

**THE IMPACTS OF MIGRATION OF  
CHITRALESE TO PESHAWAR:  
A SOCIOLOGICAL ANALYSIS**



*By*  
**AKHTAR ALI**  
Ph.D. (Scholar)

**INSTITUTE OF SOCIAL WORK,  
SOCIOLOGY AND GENDER STUDIES,  
UNIVERSITY OF PESHAWAR  
(2014)**

**THE IMPACTS OF MIGRATION OF  
CHITRALESE TO PESHAWAR:  
A SOCIOLOGICAL ANALYSIS**



*A Thesis submitted to the University of Peshawar in partial  
fulfillment of the requirements for the award of the degree of*  
**DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY IN SOCIOLOGY**

**INSTITUTE OF SOCIAL WORK,  
SOCIOLOGY AND GENDER STUDIES,  
UNIVERSITY OF PESHAWAR  
(2014)**

## APPROVAL SHEET

**RESEARCH SCHOLAR**

**Akhtar Ali**  
Ph.D. Scholar

---

**EXTERNAL EXAMINER**

---

**SUPERVISOR**

**Prof. Dr. Rashid Khan**  
Professor in Sociology,  
Institute of Social Work, Sociology & Gender Studies,  
University of Peshawar.

---

**COORDINATOR SOCIOLOGY**

Institute of Social Work, Sociology & Gender Studies,  
University of Peshawar.

---

**DIRECTOR**

Institute of Social Work, Sociology & Gender Studies,  
University of Peshawar.

---

**Dated**

---

## **ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS**

I have no words to express my intimate sense of gratitude to Allah (J.S.H), who bestowed upon me the ability and potential to complete this thesis with full devotion and success.

I am thankful to my supervisor Professor Dr. Rashid Khan, Institute of Social Work, Sociology and Gender Studies, University of Peshawar, whose proper guidance and supervision has supported me in the completion of this research work.

It is indeed a great honor for us having Professor Dr. Mussawir Shah, Chairman, Department of Rural Sociology, Agricultural University Peshawar. He proved to be really nice and hardworking teacher. I feel our vocabulary is limited in finding words to thank him for all his kind attitude, constructive criticism, critical suggestions and consistent advice throughout the course of this study.

I am particularly thankful to Mr. Muhammad Sadiq Ameen and Mr. Fazal, who helped me in identifying and approaching the concerned people for data collection.

I do not have the words to express thanks to Dr. Shakeela Akhtar, for her cooperation. She educated me throughout the study for a better result and provided me moral support and encouragement in the completion of this research work.

I am particularly thankful to all of my colleagues who were cheerfully available all the times to help me.

At the end I am highly indebted to my parents, brothers and sisters whose encouragements always took me out of all my worries and problems.

**The Researcher**

## ABSTRACT

The present study was carried out to look into the prospects of migration as phenomena from Chitral to Peshawar with the aim of improvement in livelihood through the study objectives, like assessing the socio-economic status of the migrants, studying migration in the perspective of its pull and push factors, the remittances received from these migrants and along with effects on the relative life standards through exploring the relationship between push and pull factors. All those working in the Chitrali market, Peshawar were the potential population of the study with association to their relatives back in Chitral. A sample size of 500 Chitrali (mostly workers and businessmen) as household heads, 250 each from Peshawar and Chitral were randomly selected from the total population of 5000. Data were collected through a well designed interview schedule while ensuring the incorporation of each aspect of the study. Frequency distributions were carried out to dig out the information in percentage while for ascertaining the relationship between dependent variables i.e. (Income and family size) were cross tabulated through association test ( $\chi^2$ ) with the independent variables. The study found that majority i.e. (74.4%) respondents were from the joint family system with monthly income ranges from (10001–20000) constituted the majority i.e. (78.4%) respectively. At bi-variate level, pre-migration occupation, family size, purpose of spending money, comparison between present and previous job, reason of migration to Peshawar, reason of leaving native area, wife execution of responsibilities at home and development of new habits of the migrants at the point of destination were found significant ( $p < 0.05$ ) with family type (dependent variable).

Moreover, push factors, pull factors, monthly expenditure, saving, amount of money being spent were found significant ( $p < 0.05$ ) with income (dependent variable). In addition, T-test statistics were also carried out to measure the pre and post migration effects. It was found that amount spent on health, housing conditions, education of children, household goods, using agricultural inputs, spending on daily use items, livestock, indoor recreational facilities, women education, income, fuel consumption, and telephone/ cell facilities were found highly significant ( $P = 0.000$ ).

The study concluded that people (migrants) had low income level at their native areas. Laborers were in abundance, as agriculture was the dominant profession. Formal education was of trivial nature while religious education in dominance was the most push factors. Upon the migration, migrants were found successful in enhancing their income, sending money (savings) to native areas. Remittances, received were contributing towards spending on children education, health and on over all improvement in the socio-economic profile of the respondents. Moreover, the income was found to be used for enhancement in educational excellence of the kids of migrants, along with structural modification in house construction and infra-structural development. In addition, only agricultural back at Chitral, migration made them exposed to

joining new and innovative interventions in terms of jobs. Moreover, matriarchal traits were also discovered, where women were performing a leading role in the absence of males at their relative households. Based on the findings of the study, a well designed institutional mechanism of predicting and regulating the migration phenomena with sequential out-comes, designing a policy of development of the native areas in light of remittances received, while focusing on structural and functional growth of the area including construction of infrastructure facilities through provision of complete package were suggested as policy recommendations in light of the study.

# CONTENTS

Acknowledgements.....	i
Abstract.....	ii
Contents .....	iv
List of tables.....	vi
<b>Introduction.....</b>	<b>1</b>
1.1 Background.....	1
1.2 Statement of the problem.....	6
1.3 Objectives of the study.....	7
1.4 Significance of the study.....	7
1.5 Delimitation of the study .....	8
1.6 Conceptual Framework.....	9
<b>literature Review.....</b>	<b>10</b>
<b>Materials and Methods.....</b>	<b>38</b>
3.1 Universe of the study .....	38
3.2 Sample size .....	38
3.3 Showing the distribution of respondents and their characteristics.....	39
3.4 Tools of data collection.....	39
3.6 Analysis of data.....	40
3.6 Area profile of district Peshawar .....	42
3.7 Area profile of Chitral district.....	44
<b>Results and Discussion.....</b>	<b>52</b>
4.1 Uni-variate analysis of Peshawar (Destination Area).....	52
4.2: Uni-variate analysis of Chitral district (Native area).....	109
4.3: Bi-variate analysis.....	149
4.4 T-test statistics (2-Tailed) .....	173
4.5 Focuss Group Discussion.....	180
4.5.1 A Focus Group Discussion in Chitrali Bazaar Peshawar.....	180
4.5.2 Focus group discussion in District Chitral.....	181
<b>Summary, conclusions and Recommendations .....</b>	<b>185</b>
5.1 Summary .....	185

Section-A: Uni-variate Results of Peshawar .....	185
Section-B: Uni-variate Results of Chitral .....	188
Section-C: Bi-variate.....	190
Section-D: Paired-test/T-test.....	193
5.2 Conclusion .....	194
5.3 Suggestions .....	197
<b>References.....</b>	<b>200</b>
Annexure.....	232
<b>Interview Schedule.....</b>	<b>232</b>

## **LIST OF TABLES**

Table-1:	Frequency and Percentage Distribution of Respondents on age group .....	52
Table-2:	Frequency and Percentage Distribution of Respondents on the basis of Family Type.....	54
Table-3:	Frequency and Percentage Distribution of Respondents on the basis of education.....	55
Table-4:	Frequency and Percentage Distribution of Respondents on the basis of Years of Schooling .....	56
Table-5:	Frequency and Percentage Distribution of Respondents on the basis of family strength.....	57
Table-6:	Frequency and Percentage Distribution of Respondents on the basis of Marital Status before migration.....	58
Table 7:	Frequency and Percentage Distribution of Respondents on the basis of No. of children in the family after migration.....	59
Table-8:	Frequency and Percentage Distribution of Respondents on the basis of Occupation of the household .....	60
Table-9:	Frequency and Percentage Distribution of Respondents on the basis of Pre-migration Occupation of the migrants .....	61
Table 10:	Frequency and Percentage Distribution of Respondents on the basis of comparison of the previous job with the present.....	62
Table 11:	Frequency and Percentage Distribution of Respondents according to Age at the time of their Migration .....	63
Table 12:	Frequency and Percentage Distribution of Respondents according to the sources that helped migrants at the time of Migration to Peshawar .....	64
Table 13:	Frequency and Percentage Distribution of Respondents according to help extended at the time of their Migration .....	65
Table 14:	Frequency and Percentage Distribution of Respondents according to expected time of return for migrants to their native village.....	66

Table 15:	Frequency and Percentage Distribution of Respondents on the basis of Push Factors of migration.....	67
Table 16:	Frequency and Percentage Distribution of Respondents about (Pull factors) of Migration to Peshawar.....	69
Table 17:	Frequency and Percentage Distribution of Respondents according to nature of jobs at present time.....	70
Table 18:	Frequency and Percentage Distribution of Respondents according to the prices of various items made of Chitrali-Pati .....	71
Table 19:	Frequency and Percentage Distribution of Respondents with respect to Hurdles in the way of their business.....	72
Table-20:	Frequency and Percentage Distribution of Respondents according to Satisfaction with their relative jobs.....	73
Table 21:	Frequency and Percentage Distribution of Respondents on the basis of Monthly income at present time .....	74
Table 22:	Frequency and Percentage Distribution of Respondents on the basis of monthly expenditure at present.....	75
Table 23:	Frequency and Percentage Distribution of Respondents on the basis of present monthly Savings.....	76
Table 24:	Frequency and Percentage Distribution of Respondents on the basis of sending money to their Families.....	77
Table 25:	Frequency and Percentage Distribution of Respondents on the basis of Money Sending Purposes .....	78
Table 26:	Frequency and Percentage Distribution of Respondents in light of management of remittances in the household.....	79
Table 27:	Frequency and Percentage Distribution of Respondents in light of the nature and level of their business.....	81
Table 28:	Frequency and Percentage Distribution of Respondents in light of Participation in Socio-political scenario at place of destination.....	84
Table 29:	Frequency and Percentage Distribution of Respondents upon Pick and Drop services to kids after migration at native place	86

Table 30:	Frequency and Percentage Distribution of respondents with relation to caring of non-school children in pre and post migration scenario.....	88
Table 31:	Frequency and Percentage Distribution of respondents about caring of old relatives /parents in pre and post migration scenario .....	90
Table 32:	Frequency and Percentage Distribution of respondents for paying expenses for children in pre and post migration scenario .....	92
Table 33:	Frequency and Percentage Distribution of respondents upon earning family members before and after migration.....	94
Table 34:	Frequency and Percentage Distribution of respondents on handling financial affairs before and after migration .....	96
Table 35:	Frequency and Percentage Distribution of respondents with reference to domestic affairs before and after migration .....	98
Table 36:	Frequency and Percentage Distribution of respondents with reference to Wives responsibilities after the migration of their Husbands.....	100
Table 37:	Frequency and Percentage Distribution of respondents with regard to effects on children at native place due to migration.....	101
Table 38:	Frequency and Percentage Distribution of Respondents according to nature of feeling after their migration .....	102
Table 39:	Frequency Percentage Distribution of respondents according to development of new behavior after migration .....	103
Table 40:	Frequency and Percentage Distribution of respondents with reference to nature of activities performed and being performed .....	104
Table 41:	Frequency and Percentage Distribution of respondents upon the attitude of locals before and after migration .....	106
Table 42:	Frequency and Percentage Distribution of respondents in light of suggestions for improvement of business.....	108

Table-1:	Frequency and Percentage Distribution of households on the basis of relationship with the migrants .....	109
Table-2:	Frequency and Percentage distribution of the households on the basis of type of migration .....	110
Table-3:	Frequency and Percentage Distribution of households in relation to number of migrants.....	111
Table-4:	Frequency and Percentage Distribution of Households in relation to number of Earners .....	112
Table-5:	Frequency and Percentage Distribution of Households in light of source of income.....	113
Table-6:	Frequency and Percentage Distribution of households as per land holding (in jarebs) .....	114
Table-7:	Frequency and Percentage Distribution of households periodical sending of money .....	115
Table-8:	Frequency and Percentage Distribution of households according to dependency on remittances .....	116
Table-9:	Frequency and Percentage Distribution of households according to change in their economic conditions after migration.....	117
Table-10:	Frequency and Percentage Distribution of the respondents per annum spending on Health before and after migration.....	118
Table-11:	Frequency and Percentage Distribution of the respondents per annum spending on Housing conditions before and after migration.....	120
Table-12:	Frequency and Percentage Distribution of the respondents per annum spending on Education of children before and after migration.....	122
Table-13:	Frequency and Percentage Distribution of the respondents per annum spending on women education before and after migration.....	124
Table-14:	Frequency and Percentage Distribution of the respondents pre and post spending on annual basis on household goods .....	126

Table-15:	Frequency and Percentage Distribution of the respondents spending on use of agricultural in-put on annual basis before and after migration.....	128
Table-16:	Frequency and Percentage Distribution of the Households daily items usage per year before and after migration.....	130
Table-17:	Frequency and Percentage Distribution of the respondents spending per annum on livestock before and after migration	132
Table-18:	Frequency and Percentage Distribution of the respondents spending on annul basis on in-door Recreational facilities before and after migration.....	134
Table-19:	Frequency and percentage distribution of the respondents invested money in other business per annum before and after migration.....	136
Table-20:	Frequency and Percentage Distribution of the respondents spending on monthly basis on different fuel before and after migration.....	138
Table-21:	Frequency and Percentage Distribution of the Households on monthly expenses of telephone/cell before and after migration .. .....	140
Table-22:	Frequency and Percentage Distribution of the Households according to amount spent on Toilet facility .....	142
Table-23:	Frequency and Percentage Distribution of the Households according to impacts of decrease remittances.....	144
Table-24:	Frequency and Percentage Distribution of the Households in relation to alternative options if remittances are decreased in future.....	145
Table-25:	Frequency and Percentage Distribution of the Households according to suggestion for further improvement of the business from planners and policy makers .....	146
Table-26:	Frequency and Percentage distribution of the Households regarding suggestion to the government to facilities in transportation .....	147

Table-27:	Frequency and Percentage Distribution of the Households in relation to suggestion from the government of Pakistan in curtailing migration from Chitral.....	148
Table-1:	Relationship between the effects of migration and family type .....	149
Table-2:	Relationship between the effects of migration and family type .....	152
Table-3:	Relationship between the effects of migration and family type. ....	155
Table-4:	Relationship between the effects of migration and family type .....	158
Table-5:	Relationship between the effects of migration and family type .....	161
Table-6:	Relationship between the effects of migration and income ...	163
Table-7:	Relationship between the effects of migration and income ...	165
Table-8:	Relationship between the effects of migration and income ...	168
Table-9:	Relationship between the effects of migration and income ...	171
Table-1:	Comparative analysis and spending before and after migration. . .....	173
Table-2:	Comparative analysis and spending before and after migration. . .....	177

# INTRODUCTION

## 1.1 Background

Migration is the changing of the place of abode permanently or temporarily, for an appreciable duration as in the case of seasonal workers. Migration is used symbolically in the transition from one surrounding to another in the course of human life (Weinberg, 1961). Migration is a global phenomenon with its well-known social and economic implications coupled with other structural characteristics of a country influenced by migration (Khan, 2010; White & Woods, 1980; and Manner 2003), influencing the other allied outcomes (Kosinski & Prothero, 1975; Bhagat & Mohanty, 2009), with determining the developmental milieu based on migration (Mabogunje, 1970; and Zelinsky, 1971). It has two important manifestations, i.e. internal and external. Internal migration is classified into four types on the basis of settlement, status of native and destination places. These four types include rural to rural, rural to urban, urban to urban and urban to rural (Bose, 1974).

In developing countries, there is a big difference in socio-economic indicators of development between rural and urban areas, which often emerge into urban migration, as an outcome of imbalance in socio-economic parameters such as increased population of urban areas, natural growth of population and reclassification of rural areas to urban in the due course of time (Sorensen et al., 2002).

Rural to urban migration has accounted for two-fifth of the total urban growth in developing countries, resulting in over-urbanization, miss-allocation of labor composition, unemployment and underemployment at both points, i.e. point of origin and destination, resulting in high social cost for a country's growing population (Gugler, 1988).

The Push factors responsible for rural-urban migration are unemployment, lack of infrastructure development, poverty, low wages and small size of land

holdings. While the Pull factors are availability of jobs in the factories, shops, offices, buildings and public services, facilities of vocational, technical and higher education, better medical facilities, entertainment facilities, high wages, less arduous nature of work, expanded infrastructure facilities and civic amenities (Chapman, 1969 & 1971; Clarke, 1966; Bogue, 1962; Davis, 1951; Mitra, 1968; Sen Gupta, 1968; and Zachariah 1969 & 1964).

Rural to urban migration not only affects the migrants but also has great influence on areas of origin and destination (Rao, 1981; Hussain, 2001 & Mangalam, 1968). As disclosed by Pearson and Tucker urban unemployment is increasing rapidly due to the continuous migration of a large number of rural workers to the urban areas. In this regard, the urban areas are also facing a lot of socio-economic and environmental problems because of heavy influx of people from rural areas, which, in turn is also adversely affecting the rural areas which are being deprived of a large segment of young people having high work potential (Pearson, 1963; and Tucker, 1976).

The amount of remittances is determined by two important factors, i.e., (1) The income of the migrant and (2) The income of the household. The livelihood of most of the poor families depends on remittances, so the migrants belonging to these families have to send remittances regularly in order to help their families (Connell and Brown, 1995; Stanwix and Connell, 1995). The whole process of remittances is based on the welfare approach regarding the household, community and the economy (Ratha *et al.*, 2011).

The first attempt to show the importance of remittances with firm theoretical basis was made by Lucas and Stark (1985). According to them, the two main motives for remitting are altruism and self interest. But variations in remittances cannot be explained properly by these two motives only, because both the migrants and their families in the native places benefited from migration through contractual arrangements between them. So the motives can be considered as combined elements of altruism and self interest, such as insurance and loan repayments etc (Atamanov & Van den Berg, 2010). They further demonstrated that the choice of remittances is affected by the closeness

of the migrants and their families in the native places. The closer the relationship between migrants and household, the more fruitful will be the remittances.

The individual/ household make a decision to migrate (Clarke, 1966) without the consent of children and wives (McGee, 1975). A variety of factors are responsible for this decision of migration to urban areas (UN, 1980; Bilsborrow et. al, 1984; Gumlech and Zenner, 1996; and Oberai, 1983). The effects of these factors on the decision to migrate to a particular destination are difficult to assess as the migration varies in composition, type and direction (UN, 1984). These factors could be divided into Push and Pull factors which are either economic or non-economic (for example, social, demographic, political and natural). Push factors are related to native areas and are more important in developing countries than Pull factors which are related to destination areas. Disasters, such as flooding, wars, pest invasions and other catastrophes can push people to migrate. The productivity and life conditions in the rural areas are directly related to land degradation and deforestation. Due to bad environmental conditions, agriculture is unable to sustain life. Hence people migrate to urban areas in search of non-farm activities (Kinfu, 2003; Ezra, 2001; and Tesfaye, 2007) have also endorsed this fact while quoting the case of Ethiopia where Push factors dominated the Pull factors.

Low agricultural productivity, low income and underemployment result in poverty in the rural areas. So, in many developing countries, people migrate from rural areas to urban areas in search of better employment opportunities (Oberai, 1983; Okereke, 1976; Charles, 1975; and Herric, 1965). However, it is not so much food which is essential. Freedom of expression rather more is essential for the people. Good governance is the main concern of most governments at least in principle. People feel insecure due to political instability and in the absence of democracy and rule of law. So the people migrate to areas of better political consciousness. In the Third World, the important factors for rural to urban migration are civil war, discriminatory government laws and conflict among ethnic groups (Cox, 1970; Aklilu and

Tadesee, 1993). Frequent wars and unrest on boundaries also Push people towards urban areas.

However, Push factors may also include land scarcity in the face of increased population, stagnancy in and as an outcome of poor government policies (Kebede, 1994). This has led to the increased urbanization, where nice climate, freedom of expression and food security is ensured (Breese, 1969; Lee, 1966; White and Woods, 1980; and Gugler et. al., 1978).

