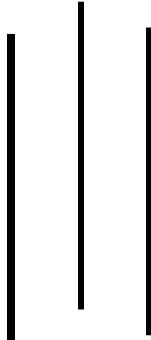


USE OF ACQUIRED SKILLS BY RETURNEE LABOR
MIGRANTS IN THE HOME COUNTRY

(A Case Study of Tilottama Municipality Wards No. 1 And 2)

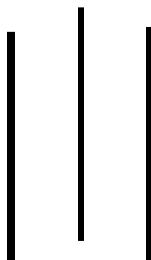


A Mini Research Report Submitted to

Research Management Cell

Rammani Multiple Campus,

Tilottama-5, Rupandehi



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ABSTRACT

This study investigated the extent to which returning migrant workers in Nepal utilized newly acquired skills in their line of employment. The study aimed to investigate the ways in which males and females, as well as salaried and self-employed individuals, apply acquired skills differently, and the obstacles that these returnees encounter during the reintegration process. Seventy-five returnees made up the sample size for the quantitative analysis. After analyzing inferential statistics to characterize the sample, the analysis was extrapolated to the entire population.

Only one-third of the returnees worked in occupations that were similar to what they did when they were abroad, according to the study's findings. Compared to their native country of employment, they employed more of their acquired generic abilities. Based on this, it was determined that two thirds of the returnees were deskilled because they were unable to put their newly learned abilities to good use. Being self-employed accounted for more than one-third of returns, indicating that they would have liked to operate their own firm.

Both genders of returnees employed the gained abilities in a statistically insignificant way, meaning that there was no difference in how they applied the specialized and general hard skills. In contrast, the difference between returnees who were wage-employed and self-employed was statistically significant. The utilization of acquired soft skills was high among returnees, both male and female. The study discovered that the returnees' inability to re integrate into society was hampered by administrative, political, economic, and technological obstacles. Additionally, there is a statistically significant difference in the hurdles related to education, politics, and the economy for both male and female returns.

According to the study, if returnees are employed in a related field at home, the human capital they have learned in the host nation adds value to their employment. However, because they were not hired for similar positions upon their return, most of the returnees were unable to put their newly gained talents to use. In order for returnees to contribute to the country's economic progress, politicians must create programs and policies that protect them from losing their skills.

Keywords: Acquired Skills Use, Return migration, Reintegration, Barriers in Reintegration.

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TABLE OF CONTENTS

ABSTRACT.....	ii
ACKNOWLEDGMENTS	iii
TABLE OF CONTENTS	iv
ACRONYMS.....	vi
CHAPTER I.....	1
INTRODUCTION	1
1.1 Background.....	1
1.2 Statement of Problem.....	3
1.3 Objective of Study	4
1.4 Signification of This Study	4
CHAPTER II.....	5
LITERATURE REVIEW.....	5
2.1 Theoretical Background.....	5
2.2 The Labor Migration Context	7
2.3 Global Context	8
2.4 Nepali Context	9
2.5 Skills, Knowledge, and Attributes Transfer	10
2.6 Labor Migration and Human Capital Gain	11
2.7 Return Migration and Reintegration	13
2.8 Discussion	14
CHAPTER III	16
RESEARCH METHODOLOGY.....	16
3.1 Research Design.....	16
3.2 Methods of Data Collection	16
3.3 Sampling Technique: Random Sampling.....	17
3.4 Statistical Tools	17
3.5 Reliability and Validity	18
3.6 Data Collection Procedure	18
3.6 Data Analysis and Interpretation.....	19
CHAPTER IV	20
DATA PRESENTATION AND INTERPRETATION.....	20

4.1 Demographic Information of Returnees	21
4.2 Years Spent in Foreign Employment	23
4.3 Skill Acquisition at Work Abroad	23
4.4 Employment Status in Homeland after Returning from Abroad	25
4.5 Satisfaction Working in Nepal and Opinion on Retention.....	27
4.6 Findings.....	29
CHAPTER V	30
SUMMARY AND CONCLUSION	30
5.1 Summary	30
5.2 Conclusion	31
REFERENCES.....	33

ACRONYMS

ASEAN	Association of South-East Asian Nations
DoFE	Department of Foreign Employment
EU	European Union
FEB	Foreign Employment Board
FY	Fiscal Year
GCC	Gulf Cooperation Council
GCM	Global Compact on Migration
GDP	Gross Domestic Product
GFMD	Global Forum on Migration and Development
GoN	Government of Nepal
ILO	International Labor Organization
IMF	International Monetary Fund
IOM	International Organization for Migration
MoLE	Ministry of Labor and Employment
MoLESS	Ministry of Labor, Employment and Social Services
NLFS	Nepal Labor Force Survey
NSTB	National Skill Testing Board
OECD	Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development
RPL	Recognition of Prior Learning
SAARC	South Asian Association of Regional Cooperation
SPSS	Statistical Package for the Social Science

CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

1.1 Background

The desire to sustain oneself while relocating from one's place of origin to a highly industrialized metropolitan center with cutting-edge infrastructure and technology is one of the economic considerations that drive migration. It's better now and gives opportunities to make good money. There are differences in earning facilities, and migrants have picked up a range of new skills and knowledge during their employment. The nation's socioeconomic progress has been influenced both directly and indirectly by the new technology, knowledge, expertise, remittances, skills, and experience that they bring back. The latest technological advancements, knowledge, and skills support enterprise operations. In the nation, it creates new employment. The entrepreneurial activities of self-employed people boost economic growth, reduce poverty, and provide basic needs for better living standards in their nation.

The study examines the challenges faced by labor migrants who are returning home when attempting to find employment in a related sector and how they use the skills they have acquired there. It highlights the abilities that returnees bring with them and the causes of their difficulties reintegrating into their home society.

In quest of greater chances for survival, people travel around the world on a regular basis, whether temporarily or permanently. Migration theory uses push and pull variables to describe this migration. Attractive features including better work opportunities, better socioeconomic circumstances, and advantageous political circumstances in the target nation are examples of pull factors. Conversely, push factors include issues such as internal disputes within the country of origin, natural catastrophes, unemployment, and poverty (CHOBANYAN, 2013). Furthermore, existing global networks based on kinship ties, cultural affinities, and historical links have an impact on migration (Bhattarai, 2005). People are exposed to new experiences through this movement, and it also aids in their surroundings adaptation.

The International Labor Organization (ILO) projected that 164 million of the estimated 258 million foreign migrants were labor migrants ((ILO), 2017). Nepal is similarly impacted by the phenomena of global migration. Due to political instability, extreme poverty, and high unemployment rates, millions of young people in Nepal were forced to consider finding work overseas.

Currently, around a thousand young Nepali people go for labor migration every day. The Nepal Labor Migration Status Report (2022) shows that between 1994/95 and 2021/22, 5,508,593 labor permits were granted, or 86% of the total, for employment in Malaysia and the states of the Gulf Cooperation Council (GCC). Data from the Department of Foreign Employment (DoFE and its 2022–23 report) showed that 64% of young people from Nepal who traveled were unskilled or low-skilled workers, according to 2020 research by the Ministry of Labor, Employment and Social Service [MoLESS]. This demonstrates the vulnerability of Nepali migrant workers who accept precarious jobs overseas in the lack of training and experience.

