify): _____
11. Religion: 1) Christianity 2) Buddhism 3) Islam
12. From Division:
1) Ayeyarwady (Pathein)
2) Bago (Bago)
3) Magway (Magway)
4) Mandalay (Mandalay)
5) Sagaing (Sagaing)
6) Tanintharyi (Dawei)
7) Yangon (Yangon)
13. From State
1) Chin State
2) Kachin State
3) Kayin Or Karen State
4) Kayah, Or Karenni State
5) Mon State
6) Rakhine State
7) Shan State
14. Type of locality at place of origin: 1 Rural 2 Semi urban 3 Urban
15. Present accommodation arrangement in Aizawl.

1. Living alone
2. Living with family
3. Group Housing

16. Ownership of House living in Aizawl: 1 Owned 2. Rented

III. Economic Profile

17. Please tell me your Occupation before and after migration.

S.No	Occupation	Present	Before Migration
1	Cultivator		
2	Agricultural Labourer		
3	Daily Wage Labourer		
4	Artisan/Craftsmen		
5	Petty Business		
6	Large Business		
7	Domestic Worker		
8	White Collar		
9	Professional		
10	Dependent/Unemployed		

18. Please tell your Approximate Monthly Income at Present Rs. _____

19. Please tell your Approximate Number of Working Days in a Week. _____

20. Please tell your Approximate Number of Working Hours in a Day _____

21. Please tell your Approximate Annual Remittance Rs _____

IV. Livelihood Resource Base of the Respondent Prior Migration

22. Kindly rate the level of Access to these Resources by your family before Migration.

S.No	Resources	Very High	High	Moderate	Low	Very Low
1	Land	5	4	3	2	1
2	Water Resources	5	4	3	2	1
3	Forest Resources	5	4	3	2	1
4	Banking/ Micro Credit / Loan Facilities	5	4	3	2	1
5	Market	5	4	3	2	1
6	Insurance	5	4	3	2	1
7	Primary Health Care Services	5	4	3	2	1
8	Secondary Health Care Services	5	4	3	2	1
9	Primary Education	5	4	3	2	1
10	Secondary Education	5	4	3	2	1
11	Care and Support from Community	5	4	3	2	1
12	Road Connectivity	5	4	3	2	1
13	Transportation	5	4	3	2	1
14	Tele Communication	5	4	3	2	1
15	Mass Media Communication (TV, Print etc.)	5	4	3	2	1

23. Kindly tick the level of your participation in various modes in your native place before Migration.

Sl.no	Mode of Participation	Very Low	Low	Moderate	High	Very High
1	Participation in Community	1	2	3	4	5
2	Participation in Elections	1	2	3	4	5

3	Participation in Civil Organisation	1	2	3	4	5
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V. History of Migration and Migrant’s Networks

24. In which year did you migrate to Mizoram? _____
25. Whom do you accompany while coming to Mizoram?
1. With Friends
 2. With Family Members
 3. With Relatives
 4. With Fellow Local Residence
 5. Alone
26. Do you have relative(s) who are in Mizoram?
0. None 1. Primary Kin 2. Secondary Kin 3. Tertiary Kin
27. Whom do you base for the first time you come to Aizawl?
1. Relative 2. Friend 3. Employer 4. Hotel
28. Who helped you to find for your first job?
1. Relative 2. Friend 3. Acquaintance from native locality
4. Acquaintance from host locality.

VI. Nature of Migration

29. Typology of migration
1. Returnee Migrant 2. Individual Migrant 3. Family Moved
30. Have you ever settled somewhere in other part of Mizoram before coming to Aizawl?
0. No 1. Yes
31. Duration of residence in Aizawl _____
32. How often do you visit Myanmar (your native place)?
1. Twice in a year 2. Once in a year 3. Rarely
33. Do you intend to return back in case the situation improves in Myanmar?
- 1- Yes 2- No 3. Can’t say

VII. Migration Drivers

34. Please rate the following factors in terms of the extent of their pressure for migration.

ID	Push Factor	Extent of Pressure				
		Very High	High	Moderate	Low	Very Low
1	Lack of Employment Opportunities	5	4	3	2	1
2	Low Wage Rate	5	4	3	2	1
3	Poverty	5	4	3	2	1
4	Low Currency Value	5	4	3	2	1
5	High Inflation Rate	5	4	3	2	1
6	Military Regime	5	4	3	2	1
7	High Taxation	5	4	3	2	1
8	Inadequacy of Income From Agriculture	5	4	3	2	1
9	Poor Quality of Education	5	4	3	2	1
10	Harsh Weather Condition	5	4	3	2	1
11	Lack of Development	5	4	3	2	1
12	Lack of Peace	5	4	3	2	1
13	Difficult Living Condition	5	4	3	2	1
14	Inability to Save	5	4	3	2	1