Studies about the causes and consequences of migration are equally important. The effects of migration are dichotomous, i.e. excessive urbanization, income inequalities, unemployment, population mal-distribution and ecological stress on the one hand and, on the other hand, it is important for equilibrating these tendencies by ensuring, economic growth, facilitating industrialization, introducing technological change in agriculture, improving income distribution system and, in general, reorganizing the fact that it is the right of humans to select their own destination for the sake of welfare and economic benefits (Lewis, 1982; and Standing, 1984). A number of economic, cultural, social, demographic and mental impacts on native and destination areas are associated with rural-urban migration.

The primary objective of migration is economic uplift. Technology, capital, knowledge, learning, awareness, services, trade and goods etc are the important assets transferred from urban to rural areas through rural migrants. A study in Jakarta, concluded by Sethurman (1976) showed that nearly two-third of the total migrants was better off after migration than before and they acquired more benefits with a longer stay. Increased capacity in transport and agricultural productivity of the native areas are the after- effects of remittances from the migrants (Adepoju, 1981; Oucho, 1998; and Tiffen, 1995). So migration is a means of diversification of income against risks (Lall et al., 2006).

The populations of both native and destination areas are affected by migration. As shown by (Standing, 1984) rural population is reduced while urban

population is increased by migration of both males and females of reproductive age group from rural to urban areas. As a result, such rural areas are left behind with old age group with low fertility rate (Khinchuk, 1987). Migration is caused by population pressure and is age and sex selective (UN, 1991). As the migrants in the urban areas are younger than the resident population, the result is a rejuvenation of the population structure of the urban areas. The crude birth rate in urban areas is increased as the age selectivity nature of rural- urban migration provides the cities with adults (Montgomery, 2004; and UNFPA, 1996). The urban population age structure is made more conducive to high fertility in Africa because the age selectivity in urban migration is predominantly non-contraceptive societies (UNESCO, 1991).

Migration has also various impacts on urban basic facilities just like its demographic and economic impacts. Congestion and overcrowding, strain on urban social services, pollution, rising food prices, prostitution, increasing violence and diseases are important consequences of migration in urban areas (Adepoju, 1991).

The rise in squatter settlements is the main impact of increase in urban population. High property costs and regulations are the artificial barriers which make it difficult for migrants to rent houses in the urban areas so they are pushed to suburban areas where social services and security protection are comparatively minimum (Zhao, 1999). It also leads to habitual transformation in behavioral patterns under the strong influence of local fashion and other related activities, like festivals etc (Anderson, 2002).

Pakistan is a dynamic society with vibrant system which is greatly influenced by rural-urban migration. The tough living conditions in the villages are mainly responsible for the rural-urban migration to ensure better economic and social environment (Mohammad, 2005).

Around 8.4 percent of the rural population (mainly menfolk) moved from their native land to urban areas for business purposes. Migration pattern in Khyber Pakhtunkhwa was examined by Khatak (2004) using the 1998 census. The

study showed that 647, 356 (3.7 percent) of the total population of Khyber Pakhtunkhwa are permanent migrants; 68.6 percent of the total migrants came from other districts of Khyber Pakhtunkhwa, 14.9 percent were from Sindh, Baluchistan and Islamabad; 12.8 percent from FATA, 0.8 percent from Azad Kashmir and Northern areas. While the remaining 2.9 percent were Pakistanis repatriated from other countries. Of the permanent migrants in Khyber Pakhtunkhwa about 50 percent migrated at least 10 years ago and 15 percent migrated a year preceding the 1998 Census. Most of the migrants are between 10 to 35 years of age. They are usually matriculate and intermediate certificate holders. Most (68.0 percent) of the migrants shifted with their head of household and spouse and children: about 20 percent migrated in search of jobs or they were transferred during their job; 10 percent migrated due to marriage.

## **1.2 Statement of the problem**

The present study entitled “The impacts of migration of Chitralese to Peshawar” A sociological analysis” has been conducted on migration in relevance to Chitral from their native area to Peshawar. The sole objective of the study was to look into the Push and Pull factors of migration along with all possible sociological ramifications. The socio-economic profile in relevance to availability of basic amenities of life like access to schooling, health and communication were some of the areas of interest postulated for the study. Moreover, migration in the purview of Lee theory (1966) was the basic sociological anticipation for reaching into the inferences of the study. These inferences were further strengthened by using various relevant statistical tools. The outcome of the study has been designed as a model, ready for reflections to other parts of the country in particular and in the world in general with similar socio-economic and cultural characteristics.

### **1.3 Objectives of the study**

- 1) To study the process of migration with respect to socio-economic status of the migrants.
- 2) To find out the push factors that has compelled the Chitrali people to migrate from Chitral to Peshawar.
- 3) To explore the pull factors which have attracted the people to migrate from rural areas to urban centers.
- 4) To assess the effects of remittances on the relative families life standards.
- 5) To measure the association between pull and push factors.
- 6) To put forward suggestions for improvement of the situation both in the urban and rural areas, and provide solutions to the problems of internal migration.

### **1.4 Significance of the study**

It could be ascertained from the inferences of the study that the level of disparities both at urban and rural areas would work as a catalyst in terms of Push and Pull factors about large scale migration of Chitrali to Peshawar. Small land holding as 80 percent of the farmers of Chitral district possess less than 2 hectares and only one percent has 2.6 hectares along with hilly agriculture as 90 percent of the population directly depend on agriculture, lack of job opportunities due to non-availability of industrialization and snow fall in winter compelled the Chitrali people to migrate from their native area to other parts of country in search of better living conditions. As the Chitrali products such as Chitrali-patti, caps, woolen shawls, chugha and other garments are popular and liked by people throughout the country so, skilled and ordinary labourers migrate from Chitral to Peshawar and engage

themselves in making and selling of these products. Peshawar is the hub of economic activity and it is a commercial centre of great repute. As such Chitralese products of fine quality are manufactured here. These products are then distributed to other cities in the province and the entire country at large. The income generated by laborers and businessmen from this business is regularly sent by them in the form of remittances to their families back in Chitral district. These remittances are used as a source of fulfilling the needs of daily life. It is hoped that this study will prove contributing in the following manner:

- a) This study will be helpful for policy makers and planners and other stakeholders who are responsible for socio-economic and cultural development of the country while keeping in view the situation of rapid migration in Khyber Pakhtunkhwa.
- b) It will provide a framework for non-governmental organizations who are intending to provide basic facilities particularly in the rural areas.
- c) It will be useful for research organizations dealing with the problems of migration and its associated impacts in the country.

### **1.5 Delimitation of the study**

- a) The various reasons for which Chitralese migrated from district Chitral to Peshawar have been explored in detail.
- b) Only male in the age group of 16 to 60 years have been included in this study.
- c) Migrants were studied in the selected areas of Peshawar where their concentration is observable.
- d) Migrant's closed relatives back in District Chitral were studied to dig out the impacts of migration on their living standards.

- e) Focus group discussion was also carried out at point of native and destination areas to cover the phenomena of migration and its impacts on their families back in Chitral district.

## 1.6 Conceptual Framework

<i>Independent variable</i>	<i>Dependent variables</i>	<i>Out-come variable</i>
Social	Family size	
Economic	Income	Migration
Cultural		
Demographic		

## LITERATURE REVIEW

Despite of migration rate being slowed down in some countries, rural to urban migration has contributed significantly to the urbanization of many countries (Lall, Selod and Shalizi, 2006). One million per annum increase in the number of people living in cities has been noted with almost half of the world population living in cities (Bahns, 2005). United Nations population division (2003) has presented a report, from which 1.8% per year increase in urban population is noted with total population rate being 1 percent annually. This would result in an urban population of 5 billion or 61% by 2030. The rural population is expected to decline from 3.3 to 3.2 billion between 2003 to 2030. History shows that urbanization has also taken place in Europe during the industrialization period. Due to the desire of wealthier population to live in a peaceful environment of countryside, the size of cities in many developed countries has been reduced. As the basic requirements of employees are public transport and individual car ownership, they move to the cities of developed countries where these facilities are easily available. In contrast to the developed countries, the cities of the developing countries are still growing two to five times faster than urbanization of Europe during the industrialization period.

In many developing countries the rate of urbanization is increasing due to the pressure of increasing population on land in rural areas, as opposed to the urbanization in developed countries where it is mainly due to rapid industrialization (Kassahun, 2000). This increase in urbanization is because of push of rural population to urban areas (ILO, 1998). Thus in many developing countries, rural to urban migration are the major cause of increased growth rate of urban population. This is clearly stated by Todaro (1976) as follows:

The natural population increase does not contribute much to increase growth rate of urban areas, rather it is the result of rural-urban migration. This migration has lead to over 50% increase in population of urban areas in many developing countries. Two hypotheses describe Rapid City growth in

developing countries as indicated by (Williamson, 1998); 1) Limited farm acreage cannot meet the demands of rapid rate of population growth and landless people are compelled to migrate to urban areas. 2) Economic forces such as domestic terms of trade squeezing agriculture, the diffusion of technology from the developed world favoring modern large scale urban industries, foreign capital flows into urban infrastructure, housing, power transportation and scale manufacturing pull the migrants to urban areas. The first phenomenon that is increased pressure on farmland in over populated agrarian economies is mainly responsible for increased growth rate of urban areas. Formal sector particularly organized industrial sector has limited demand of labor so excess labor in the urban labor market is accommodated by informal service sector. As the excess labor do not get jobs in urban industries, the rural unemployment is changed to urban unemployment and under employment resulting in explosive urbanization. In the third world rural to urban migration has resulted in two fifth of the total urban growth. (Gugler, 1988), with this migration accounted for at least half of all urban growth in Africa during the 1960s and 1970s and about 25% of urban growth in the 1980s and 1990s (Brockerhoff, 1995). Decrease in population and unemployment are the two important aspects of migration on the native country. It basically moulds and directs the demographic trends with effects of migration magnified in the scenario of regional and local level. Frequent emigration of the young people from one area would reduce the development growth from the point of migration. Some times, it is misunderstood and misleading with the connotation of de-population which would only be applied to an area with specific parameters. It is evident that most area of emigration has witnessed with population increase. If any where de-population has taken place it is the resultant factor of internal migration. On the other hand internal migration helps the family back at home to enjoy a high level of standard on the basis of remittances received (Kerbout, 1990; De Hass, 1998; Koubry, 1995; De Mas, 1990; Fadloulah et al., 2000; Heinemeijer et al., 1976; and Mter, 1995).

On this ground, Oberai (1987) thinks that the rural-urban migration is a population movement from relatively low income rural activities to higher income industrial and service sector so that the level of income of migrants can be increased. Therefore, it is considered as generating various benefits to the migrants.

Similarly, Kebede (1994) argued that land scarcity due to increasing population pressure, unfavorable land tenure system, agricultural stagnation caused by faulty government policies, poverty, environmental crisis and the consequent famine and a set of many other related factors have in single or combination acted as forces pushing people from the rural areas in poor countries.

There is a decline in agriculture sector due to international migration. This decline is caused by the shortage of labor due to the migration of young population. The migrants who return back to their native areas invested in agriculture because of their strong emotional attachment with it (De Mas, 1990; Ferry and Toutain, 1990; and Kerbout, 1990). So, these migrants practices a kind of hobby farming (Bencherifa and Popp, 2000), leading to rituals (De Mas, 1990) or sentimental (Bencherifa, 1991) agriculture. However, there are a number of empirical studies indicating that agricultural investment has been facilitated by international remittances (Bonnet and Bossard, 1973). They further pointed out that in Sous region there is a great improvement in agriculture. Subsistence and commercial agriculture has been greatly developed in other migrants sending regions through the purchase of land, the introduction of new crops and techniques and the establishment of new forms facilitated by migrant's remittances. Migrants show a great interest in investment in the development of new irrigated agriculture (Bencherifa, 1991; Bencharifa and Popp, 2000; de Hass, 2001; and Popp, 1999). The sever drought occured in the mid 1970 have been compensated for by the investment in wells and water pumps by international migrants (Pascon, 1985).

The fact that the impacts of migration are not uniform about time and space can resolve this contradiction in the literature. Although the acute loss of labor

can decrease the agricultural productivity with the degradation of agricultural infrastructure particularly irrigation systems, but in the long term there is a reverse of this agriculture decline through investment in agriculture by the remittances (De hass, 2001). The household of the migrant's losses interest in agriculture but the return migrants participate, in innovative and productive role in agriculture (Bencherifa, 1996; Bencherifa and Popp, 1990). There is no automatic development in agriculture because of migration and in Morocco the long term impact of migration on agricultural development is characterized by a high degree of spatial differentiation. International migrants are attracted to invest where irrigation water is available in sufficient quantities and where large sizes of arable land are abundant and located near to roads and other public infrastructure. In areas where agricultural production can be obstructed by un-certain land property rights, costly water availability, extremely small plot sizes and complex collective regulations regarding maintenance and water distribution, the migrants are least interested to invest in agriculture or even they might partially withdraw from agriculture (Becherifa and Popp, 2000; de Hass, 2001).

Breese (1969) states that over urbanization caused by rural out-migration is mainly the result of the "push" factors from the countryside rather than the demand for labor in the cities, or what is called their "pull" (White and Woods, 1980) and Gugleret.al. (1978) they also emphasized mainly on the "Push" effects of rural areas rather than the urban "bright lights" attraction.

The definition of rural to urban migrants is that used by Wenbao (1996), namely that all the people who leave the countryside for the purpose of gaining better social-economic opportunities in the cities (including towns at the county level) is considered to be rural-urban migrants.

The household is defined by the United Nations system of National Accounts, in its 1993 revision as a small group of persons who share the same living accommodation, who pool some, or all, of their income and wealth and who consume certain types of goods and services collectively, mainly housing and food.

This definition shows that migrants are generally not considered as part of any household in their native lands because they are not sharing housing or food with other members of household even though they may pool a part of their income true remittances (Adams, 2006).

Koc and Onan (2001) focused on the impacts of remittances on the well-fare and life standard of the left behind families in Turkey and showed a positive effect of remittances on household well-fare. They found that there is both direct and indirect effect of remittances on production, income and poverty at the local level. There are three main observations on the role of remittances, first, although remittances might not be exclusively invested in productive business, they can be utilized on investment type goods i.e. housing, education and health. Second, Remittances might not be directly invested in business they may spare other sources of income for such investment. Third, There is a local development in some contexts because of increased spending of remittances on consumer goods, as new retail business may be established due to increased demand for these goods (un-less the goods are imported) and consequently new employment opportunities may be created. For example, in Albania, the building sector has become one of the leading industries in the country because of increase investment of migrant's remittances in housing over the past few years. In general the primary consumption of remittances is daily expenses, non-productive investments such as palatial houses construction and conspicuous consumption which spur inflation without creating employment. In contrast, there are limited productive investments in agriculture or industry. Productive activities in and out-side agriculture are even a source of income for migrant households leading to a dangerous passive dependency on remittance income (Fadloulah et al., 2000; Hamdouch et al., 1979; Lazaar, 1987; Kagermeier, 1997; Mezdour, 1993; and Seddo, 1981). However there is a weak empirical and analytical basis of such assertions. First, only migrants are addressed in majority of studies without inclusion of non-migrants and their households in research population. The assessment of the impact of migration on the economic status, consumption and investment patterns of households is very difficult due to lack of

systematic comparison between migrant and non-migrant households. Secondly, the analytical implications of the fungible nature of the household income are ignored virtually by all studies, because the common household budget includes the diverse sources of household income. It is impossible to earmark remittances, so the common assertion that remittances are utilized on x. y. z. is difficult to sustain. Thirdly, remittances and migrants' activities are more focused by impacts studies without any consideration given to other sources of household income. Both remittances and income from other sources affect each other reciprocally regardless of whether income is pooled or not. Therefore in order to have a proper assessment of the impact of migration consideration could be given to all activities of households "the whole household approach advocated by Taylor (1999). There is no systematic data to support the claims that remittances are primarily utilized for conspicuous consumption such as videos, television, cars, satellite dishes and luxury houses (Ait Hamza, 1988; and Kagermeier, 1997). Such assumptions are made as general impression of the most visible type of expenditure such as luxury houses, and cars, and on other less visible but equally important consumption and investments are more often under estimated. Consequently the assertion that remittances are spent irrationally (Ait Hamza, 1988) on non-productive investments and luxury items can become truths as they are hardly verified empirically. Heinemeijer et al. (1976) conducted a survey in two migrants sending areas i.e. (Rif and the Sous) and concluded that un-favorable economic condition limits the opportunities for the migrants to invest their remittances though they had a high propensity to invest. Most recent studies also showed that migrants are more interested in investment on non-housing sector of the local economy –the service sector in particular than being indulged in conspicuous consumption (de Haas, 2003; Khachani, 1998; and Refass, 1999). According to Khachani (1998) Moroccan migrants have a great diversity in their economic activities. Remittances enabled the migrant's households of most migrants sending areas to construct luxury houses and purchase modern agricultural equipments and agricultural land to establish non-agricultural enterprises, such as those in the tourist sector, to introduce the state-of-the art, stock raising and to set-up small and medium size industries in

food processing and the supply of building materials (Nyberg-Sorensen, 2004; and Bencherifa, 1990).

In Casablanca the migrants have played a vital role in activating stock exchange and managing parts of the privatized transportation system such as public transport services (Nyberg-Sorensen, 2004).

In Southern Morocco, a study was conducted by De Hass (2003) on migration and development. It showed that internal and international migration is very important to establish diversification of livelihood among households through migrant's remittances who migrated to other areas of Morocco or did international migration. The study further indicated that more remittances are received and invested by households of international migrants as compared to those who did internal migration. Many studies conducted on the relationship between internal migration and development showed that internal migration has a major role to alleviate poverty and regional economic imbalance.

Zohry (2002) found that relatives and folk-kin in the new community of destination area are very important to provide help to the migrants in finding a place to live and or employment and in adjustment within the community. Older migrants from their native areas are the main source of residence for new migrants. This leads to a large population of migrants from same background in an otherwise impersonal urban world, so the migrants are assisted in finding jobs in or near by the area where other relatives or friends are working. He further found that migrants undergo circular movement as a survival strategy to meet the basic needs of them and their families left behind in Upper Egypt. Mainly male undergo the circular type of movement as it is socially un-acceptable for women to undertake such migration. According to the study, 75% of the remittances are utilized on daily expenses of household such as food, clothing and health care while constructing new houses and education are second and third items in remittances utilization. Remittances are also spent on improving the conditions of houses, buying land or cattle and buying durable consumer goods.

According to Caldwell (1969) the important economic and financial aspects of migration are remitted money usually cash transfer and goods which the migrants sent back to their families in the native areas. This aspect of migration improves both the wealth status of migrant's families and economy of their country. There are two types of these remittances, those sent by individual migrants (individual remittances) and those sent by groups of migrants (collective remittances). The remittances which are sent through banks, post offices, exchange houses and transfer companies are formal remittances. Several factors determine the size and frequency of these remittances. These factors are the number of migrant workers, wage rates, economy activity in the host and sending countries, the availability of appropriate transfer facility, the number of people accompanying migrants, the level of education, the number of years since migration and the differences in interest rates between sending and receiving countries.

Morocco based survey reported by Hamdouch (2000) has indicated that 34% Moroccans have sent remittances back home. Most of the money is handed down personally by migrants along with taking goods such as electronics appliances, furniture, cars, car spare parts and clothes. Remittances in kind have been estimated 25 to 35 percent for the total money transfer (Rafass, 1999; and Khachani, 2002). Contribution of migration to income generation and poverty reduction are of the highest contributing effect of the remittances on expenditure with variation amongst middle and higher classes. As it is a selective process and migration is not supposed to every class of society (Testas, 2002; Teto, 2001; and Schiff, 1994). According to Fadlollah et al., 2000; Garson and Tapinos, (1981) that migrant's inclination to send remittances back lead the integration and reunification of the family. It initially increases the size of migration and a subsequent growth in relative family later with the peak age ranging between 3 to 12 years which is also supported by Fokkema and Groenewold (2003) that remittances touches its peak almost in two decades. Migrants' social and economic provision is one of the out-come of increasing remittances. It has been noticed that employed migrants remit four times more than un-employed migrants. Home towns and

development of non-governmental organizations are some of the key indicators of the developmental appendix in the Moroccan society on the basis of remittances. Moreover, public infrastructure coupled with social development projects and the established net of schools and mosques are some of the key examples of development of local economies (Lacroix, 2005; and Gallina, 2004).