According to IOM (2021), migrants give their home country human, financial, and social capital. Individual migrants first acquire new abilities and information, as well as a sense of self-assurance in life that non-migrants might not have. Second, upon returning home, migrants make financial contributions to their households and their native nations. Third, immigrants help their family's social capital in their home society grow as well. Demotivation and expectations are major factors in the emergence of work migration.

Foreign Policy of Nepal (2077) described that mainly focused on effective utilization of skills and knowledge, technology, remittances, and expertise linked with economic development related activities for productive work and to reduce poverty, increase national GDP, and uplift the livelihood of the household family in the National Interest. It promoted self-employed and connection as an entrepreneur after return to Nepal. It is efficient skills and knowledge training facilities in the destination country. It promoted financial literacy knowledge to migrant workers and their families, allowing them to make the most productively use of remittance. Nepal Migration Report (2022) reflected that, Nepal welcomed back 203,934 returnees in 2020/21 and 470,978 in 2021/22. About 59 percent of lower-skill migrants are abroad, but about 26 percent of returnees are from India and Malaysia followed by 43 percent from gulf countries.

1.2 Statement of Problem

Returning migrants support local economic growth by generating new job opportunities and options for self-employment through the creation of businesses and productive labor. Additionally, it backs government policies and programs. They assist in obtaining various skills and experience certificates when returning to the country of origin from overseas, which facilitates self-employment or the search for well-paying positions domestically.

Thus, among all migrant workers, the return workers capture all the potential productivity obtained from leveraging remittances both financial and social as well as experience, skills, exposure, networks, and information earned abroad for local and national development. Remittances improve the standard of living for migrant households in their home countries, decrease poverty, and grow the gross domestic product, among other aspects of the national economy.

Remittances at the macro level are utilized for entrepreneurship and profitable investments in business sectors, which boost employment prospects and the general public's income. The government finds it difficult to support migrant worker families' training and employ remittances for profitable investments. After that, people can start modest businesses. Supporting the development of new talents, employment possibilities, and assistance in enhancing the national economy is a positive reflection.

The contribution of skill and knowledge, return migrant workers, and economic productive sectors in the homeland.

Does knowledge and skill of returnee migrant workers have a significant and positive causal relationship with productive sector in homeland?

To carry out the research, the following research questions were formulated:

1. To what extent do returnees use their skills in their home country?
2. Is gender significant in determining the use of acquired skills and the barriers returnees face while using those skills?
3. Do the use of acquired skills and barriers returnees face while using those skills differ significantly between wage employed and self-employed?

1.3 Objective of Study

The purpose of this study was to examine the use of acquired skills by the returnees in the home country.

1.4 Signification of This Study

The favorable effects on family families and the country's policy plan are reflected in the study's significance. Through the caliber of trained people resources for entrepreneurship operations in the country, it represents *Sammrid Nepal Sukhi Nepali*, on protect the Nepalese people, the government of Nepal has similarly given priority on creating jobs within the country. It helps to raise the standard of living for families and the GDP (gross domestic product) as a whole. As the acquired new abilities and information are exchanged, the origin and destination countries' socioeconomic progress is aided. It will support the revision of proposed policy information and international employment policy. This study will help to change how families in the country meet their basic necessities for subsistence. It will make recommendations for development plan strategies at the local level and prepare action plans for local government levels. In order to achieve a happy and prosperous Nepal, it helps to support the reintegration of returnee migrants and the growth of entrepreneurs for their active involvement in the national economy.

CHAPTER II

LITERATURE REVIEW

To understand the dynamics of labor migration in both the home and host countries, the relevant literature was reviewed. Aspects of skills, such as those acquired in the home country before leaving for employment abroad, those acquired at work in the host country, how acquired skills are used for livelihood purposes after returning home, and challenges faced by returnees when attempting to apply their acquired skills at work were all specifically addressed in the literature review. From a theoretical perspective, the relationship between migration, the skills acquired in the host country, and their effect on the home country's socioeconomic environment were investigated.

To identify the policy need, this chapter also reviews the literature and provides empirical data on reintegration programs in Nepal. The researcher's understanding and reviews were followed in the construction of the theoretical and conceptual framework that guided the study endeavor.

2.1 Theoretical Background

The theoretical backdrop of this study took labor migration ideas into account when analyzing human capital. Theodore W. Schultz originally used the term "human capital" in the 1960s. According to Wall (2017), the Chartered Institute of Personnel and Development (2017), and Schultz (1981), human capital was redefined as "all human abilities to be either innate or acquired; Attributes... which are valuable and can be augmented by appropriate investment will be human capital." The significant correlation between innate talent and skills learned via formal education or on-the-job training is known as human capital (Blundell, R., Dearden, L., Meghir, C., & Sianesi, B., 1999) (Fleischhauer, 2007).

Hagan and Wassink (2016) mentioned that the transfer of human capital, in terms of social and technological skills gained at work, forms the career pathway of returnees. Thus, different types of human capital like knowledge, skills, and attributes are acquired in different situations while working abroad. The returnees transferring these capitals to the home country is a benefit for the nation. Numerous theories on labor migration consider human capital gain as one of the important

aspects. This study has considered Cassarino's classification of migration theories in terms of human capital.

Human capital brought by the returnees was conceptualized by Cassarino (2004) from the standpoint of labor migration. The author explained that from the perspective of neoclassical economics, skills learned overseas cannot be applied to local needs and, therefore, cannot be brought back to one's home country. From a structuralism perspective, on the other hand, skills learned overseas cannot be applied because of structural constraints, such as different political, economic, social, and cultural factors that limit an individual's ability to make decisions and do not alter their social status upon return. Thus, according to both structural and neoclassical economic theories, the human capital supplied by the returnees may be squandered for a variety of reasons.

An alternative explanation provided by Cassarino (2004) was that the new economics of labor migration views the human capital brought by returnees as an acquisition of skills that vary with the prospect of return; transnationalism theories view human capital gain as skills and education gained abroad aid in career ladder upward mobility; cross-border social network theory views it as knowledge, experiences, and values along with skills acquired abroad that are contributing factors for securing a successful return. The human capital that labor migrants gain in their new country of residence is also regarded by labor migration theories as being essential to the socioeconomic advancement of their home nation.

The returnee's decision to remain or immigrate, however, is based on the value of the learned human capital in their native nation.