15	Lack of Support From Government	5	4	3	2	1
16	Forced Labour	5	4	3	2	1
17	Low Pension Grant	5	4	3	2	1
18	Lack of Opportunities For Social Mobility	5	4	3	2	1
19	Discrimination Against Ethnic Minorities	5	4	3	2	1
20	Seasonal Unemployment	5	4	3	2	1

35. Please rate the following factors which induced you to come to Aizawl.

Sl.No	Pull Factor	Extend of Valence				
		Very High	High	Moderate	Low	Very Low
1	Employment Opportunities	5	4	3	2	1
2	Social Networks	5	4	3	2	1
3	Ethnic Proximity	5	4	3	2	1
4	Higher Currency Value	5	4	3	2	1
5	Porous Border	5	4	3	2	1
6	Higher Wage Rate	5	4	3	2	1
7	Business Opportunities	5	4	3	2	1
8	Christianity	5	4	3	2	1
9	Proximity	5	4	3	2	1
10	Peaceful	5	4	3	2	1
11	Better Facilities	5	4	3	2	1
12	Pleasant Climate	5	4	3	2	1
13	Better Education Opportunities for Children	5	4	3	2	1
14	Better Living Conditions	5	4	3	2	1
15	Language Similarity	5	4	3	2	1
16	Diverse livelihood Options	5	4	3	2	1

VIII. Migration Outcomes

36. In what way migration to Mizoram affected your life and your family's living conditions

Sl.No	Condition	Improved a lot	Improved	No Change	Deteriorated	Deteriorated a lot
1	Employment of Migrant	5	4	3	2	1
2	Personal Income of Migrant	5	4	3	2	1
3	Food & Nutrition Consumption of Migrant	5	4	3	2	1
4	Access to Land of Migrant Family	5	4	3	2	1
5	Health Status of Family Members	5	4	3	2	1
6	Access to Health Care and Services	5	4	3	2	1
7	Children's Access to Education	5	4	3	2	1
8	Social Status of Migrant	5	4	3	2	1
9	Living Condition of Migrant	5	4	3	2	1
10	Vocational Skill of Migrant	5	4	3	2	1
11	Outlook or Perspective of Migrant	5	4	3	2	1
12	Household Income of Parental Family	5	4	3	2	1
13	Household Amenities and Facilities	5	4	3	2	1
14	Housing Condition of Migrant Family	5	4	3	2	1
15	Ownership of Livestock of Migrant Family	5	4	3	2	1

IX. Livelihood Challenges and Coping Strategies

37. Kindly rate the problems you are facing in Aizawl as a migrant from Myanmar.

Sl.No	Livelihood Challenges	Always	Mostly	Sometimes	Never
1	Legal Status and Rights	3	2	1	0
2	Eviction Notice by Civil Society Organisation	3	2	1	0
3	Lack Of Access to Public Services And Resources	3	2	1	0
4	Heavy Workload	3	2	1	0
5	Lack of Employment Security	3	2	1	0
6	Occupational Health Hazards	3	2	1	0
7	Language Barrier	3	2	1	0
8	Stigma and Discrimination	3	2	1	0
9	Dependence on Informal Financial Services	3	2	1	0
10	Cut Throat Competition in the Market	3	2	1	0
11	Lack Of Safety Net or Support System	3	2	1	0
12	Late or Non Repayment of Credit	3	2	1	0
13	Extortion in Custom Check Points	3	2	1	0
14	Police Raids and Extortion	3	2	1	0
15	Socio Cultural Adjustment	3	2	1	0
16	Homesickness	3	2	1	0
17	Motherhood	3	2	1	0

38. How often do you resort to the following strategies when confronted with problems?

Sl.No	Coping Strategy	Always	Mostly	Sometimes	Never
1	Praying	3	2	1	0
2	Seek Help from Friends or Relatives	3	2	1	0
3	Hoping for Better Days Ahead	3	2	1	0
4	Reduce Consumption	3	2	1	0
5	Purchase Items on Credit	3	2	1	0
6	Borrow Money from Friends or Relatives	3	2	1	0
7	Income Diversification	3	2	1	0
8	Ask for Advance Wage	3	2	1	0
9	Adaptation to local culture or custom	3	2	1	0
10	Short Stay With Friends or Relatives	3	2	1	0
11	Support from Relatives in Foreign Countries	3	2	1	0
12	Community Solidarity	3	2	1	0
13	Thrift	3	2	1	0
14	Extra Labour from Family Members	3	2	1	0
15	Upgrade Skill	3	2	1	0
16	Borrow Money With Interest	3	2	1	0
17	Sell Off Personal Assets	3	2	1	0