The limited opportunities for economic advancement and mobility in rural areas are the main reason for migration to urban areas. In rural areas, the economic and political control is mainly in the hands of local landlords which lead to migration to urban areas, causing the urban areas to grow fast than rural areas. More than 150 million international migrants celebrated the turn of millennium out-side their native countries. The main reason of their migration were to work, study or to get-ride of persecution or violence in their own countries (IOM, 2000).

Most of the immigrants are adult people who born and grown-up in one country and have to adjust themselves to the new society in their place of destination. The children who born and grown-up in abroad have to deal with immigrant parents, the youngest immigrants who are 12 years old or younger face the same situation as if they have been born in the country because they are too young to have a strong impact on their own development in their country of origin and they grown-up in the new country. This population is sometimes referred to as 1.5 generation i.e.; mid way between the first generation (immigrants) and second generation i.e.; children of immigrants (Rumbart, 1997).

Hossain and Seeley (2003) found that northwest Banladesh showed around a quarter of chronic poor households embarked on seasonal migration as an important livelihood strategy. Rogaly and Rafique (2003) found that seasonal migration was a more common livelihood strategy among the poorest households in West Bengal rather than the slightly better off, given the arduous nature of the work involved. Seasonal migration often centre's around agricultural work, patterned by the four main seasons when demand for

additional work in rice production is on peak. They further concluded that seasonal migration is for most of those involved, a way of hanging on. For a small minority of migrants with land, supportive family structures, other social assets and/or other sources of income, remittances may remain available for investment in agriculture or to make an impression through conspicuous consumption. They also found that having more than one male wage earner in a household was likely to ensure better use of remittances and improved economic security. The authors also demonstrated the difficulties faced by women in single-earner households when husbands migrate: When men migrate, women in single-earner households must adjust their own behavior as a part of their investment in the social relations through which they access credit and other forms of support during their husbands' absences. Majumder et al. (1996) observed a large proportion of rickshaw pullers undertook regular reverse journeys to villages during the harvest season. Seasonal rural-urban migration also occurs between two villages, where the sending village is typically vulnerable to adverse ecology (high population density) and the receiving one benefit from a relatively favorable location and a land-man ratio that allows the use of more land to cultivate staple foods. The author noted that migration triggered by ecological vulnerability, particularly floods, largely remained temporary and local and/or regional in nature (Afsar and Baker, 1999) Research from the alluvial flood plain (of Matlab Thana) of the country further suggests that seasonal migration by the chronic poor can lead to permanent migration only when the social ties are weak and when family has no labor to participate in seasonal migration (Kuhn, 2000). Both Afsar (2002) and Kuhn (2000) have demonstrated how the presence of more than one adult male member facilitates temporary migration both within and outside the country.

### **Migrants and real estate investments**

Migrant's first priority for investment is the construction of houses (Fellat, 1996). According to Hamdouch (2000) 83.7 percent of the total migrants invested in real estate while 7.5 and 8.8 percent invested in agriculture and

other sectors respectively. The construction of new concrete houses and a decline in a traditional adobe or stone dwelling is the most noticeable effect of international migration. Many villages and migrants sending areas of Morocco have been transformed into towns through their buildings construction (Fadloullah et al., 2000). Universal quest for safety, space, privacy, better health and fewer conflicts explain the importance of housing. Hajjarabi (1988) pointed out that basic hygienic facilities and convenient living is the legal desire of every human. The provision of housing, health care, nutrition and clothing of the households is the first objective of migrants. More convenient living, safety and privacy can be provided by new large towns with better sanitation and other equipment than traditional dwellings. Considering such aspects of well-being as non-developmental shows a narrow view of development. Urban based social scientists show different standard of life than they could desire for themselves by suggesting that rural people should live in their mud-brick houses.

Secondly, the priority of housing investment is explained by specific social and cultural reasons. In extended family one of the men of the household gets remittances instead of the migrants wives. The use of remittances is decided by the in-laws, creating various conflicts between them and migrant's wives (De Mas, 1990; and Hajjarabi, 1995). Hajjarabi (1988) claimed that the top priority of women is the wish to have their own house in personal liberty and privacy away from the authority of their in-laws.

The desire to construct a new house for their own household in near by towns or native village is the main Push factor for migrants' nuclear family. This provides the migrants a chance to escape from the heavy financial burden of supporting large extended families in addition to increasing the personal liberty of their wives. This leads to break-up of extended families in which there are intra-household tensions about remittances use. In several migrant sending areas the nucleation of family life and the physical lifting out of nuclear families have been observed (Ait Hamza, 1988; Berriane, 1996; and de hass, 1990).

Thirdly, housing is a secure capital investment enabling the households to generate additional income through various lease arrangements. In near by towns and cities second and third houses are built. Real estate investment can be highly rewarding investment strategy enabling the migrant households to increase and secure their income particularly, if we take into account the nucleation of family life, high population growth, fast urban growth and the concomitant large demand for housing (Dhonte et al., 2000).The priority to construct houses has potentially high benefits because it is a low risk investment in an insecure investment environment and increase well-being (Ben Ali, 1996).There is a scarcity on the urban housing market due to sustained urbanization, population growth and the general process of household nucleation (Dhonte et al., 2000). Local and regional employment opportunities are increased because of in-direct positive economic effects of real estate investment (Charef, 1986).

### **Migration and education**

According to study conducted in Tangeris the households were motivated to settle in cities due to better educational facilities and not primarily because of better living conditions and investment opportunities, pointing to the generally neglected but quite important impact of international migration on education. The same issue has been addressed in two empirical studies which concluded that when compared with the non-migrants the children of international migrants had higher school enrolment rate and were better educated. Moreover, international migration played an important role in closing the gender gap in education (Berriane, 1996; Bencherifa, 1996; and de Hass, 2003).

### **Migration, inequality and social change**

Migration affected both regional economies and social face of communities. Migration leads to better livelihood and up-ward social mobility for example the construction of a house not only posses economic and well-being value, but it is also an expression of the newly achieved social status. Similarly,

mosques reconstruction and performance of Hajj not only fulfill the religious function of the Muslims but also increases the social prestige of the migrants. Internal and international migration both has played a key role in social, economical and political changes in rural Morocco. In migrant sending areas a decline in ancient socio-ethnic hierarchies can be observed. A new social stratification is created in rural Morocco by migration (Fadloulah et al., 2000; and Crawford, 2001).

According to Jones (1998) intra-community inequality can be accelerated by migration and remittances. This is not supported by statistical data in Moroccan communities. The obstacles to earn an external independent income in traditional peasant society have been overcome by migration in Morocco. The opportunities to earn wages enabled the landless and powerless people to buy lands and get an increasing influence in local affairs (Crawford, 2001; and Otte, 2000). The Haratian a low status ethnic group in Morocco acquired a higher social status through their new income resources (Ensel, 1999; Mter, 1995; and Naim, 1997). As a result the traditional authoritarian structure are rejected by formerly subaltern group. They no more accept to be share cropper or agricultural laborer for traditional elite group (Kerbout, 1990; and De Has, 1998).

### **Migration and the position of women left behind**

Strong patriarchal principles determine the intra-household relations in Morocco, as only the men can migrate alone (Crivello, 2003). To protect the chastity of their wives and daughters the migrants left them behind with their extended family. In this regard de Mass (1990) concluded that the migrants sent remittances to the household of their entire extended family as a reward for protecting their families honor and men were enabled to migrate alone. However, in the past decade nuclear family has become the norm.

The main cause for breakdown of extended families and lifting out of nuclear families has been the tension related to the use of remittances. In Morocco migration has led to increase number of female headed households and

increase divorce rate. According to Fadloullehe et al. (2000) when migrant's households were compared with the non-households the proportion of female headed households is almost double among them.

After the migration of husbands, the authority, power and responsibilities of women are increased (Ait Hamza, 1995; Bouzid, 1992; and Fadlullah et al., 2000). A study conducted on migrants and non-migrants wives by Vanrooij, (2000) concluded that migration has caused a change in gender role, with migrants wives bound to child caring, housing keeping and agricultural work. Although the women authority in child caring and over the use of remittances sent by their husbands has been increased, as soon as their husbands return they resume their position as patriarchs (Vanrooij, 2000).

The wives of international migrants are usually able to get their domestic and agricultural works done by women and men hired by them as they are economically in a better position (Ait Hamza, 1995), so their physical labor burden is reduced as compared to other women (Steinmann, 1993; and Vanrooij, 2000). The power and status of international migrant's wives is also increased when compared with other women. However, according to Steinmann (1993) a number of adverse effects can be seen on women due to their one sided dependency on husband's remittances, as changes in gender role are not always positive; for example when the works traditionally done by males such as harvesting are performed by women after their husbands migration some of the younger men are then not willing to do that work which has now become dubbed "women work".

Moreover, there is emotional burden of increased responsibility on women. According to (Hajjarabi, 1995; and Vanrooij, 2000) most of the migrant wives were not happy with increase in responsibilities and tasks.

Some indirect positive effects on gender roles can also be seen. The daughters of international migrants have better education and migrant's wives are enabled by remittances to shift to the newly constructed houses for their nuclear family and establish independent households, getting freedom and

escape from in-laws control. A demographic transition can be seen due to the migration of Moroccan families to European countries, as there is diffusion and adoption of European marriage pattern, higher age of marriage, small family norms, increased female labor force participation and improved education (Fargues, 2004; and Courbage, 1995).

### **A culture of migration;**

International migration has a great influence on the social and cultural aspects of the native areas of migrants (Kerbout, 1990). Due to the yearly return of migrants during summer holidays, the economic and cultural peak season is now July and August holidays when most of the marriage festivals take place and markets are busier as opposed to the sowing and harvest seasons of autumn and spring (de Hass, 2003). Fadloulah et al. (2000) concluded that due to the exposure and status symbol of migrants, international migration has now become the main avenue of up-ward socio-economic mobility. Most of the young non-migrants wish to marry an international migrant as a mean of migrating abroad (Hajjarabi, 1998). Migration also has some adverse socio-cultural impacts. Local wages and manual especially agricultural labor is disdained by people causing a decline in agriculture (Bencherifa, 1991; and De hass, 1998). As a result of migration culture most of the youngsters think that they can did not build their future in their native areas nor can they bring any improvement over there through their own ability (Schooral et al., 2000). This hesitation to invest and work in their own areas has adverse effects on the regional development. Chattou (1998) argued that migrants un-realistically perceived Europe as the place of unlimited opportunities and the image of living in Europe is exaggerated by media and the migrant's tendency to conceal their failures and show-off during holidays.

### **The impacts of migration on children left behind**

The impacts of migration on children left behind can be categorized into four groups. The effects of migration on child health are analyzed in the first group. The second group looks at the impacts of migration and remittances on

educational attainment of the children left behind. The impact of migration on child economic activities and the risks of child labor are analyzed in the third group. The fourth group looks at the lack of parental care and its effects on children left behind. The psychological effects of lack of parental care on children are investigated in very few studies. The four impacts of migration on children listed above are directly related with one another, as an increase in economic activities is caused by a reduction in school attendance and vice versa, school performance is affected by bad health and additional schooling is required due to lack of parental control (Rossi, 2008). There are negative impacts on the moral and academic education of children due to the absence of parents. Most of the teachers said that children don't prepare their assignment and don't attend their classes regularly as the migrants parents can afford tutors and can pay for additional classes (United Nations, 2008). Although, most of the parents remittances are spent on children education and health the negative impacts of parent absence endangers the educational achievement of children (Bryant, 2005). Migration of one or both parents has psychological and emotional effects on all children irrespective of their ages but they express it in different ways. For example, the young children become attached to their guardians or care takers while the older ones become reserved or withdrawn (United Nations, 2008). The decision making power of left behind children is greatly lower because they are under the authority of both care takers and absent parents (Bryant, 2005).

Migration has a great impact on the economy and social composition of cities, their politics and geographical organization. Not only, the in-migration to cities has a great influence, out-migration has a similar role especially if the social composition of in and out-migration flow is different. The social structure of the cities can be reshaped in a few decades by differential migration leading to social and economic problems related to health care, education, employment opportunities and the provision of social facilities. At the time of independence 1947, the urban population was 5 million (15.4%), that had raised to 23.84 million (28%) in 1981 and 42.45 million (32.5%) in 1998. The total population increased by 55% during the period between 1981

to 1998, in which the urban and rural population increased by 60% and 40% respectively. The rural and urban population during 2003 was estimated to be 89.7 million (61%) and 53.3% million (39%) respectively (Government of Pakistan 2002-2003). Similarly, 8% of the total population (10 million) consisted of internal or international migrants. The positive aspect of migration is to provide employment opportunities to un-employed rural population to reduce pressure on agricultural land and to raise the standard of living of household and community (Government of Pakistan, 1998).

The consequences of migration are very important for the individuals who are up-rooted but there is more pronounced social impact of migration on the demographic composition and social structure of both the native and destination areas. The selective nature of migration especially selectivity by age influences the demographic composition. In the native area, there is loss of young adult population who are added to the destination area because most of these migrants are in their reproductive ages; there is a natural increase in the population of destination area at the expense of the native area. The low probability of deaths of the young adults when compared with the high rate of deaths in the older population further augments the natural increase effect of migration. Migration is a selective process requiring changes and adjustment on the part of migrants. The social, cultural and economic structure of both the native and destination areas is significantly affected where migration occurs with an appreciable volume (John, 2002).

There is a considerable psycho-social impact on children due to migration from native land to the country of destination and also because of exclusion and marginalization in destination areas. There is a gap of contacts between migrant's children and their families and friends as their children leave their community. They also lose their customs and traditions in destination area; they need to adapt new life style, language and culture. As the children become accustomed to the new circumstances more quickly than adults, which create conflict between them and their families. The more the social and cultural differences between the country of origin and destination, the more

intensified these factors and are exacerbated by the conditions (poverty and un-employment) that leads to the beginning of migration process (James, 1997; Sluzki, 1979; and Hicks et al 1993).

Remittances are an important source of income for families of migrants. The negative aspect of migration is the movement of agricultural labor population, skilled population and non-skilled population to big cities. It has led to shortage of labor and delay in harvesting process and has placed pressure on civic institutions and has created problem of housing which is consequently raising the prices of houses and properties in urban areas. Un-planned growth of the cities is caused by industrial revolution in modern era. The people from other parts of the country shift to that area and investment money in purchase of suitable land increasing the cost of property leading to high rent in developing areas. As a result, the poor people who migrate from rural areas to cities for earning bread and butter are compelled to live in slum by facing a lot of problems leading to mass rooming growth of slums in the developing countries (Muhammad, 2006).

Due to scarcity of data in Pakistan, there is no extensive research on internal migration. To study child mortality, reproductive health, employment, Poverty and child schooling reliable data have been generated through household surveys during the last two decades, but most of the surveys have not focused on migration within the country, i.e. internal migration. To understand the reason and direction of internal migration, the major source has been the population censuses. After a gap of seventeen years, in 1998, the last population census was carried out, the birth place of life time migrants from rural to urban areas has not been identified by this census, making the analysis of direction of internal migration impossible. No major survey concerning migration could be carried out after 1979 population, labor force and migration survey. A very brief but useful model on migration that has focused on the duration of residence with information on place of birth has been provided by few rounds of labor force survey (LFS) and the 1998-99 Pakistan Integrated Household Survey (PIHS). Some recent studies have utilized these surveys (Khan and Shahnaz, 2000; and Akram et al., 2002).

Migration is a dynamic process due to scarcity of financial and social resources to live at their places of birth, the option of migration is available to poor people. In Pakistan, the overall impacts of internal migration on the household well-being indicators such as consumption level, infant mortality and nutrition is not substantial for a number of reasons. In rural areas, employment opportunities are less and wages are low but still a great majority of migrants move to these areas. For the well-being of these migrating households even a long stay at their destination at rural areas may not be effective. Those migrants, who move to urban areas usually live in urban slums, get low paid jobs and thus they are absorbed in the informal sector. It has been commonly observed that the female members of the poor families who have moved to large cities usually work on very low wages as domestic workers and thus live in very bad conditions in slums (Sadaqat, 1992).

The 1998 Population census was utilized by Karim and Naser (2003) to study the inter-provincial and inter-districts patterns of migration in Pakistan. The information relating to the place of birth and place of destination of every migrant living out-side his or her native place was provided in detail by this census. Over-half of the total life time migrants in the country were inter-district migrants. Inter-provincial migrants constituted about one-fourth while those who migrated from abroad Pakistan comprised about one-fifth. As compared to 1981 census, the volume of migration has been slightly increased during the past ten years as shown by the study, but there was a decline in the percentage of migrants in the total population. The internal weaknesses of criteria, defining those migrants who have crossed the boundaries of districts is one of the major reasons for the reported slowing down in the number of migrants. There is no record on intra-districts migration due to this reason. In the urban areas of Punjab and Sindh, there is a high percentage of long term, i.e. more than ten years migrants while in urban areas of Khyber Pukhtoonkwa and Baluchistan this percentage is comparatively low. As compared to non-migrants or long term migrants, i.e. less than 10 years are more educated. Administrative and other related services are performed by over-half of the recent migrants in the urban areas. The non-availability of information related

to rural-urban migration is one of the major weaknesses in 1998 censuses. So, rural-urban direction of movements is impossible to analyze from 1998 censuses.

To examine the migration pattern in Baluchistan Chudry (2004) utilized the 1998 censuses, Almost one-third of the total internal migrants who moved from one province to another were presented across the provinces as shown by this analysis, in which five percent (0.1 million) were received by Baluchistan, (47.4) percent which is slightly less than a half of the inter-provincial migration originated from Punjab. (0.6) percent of the total inter-provincial migrants comprised the inter-provincial migration from Baluchistan, out of which half were settled in Sindh and the remaining 48 percent in Punjab. In Sindh and Punjab, the migrants from Baluchistan comprised 5 percent and 15 percent respectively. The migrants who came to settle in Baluchistan from Punjab, Khyber Pakhtunkhwa and FATA and Sindh were 58 percent, 31 percent and 11 percent respectively.

The pattern of migration in Punjab was examined by Naeem (2004) utilizing 1998 censuses. A great majority of Punjab population, i.e. (90.89) percent was within their native districts and provinces while percentage of migrants was (9.9) percent. Two-third of the migrants was enumerated in different districts of Sindh province. There was a continuous trend of out-migration leading to loss of population. Majority of the migrants originated from Punjab and migrated to other provinces while the number of migrants who choose Punjab as destination was less as shown by recent migration data pertaining to migrants with less than 10 years of continuous residence.

Migration patterns in Sindh province was analyzed by Rukanuddin and Chaudhry (2004) using the 1998 censuses. The number of internal migrants was increased from (1.4) million in 1998. The refugees coming from India were up-set by the large scale movement across international boundary between the neighboring countries and the people living in bordering districts were compelled to move for the sake of safety to interior districts due to the fear of massacre. Only one-third of the internal migrants moved from their provinces

of birth for economic reasons and around two-third of these internal migrants moved within their provinces of birth.

The labor Force Survey 1996 to 1997 was used by Khan and Shahnaz (2000) to study the determinants of internal migration in Pakistan. According to their statistics analysis, males and females who decided to migrate for non-economic motives constituted the majority of migrant population. But this pattern of migration was more prominent in the pre-dominant urban to urban migratory flow as compared to rural to urban migratory flow. According to their findings, the main direction of migration was reversed from rural to urban direction to urban to urban direction. The probability of migration for both males and females had significant positive relationship with education in terms of years of schooling, technical and vocational training. Furthermore, they found that the probability of migration was positively affected by urban residence and residence in the province of Punjab.

The impact of internal migration on multiculturalism in Faisalabad, the third largest city in the country was examined by Mann (2003). At the place of destination, migration which is a demographic process is one of the most important factors for cultural pluralism. During 1947, Muslim migration from India to Pakistan disturbed the population of Faisal Abad like other areas of the country. The physical, Social, and cultural structure of the city and village in terms of number of people, number of houses, economic, political, familial aspects of rural and urban cultures in Faisalabad has changed and is continuously changing by the demographic process of rural-urban migration and out-ward in migration. The direction of life in Faisalabad region has been changed by multi-cultureless produced by migration. In Peshawar city of Khyber Pakhtunkhwa, Karim in 1984 has done a similar type of study.