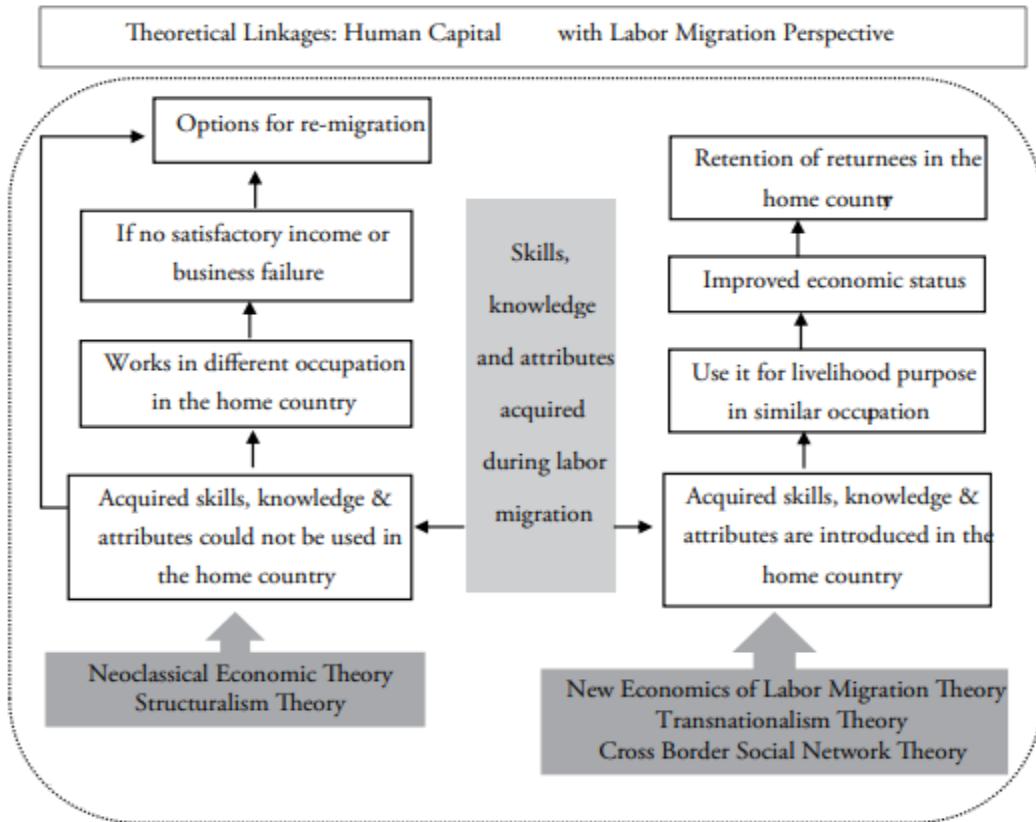


Fig 1 : Theoretical Linkages

Source: (Haas, 2007)

The above theoretical links diagram illustrates how labor migrants bring human capital—skills, knowledge, and qualities—back to their home countries from their employment there. The gained human capital can be utilized by the repatriates in the domestic work market. With their expanded knowledge and abilities, individuals can provide new techniques, technologies, and high-paying skills that will encourage them to remain in their native nation. However, for a variety of reasons, many returns are unable to use their abilities in their own country. In these situations, they either choose to re-migrate or enter professions for which they lack the necessary training.

2.2 The Labor Migration Context

After emerging from the African continent, humans are supposed to have traveled over the world, suggesting that migration has always been a significant aspect of human history (ILO, 2013). According to Kariyil et al. (2020), migration is the act of a group or an individual moving from one location to another in order to satisfy social and economic requirements. Markley (2011) goes

into detail about many categories of migrants, including laborers, sojourners, refugees, asylum seekers, and diasporic migrants. According to Wahba, (2014), migrants who temporarily leave their home country in order to settle in wealthy host nations where they can make money and gain knowledge, and skills are classified as labor migrants or economic migrants.

This demonstrates how a wide range of factors, including ecological, economic, educational, political, social, and personal decisions, have an impact on the nature of migration. Even though both wealthy and poor people migrate, poverty, unemployment, and a lack of opportunities in one's own country are the main factors driving labor migration, according to several academic works. People who have no other options in their native country migrate in the hopes of earning more money, improving their standard of living, and saving enough to begin working when they return. International labor migration benefits developing nations economically, but because of associated physical, cultural, and psychological issues, it is frequently viewed as a loss from a sociological perspective.

2.3 Global Context

In its evaluation of the countries of origin of international migrants in 2024, the UN noted that, with 104 million labor migrants, Asia accounted for 43% of all international migrants in 2015. Europe came in second with 62 million migrants, followed by Latin America and the Caribbean with 37 million migrants. India alone had the world's largest diaspora with 16 million migrants, and Mexico accounted for 12 million migrants (Wickramasekara, 2011)(Williams, 2009).

The number of global population mobility is depicted in the statistics above. Because of the extreme poverty in the region, many people migrate from South Asia, which is home to many heavily populated countries, to work abroad. The 1970s Gulf Cooperation Council (GCC) oil boom sped up infrastructure building projects, necessitating a large influx of foreign labor (Ministry of Labor and Employment [MoLE], 2016). South Asia still maintains a cyclical migration system and depends on the GCC labor markets for fixed-term contracts, despite the fact that recent political unrest and the dramatic drop in oil prices have reduced the demand for labor migrants (Trifan, 2015) . As a result, people migrate for a variety of reasons to meet the supply and demand of the countries.

To suit their demands, a lot of people relocate multiple times. According to Segal (2016), circular migration benefits both the sending and receiving countries. The host countries benefit from circular migration because it keeps labor migrants from permanently relocating there, which would have put them in danger on a sociocultural level. The countries of origin benefit from the constant remittances sent to support their families and gain from skilled labor in terms of human capital. Therefore, regardless of one's circumstances, rich or poor, educated or uneducated, talented or unskilled labor migration is regarded as a global phenomenon. It frequently lasts just temporarily. After they have enough money, the migrants use the money they have made in the wealthy host nations to settle down and return home to live with their families.

2.4 Nepali Context

The nation's inability to use the seaport poses a serious obstacle to Nepal's economic growth. India and China, two sizable neighbors that force many Nepalis to move, have a significant impact on the political and economic life of the nation. Nepalis from the hills moved to Lahore and subsequently the northern part of Punjab, India, between late 1800 and early 1900, first to join the British army and then the Indian army (Gurung, 2010). India has been the most sought-after location for Nepali nationals to migrate abroad for work because of its open borders and lack of official labor approval procedures. People who lived in high mountains and the Newar population in the Kathmandu Valley were mobile due to the trans-Himalayan commerce.

Other locations, like Malaysia and the GCC countries, have grown in popularity since the early 1990s and have received 86.42% of labor migrants (MoLE, 2018). Since it began issuing labor permits in 1994–1995 the DoFE has issued 5,308,593 labor permits. Just 4% of these were female. However, 95.72% of those with poor levels of education and skill credentials were men (MoLESS, 2020). Since many illegal migrants travel through India without labor licenses, their numbers are unreported. The aforementioned data does not encompass the seasonal migrants who travel to India because both countries lack a proper tracking mechanism.

Korea and Japan are also well-liked travel locations. Many, however, are unable to travel because of strict labor movement regulations. Eastern European nations including Poland, Turkey, Portugal, and Romania are seeing a recent increase in labor migration. These nations serve as entrance points for people who want to migrate permanently to wealthy nations like France,

Germany, and Spain, which are highly ranked in the human development index and offer greater employment prospects.

The main source of foreign exchange earnings in Nepal is the remittances sent home by labor migrants. In 2018–19, Nepal received remittances totaling NPR 879.3 billion (USD 7.8 billion), contributing 25.4% to the country's GDP and placing it fifth among remittance-receiving nations worldwide with 55.8% of all households in the nation receiving remittances (International Monetary Fund [IMF], 2019). The families of the migrants mostly use the remittances for consumption, debt repayment, and the acquisition of gold and fixed assets.

Nepal is a nation that exports low-skilled labor. Because they are mostly unskilled, most Nepali migrant workers send home very little money in the form of remittances. According to Department of Foreign Employment (DoFE) figures, 64% of Nepali labor migrants left the country in 2017–18 as unskilled or low-skilled workers. Women typically favor domestic and caregiving employment, while males work in the construction and hospitality industries. Employers frequently take advantage of unskilled laborers by forcing them to labor in horrible conditions.

Therefore, it is necessary to send more skilled workers and skill labor migrants in accordance with the demands of the destination labor market before they look for job abroad. By putting these measures into practice, they would raise their income and stop workplace exploitation.

2.5 Skills, Knowledge, and Attributes Transfer

It's critical to comprehend the ideas of migration and skills because the focus of this research was on how labor migrants applied their new abilities. People are constantly picking up new abilities, traits, and knowledge. When discussing labor, skills, knowledge, and qualities were all employed interchangeably. When operating in a genuine workplace, these were thought to be necessary components.

The ability to carry out a certain mental or physical task that can be gained through vocational training or practice is referred to as a skill by the National Centre for Vocational Education Research (NCVER], 2013). Hard and soft skills are divided into two categories by the European Union Commission: hard skills are technical abilities that are general (applicable to related jobs) and specific (useful just for certain tasks). Conversely, soft skills refer to more general abilities

such as language, manners in the office, communication, etc. that support employees in achieving higher levels of performance at work.

According to the United Nations Educational, Scientific, and Cultural Organization (UNESCO, 2015), beliefs, feelings, and thoughts shape characteristics like behaviors, learning capacities, and communication skills. It is clear from the definitions that traits, knowledge, and skill are interdependent. The worker needs the necessary abilities and expertise to complete the task at hand.

It's common for knowledge and abilities acquired in an educational setting to be difficult to use in the business. According to the EU Commission (2015), this variance results from a mismatch in skills (over- or under-skilling) between the talents that employees possess and the skills that employers require. Both vertical (where the skill level is higher or less) and horizontal (where the education or skills acquired are inappropriate for the job) skill mismatches are possible.

Acquired knowledge, abilities, and qualities can be applied in academic settings or in the workplace through real-world work experience. In the context of labor migration, peers and supervisors help workers develop and transmit skills, knowledge, and qualities. As a result, the migrants must apply their newly learned talents in new contexts when they return home.

Due to their outside job experience and newfound talents, returnees were found to have more skilled workers in Albania than local workers (Kule et al., 2002). The length of time spent working overseas has an impact on skill transferability and acquisition in both Pakistan and Tunisia (Ndreka, 2019). This demonstrates how transferable experiences and skills are based on the working environment. It is unclear exactly what kinds of abilities, knowledge, and qualities employees obtain overseas and how these apply to the local environment in Nepal. Because of the dissimilar settings in the home nation, the knowledge and skills obtained in the advanced technologically advanced host countries are frequently called into doubt.

2.6 Labor Migration and Human Capital Gain

People bring their knowledge and abilities from their host country with them when they return. They also pick up new skills in the host nation concurrently. People's learning processes and the

formation of human capital are dynamic and influenced by the environments in which they are exposed.

According to Duleep and Regets (2002), it's critical that individuals leave their home country with a set of skills so they may pick up new ones in their new country. According to a study on Mexican immigrants employed in the US, workers discovered that while 30% of their newly acquired talents were applied in the workplace, 70% of their obtained skills were beneficial. Unfortunately, some of the abilities they had learned back home were outdated and suffered from deskilling.

According to a study by the Safer Migration Project in Nepal (2018), labor migrants can function effectively in their new nation and eventually acquire more complex technical skills by completing a month-long basic occupational training. The general and specialized skills acquired before to migration contribute value in enabling individuals to do their jobs satisfactorily, even while skill gaps were seen between the actual skills performed at work in the host nation and the skills obtained in their home country. Their outdated technology and low economic standing at home may not be very helpful in the office, but it makes it easier for them to pick up new skills there.

According to Friedberg's 2007 research review, workers who stay longer in their host nations are able to learn more sophisticated technologies, social skills, and how to make more money. According to Wahba (2011), labor migrants first receive lower pay, but over time, those salaries are raised (Wahba, 2014). It is evident from this that employers undervalue the human capital acquired in the nation of origin. With experience, migrants eventually negotiate higher pay, benefits, and working conditions with their employers (Wahba, 2015). Additionally, the migrants' exposure to many cultures, social mores, and political philosophies increased their understanding.

In contrast, the World Bank (2013) found that migrant workers with high school degrees were employed as semi-skilled and unskilled workers, indicating that education and skills acquired in the home country do not always help migrant workers secure good jobs overseas. In the Gulf Cooperation Council (GCC) and Malaysia, skilled migrants from Nepal are frequently treated poorly and paid poorly. However, following a cycle of migration, their degree of general and technical education determines whether they are regarded as skilled or semi-skilled workers, and the job experience they have overseas enables them to negotiate for higher pay and respectable employment.

According to Dustmann and Glitz (2011), labor migration causes brain drain from a sociological standpoint because it removes young, competent workers who might not be able to employ their skills when the country needs them. Nonetheless, the Migration Policy Institute notes that, rather than being seen as a brain gain for the host country or a brain drain for the home country, international migration is increasingly seen as brain circulation (World Bank, 2013). It should be remembered that host nations also employ unskilled or low-skilled laborers to perform menial tasks in addition to skilled laborers. Since it costs money to skill up unskilled personnel, employers discourage doing so. Rather, the expectation is that the migrants will pick up the skill from their bosses and colleagues at work so they can work well and get paid.

Even if acquiring information in the workplace is the most pertinent kind, economists tend to place more weight on general education, costs, and institute-based learning than on the real process of learning and applying skills (Iskander & Lowe, 2010). As a result, learning at work is frequently overlooked as a human capital gain. Wassink and Hagan (2017) contend that broad observation and more participatory knowledge exchange characterize on-the-job learning, which is superior than formal schooling and institution-based learning when it comes to acquiring human capital.

As a result, since human capital is directly related to labor market demands, it should be given greater weight during labor migration. However, the majority of the time, the talents that labor migrants bring with them are not acknowledged by both nations, diminishing their expertise in the lack of official accreditation.

2.7 Return Migration and Reintegration

A crucial component of labor mobility has been return migration (Maya, 2017; Zhao, 2002). According to Dustman and Weiss (2007), return migration is the voluntary return of migrants to their home countries following an extended stay abroad. Return migration is the term used to describe labor migrants who move overseas in search of employment and come back when their contract ends, or their requirements are met financially after a predetermined amount of time. The migrant workers expect greater opportunities when they return home as a result of their acquisition of enhanced skills and knowledge.