The factors influencing the decision of migration was examined by Akram (2001) using 1998-99 the Pakistan Integrated Household Survey. Rural to Urban movement is the main direction of migration in Punjab followed by rural to rural migration. The rural to urban migration is followed by urban to urban migration due to economic reasons. Employment opportunities in the

urban center is great incentives in the field of health, education, transport and communication sector in urban areas are the main reasons for the large scale rural to urban migration. The earning differentials among rural and urban areas and better job opportunities in the urban areas of Punjab were the important findings about the per-capita income. Their further findings were that people moving from rural area to urban area belonged to agricultural occupation shaping the differences and development among different areas of Punjab.

### **Approaches to migration studies**

Migration stream and migration differentials are the two basic approaches to migration studies. Migration stream explains the volume and pattern of movement such as from rural to urban areas. This approach is based on the concept that in a specific period of time a certain number of people migrating will have a common origin and destination. In contrast to migration stream, migration differential approach shows the group of people who are more mobile than others depending on their age, gender, marital status, education and occupation (Yadava, 1989).

### **Theoretical perspectives on migration**

The three main perspectives on migration are sociological, economic and geographic. The study of migration comes under the domain of sociologists rather than other social scientist as detected by the history of migration studies (Bilsborrow, Oberai and Standing, 1984). The decision for migration of individuals and household is influenced by a number of factors .e.g. demographic variables such as age, sex, education, race, household size and composition; Geographic variables such as distance; Social-psychological variables such as desires for comfort, autonomy; cultural variables and economic factors such as income and occupation.

No single factor is entirely responsible for migration rather it is an elective phenomena and this concept has led to the development of coherent theory of migration (Goldstien, 1976) although sociologists consider geographic factors due to the importance of distance and economic factors due to the

predominance of economic motives for migration as the major factors involved.

Economists have quantified economic motives for migration and have given special considerations to factors such as wage, income, unemployment and underemployment.

Geographers have focused on spatial patterns and direction of migration and are little concerned with those who migrates and with the causes of migration.

### **Theories of Migration**

#### **Ravenstein's law of migration**

Ravenstein devised the laws of migration and the work done by him was considered as the pioneer work in the field of migration. A set of migration generalizations (Roda, 1979) regarding the characteristics of migration, their motives, and pattern of migration comprised these laws (Bark and O' Hare 1991; Hornby and Jones, 1993). He said that the number of migrants traveling long distances is very small as compared to the number of migrants traveling short distances. Those traveling long distances usually go to centers of commerce and industry. The first stage of migration is to nearby places followed by movements to rapidly growing cities, A compensating counter current is produced for each main current of migration, Rural population is more migratory than natives of towns; short distances are usually traveled by females; as the transport system become developed, the migration increases, same is the case with industry and commerce development, the Push and Pull factors of migration are predominated by economic motives. Many investigators systematized and expanded Ravenstein's basic laws and the importance of step-migration, negative influence of distance and economic motives.

### **Lee's theory of migration**

The basic push-pull concept was revised by Lee in 1966. A variety of spatial movements can be placed into a “general schema” developed by Lee (Lee, 1966). A number of conclusions were drawn by him related to the factors involved in migration, the development of streams and counter streams, the volume of migration and the characteristics of migrants. He divided the factors involved in migration into push factors (related to native areas) and pull factors (related to destination areas), personal factors and the obstacles related to migration (Lee, 1966). Lee hypothesized that positive factors which compel people to stay or pull factors are present in both native areas and destination areas, negative forces push people from the area and zero forces have no effect. Lee said that factors of the native area are more important as compared to factors of destination area. The personal factors which effect individual threshold and increases or decreases migration govern the factors associated with native areas and destination areas (Lee, 1966). Intervening obstacles interposed between origin and destination areas is the final element of Lee's model. The obstacles comprises transport cost and migration control and causes “friction” in migration process with retardation or even prevention of migration. The conclusions of Lee with respect to the volume of migration, the development of stream and counter stream and the characteristics of migrants are summarized as follows:

- In a given territory the volume of migration varies directly with the degree of diversity of area.
- The volume of migration is inversely proportional to the difficulty of controlling the intervening obstacles.
- With the passage of time, both the volume and rate of migration increases.

- Migration occurs largely within clearly defined streams (that is from rural regions to towns and then towards big cities called step-migration).
- Every stream has a counter stream.
- The weight of push factors in native area is directly related to the magnitude of net migration (stream minus counter stream).
- The migrants are not a random sample of population at native area which means that migration is selective.
- Migrants responding mainly to the Pull factors at destination areas tend to be positively selected (like highly educated people) whereas migrants responding mainly to the Push factors at native areas tend to be negatively selected: or, where push factors are affecting the whole population group, they may not be selected.

The push-pull theory may be taken as an off-spring of the neoclassical economic theory and basically associated with the 19<sup>th</sup> century European Economic Development (Monstead and Walji, 1978). In the developed countries of the world most of the theoretical formulations of it have been applied to urban-urban migration. But in the under developed countries it has little or no application to rural-urban migration (Mabogunje, 1975). The Push-pull concept though simple is a useful framework for categorizing the factors encouraging migration (Gumelch and Zenner, 1996).

### **Harris-Todaro Model of Migration**

Todaro (1969) and Harris-Todaro (1970) developed the new orthodoxy and their model has provided a widely accepted theoretical framework for explaining the urban unemployment in many less developed countries. Harris-Todaro model assumed that more chances of employment in urban areas are responsible for the response of potential migrant; they treated the rural-urban migration as an economic phenomenon and demonstrated that an increase in

urban employment actually results in higher level of urban unemployment and even a reduction of national product (the Todaro paradox).

In Harris-Todaro model migration is considered as an adjustment phenomenon by which in different labor markets of urban and rural areas workers are allocated in order to increase their expected incomes.

The model highlighted that the migrants would decide to migrate by considering the probability of unemployment in the destination areas. Even if the income of migrants is higher in native areas as compared to destination areas, they could still migrate. This is because of the expectations of the migrants for a better wage that in the long run would compensate the past losses (Todaro and Smith, 2003). Bekure (1984) also said that when circumstances in the place of origin become intolerable or the conditions in destination area are very attractive, migration takes place.

### **Migration and the Dual Sector Model of Economic Development**

There are two main sectors of the Lewis dual sector model: An agricultural /rural sector which has zero marginal productivity of labor and an urban/industrial sector which offer wages higher than rural areas and has a high demand for labor. Lewis suggested that agricultural sector has low productivity, low incomes, surplus labor and considerable underemployment. Some of the labor force in rural areas is usually surplus having no contribution to the overall output. In urban environment the industrial sector is advanced technologically having more opportunities for investment (Mc Catty, 2004).

Basically, the Lewis dual sector model shows that in the rural agricultural sector there is surplus labor so they migrate to urban industrial sector for employment (Mc Catty, 2004). In addition to this, the urban manufacturing sector needs transfer of labor in order to increase its productivity. Better wage is the main reason which attracts migrants to modern sector. Todaro demonstrated that even if the urban unemployment rate is high and the potential migrants are aware of this the rural-urban migration will still continue. If the migrants are getting wages less than in rural areas or even if

they become unemployed they will still migrate (Todaro, 1976). The chances of getting job in urban sectors are inversely proportional to urban unemployment rates.

### **Sjaastad's Human Investment Theory**

In 1962, Sjaastad presented a theory of migration in which the decision of migration was dealt with as an investment decision showing an individual's expected cost and returns over time. Return is composed of monetary and non monetary components with latter including psychological benefits due to a better location. Just like returns, costs also include monetary and non monetary components. Disposal of property, cost of transportation, wages forgone while in transit and training for a new job comprises monetary costs. Leaving familiar surroundings, adopting new social customs and dietary habits comprises psychological costs. Sjaastad assumes that to maximize the net real income is the main desire of majority of people and can compute the net real income in the place of origin as well as in all possible destinations.

### **Synthesis of review**

Migration as phenomenon has a vital importance since the beginning of industrialization and urbanization. Its existence is so vivid that its overlooking is almost impossible. Societal structural modification on one part and its subsequent behavioral changes in relation to this process is manifested along its due course of time. Changes in human behavior is explicit and justifiable if counted into the preamble of searching of improved living standard based on access to basic amenities of life. World has witnessed cross-countries and intra-state migration either in bulk or in individual capacity, however its ramifications in relevance to behavior and structural alterations has always attracted the scholars of the day to design workable strategies for addressing its effects in the aftermath. Scholastic presentation in the shape of review and other endeavors have indicated as important components, i.e. Push and Pull factors, working as catalysts between two basic points, i.e. emigration and immigration. Moreover, economists and sociologists while exploring some

other variables have also come-up with the assumption of working on this issue if the sole aim of designing a universally applicable criteria revolving around the process of migration. The present study is an attempt to explore all the possible ingredients, responsible for mass scale movement from District Chitral to Peshawar (as domain of the study) in the perspective of cultural variability, economic indicators and institutional access to the process under investigation. The study has devised four independent variables, i.e. social, economic, cultural and demographic with two dependent variables, i.e. income and family size, extracted from review to measure the effects of manipulation of independent variables upon the dependent variables as shown in the conceptual framework.

## **METERIALS AND METHODS**

This chapter consists of two parts; Part-1 describes universe of the study, sample size, tools of data collection and analysis of data. Part-2 includes area profile of district Peshawar and Chitral

### **3.1 Universe of the study**

Those migrants (Chitralese) working in Chitrali bazaar Peshawar and their closed family kin's back in district Chitral constitute the universe of the study.

### **3.2 Sample size**

500 businessmen and skilled persons as representative of an independent household and their dependent family members back in district Chitral were randomly selected by using the proportional allocation as 50:450 for businessmen and workers respectively. This sample size has been served to the total population on proportional allocation by distributing the total 500 with ratio of 500:4500, which stands as 50:450 for businessmen and skilled persons respectively on random basis. In a universe, heterogeneous in nature, a sample size not less than 30 and up to 500 is considered as appropriate for drawing out information leading to sound inferences (Uma, 2003). Moreover, at least 30 respondents are essential to be taken up for consideration, Where ever, the universe is dichotomous or having more than two strata. In this research endeavor, as 500 respondents were chosen for in-depth information. However, the division as per characteristics and number of respondents was carried out as below:

### **3.3 Showing the distribution of respondents and their characteristics**

Nature of respondents	Area	Number
Businessmen	Peshawar	50
Skilled workers	Peshawar	225
Skilled workers families	Chitral	225
Total		500

### **3.4 Tools of data collection**

A well thought-out interview schedule, encompassing each and every aspect of study was used as instrument for collection of data from the universe, in order to elicit the information on factors, i.e. (Socio-economic, cultural, and demographic) leading to their migration from their native district (Chitral) to Peshawar. The respondents for data collection in Peshawar were chosen on purposive grounds; for those who came to Peshawar, had an origin of Chitral, and had links to other family members back at native point. Moreover, to elicit the information from there respondents, simple random sampling procedure were adopted at the last leg of data collection process. The household head, or other members mostly sons and brothers provided the information during the data collection in Peshawar from the concerned families. The selection of the respondents both at Peshawar and Chitral had a uniform analogy.

### **3.5 Focus Group Discussion:**

In addition, Focus Group Discussion was also carried out to explore all those information which has a chance of being overlooked. Two separate focus groups discussion are carried out for the purpose of obtaining information. The structure of Focus Group was ensured by taking into considerations the characteristics of Focus Group evolved by Kotari, (2003). It includes;

1- Heterogeneity amongst the respondents.

2- At least 8-12 persons, constituting the Focus Group Discussion.

In this research endeavor, 8 persons each from Peshawar and Chitral were selected on the basis of heterogeneity in characteristics.

### 3.6 Analysis of data

Statistical tools such as chi-square was used for interpreting the data to ascertain the association between social, economic, cultural and demographic variables (independent) of the study with dependent variables as family size and income and migration as out-come variable. Uni-variati analysis was also used for depicting the frequency distribution. In order to find out the association based on significance level, the chi-square as out-lined by Tai, (1978) presented below was used to further indicate the various hidden factors influencing the migration as social phenomenon.

$$(\chi^2) = \sum_{j=1}^I \sum_{i=1}^K \frac{(o_{ij} - e_{ij})^2}{e_{ij}}$$

Where

$(\chi^2)$  = Chi-square for two categorical variables

$o_{ij}$  = the observed frequencies in the cross-classified category at  
ith row and jth column

$e_{ij}$  = the expected frequency for the same category, assuming no  
association between variables under investigation

The formula simply directs one to take squared summation of the frequencies for each cell, divided by the expected frequency. The resulting frequency is distributed as chi-square with relevant degree of freedom. The degree of freedom is calculated as follows;

Df =  $(r-1)(c-1)$  where

Df = Degree of freedom

r = the number of rows

c = the number of columns

T-test was also used to study the effects of pre and post migration in the study area as out-lined by (MacCall and Robert, 1975)

$$t = \frac{\bar{d} - \mu d}{sd/\sqrt{n}}$$

### **3.6 Area profile of district Peshawar**

#### **Name:**

The capital of Khyber Pakhtunkhwa which was primarily known Frontier Town is situated at the entrance of the famous Khyber Pass. It serves as the gate way of the sub-continent. The history written as far back as 400 A.D. has a mention of Peshawar city. It is given different names by different historians which represents variation of its present name. The name of “Fo-lu-sha” was given to this area by a Chinese traveler Fa-Hien who visited this area about 400 A.D. The oldest name “Poshapura” which is a Sanskrit name meaning city of flower has been found in kharoshti record near Attock dated 119 A.D. The Mughal emperor Baber’s memoirs also have a mention of flowers of Peshawar. In 19th and 11th centuries Al-Masoodia and Al-Beuni called it as “Parshawar” in their travelogue and till the time of Akbar the city retained this name who persianized it to “Peshawar” a combination of “Pesh and Awar” which are the two persian words meaning artisans due to the presence of huge number of skilled artisans in this city.

#### **Agriculture:**

The soil of Peshawar valley is fertile and densely cultivated, producing both food and cash crops. Wheat, Maize and Barley are the main food crops while sugarcane is the main cash crop. Agricultural research institute, Turnab is important institution in the field of agriculture in this area a situated about 16 kilometer from Peshawar towards Nowshera along the Grand Trunk road. Many varieties of wheat, sugar cane and sugar beet are evolved through it and have a pivotal role in the field of agricultural research. It is the fountain head of agricultural development in the province.

#### **Industry:**

District Peshawar is the developed area of Khyber Pakhtunkhwa when compared with other districts. The important industries such as manufacturing

hosiery, small arms, leather and foot wear, garments, ghee, soap etc and Khazana sugar mill and other small industrial units at Kohat road, Jamrud road and Kharkhano. Match factories, flour mills and steel re-rolling units are also operating in the district. The cottage industries, which are manufacturing pottery, peshawari chapal and kullah (turban) by the skilled artisans, are also situated over here.

**Occupation:**

The principal occupation of rural population of the district is agriculture as this area is rich in agriculture wealth. A large number of skilled and un-skilled labours are also absorbed by a number of manufacturing industries in this district. There is a large section of population in Government service, banking, industries, business and other autonomous and semi-autonomous bodies. The farmers work for most of the day time taking rest only at noon for about two hours during summer season while during winter most of them spent their time in the field's crushing sugarcane. They also take help from women folk and children in cutting grass, grazing the cattle and stripping of sugarcane in winter.

**Education:**

In district Peshawar there are so many educational institutions i.e. universities, colleges, home economic institutions, technical education schools, maktab schools and mosque schools to meet the demand of the day. So many primary schools and high schools, collages for boys and girls and university for general study such as physics, mathematics, statistics, zoology, botany etc are present over here. The University Engineering and technology, Khyber medical college, agriculture university are also established by the government.

### **3.7 Area profile of Chitral district**

#### **Name, Location, Boundary and Area**

The District of Chitral, in addition to its recognition as Chitral, is also known as Chitral and Qashqar. It is a district in the Khyber Pakhtunkhwa of Pakistan. It can be accessed both by air and road. It is road that connects it to the rest of Pakistan by Lowari Pass from Dir and Shandur Top. Both routes are closed in winter; therefore, air is the only means of transportation during winter.

The Lowari Tunnel is being constructed under the Lowari Pass. Besides, a number of other high passes such as Darkot Pass, Thoi Pass and Zagan Pass give access to Chitral on foot from Ghizer District of Gilgit-Baltistan. It is geographically bordered by Afghanistan to its west and north and districts of Upper Dir and Swat to its South.

The District of Chitral lies at a distance of around 322 kilometers from Peshawar. It is a under developed district of Khyber Pakhtunkhwa but its land links with Afghanistan, Central Asian States via Wakhan and China which can contribute to its development and prosperity. It is the hugest district of the province area-wise, covering an area of 14, 850 km<sup>2</sup>. The longitude of Chitral is in between 71:12 and 73:53 at its east and its latitude is in between 35:3 and 36:55 at its north. Due to its location and natural beauty, the district of Chitral is unique and attractive in the province.

According to the 1998 census, the total population of Chitral is 318, 689. The Chitrali speaking people living in parts of Chitral are more in number than other languages speaking people. The Pashto speaking people live in the southern areas of the district while Kalashi live in the most beautiful valleys of Birir, Bomburet and Rambut of the district.

## **History**

Historically, the valley of Chitral is the home of two main ethnic groups, Ancient Chitralis and the Kalasha. Ancient Chitralis, known as Kho, possibly belonged to the northeastern Afghanistan. According to local legends, Chitral was ruled by a semi mythical Buddhist king called Bahman in the 8th century, which is known as golden period for its being peaceful and stable. However, the same time, Chinese army temporarily occupied the valley. Small numbers of Kalasha have simultaneously occupied several small valleys, stretching into Afghanistan, where they followed their own religion and claimed to be the descendants of Alexander the Great.

Coming to the recent history of Chitral, it was transferred in the early 20th century from Gilgit to the newly formed Khyber Pakhtunkhwa. Princely privileges continued well after independence of Pakistan, until being formally abolished in 1972.

## **Physical features and Topography**

The terrain of Chitral is quite mountainous. It is surrounded by three of the highest mountain ranges in the world. A part of the Pamir Mountains is situated there. Tirich Mir, which is at 25, 289 feet, is the highest peak of the Hindu Kush, rises in the north of the district. To the east of the district there exists the Hindu Raj range. These vertical mountains, which open out here and there, leave little room for villages and cultivable lands.

## **Rivers and Streams**

The significant characteristic of the drainage system of the District Chitral is that all brooks (small and large) flow into the Chitral River. The main source of the river is Chiantar glacier. The Chitral River, right from its main source to various places till it enters Afghanistan, has various names. When it passes through valley of Yarkhun, it is called the 'Yarkhun River'. At Mastuj, it is joined by another river known as 'Laspur River', which is its first key tributary, flows into northern part of Shandur – Hindu Raj range. Here, the

river is known as 'Nastuj River' and goes on to be such till it arrives at a place called 'Gankorini' four miles beyond the town of Chitral. Passing through this route, it comes across a number of hills as well as torrents and streams on both sides of the river and also Torkhow River on the right bank, which flows into the areas of Torkhow and Mulkhov.

### **Climate**

The climatic condition of the District Chitral is conspicuously continental. During summer, it is hot in the lower parts of Chitral while cool in the highest. During autumn, weather is calm and pleasant. The maximum temperature recorded in Drish is 36.80 C in July while in Chitral it is 36 C in the same month. At high altitude for instance Broghil, Sorlaspur, Gobore, Bagusht, Kiyar, Arkari, Owir, Rech etc. summer is cold and breezy with very cold nights.

In winter, northerly wind and blizzards take most of the valleys in their grip. The winter is less grim in the lowlands than winter in the uplands. The acute minimum temperature recorded at Drosh and Chitral have been 3.8 C and 0.9 C during January and February respectively. The mean minimum for the same stations have been 0.2 C and -1.3 during January and February correspondingly.

### **Language**

The languages that are spoken in Chitral are multifarious. According to the Norwegian linguist George Morgenstierne, Chitral is an area where linguistic diversity exists. Though Khowar (or Chitrali) is the predominant language of Chitral, more than ten other languages such as Kalash-mun, Palula, Dameli, Gawar-Bati, Nuristani, Yidgha, Burushaski, Gujar, Wakhi, Kyrgyz, Persian and Pashto are also spoken in Chitral. Since most of these languages have no written form, letters are usually written in Urdu or Persian.

## **Agriculture**

The district of Chitral consists of an uneven territory, narrow valleys and very high mountains. The upper parts of the mountains have either very superficial soil developed from the rock or consist of nude rocks with some soil material that too only in cracks and fractures while the lower parts of the mountain slopes have deep pebbly soils. The valley mostly stony or grimly soil of the river porches as well as alluvial fans of streams come down from the mountain slopes. Stony soils of the river terraces and alluvial fans were cultivated at some places for some centuries, thus improving greatly the irrigation silt.

## **Current Agriculture Status**

Most of the people of Chitral district are agriculturists. The area under cultivation is 22552 hectares. Mountainous streams have been the main source of irrigation of the district Chitral. From there water channels are raised, thus making the agriculture improving. 80% of the agriculturists have less than two hectares and only 1 percent has 2.5 hectares. Main crops cultivated in the district are wheat, maize, barley and paddy. Besides, vegetables and fruits are also grown in the area. In plain areas agricultural machines such as tractor and thrasher are used.

## **Legal Status of Forests**

Chitral was once a princely state till its annexation with Pakistan in 1972. In view of it, the state was the sole owner of the entire forests in the valley. After the state was merged into Pakistan, the forests were taken over by the Government of Khyber Pukhtunkhwa and were announced safe and protected.

## **Livestock**

Livestock plays a significant role in the improvement of the economic condition of the people. There are people who maintain livestock for their own needs only. However, there are a number of people who develop their livestock for business purposes. As regards poultry farming in Chitral, it has been in practice in view of its economic benefits. Animals like horses and

donkeys are maintained in Chitral for load purposes. Cows and, to some extent, buffalos are only for milk. Horses are maintained for polo matches as well. In some areas, Sindhi cows are kept for milk. Government has established veterinary hospitals for treatment of livestock at various places such as Chitral, Drosh, Ayun, Booni, Mastuj and Garam Chashma. In addition to it, seventeen numbers of dispensaries have been set up in Chitral district.

### **Fishery**

In view of the appropriate climatic condition of Chitral, there is a wide scope for developing the trout fisheries. The government has already set up trout hatcheries at Jaghoor and Bomburet. The production capacity of Jaghoor and Bomburet is `20,000 and 130,000 fries correspondingly. Alongside the Government's efforts to make better the production of trout in Chitral, the private sector is also being involved through trout farming purely on the basis of commerce and trade. About ten fish farms in area of around 5.95 acres have already been set up in private sector.

### **Mining**

It is unfortunate that mineral capital in Chitral has never been appropriately discovered. Illiteracy and lethargy of the people of Chitral has been an obstacle in the advantageous exploitation of the mineral resource even for domestic use. It is stated that orpiment or yellow arsenic, though in small quantity, has been discovered in the Lonkhuh valley of Terich village. Lead is also discovered in different areas of Chitral but not in huge quantity to be exported. Besides, marble stone of the best quality is available there in Chitral district. For the exploration of mineral in some areas of Chitral, the Department of Industries, Commerce and Mineral issues proper licenses.

### **Communication**

Blockage of roads due to weather i.e. snow fall etc. is the main problem of communication in Chitral. The Chitral is known for its rough and uneven mountains. Its connection with the rest of the country is through the

mountainous passes. The Lawari Pass in its South connects Chitral to the district of Upper Dir while it is connected with Gilgit through the Shandur Pass and then to the rest of the country by way of the Karakoram Highway. Due to severe climatic conditions, both these land routes remain closed for almost half a year. During this period, Pakistan International Airlines operates air flights to and from Chitral, which is also subject to the unpredictable climatic conditions.

As regards postal and telephone facilities in Chitral, it is much behind the rest of the country. Postal service is available only in big towns and valleys - hardly 10 percent of the whole population. However, sincere efforts are being made to provide the residents of Chitral with facilities of electronic media such as television boosters, radio stations, and digital telephones exchange. Alongside it, internet services have also been provided in Chitral. Mobile service has played a significant role in connecting Chitral to the rest of the country.

### **Dress**

The Chitralis are very simple in their dresses. Their dress of winter is quite different from that of summer. The summer dress includes a shirt, trouser and a cap, which is made of a woolen patti and is the distinctiveness of the people of Chitral. During winter, owing to intense cold, the people of Chitral wear over their shirts a waistcoat or a coat made of Chitrali woolen patti. In case of severe cold, the male add to their dress a loose cloak called Chugha, which is considered, in the northern parts of Chitral, to be a compulsory part of the traditional dress. Female folk wear formal dress including a big dopatta to cover the whole body. For purdah purposes, women use a long and loose vain made of white cloth when they go out of their houses. Besides, female folk also use jewelry on certain occasions like marriage etc.

### **Occupations**

The people of Chitral are hard working and committed to their professions. Some of them are farmers/agriculturists. A few of them have been doing

businesses within and outside the district. A huge number of them are employed in the local offices of the Government departments. Some of them have got themselves recruited in the Armed Forces of Pakistan including Chitral Scouts and Frontier Constabulary

### **Population Size and Growth:**

Since 1951, there has been three times increase in population of Chitral district. In 1998 it was 319 thousands while in 1951 it was 106 thousands, resulting in an enormous increase of 200 percent since then. During 1981-1998 the population of district increased by 52.63 percent with 2.52 an average annual growth rate where as this rate was 3.3 percent during 1972-81 and 3 percent during 1961 to 1972.

### **Rural/Urban Distribution**

90.39 percent (288 thousands) of the total population of the district is rural. During 1981-98 the average annual growth rate of rural population was 1.92 percent which was 3.25 percent and 3.00 percent during 1972-81 and 1961-72 respectively.

A small portion of the district population is urban that is only 31 thousands people of district Chitral lives in urban area of Chitral municipal committee constituting 9.61 percent of the total population. In 1981 Census there was no urban area.

### **Religion**

More or less the population of district is Muslim. They represent 99.10 percent of the total population, 99.04 in rural and 99.60 in urban areas. Less than one percent of the total population is Christians, Ahmadies and others.

### **Literacy**

The literacy ratio of the population 40.30 percent is aged 10 years and above which was only 12.7 percent in 1981. In females the literacy ratio has

increased from 2.3 percent in 1981 to 22.09 percent in 1998. This ratio has increased by more than double in males from 24.12 percent in 1981 to 58.02 percent in 1998.

### **Educational Attainment**

Only 39.96 percent of the population aged 10 years and above are educated, including those below primary. 60 percent of the remaining population is completely illiterate.

### **Level of education**

The educated persons 54.17 percent are more than half has passed below primary (25.11 percent and primary 29.06 percent) level of education. Hardly 5 percent of total educated population are graduates and post graduate. 18.82, 16.58 and 5.39 percent constitute middle, metric and intermediate level of education.

### **Source of lighting**

Electricity is used for lighting by 29.37 percent, kerosene oil is used by 69.36 percent and other sources are used by remaining 1.27 percent. More than 93.99 percent of the households in urban area used electricity in comparison to 22.45 percent in rural area. In rural area kerosene oil is used by 76.26 percent of the households and other sources are used by 1.29 percent of the households as against only 4.93 percent and 1.08 percent in urban area respectively.

## RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

The structure of this chapter has been categorized in to four major components where efforts have been made to highlight each according to the characteristics of data with all its manifestations. Section 4.1 and 4.2 are focused on the perception based information with relevance to frequencies and percentages of district Peshawar and their relative families back in district Chitral respectively. . In addition 4.3 comprehensively explored all the viable out-comes through relationship based information through application of (Chi-square). Moreover, 4.4 with major focus on marked differences of out-come before and after the phenomena (migration) with explicit manifestation through T-test statistics and section 4.5 is confined to Focus Group Discussion.

### 4.1 Uni-variate analysis of Peshawar (Destination Area)

**Table-1: Frequency and Percentage Distribution of Respondents on age group**

Category	Frequency	Percent
10-20	42	16.8
21-30	90	36.0
31-40	59	23.6
41-50	36	14.4
51-60	16	6.4
61 and above	7	2.8
Total	250	100.0

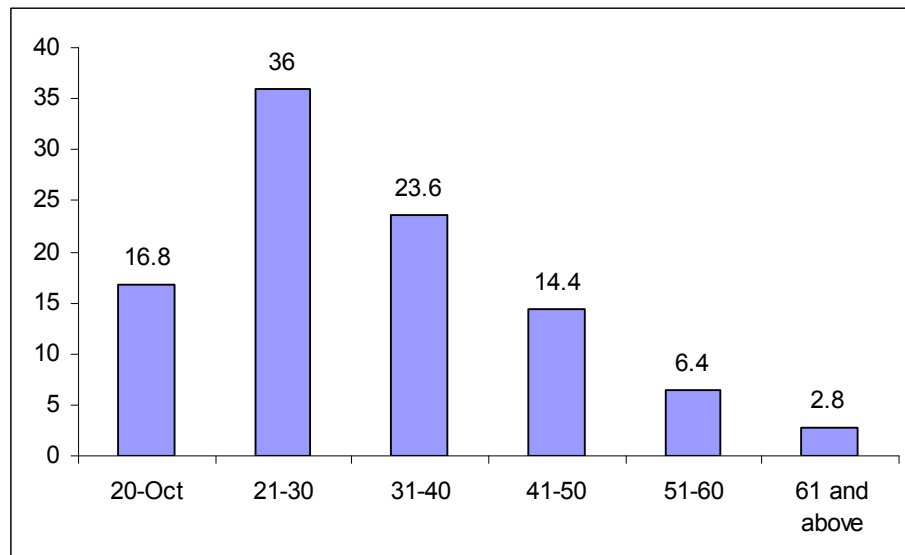


Table – 1 tells of the age limits of the respondents with the composition as (16.8%) respondents were in the group age of 10 to 20, followed (36.0%) in the group age of 21 to 30 years. Similarly, (23.6%) respondents were in the group age of 31 to 40 years. Further, (14.4%) were in the group age of 51 to 60. Just (2.8%) of the respondents were in the age group of 61 years and above. The study findings also co-relate with the study of Sjaastad (1962) that age is a significant variable influencing migration and that the private and social costs and returns to migration depends upon market structure, resource mobility and revenue policies of the state and local governments These findings are also in line with The studies by Premi (1980), Sharma (1982) and Anju (1991) who found that people into urban areas migrate at young age groups (15 to 35 years) and possess superior level of education and superior level of skills in comparison to the non-migrants at the places of origin.

**Table-2: Frequency and Percentage Distribution of Respondents on the basis of Family Type**

Category	Frequency	Percent
Extended family	26	10.4
Joint family	186	74.4
Nuclear family	38	15.2
Total	250	100.0

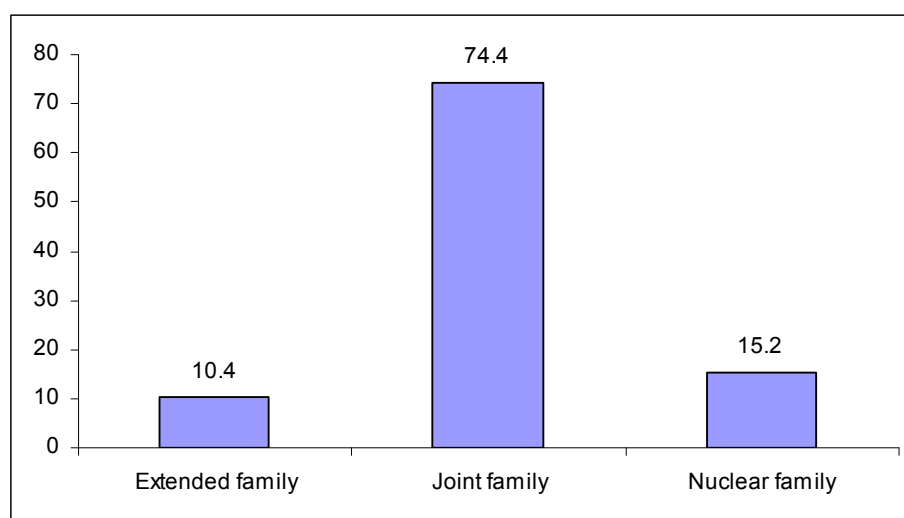


Table – 2 depicts about the types of family which the respondents belonged. Out of total respondents, (10.4%) had extended type of family, while (74.4%) of the respondents belonged to joint family and nuclear as (15.2%) types existed in the study areas. It could easily be depicted from the inferences that joint family system was prevalent in the study area. This system usually works as a catalyst in the phenomena of human migration as reported by (Connell *et al.*, 1976; Sekhar, 1993; and Upton, 1967) that mostly people with large households poised to leave their ancestral set-up in search of jobs and other amenities of life

**Table-3: Frequency and Percentage Distribution of Respondents on the basis of education**

Nature of education	Frequency	Percent
Formal	122	48.8
Religious	13	5.2
Technical	5	2.0
Uneducated	110	44.0
Total	250	100.0

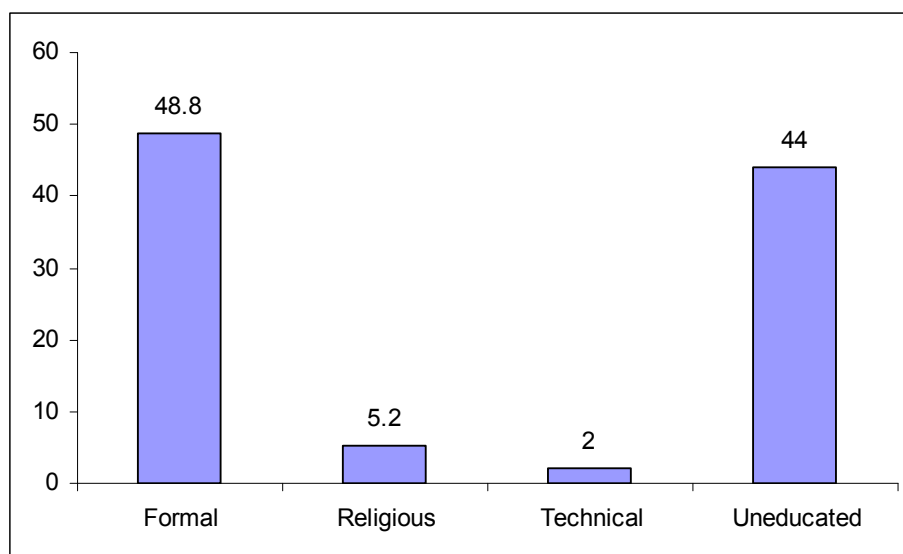


Table – 3 reveals the level of education of the respondents. Out of total respondents, (48.8%) had got formal education, followed by (5.2%) and with (2%) respondents at religious and technical backgrounds respectively. Further, educated people are less interested in taking up agriculture as their occupation (Singh and Yadava, 1981b).

**Table-4: Frequency and Percentage Distribution of Respondents on the basis of Years of Schooling**

Years of schooling	Frequency	Percent
1–5	135	54
6–10	101	40.4
11–15	14	5.6
Total	250	100.0

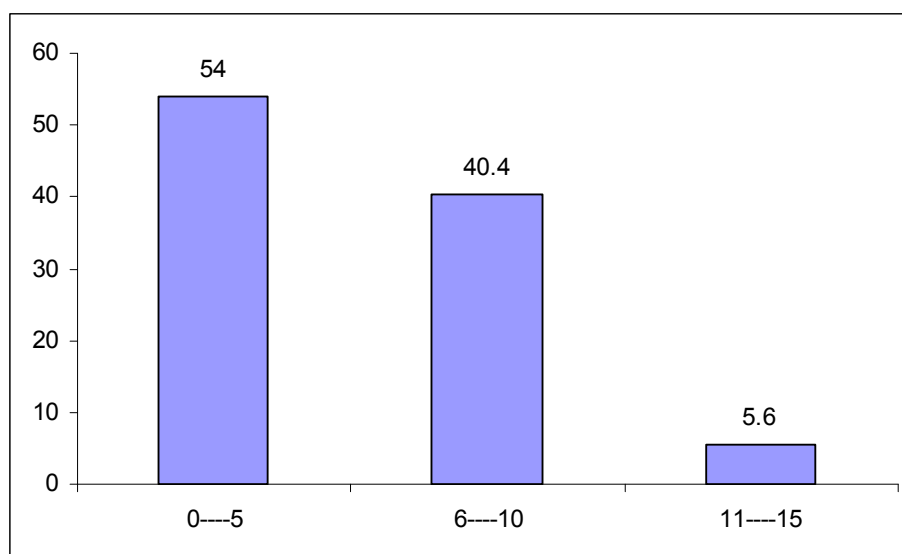


Table – 4 depicts the years of schooling/education the respondents underwent. A huge number of the respondents i.e. (54 %) were found at the level of primary education, followed by (40.4 %) at the level of high school level and the remaining (5.6%) were educated at college and university level. Several studies showed that migrants are usually more educated than non migrants with respect to the place of origin, and less educated than non-migrants with respect to the place of destination (Singh and Yadava, 1981b; and Singh, 1985).According to the World Bank (1995) basic (primary and lower secondary) Education ‘helps reduce poverty by increasing the productivity of the poor, through reducing fertility and improving health, and by equipping people with the skills they need to participate fully in economy and society.

**Table-5: Frequency and Percentage Distribution of Respondents on the basis of family strength**

Category	Frequency	Percentage
1–10	236	94.4
11–20	11	4.4
21 and above	3	1.2
Total	250	100.0

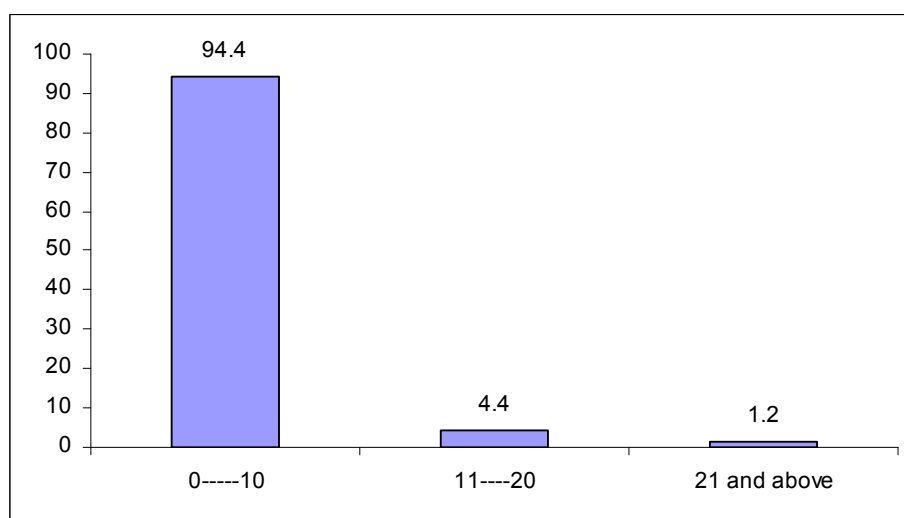
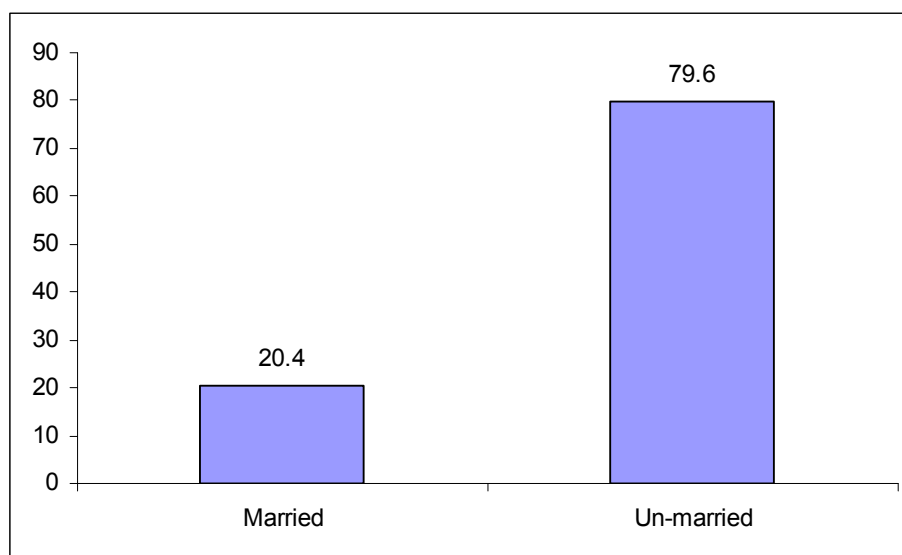


Table –5: illustrates the number of the persons the respondents had in their families. According to it, (94.4%) of the respondents claimed at the range of (1–10) members, followed by (4.4%) were having number of members between 11 to 20, while a very limited number of the respondents i.e. (1.2%) were having number of members from 21 and above.