Therefore, the issue of successfully reintegrating the returnees comes along with return migration. Reintegrating returnees is necessary for the stable growth and development of the home country,

according to Gill (2005). According to Wickramasekara (2019), keeping the talented youth requires the effective reintegration of returns into their families and communities. Home nations frequently ignore the problems faced by the returning population.

Return migration offers various benefits in Zimbabwe, including the ability for returnees to impart newly acquired skills to other workers back home (Riley, 2015). Because they are more serious and eager to begin creative work, the returnees are the ones who spur innovation and entrepreneurship. But in Nepal, returning citizens were more concerned with landing a job than starting their own business; they considered starting a business as a need rather than a way to put their foreign-trained abilities to use (World Bank Group, 2013).

Reintegrating returnees successfully into the domestic work market is challenging. When it came to utilizing the resources and skills they had learned in the host nation, adjusting to life with their families, and successfully reintegrating back into their home country, men workers found it easier than female workers (Segal, 2016; Segal & Heck, 2012).

Reintegrating with family and friends can be difficult for those who have returned home after a protracted absence. According to the ILO (2018), there are a number of obstacles to reintegration, including the absence of appropriate laws, policies, and institutions pertaining to return and reintegration; inadequate and ineffective employment services; a lack of knowledge about the services and programs that are available; stigmatization; resource constraints; and stagnant home economic situations.

Reintegrating returnees thus presents difficulties similar to labor migration. Dreams of returnees are frequently dashed when they learn how hard it is to get employment and fit in with their community. Therefore, in order to successfully reintegrate the returnees and maintain the competent youth for the growth of the country, appropriate plans, policies, and implementation techniques are required.

2.8 Discussion

The researcher examined pertinent research on labor migration, skills acquired in the host nation, the application of acquired skills in the nation of origin, and the variables influencing the

application of skills in this chapter. Theory, reintegration strategies, and the practices of labor migrants who are returning to their home countries were examined.

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Skills that are learned can be transferred back to the home country upon return, according to many migration theories, including cross-border social network theories. Furthermore, theories of structuralism address the possibility that skills learned in one nation may not be applicable in another. Initiating income-generating activities that result in circular migration or remigration is hindered by multiple obstacles faced by them. In order to prevent remigration, policy studies of several nations highlight how crucial it is to implement suitable reintegration programs. Reintegrating returnees is important, and Nepal's Foreign Employment Policy states as much, but practical implementation has not yet begun. The policies and the reintegration process's execution are therefore at odds with one another.

CHAPTER III

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

The research approach used to address the research problems is covered in this chapter. Research design, the study's field, demographic and sample selection procedures, data collection methods, data analysis and interpretation, validity and reliability, and ethical considerations are all included in the content.

3.1 Research Design

The study's objectives were to assess how widely skills are used and look at the obstacles that prevent their application in the community. In order to describe the patterns in which the returnee workers applied their newly acquired abilities, a survey study design approach was employed. The researcher's preparation of a thorough justification was aided by the survey approach (Pandit, 2017; Flick, 2011). Asking questions and receiving answers from the replies was helpful. The researcher planned to report on the degree to which the learned skills were applied, the obstacles identified in the sample of returnees, and the relationship hypotheses that were put to the test. Additionally, certain open-ended questions were included in the study to gather data pertinent to specific research issues. In order to find patterns in the attitudes, beliefs, actions, and traits of the sample population, a survey questionnaire was created and subsequently distributed to the general public (Creswell, 2009).

3.2 Methods of Data Collection

The technique used to collect data for a study is crucial since it directs the investigation of the research question. According to Creswell (2012), in order to collect quantifiable data, the set of questionnaires must answer every research topic that includes both closed- and open-ended questions. A semi-structured questionnaire including 80% open-ended questions to get insight into and consider respondents' opinions and 20% closed-ended questions covering the quantitative data was created. Through a field visit, the researcher used a sample survey approach to gather data from a sizable group of returnee migrants who arrived back before October 2023. A focus group discussion was also scheduled by the researcher to confirm the quantitative results.

Study Area

The study was conducted with the returnees in Tilottama Municipality Rupandehi districts keeping in mind the diversity of migration. Two highly migrating wards of Tilottama Municipality were selected for detail analysis.

3.3 Sampling Technique: Random Sampling

The researcher used a random sampling method from the returnee data received from the Tilottama Municipality. The researcher divided the population based on gender, and from the Hills, and Terai and then used random sampling from each subgroup of the population (Creswell, 2012). According to national data, out of the total migrating population, only about 5% were females. The researcher took 30% female and 70% male in his sample based on the number of male and female returnee data received from the Tilottama Municipality. Taking a fair percentage of females helped to analyze the perspective of female returnees towards the use of skills and employment opportunities.

3.4 Statistical Tools

The researcher collected data using a questionnaire and analyzed the data by using statistical tool Statistical Package for the Social Sciences software (SPSS). The researcher analyzed the collected data in SPSS, ensured all the fields were filled up and cleaned the data carefully. Since the researcher opted for the quantitative design, the data analysis was expected to give meaning to the derived statistics through reasoning. The SPSS software was useful in managing and statistical interpretation of data. Likert scale was generated on each item comprising the preference rating on each question related to the use of the acquired skills and barriers faced while using them in the local contexts.

The ordinal scale measured the levels of agreement or disagreement with the stated questions with the value of mean scores, Standard Deviation, and Cross Tabulations were also applied in the responses. Descriptive statistics were used to describe and summarize the sample data in a meaningful way, but it does not allow to make conclusions beyond the data. Thus, the inferential statistic was used to generalize the findings to the larger population. Two sample T-tests were used to determine if the difference between the means is statistically significant.

3.5 Reliability and Validity

During the study, the researcher took validity and reliability into account. Internal consistency in the questionnaires was taken into account when evaluating the validity of this quantitative study. To ensure the reliability and internal consistency of the questionnaires, the researcher tested them in advance on a target group that was comparable to her own. Because it offered a coefficient of inter-item correlations that assessed the internal consistency between the items, the Cronbach alpha was employed (Cohen, 2007). After calculating the α value from 10% of the samples, the researcher concluded that the generated tools were consistent and acceptable with an internal consistency score of 0.776.

By using appropriate instruments and methodologies in accordance with research questions for data collection and appropriate statistical analysis of the gathered data, the researcher maintained validity through a meticulous sampling process (Cohen, 2007). By measuring every necessary component, content validity was preserved; construct validity was guaranteed by comparing the results to known theories and information; and criterion validity was guaranteed by using other reliable assessments of the same idea (Creswell, 2012).

3.6 Data Collection Procedure

After the visiting municipality office secondary information was collected and formulating questionnaire actual data collecting begins. The interactions also made it easier for the researcher to comprehend the issues facing the returnees. The gathering of the data took place in the first week of September 2024. The study area had a total population of 5162, and 996 were employed abroad.