**Table-6: Frequency and Percentage Distribution of Respondents on the basis of Marital Status before migration**

Category	Frequency	Percent
Married	51	20.4
Un-married	199	79.6
Total	250	100.0



According to table 6, (20.4%) respondents were married before migration while (79.6%) were unmarried. These findings are in line to the conclusion of (Rogaia, 1997; Singh and Yadava, 1981). The adult males are more inclined to migrate than other people of the community. These arguments are further augmented that ratio of married persons is less than migrated persons as compared to un-married (Yadava, 1988).

**Table 7: Frequency and Percentage Distribution of Respondents on the basis of No. of children in the family after migration**

Category	Frequency	Percent
1-4	189	75.6
5-8	56	22.4
9-12	5	2
Total	250	100.0

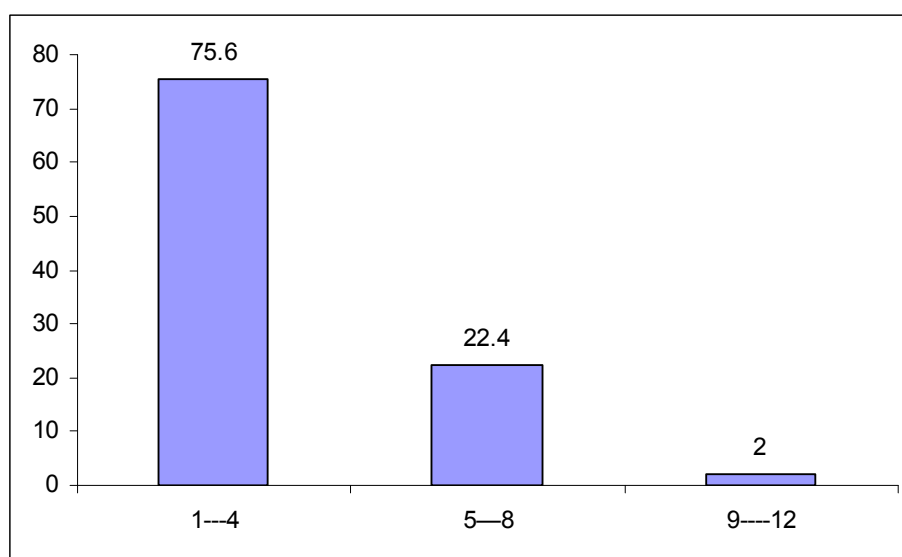


Table – 7 presents the picture of the numbers of children of the respondents. A huge mass of them i.e. (75.6%) were having 1 to 4 children, followed by (22.4%) with 5 to 8 children, while (2%) had 9 to 12 children. According to Agesa and Kim (2001) found that rural-to-urban migration in Kenya is more likely to split the family geographically, rather than resulting in family migration, when the number of dependent children at home is larger.

**Table-8: Frequency and Percentage Distribution of Respondents on the basis of Occupation of the household**

Category	Frequency	Percent
Agriculture (own land)	228	91.2
agriculture (rented)	1	0.4
Business	9	3.6
Non-agricultural labor	12	4.8
Total	250	100.0

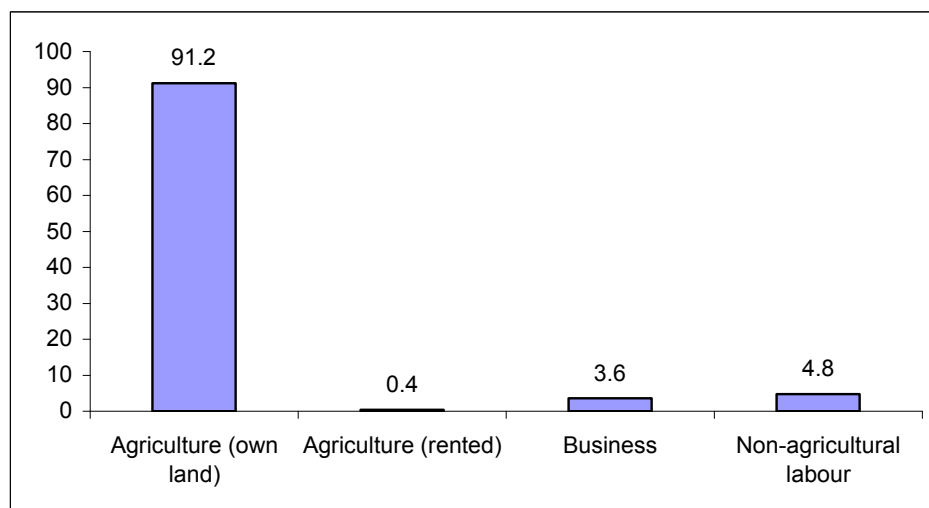


Table – 8 shows the occupations the respondents adopted. Majority i.e. (91.2%) respondents were landowners/agriculturists, while (0.4%) was landless followed by (3.6%) had business and only (4.8 %) were from the laborer class. It is eminent from these findings that most of the migrants had agriculture oriented profession. It is either due to the fact that agriculture was non-profitable profession at the native level or it worked as Pull factors for having demand in the migrated areas. However, these findings are in negation to the earlier conclusion put forwarded by (Sovani, 1961; and Samsuddin, 1981).

**Table-9: Frequency and Percentage Distribution of Respondents on the basis of Pre-migration Occupation of the migrants**

Category	Frequency	Percent
Business	12	4.8
Education	3	1.2
Farming	134	53.6
Imam in mosque	1	0.4
Labour	100	40.0
Total	250	100.0

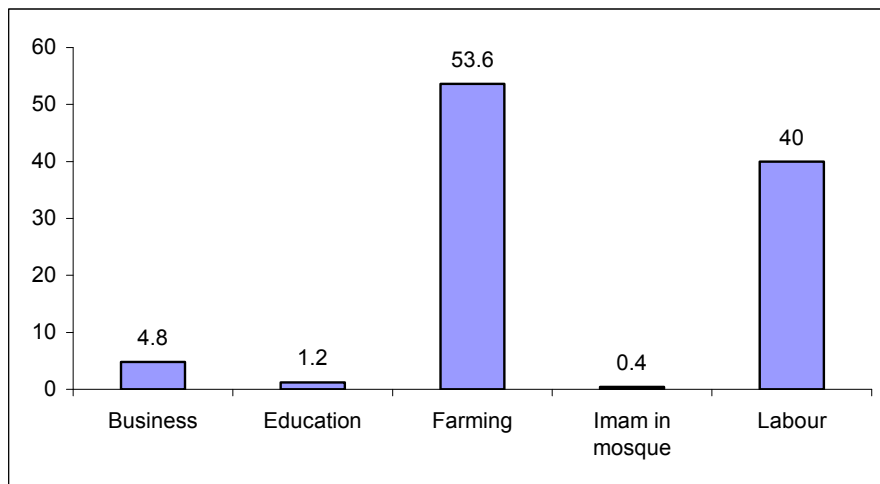


Table-9 emanates the various types of occupations the respondents had with a standing composition of business men and educationists with ratio of (4.8%) and (1.2%) respectively. A majority of the respondents i.e. (53.6%) followed by (40%) were from farming and laborer class. It could be emanated from the data that most of the probable segment of the population, who ought to, migrate were either from farming or laborer class. These are in lines to the findings of Hill (1972) that mostly poor and landless people had a strong propensity to migrate. Moreover, some of the studies had also highlighted a major portion of population (educated) are least interested to leave their ancestral place which is in no way establishes any relationship to the findings of the present study.

**Table 10: Frequency and Percentage Distribution of Respondents on the basis of comparison of the previous job with the present**

Category	Frequency	Percentage
Don't know	3	1.2
Some what different	48	19.2
Some what satisfied	7	2.8
Some what similar	31	12.4
Very different	141	56.4
Very similar	20	8.0
Total	250	100.0

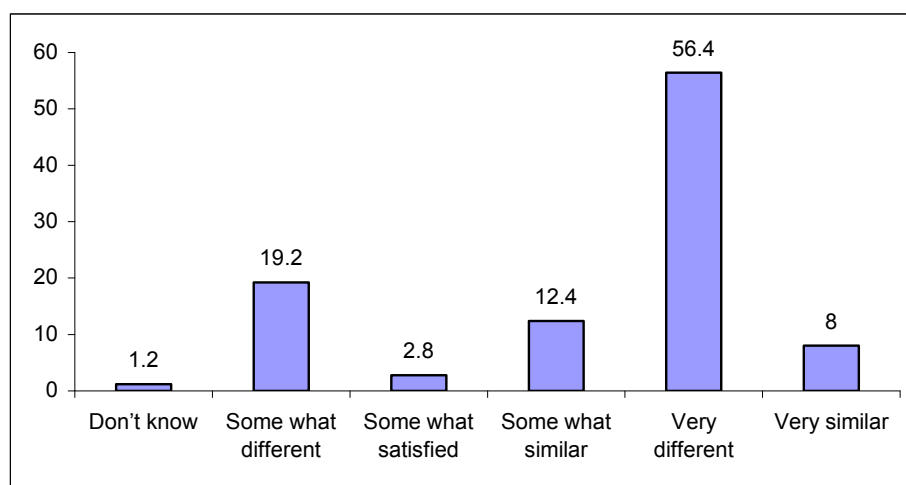


Table-10 depicts about the comparison of the previous job with the present of the respondents. Out of total 56.4% of the respondents claimed very different the present job than the previous one, followed by 19.2% about somewhat different and 12.4% disclosed somewhat similar. Majority of the respondents were found satisfied in new environment because of maximum earning to send their families back in Chitral for their livelihood and significant change in living standard.

**Table 11: Frequency and Percentage Distribution of Respondents according to Age at the time of their Migration**

Category	Frequency	Percent
1–15	115	46
16–30	132	52.8
31 and above	3	1.2
Total	250	100.0

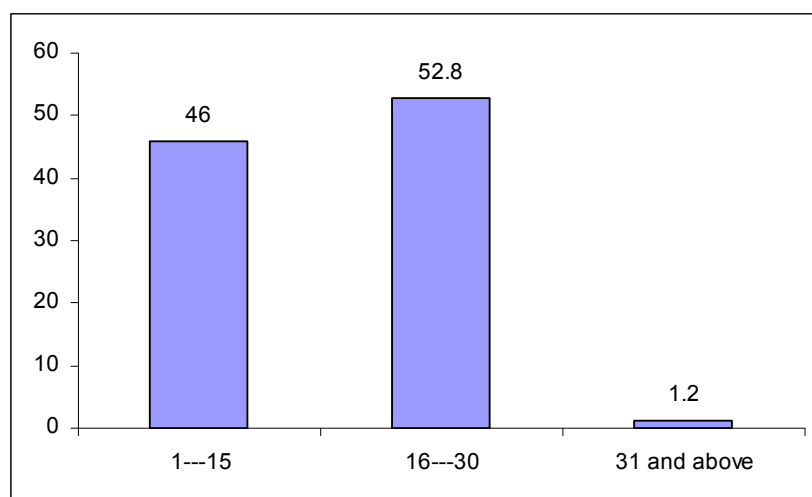


Table – 11 tells about the respondents’ age at the time of their migration. Almost (46%) respondents migrated in the age group of 1 to 15, followed by (52.8%) respondents in the age group of 16 to 30 years. The little age of the respondents, i.e. (1--15) years indicated towards all the dependent children, accompanying parents at the time of migration. Lesser to 15 years often had the dependence upon the parents for social, academic and cultural grooming along with feeding. Moreover, this age is declared as below puberty line in Pakistani constitution of 1973, which is 18 years and above. Only (1.2%) respondents migrated when they were in the age group of 31 years and above. These findings are in line with Ahmad and Sirageldin (1993) that migration is generally selective in terms of age and the human capital variables of education and occupation, the incidence of migration being highest among those who possessed college or university degrees and those belonging to the professional or skilled worker occupation groups.

**Table 12: Frequency and Percentage Distribution of Respondents according to the sources that helped migrants at the time of Migration to Peshawar**

Category	Frequency	Percent
Brother	5	2.0
Father	3	1.2
Friends	30	12.0
Relatives	212	84.8
Total	250	100.0

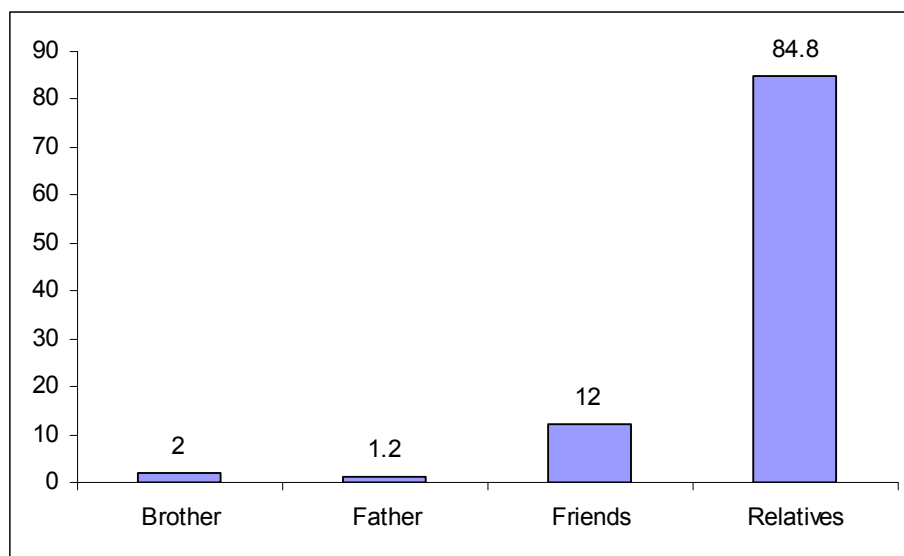


Table – 12 shows the source that helped the respondents in migration to Peshawar. Out of total, (2.0%) stated that they were helped by their brothers in migration, followed by (1.2%) assisted by their fathers. A huge number i.e. 212 (84.8%) disclosed as relatives potential help followed by moderate number of them i.e. 30 (12.0%) while disclosing their friends as helping source. Mostly people are pushed by their relatives and friends to migrate for attaining of basic amenities of life (Shah and Menon, 1999).

**Table 13: Frequency and Percentage Distribution of Respondents according to help extended at the time of their Migration**

Category	Frequency	Percent
Financial support	63	25.2
helping employment	158	63.2
Housing	29	11.6
Total	250	100.0

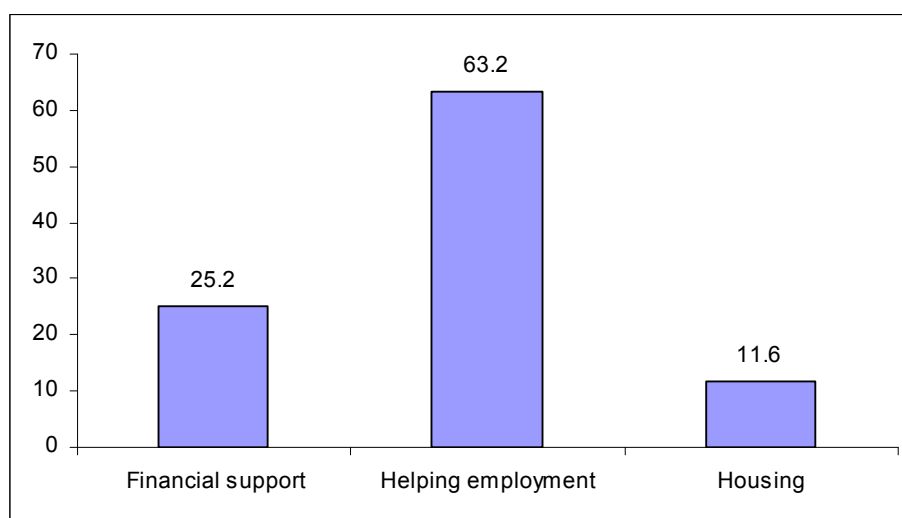
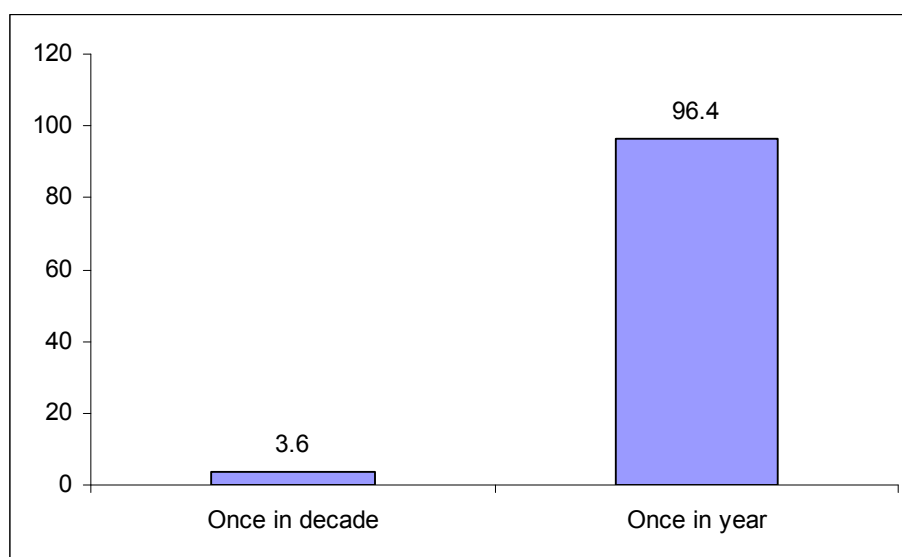


Table – 13 discloses the help extended to respondents at the time of their migration. Majority i.e. (63.2%) were helped by their relatives in getting an employment, while the rest i.e. (25.2%) received financial assistance at the time of migration from their relatives. Moreover, (11.6%) of the respondents received residential facilities from their relatives. This is eminent from these results that usually relatives and friends not only become a moral and social harbinger to migration phenomena but also contribute in economic terms for this settlement in the place of destination. According to Both Afsar (2002) and Kuhn (2000) have demonstrated how the presence of more than one adult male member facilitates temporary migration both within and outside the country.

**Table 14: Frequency and Percentage Distribution of Respondents according to expected time of return for migrants to their native village**

Category	Frequency	Percent
Once in decade	9	3.6
Once in year	241	96.4
Total	250	100.0



According to table-14, upon asking question pertaining to their rate of return to native areas, it was discovered that majority i.e. (94.4%) hardly visit just one time in one year. Only (3.6%) reported once in decade. It is attributed to the harsh living conditions at native places, which could not attract the migrant back, once left (Rubin & Weinstein, 1977). Found that migrants continue to maintain strong kinship ties either through frequent visits to their home villages or by participating in urban tribal associations. Increase in internal migration is associated with economic and political transitions in countries of Asia, Africa, Latin America and the Pacific (Gurmu et al. 2000) have made migration a salient feature of life in developing countries.

**Table 15: Frequency and Percentage Distribution of Respondents on the basis of Push Factors of migration**

Category	Frequency	Percent
lack of job opportunities	135	54.0
less chances of enhancing income	62	24.8
Poor economic condition	45	18.0
poor educational services	8	3.2
Total	250	100.0

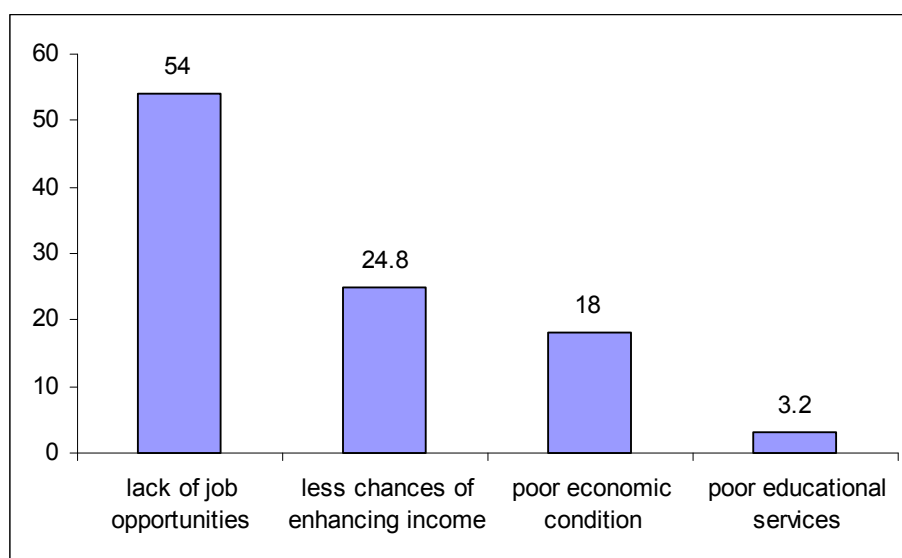


Table-15 indicated a vital aspect of migration were taken into consideration by putting the question pertaining to cause of migration (Push factors) .Some majority i.e. (54%) disclosed about non-availability of job opportunities in the native area , while a negligible number .i.e. (24.8%) disclosed of little changes to improve relative economies. Similarly, findings to poor economic conditions also cropped up as (18%) respectively. It is dismantled from these results that poor economic conditions, leaving little room for improvement both in terms of jobs attainment and economic growth, coupled with increase in population, forced majority of the respondents to migrate. The determinants (Push factors) earlier disclosed in his theory by Lee (1966) and also

augmented by (Yadava, 1988) that migration a phenomenon is usually influenced by the relative economies of individuals. In a more concentrated study, Farooq et al., Mateen & Cheema (2005) examined the determinants of internal migration in Faisalabad where 50% of the respondents migrated due to economic reasons, (80%) and (13%) of the respondents were pushed out of their place of origin due to poor economic and educational opportunities, respectively. Landlessness was yet another significant 'push' factor. These findings are consistent with the Todaro model (1990).