A number of factors were included in the information gathered, including the demographic makeup, the type of skills training received in the home country, the use of remittances, migration to the home country's cities, occupational sectors, present employment status, acquired skills in the host country, the degree to which acquired skills were put to use, and the obstacles that prevented skills from being used effectively.

For several variables, the total number of returns was less than the entire sample size. For instance, out of 100 respondents, 6 of them were employed in the same industry, responded to the question

about how much hard skills were used. A total of 75 respondents were surveyed regarding their usage of soft skills and barriers. These respondents comprised those who were jobless but looking for employment ($N = 8$), those who were working in different occupations ($N = 37$), and those who were working in the same occupation ($N = 30$). Since they were irrelevant to our goal, the nearly 25 individuals who were unemployed and had no interest in working were excluded. Within the allotted time, the researcher obtained the final data in SPSS program.

3.6 Data Analysis and Interpretation

With the use of SPSS software, data was gathered from the chosen representative sample and examined. The degree of agreement or disagreement with the above questions was measured using an ordinal scale. It was believed that one might gauge the returnee migrants' level of preference or experience using a scale from strongly disagree to highly agree. For the analysis, open-ended questions were quantified. This demonstrated that attitudes and preferences are quantifiable.

For data analysis, descriptive statistics including each response's mean scores, standard deviation, cross-tabulation, and frequency distribution were used. The average value of the responses was produced by the mean value. The values from Best and Kahn (2006) were used to analyze the mean value. It assigned a score. Moderate: 2.34-3.67; High: 3.68-5.00; Low: 1-2.33. The standard deviation calculated the responses' dispersion. The similarity of the sample population's replies was indicated by a number that was closer to the mean, and vice versa. The association between several factors was examined using cross tabulation. Additionally, it demonstrated how correlations differ between variables.

CHAPTER IV

DATA PRESENTATION AND INTERPRETATION

The data that was gathered is presented, examined, and explained in this chapter. The following research questions were supported by the data that was gathered.

1. To what extent do returnees use their acquired skills in their home country?
2. Is gender significant in determining the use of acquired skills and the barriers that returnees face while using those skills?
3. Do the use of acquired skills and barriers returnees face while using those skills differ significantly between wage employed and self-employed?

Four components were used to analyze and evaluate the primary data:

- i. Demographic data
- ii. How much the returnees have used the newly acquired skill back home.
- iii. Elements influencing the returnees' ability to apply their learned skill in homeland

In order to comprehend the transfer of acquired skills, it is crucial to analyze the migration process, which encompasses the skills acquired prior to migration, the skills acquired during foreign employment, and the utilization of the acquired skills in wage and self-employment upon their return from foreign employment.

According to Hagan and Wassink (2016), skill transfer is gendered and reflects the differences in the occupations that males and females in the US pursue. The researcher has included gender as an independent variable in light of the variations in skill utilization and challenges encountered in the job. In order to better understand how returnee respondents applied the skills they had learned while working and conducting business in Nepal, a thorough analysis of the questions pertaining to skill use was conducted with those who were employed in the same profession (both wage and self-employed).

4.1 Demographic Information of Returnees

This section discusses the demographic information like age, sex, ethnicity, general and technical education background of the graduates has been presented descriptively.

4.1.1 Age, Gender, and Ethnicity of the Respondents

We looked at the age group, gender, and ethnicity statistics as well as the corresponding percentages. Of the data, there are 20% (n=15) females and 80% (n=60) males. As per the 2020 Nepal Migration Status Report, the proportion of female migrants is slightly higher than 5%. To improve the data's representativeness and offer more precise gender-related results, the researcher chose 20% of female respondents in proportion to the returnee data that was acquired from the Foreign Employment Board (FEB).

The returnees' age distribution illustrates the trend of migration during the prosperous economic times. Considering two or three migration cycles, the majority of labor migrants opt to work abroad when they are young, as evidenced by the 60% (n=60) of respondents who were between the ages of 35 and 49. Of the respondents, 5.33% (n=4) belonged to the 25–34 age bracket, while 34.67% (n=11) were over 50. The average age of the male and female was 44 years and 34 years, respectively. The movement of young people during their prime working years is a sign that the government is not producing enough jobs, which drives up the unemployment rate.

Overall, 40% (n=30) of the respondents belonged to Janajati or ethnic groupings, followed by Brahmin/Chettri (53.33%; n=40) and Dalits (6.67%; n= 5). The Janajatis made up about 33.33% (n=20) of the male population; Brahmin/Chhetri made up 90% (n=36) and Dalits made up 6.67% (n= 4). In terms of females, 26.66% (n=4) were Brahmin/Chettris, 6.67% (n=1) were Dalits, and 66.67% (n=10) were Janajatis. This demonstrates that there was a significant labor migration rate among males in the Brahmin/Chhetri communities, followed by Janjati and Dalits. In a same stratum, Janjati saw a high labor movement rate among women, with the Brahmin/Chhetri group and the Dalit population following. Of the total responders, 33 (44%), or 44%, returned after a year, and 42 (56%), after two years.

4.1.2 Level of Education Received

Table 1 : Respondents' Gender & Level of Education

General Education	Gender	Number	Percent
Illiterate	Male	1	1.67
	Female	2	13.33
	Total	3	4.00
Basic Education (1-8 grade)	Male	12	20
	Female	4	26.67
	Total	16	21.33
Higher School (9-12 grade)	Male	41	68.33
	Female	9	60.00
	Total	54	72.00
Bachelors and above	Male	2	3.33
	Female	0	
	Total	2	2.67

Source: Field Survey

As seen in Table 1, just 2.67% (n=2) of the respondents had a bachelor's degree or above, while 72% (n=54) of the respondents had completed higher secondary school. A total of 4% (n=3) of the respondents were illiterate, and 21.33% (n=16) of them had only completed basic education. Of the female respondents, two had a basic education level of 26.67%, four had a higher secondary education level of 60%, and nine had no education beyond a bachelor's degree. Of the total, 13.33% of the female respondents were illiterate. Given that many are persuaded to travel as domestic workers, the high migration rate of women with lower levels of education helps to explain the possibility of exploitation in the new nation. Among the male respondents, 1.66% (n=1) had no formal education, 20% (n=12) had some schooling, 68.33% (n=41) had higher secondary education, and 3.33% (n=2) had at least a bachelor's degree. Of the respondents who were male, 98.33% were literate, but most of them had only completed high school.

The data also shows that when they were unable to complete their education past grade 10 due to a lack of a conducive learning environment in the villages, financial hardship that forced them to

work rather than study, and/or pressure from family members to enter the workforce, 25.33% (n=19) of the respondents chose to work abroad.

4.2 Years Spent in Foreign Employment

The average amount of time respondents spent working overseas was 4.6 years, with a standard deviation of 3.1 and a minimum and maximum of eight months and eight years, respectively, for each respondent. This demonstrates that there are dramatic differences or outliers in the data, which is generally distributed. 74.67% (n=56) of the respondents who were migrants spent two to seven years abroad, showing that they migrated in three cycles to earn enough money to start a business when they got back home.

According to the report, 18.67% (n=14) of the respondents said they had worked overseas for eight to eighteen years. It was discovered that the respondents chose to return to working abroad after living in Nepal until they had depleted all of their savings. If the respondents' family established a profitable business, they were less likely to immigrate.

4.3 Skill Acquisition at Work Abroad

It was noted that 62.67% (n=47) of the respondents had no prior training or orientation; instead, they picked up skills over time by watching their peers work and picking up new skills by doing. Of them, almost 16% (n=12) claimed to have been mentored by their supervisors instead of receiving official training. The 4% (n=3) of respondents who lacked formal training were led by their colleagues. Merely 16% (n = 12) of the workforce underwent training; of these, 10.67% (n = 8) obtained technical training relevant to their line of work, and 6.66% (n = 5) got solely occupational health and safety and orientation at work. This shows that the majority of the migrants learned skills informally. The employers were not keen to provide training on the skills they would be performing. The vulnerability of the migrants increases when they are neither well educated nor received proper skill training both in the home country and at work abroad.

Preparation of Work Plan before Returning Home

Table 2: Work Plans Made Abroad and Employment Start after Return

Scale Total	Respondents	Made Plans Abroad			Total Working
		Within 3 Months	Within 6 Months	6 Months to 1 Year	
Strongly disagree	9.33% (7)	14.28% (1)	28.57% (2)	14.28% (1)	57.13% (4)
Disagree	40% (30)	30% (9)	10% (3)	10% (3)	50% (15)
Neutral	4.00% (3)	Null	33.33% (1)	33.33% (1)	66.66% (2)
Agree	36% (27)	59.25% (16)	14.81% (4)	7.41% (2)	81.47% (22)
Strongly agree	10.67% (8)	37.50% (3)	25% (2)	12.50% (1)	75% (6)
Total	100% (75)	38.67% (29)	16% (12)	10.66% (8)	65.33% (49)
Mean = 3.08 ; SD=1.23					

Table 2 indicates that, with a mean value of 3.08, the respondents were somewhat ready for their return before leaving for home. The standard deviation of 1.23 indicates that there are disparities among respondents' opinions due to the dispersed data.

In total, 46.67% (n=35) of the participants had devised arrangements for their return home, whereas the remaining participants had no plans at all. Out of the responders, only 10.67% (n=8) claimed to have a meticulously planned work schedule. Even when they were still employed overseas, they began preliminary work by speaking with friends and family. Of them, 36% (n=27) concurred that they planned while away from home but did not start them. Of the responders, 4% (n=3) had some generic plans but were unsure about them. 40% (n=30) of the interviewees denied having made any preparations, but they did consider what they would do when they returned. Merely 9.33% (n=7) of the participants expressed no consideration whatsoever regarding their plans for returning. They would spend the money they brought, therefore they would often remigrate since they were unprepared for what would happen to them when they returned.

But as soon as they got home, they started worrying about how they were going to pay their bills and what kind of job to take. They started to realize how they could support themselves. While the participants began their job search prior to their return home, only 38.67% (n=29) of them were

able to successfully reintegrate into the workforce within three months of their return. However, 10.66% (n=8) of them required longer than six months to obtain employment, and 16% (n=12) of them began working after six months.

Examining the connection between the job plan they established overseas and their current employment status, of the 10.67% (n=8) who firmly agreed to make plans, 62.5% (n=5) began working within six months of their return, and 75% (n=6) of them were employed within a year overall. 74.06% (n=20) of the 36% (n=27) who consented to make plans began working within six months, and 81.47% (n=22) of them were employed within a year overall. Just 66.66% (n=2) of the 6% who were neutral began employment within a year.

Comparably, just 40% (n=12) of the respondents who denied having made any arrangements were discovered to be employed within six months, and only 50% (n=15) of them were employed within a year. 42.85% (n=3) of the 9.33% (n=7) of them who strongly disagreed with ever having thought of any intentions began working within six months of their return, and 57.13% (n=4) of them were employed within a year overall. This explained why individuals with well-thought-out strategies for their economic reintegration overseas had a 30% higher employment rate than those without any such plans. Within six months of their return, the majority of them found employment.

4.4 Employment Status in Homeland after Returning from Abroad

After coming home, it was discovered that the labor migrants were working for pay, working for themselves, being unemployed but looking for work, and not looking for work. In addition, they were divided into two categories: those who worked for pay and those who worked for themselves, either in the same or a different profession than they did while working overseas.

4.4.1 Waged Employment, Self-employment, and Unemployed

Table 3: Respondents' Employment Status in Nepal after Return

Respondents' Employment Status in Nepal	Gender		Total			
	Male		Female			
	Number	Percentage	Number	Percentage	Number	Percentage
Waged Employment in Same Occupation	14	23.33%	2	13.33%	16	21.33%
Self-employed in Same Occupation	12	20%	2	13.33%	14	18.67%
Waged Employment in Different Occupation	8	13.33%	1	6.67%	9	12%
Self-employed in Different Occupations	11	18.34%	2	13.33%	13	17.33
Unemployed, Searching for Work	9	15%	1	6.67%	10	13.33%
Unemployed, Not Searching for Work	6	10%	7	46.66%	13	17.33%
Total	60	100%	15	100%	75	100%

The employment status data in Table 3 above shows only 70.67% (n=53) of the respondents were working. Out of these, 33.33% (n=25) were in wage employment and 36% (n=27) were self-employed. The respondents accounting for 17.33% (n=13) were not interested in working and were not searching for jobs. Only 13.33% (n=10) of respondents reported they were unemployed but were searching for jobs. The data explains that more returnees preferred their self-business to wage employment when they returned home because they had financial capital for investment. Self-

employed migrant workers worked in sectors such as agriculture, animal husbandry, poultry, retail shop, construction, hotel business, grocery, and vegetable shops.

The respondents accounting for 40% (n=30) worked in the same occupations they worked abroad. Of them, 21.33% (n=16) were in wage employment and 18.67% (n=14) were self-employed. On the other hand, 29.33% (n=22) of the respondents reported they worked in different occupations, i.e., 12% (n=9) reported in wage employment, and 17.33% (n=13) were self-employed. This shows that those who worked in other occupations were mostly engaged in business.

Concerning female respondents, 53.33% (n=8) were not employed and only 46.67% (n=7) were working. Among these working women, 26.67% (n=4) were self-employed and only 20% (n=3) of them were in wage employment. Compared to females, only 25% (n=15) of the male respondents were unemployed. Out of 75% (n=45) working males, 38.33% (n=23) were self-employed and 36.67% (n=22) were engaged in wage employment. This explains that after returning, women preferred to be self-employed because they did not find a similar occupation they worked abroad in the proximity of their residence and women had family obligations that restricted them from wage employment. For males, interest in wage and self-employment are similar.

The data also reveals that 43.33% (n=26) males were working in similar occupations compared to just 26.67% (n=4) females. This indicates that the work males were engaged in abroad is more suitable in Nepal than for females. The majority of female returnees worked as cleaners and domestic helpers. These vocations are stigmatized in society and are not yet established as industries.