**Table 16: Frequency and Percentage Distribution of Respondents about (Pull factors) of Migration to Peshawar**

Category	Frequency	Percent
Better economic conditions	77	30.8
Better educational services/labour	9	3.6
better employment benefits	38	15.2
More job opportunities	126	50.4
Total	250	100.0

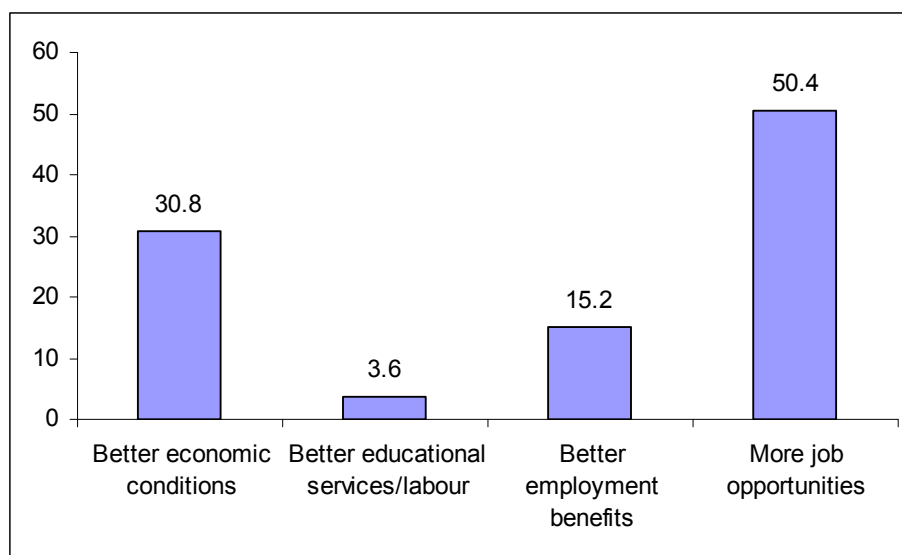


Table – 16 portrays the causes of migration of respondents to Peshawar. The data disclosed that majority i.e. (50.4%) were in search of jobs followed by (30.8%) to improve their living standard through better economic conditions. It is debatable, while analyzing the output based on the above data that economic conditions are the major determinants in migration, although allied with political, demographic and cultural factors as disclosed by Parthasarhty (1996), Mukherjee (1993) and Ghuman (2007) wherein economic considerations were discovered as major pull factors, carrying with little effects of political, demographic and cultural aspirations.

**Table 17: Frequency and Percentage Distribution of Respondents according to nature of jobs at present time**

Category	Frequency	Percent
Businessmen	25	10.0
skilled labour	225	90.0
Total	250	100.0

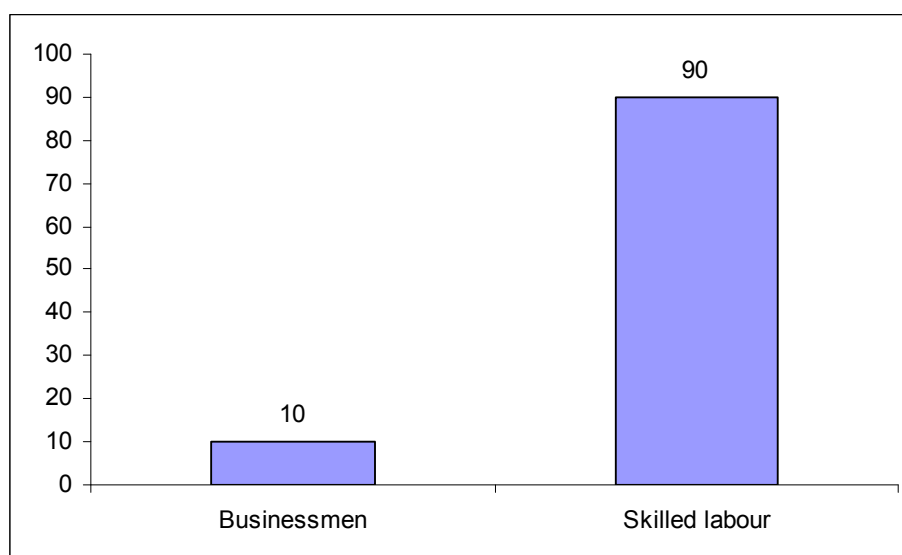


Table -17 reveals about the nature of jobs of the respondents. Only (10%) were businessmen while the remaining belonged to laborer class. It could easily be attributed to the poor working conditions of the masses which forced them to migrate for better amenities of life. An economic push is evident in migration phenomenon, with little effects of cultural, demographic and political effects (Parthasarthy, 1996; Mukherjee, 1993 and Ghuman 2007). The studies by Premi (1980), Sharma (1982), and Anju (1991) found that people into urban areas migrate at young age groups (15 to 35 years) and possess superior level of education and superior level of skills in comparison to the non-migrants at the places of origin.

**Table 18: Frequency and Percentage Distribution of Respondents according to the prices of various items made of Chitrali-Pati**

Category	Frequency	Percent
Blanket (900)	1	0.4
chugha (1000-4000)	5	2.0
Coat (250-400)	90	36.0
Topi (120-250)	154	61.6
Total	250	100.0

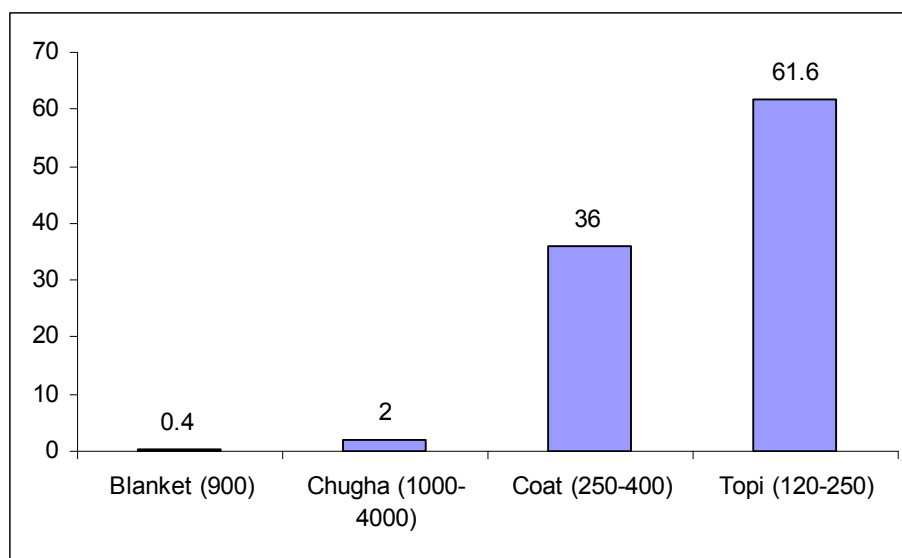


Table-18 shows the prices of various items made of Chitrali Patti in Pakistani currency. Blanket made of Chitrali Patti was Rs. 900. (2.0%) respondents told that the price of Chugha was between Rs. 1000 to Rs. 4000. Likewise (36%) respondents told about coat price between Rs. 250 to Rs. 240. Similarly, (61.6%) respondents told about Topi made of Chitrali Patti are between Rs 220 to Rs. 250 respectively.

**Table 19: Frequency and Percentage Distribution of Respondents with respect to Hurdles in the way of their business**

Category	Frequency	Percent
Electricity problem	102	40.8
Security & peace	148	59.2
Total	250	100.0

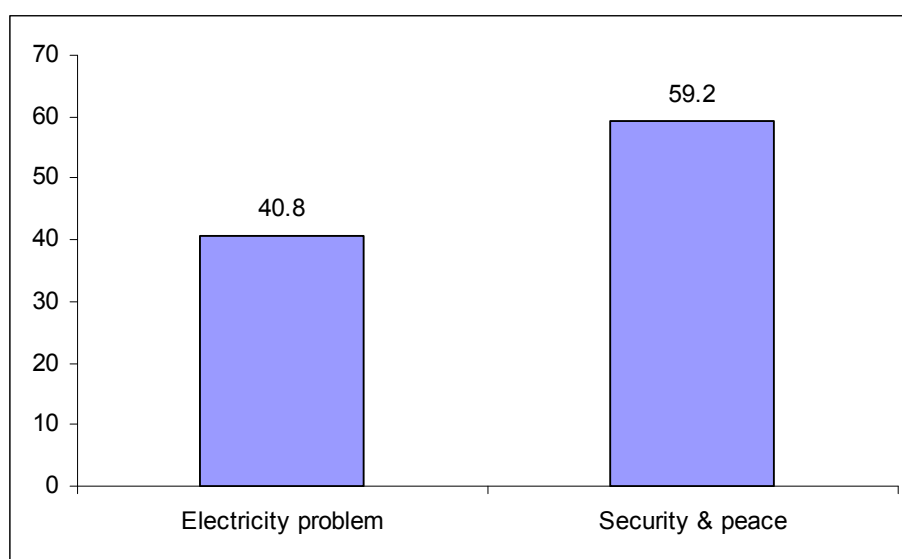


Table – 19 indicated the hurdles in the development of business. Majority i.e., (40.8%) told that the power shortage had been the main hurdle in the development of business. Electricity remained switched off for hours. As a result, shops had to be closed down earlier. As against it, (59.2%) termed the law and order situation in the city as the main hurdle in this regard. Fear of bomb blast accompanied every customer in the bazaars.

**Table-20: Frequency and Percentage Distribution of Respondents according to Satisfaction with their relative jobs**

Category	Frequency	Percent
Not satisfied	25	10.0
Some what different	1	0.4
Some what satisfied	108	43.2
Un-decided	3	1.2
Very different	1	0.4
Very satisfied	112	44.8
Total	250	100.0

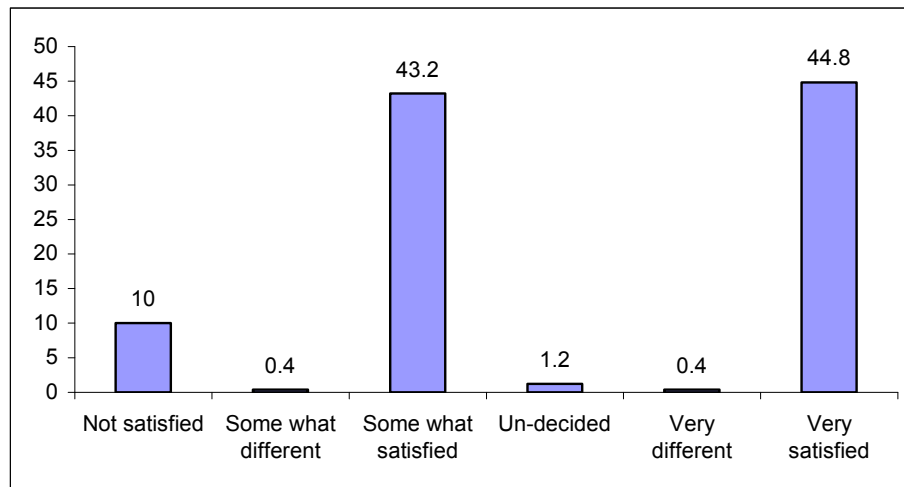


Table – 20 covers the response of respondents regarding their satisfaction with their relative jobs. Some of the respondents were found contented with their jobs while (0.4%) held somewhat different view about their job. In addition, (43.2%) were somewhat satisfied with their jobs along with (1.2%) still undecided in this regard. Moreover, (0.4%) did not like their jobs. However, majority of the respondents i.e. 44.8% were found very satisfied with their jobs. It is depicted that job environment at the point of destination is acceptable due to profitable conditions. It could be detected that if not provided with basic amenities at their door steps i.e. back in their native areas, the chance of migration would continue unabated. It is similar to the findings of Mohtadi (2004) that most cities attract people from rural areas due to the stronger chances of job opportunities.

**Table 21: Frequency and Percentage Distribution of Respondents on the basis of Monthly income at present time**

Category	Frequency	Percent
1-10000	39	15.6
10001-20000	196	78.4
20001-30000	15	6

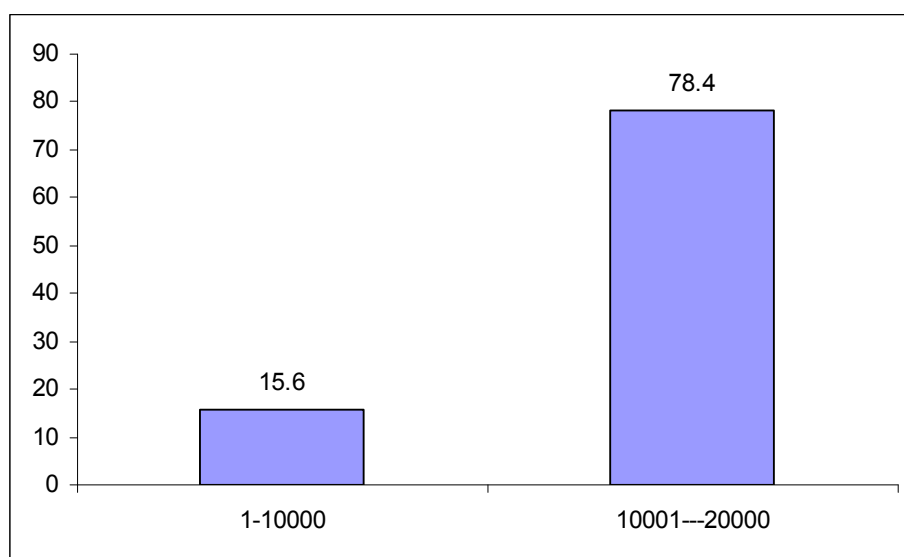
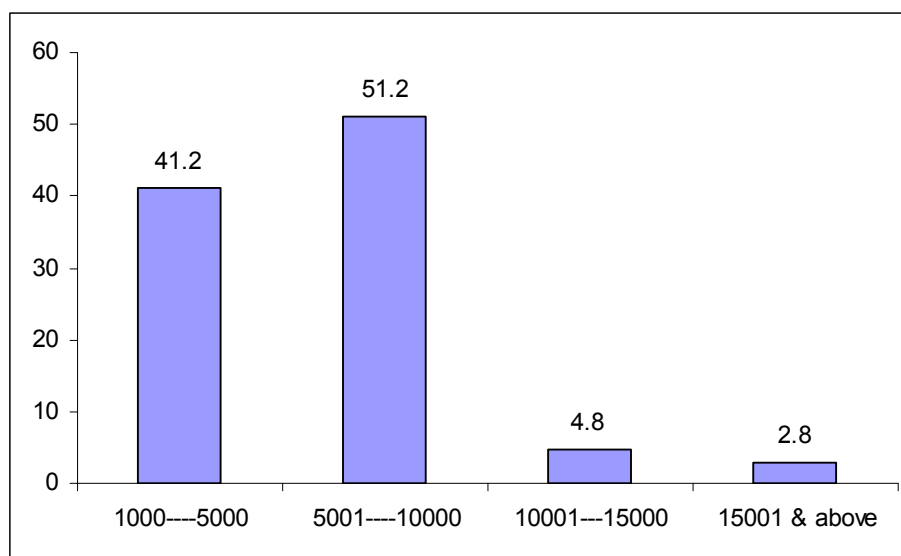


Table – 21 shows the existing monthly incomes of the respondents. Monthly income of a huge number of the respondents i.e. (78.4%) were from Rs.10001to Rs. 20000, followed by (15.6%) respondents having their monthly incomes in between Rs. (1 – 10000) and the remaining (6%) of the respondents having their monthly incomes in between Rs.20001 to Rs.30000.

**Table 22: Frequency and Percentage Distribution of Respondents on the basis of monthly expenditure at present**

Category	Frequency	Percentage
1000–5000	103	41.2
5001–10000	128	51.2
10001–15000	12	4.8
15001 & above	7	2.8
Total	250	100.0



Table–22 shows the existing monthly expenditures of the respondents. According to the table, the current monthly expenditures of a huge number of the respondents i.e. (51.2%) were between rupees 5001 to 10000, followed by the monthly expenditures of (41.2%) respondents between rupees 1000 to rupees 5000. 4.8% of the respondents stated between rupees 10001–15000 and the remaining 2.8% were in between rupees 15001 and above.

**Table 23: Frequency and Percentage Distribution of Respondents on the basis of present monthly Savings**

Category	Frequency	Percent
1-5000	81	32.4
5001-10000	158	63.2
10001-15000	11	4.4
Total	250	100.0

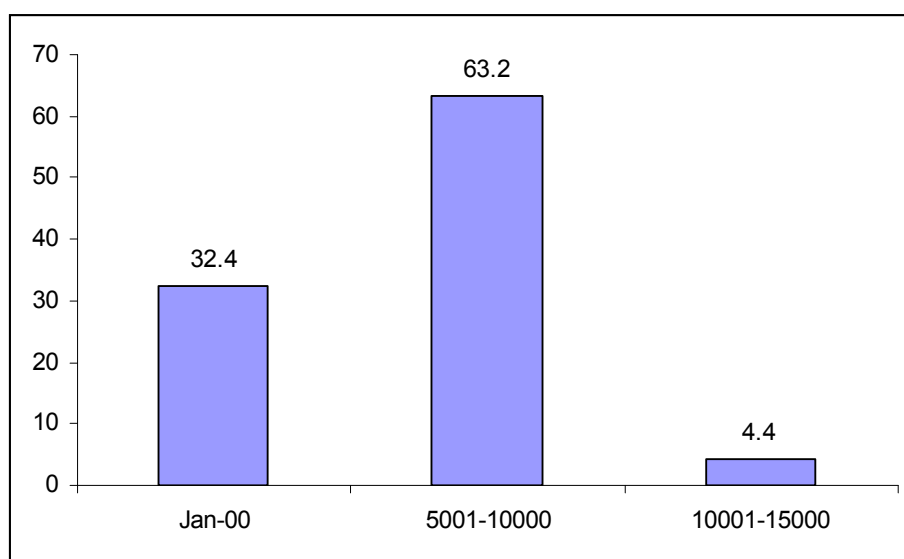


Table – 23 describes the monthly savings of the respondents. (63.2%) of the respondents stated that their monthly savings were between rupees 5001 to rupees 10000, followed by monthly savings of (32.4%) in between Rs. (1-5000) and the remaining (4.4%) of the respondents stated that they saved Rs. (10001 – 15000) per month.