4.5 Satisfaction Working in Nepal and Opinion on Retention

Few open-ended questions were asked to understand the respondents' opinions on skill certification, strategies to reintegrate the returnees in the community, returnees' expectations, and their interest in re-migration. The data received was quantified for easy assessment. Strategies to assess the gap were also identified and explained.

4.5.1 Satisfaction in Working in Nepal:

Out of 60 respondents who were working, 78.33% (n=47) said that they were satisfied working in Nepal and this shows a high level of satisfaction in their work and being together with the family. The mean value of 3.69 shows high job satisfaction working in Nepal with a standard deviation of .913 depicting the majority of the working respondents having the similarity in opinions on working in the home country.

4.5.2 Proactiveness in Taking Training to Enhance their Existing Skills and Certification:

Out of 60 respondents, only six respondents took training to boost up their careers. This explains that either the respondents were not interested in training, or they did not have access to information about the suitable training to reskill and upskill their existing skills to work in Nepal.

Only 3.33% (n=2) of respondents were found to have taken NSTB skill certification after they returned. Of all, 28.33% (n=17) respondents did not know about the skill tests conducted by NSTB. Although 40% (n=24) of them heard of the NSTB skill test, they did not know how to proceed. Out of 68.33% (n=41) respondents who did not take any skill test, 65% showed interest in undertaking a skill test and receive a national certification if they were given the opportunity.

Though the percentage of those who have acquired skill certification is quite low, looking at the interest of the respondents to participate in the skill test for national certification, the returnees valued skill certification as it adds value to their career. Hence, it is important to recognize the acquired skills of returnees through skills certification that would help the returnees and contribute to their lifelong learning.

4.5.3 Support Required to Improve the Work:

Out of 75 respondents, 6.67% (n=5) of the respondents expressed that they did not require any kind of support as they were self-sufficient. Of all, 61.33% (n=46) of the respondents felt that they needed supports like easy and low-interest loans to expand their work and business. On the other hand, 32% (n=24) of the respondents felt that they needed to study further to increase their educational qualifications required for business expansion.

4.6 Findings

This chapter analyzed the data collected through the questionnaire. Each of the variables was assessed and compared from the gender and employment perspectives. The findings were that most of the returnees had less education and negligible skills training before migration. Most of them learned new skills in their work informally. Only 45% of females were found to be working and many worked in occupations that were not related to the skills they acquired abroad. Only 35% of the returnees worked similar occupations such as construction, mechanical, driving, beautician, hospitality, etc.

The respondents found generic skills more useful in the home country than the specific ones because the technologies adopted by the destination countries and Nepal varied. Soft skills were found to be useful on the work front. The independent t-test was conducted to assess the significance between gender and the use of acquired skills; and the nature of employment and the use of acquired skills. The test showed a significant difference in generic and specific hard skills used by male and female respondents, whereas in terms of occupation, wage employed were found to be using more of both skills than self-employed. In the case of soft skills used by males and females, the difference was found to be statistically significant. Females used more soft skills than males did. In terms of wage-employed and self-employed workers, soft skills were found to be used equally.

Regarding obstacles, there was a statistically significant difference between males and girls in terms of the obstacles related to education, politics, and the economy. The obstacles felt more powerful by male returnees than by female ones. Only socio-cultural barriers revealed statistically significant variations between wage and self-employed individuals.

CHAPTER V

SUMMARY AND CONCLUSION

5.1 Summary

The data reveals that 20% of the respondents are females, and 80% are males. The majority of labor migrants opt to work abroad when they are young, with 60% of respondents aged between 35 and 49. The average age of the male and female is 44 years and 34 years, respectively. The majority of respondents belonged to ethnic groups such as Janajati, Brahmin/Chetris, and Dalits.

The level of education received by respondents was low, with only 2.67% having a bachelor's degree or above, and 72% having completed higher secondary school. The data also showed that 25.33% of respondents chose to work abroad when they were unable to complete their education past grade 10 due to a lack of conducive learning environment, financial hardship, or pressure from family members.

The average time spent working overseas was 4.6 years, with dramatic differences or outliers in the data. 74.67% of migrants spent two to seven years abroad, demonstrating that they migrated in three cycles to earn enough money to start a business when they returned home. 18.67% of respondents worked overseas for eight to eighteen years, choosing to return to working abroad after living in Nepal until they had depleted all of their savings.

The study reveals that only 2.67% of respondents had a bachelor's degree or above, while 72% had completed higher secondary school. The high migration rate of women with lower levels of education contributes to the possibility of exploitation in the new nation. Male respondents had 1.66% no formal education, 20% some schooling, 68.33% higher secondary education, and 3.33% having at least a bachelor's degree. 25.33% of respondents chose to work abroad when they couldn't complete their education due to lack of a conducive learning environment, financial hardship, or family pressure. The average time spent working overseas was 4.6 years, with 74.67% migrants spending two to seven years abroad. 18.67% of respondents worked overseas for eight to eighteen years, choosing to return to work abroad after depleting their savings. Skill acquisition at work abroad was informally learned, with 62.67% having no prior training or orientation. This

vulnerability increases when migrants are neither well educated nor receive proper skill training both in their home country and at work abroad.

The employment data shows that only 70.67% of respondents were working, with 33.33% in wage employment and 36% in self-employment. The majority of respondents were not interested in working or searching for jobs, with more returnees preferring self-employment due to financial capital. Self-employed migrant workers worked in various sectors, while 40% worked in the same occupations they worked abroad. Female respondents were more likely to be self-employed, with 26.67% working and 20% in wage employment. Male respondents were more likely to be self-employed, with 38.33% working in self-employment and 36.67% in wage employment.

Female returnees worked as cleaners and domestic helpers, which are stigmatized in society and not yet established as industries. Out of 264 working respondents, 78% were satisfied with their work and family life. Only six respondents took training to enhance their skills and certification, indicating a lack of interest in training or access to suitable training. Only 3% of respondents took NSTB skill certification after returning, but 65% showed interest in participating in the test for national certification.

Support was required for improvement in work, with 61% requiring easy and low-interest loans and 36% requiring further education to increase their educational qualifications for business expansion.

5.2 Conclusion

In conclusion, the data highlights several important trends and challenges faced by labor migrants. A significant proportion of the respondents were young, with the majority being male and belonging to various ethnic groups. Education levels were generally low, with only a small percentage holding higher education degrees. Many migrants chose to work abroad due to limited educational opportunities and financial hardship. The average time spent working overseas was approximately 4.6 years, with most migrants working abroad in cycles to save enough money to start businesses upon returning home. However, a lack of formal training and education made them vulnerable to exploitation and limited their ability to progress in their careers.

Employment data revealed that self-employment was a popular option among returning migrants, especially females, though many worked in low-status or unskilled jobs. Despite this, a large proportion of respondents expressed satisfaction with their work and family life. However, the need for support in terms of accessible loans and further education to improve business opportunities was evident. Additionally, there was a lack of participation in skills certification, although interest in obtaining such certification was noted. This study underscores the need for improved educational opportunities, skills training, and financial support to enhance the prospects of returning labor migrants.

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