**Table 24: Frequency and Percentage Distribution of Respondents on the basis of sending money to their Families**

Category	Frequency	Percent
1000-5000	83	33.2
5001-10000	143	57.2
10001-15000	22	8.8
15001&above	2	0.8
Total	250	100.0

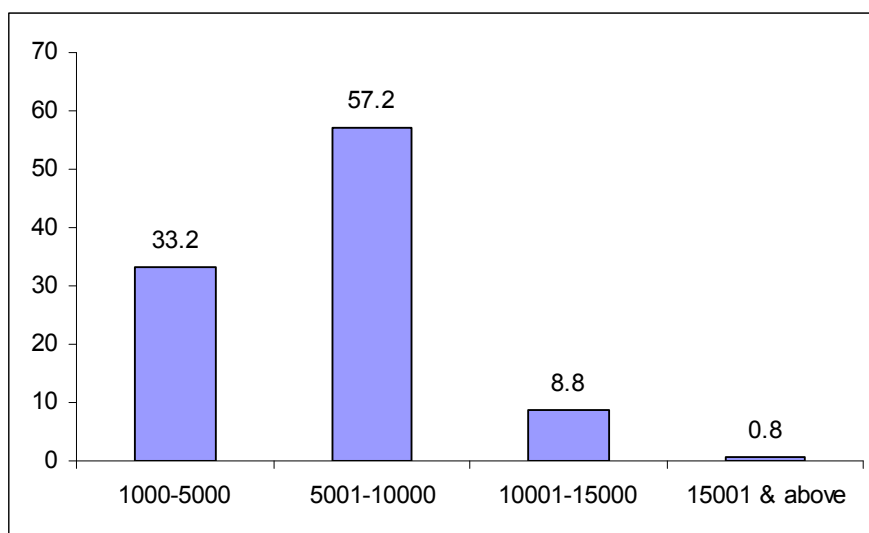


Table no. 24 describes a huge number of the respondent's i.e. (57.2%) stated that they were monthly sending between rupees Rs. 5001 to 10000 to their families back in Chitral to over-come the expenses, followed by (33.2%) between Rs. 1000 to Rs. 5000. Similarly, 8.8% of the respondents claimed about Rs. 10001 to Rs. 15000 and the remaining (0.8%) of the respondents were sending between Rs. 15001 & above. The studies by Dupont (1992) and Taylor (1996) reveal the problems and positive role of the migrant laborers. These studies state that remittances play a significant positive role in the development of the native places.

**Table 25: Frequency and Percentage Distribution of Respondents on the basis of Money Sending Purposes**

Category	Frequency	Percent
Accommodation expenses	9	3.6
For children education	67	26.8
For household expenditure	145	58.0
For investment in agriculture	29	11.6
Total	250	100.0

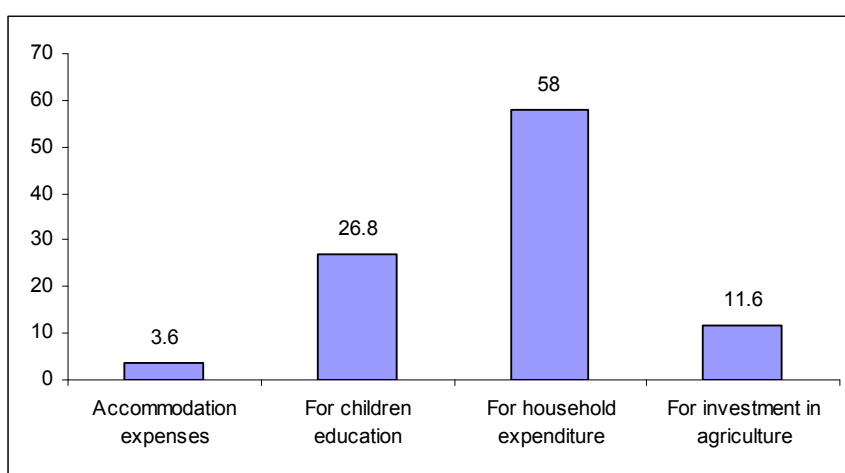


Table- 25 provides the information upon the money spending purposes. A majority i.e. (58%) of the total earned money was used on construction and household related issues. Moreover, some (26.8%) was used on provision or attainment of education. This is surfaced from this data that the respondents had problem of even enjoying some basic amenities of life like proper shelter and attainment of education probably due to the prevalent abject poverty. Workers remittances are an important source of income, received from outside, which is pre determinately used on meeting household related problems, conspicuously noticed in the developing world (Siddiqui, 2005; and Piotrowski, 2009). Similarly, low income families livelihood is also dependent on the remittances sent by the migrants to their relative families on regular basis (Connell and Brown, 1995; Stanwix and Connell, 1995)

**Table 26: Frequency and Percentage Distribution of Respondents in light of management of remittances in the household**

Category	Frequency	Percent
Brother	31	12.4
Daughter	7	2.8
Father	120	48.0
Grand father	1	.4
Grand mother	1	.4
Mother	52	20.8
Sister	11	4.4
Son	5	2.0
Uncle	2	.8
Wife	20	8.0
Total	250	100.0

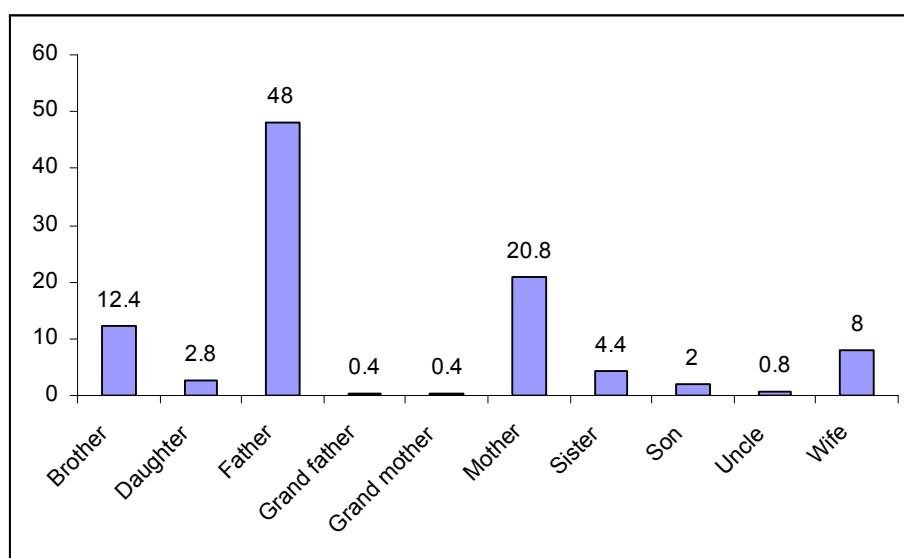


Table – 26 depicts that most of the remittances, received from the migrants by their respective families were utilized by the household heads of either gender.

This table provides ample information on the utilization of the received money, responsible persons at household level. This data project that some (48%) of the total received money was spent through the male, as household head, followed by mother (women) through a proportion of 20.8% while the brother in household had only (12.4%) role in this analogy. Male role in distribution and consumption of goods and services were found not so much essential, as is the case around in other parts of Khyber Pukhtoonkwa, as depicted by the above data. Sociologically a mix practice of patriarchy and matriarchy was prevalent in the study area. On the other hand, recent evidence from Mozambique suggests that migration could also strengthen social networks as the higher income from remittances reduces the cost for the migrant-sending household to participate in these networks (Gallego & Mendola, 2010). African migration is fundamentally a family affair, rather than an individual activity, and the sending of remittances by migrants is identified as one of the strongest and most pervasive phenomena in Africa's migration systems (Adepoju, 1995), however, with little trail of gender based intricacies.

**Table 27: Frequency and Percentage Distribution of Respondents in light of the nature and level of their business**

Category	Less than expectation	According to expectation	More than expectation
a) Nature and level of business	89 (35.6)	128 (51.2)	33 (13.2)
b) Return of business	110 (44)	119 (47.6)	21 (8.4)
c) Working Time	15 (6)	94 (37.6)	141 (56.4)
d) House facilities	118 (47.2)	127 (50.8)	5 (2.0)
e) Food facilities	67 (26.8)	177 (70.8)	6 (2.4)

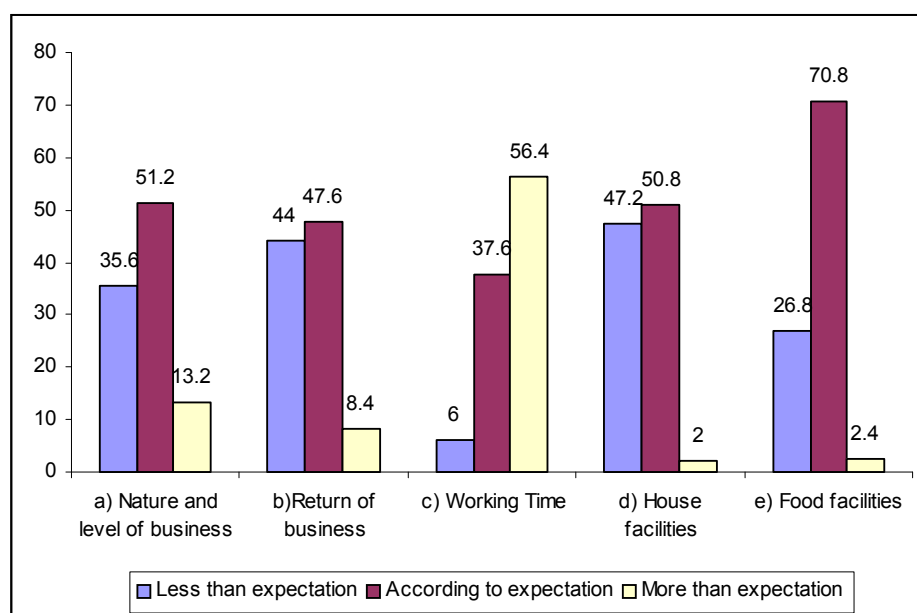


Table – 27 shows the nature and level of business of the respondents. A huge majority of the respondents i.e. (51.2%) had found their business completely in accordance with their expectations. As against it, (35.6%) stated that growth in their business was slower than what they expected. Just (13.2%) were of the opinion that their business were growing at a pace better than they expected. It is eminent to draw inference from the above data that the purpose of migration

is almost achieved. It could lead to the probable prospects of migration to continue in future

Similarly return of business was found satisfactory as indicated it by (47.6%) had termed the returns of their businesses quite in accordance with their expectations. Contrary to it, (44.0%) stated that the returns of their businesses were lesser than their expectations. While a modest number of respondents i.e. (8.4%) found their business' growth at a better pace than they expected .Table further describes the level of satisfaction and non-satisfaction of the respondents about work timings they underwent. According to respondents i.e. (37.6%), the work timings they observed were in accordance with their expectations. As against it, (6.0%) respondents stated that the work timings they underwent were lesser as not as per their expectations.

A huge number of respondents i.e. (56.4%) gave their views about the work timings as being more than their expectations. It is pertinent to mention that no any sound and well defined yardstick, designed in light of ILO perspectives, were seen in sight with reference to the working conditions in the study area. Exploitation of poor workers was noticed where they ought to perform up to 16 hours a day as reported by most of the respondents. A thorough check is needed on part of the agencies to devise a mechanism pertaining to work time utilization in its true implementation.

Moreover, while giving the data presented in the table about information as per their expectation or not. Most of the respondents i.e. (50.8%) were of the opinion that the facilities they had in their houses were in accordance with their expectations. As against it, (47.2%) termed the facilities in their houses are lesser than their expectations. Just (2.0%) respondents said that the facilities they had in their houses were beyond their expectations. The findings of this table are in relevance to the inferences of table no.20. A high level of satisfaction was found in their business, which had direct bearings on the facilities, adopted and enjoyed by the respondents almost in the same composition. It is evident from this data that income/profit, generated through business is utilized /enjoyed at household level in judicious way. The

negligible difference in income/profit and utilization could be contributed to amount of money sent back to their relative in native areas

In addition to, it further explains the food facilities either in accordance with the expectations of the respondents or not. Majority of the respondents i.e. (70.8%) termed the food facilities in the migrated areas as being in line with their expectations. While (26.8%) had stated the food facilities available to them as being lesser than what they expected. Just (2.4%) had termed the food facilities as being beyond their expectations. The spending on consumption of food is synonymous to the data generated in relation to facilities, adopted and enjoyed at household level subsequently. Level of satisfaction in regard to living standards of the migrants was according to their satisfaction, as pointed out by Fuller, (1980) from his findings.

**Table 28: Frequency and Percentage Distribution of Respondents in light of Participation in Socio-political scenario at place of destination**

Socio-cultural contact with neighbour	Bad/not good	Adequate	Very good
a) Opportunities for performing to participate in any association/political party	30 (12.0)	61 (24.4)	159 (63.6)
b) Opportunities for performing religious duties	1 (0.4)	57 (22.8)	192 (76.8)
c) Any other business which is not related to Chitralli-patti	127 (50.8)	103 (41.2)	20 (8.0)

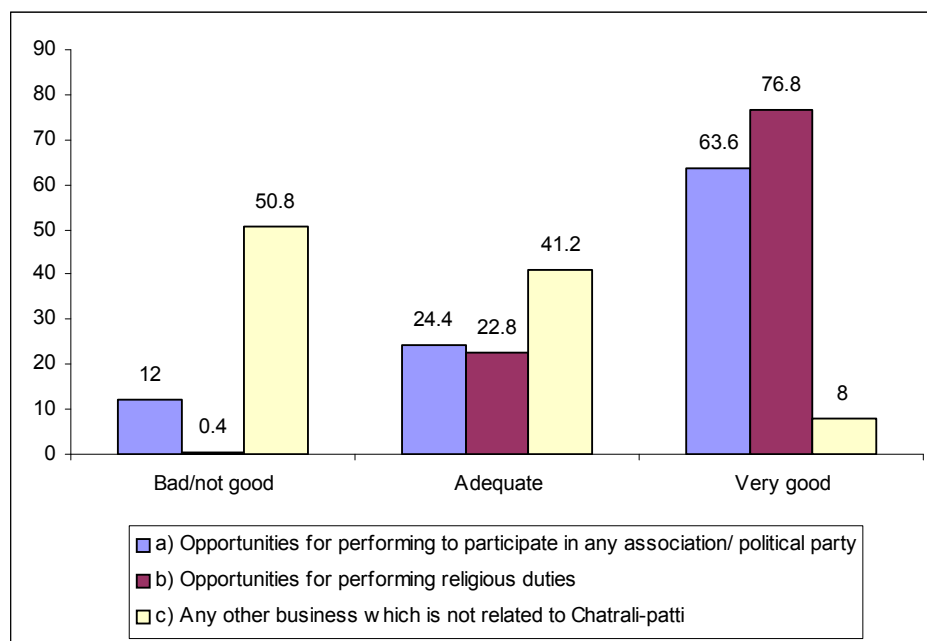


Table-28 disclosed about the opportunities of participation available to the respondents in social and political scenario at the place of destination. Opportunities in regards to participation in various social spheres, as asked were found highly encouraging, as (63.6%) considered opportunities for

performing to participate in any association/political party as very good followed by (76.8%) had full freedom of performing religious rituals and 8% termed the surrounding environment viable to participate in relation to their business. It is attributed to the prevalent socio-cultural environment, with a flexible mode to accommodate the non-locals. It is either due to the secondary sort of relationship prevalent in the city life or the sound moral character of these migrants, where people accommodate them without any fear of social evils which local culture seldom ready to adopt. Migration does not only imply movement of people, but also movement of **cultures** (Castles & Miller, 2009). However, Keban (1996) Report negates the above, that migrants often did not show respect to the local people. They did not make any attempt to understand local traditions. If people in the destination area also were highly ethnocentric, social conflict would easily erupt. Eminent examples are Iran Jaya and east Timor of Indonesia.

**Table 29: Frequency and Percentage Distribution of Respondents upon Pick and Drop services to kids after migration at native place**

	Before migration	After migration
Brother	8 (3.2)	74 (29.6)
Children	0	1 (.4)
Cousin	0	1 (.4)
Father	5 (2.0)	84 (33.6)
Grand father	0	1 (.4)
Mother	0	47 (18.8)
Self	237 (94.8)	0
Son	0	8 (3.2)
Uncle	0	30 (12)
Wife	0	4 (1.6)
Total	250 (100)	250 (100)

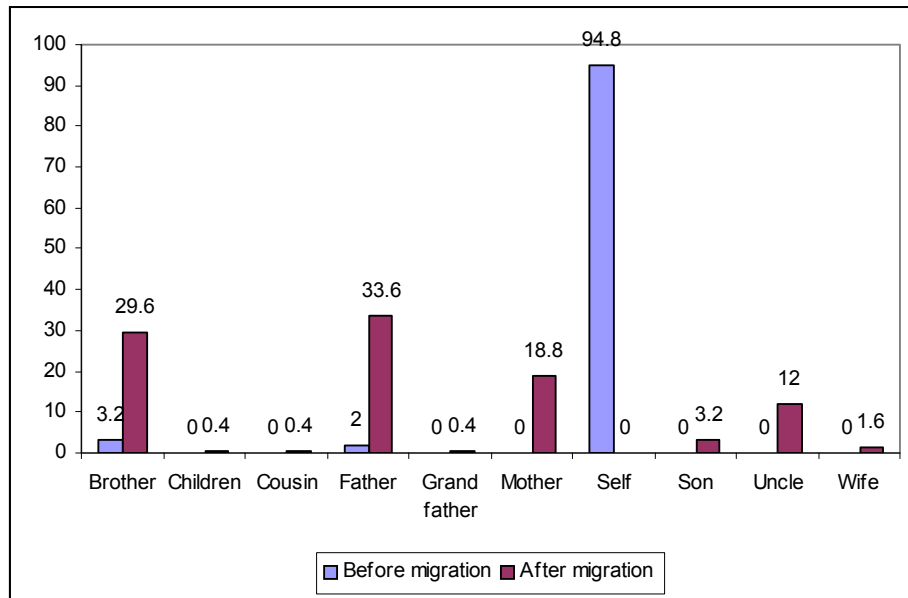


Table – 29 states about the distribution of respondents in regard to children for pick and drop purposes. The study disclosed that mostly the pick and drop responsibilities were met by the respondent himself i.e. (94.8%). The other members of the family had negligible involvement to this practice. Moreover, it further depicts the information after migration about the responsibilities pertaining to the school going children. It was found as a joint task performed on part of each family member as indicated by the data, although, mostly fathers (33.6%) were involved in this duty. However, the brothers of the household were also involved (29.6%), followed by mother (18.8%) and uncle with (12%) standing. It could be detected from this information that these activities pertaining to schooling of children were taken up as family (institution) responsibilities, could be attributed to the group task performance. Impact of internal migration on education, has disclosed in an assessment that around (40%) of temporary migrant families spent remittances to educate children and treat sick members. School enrolment rates among members of migrants' families in rural areas are higher as compared with similar age cohorts (Rahman et. al.1996).

**Table 30: Frequency and Percentage Distribution of respondents with relation to caring of non-school children in pre and post migration scenario**

	Before migration	After migration
Brother	13 (5.2)	58 (23.2)
Self	210 (84.0)	0
Family	0	1 (.4)
Father	23 (9.2)	98 (39.2)
Grand father	0	1 (.4)
Mother	0	43 (17.2)
Son	3 (1.2)	9 (3.6)
Uncle	1 (0.4)	37 (14.8)
Wife		3 (1.2)
Total	250 (100)	250 (100)

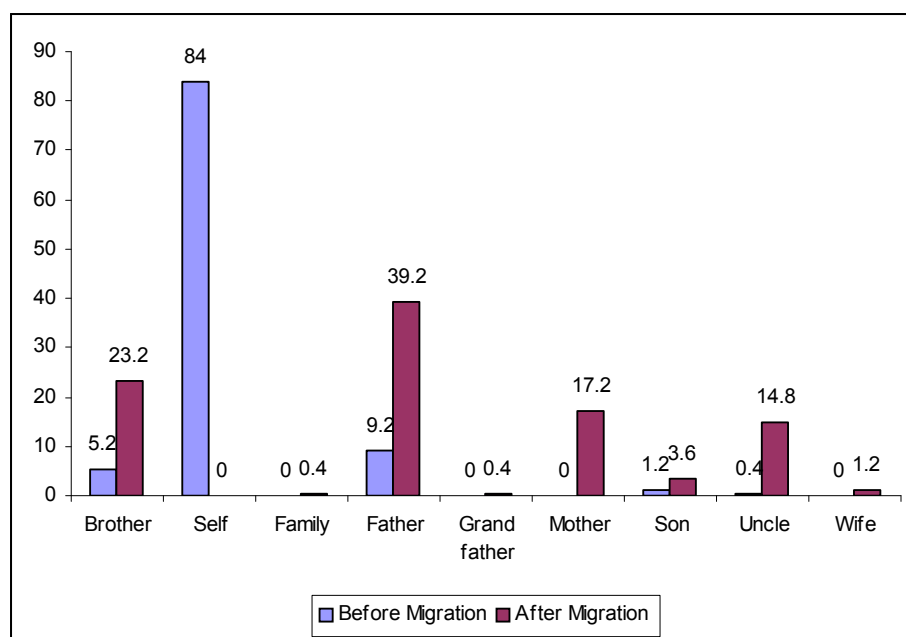
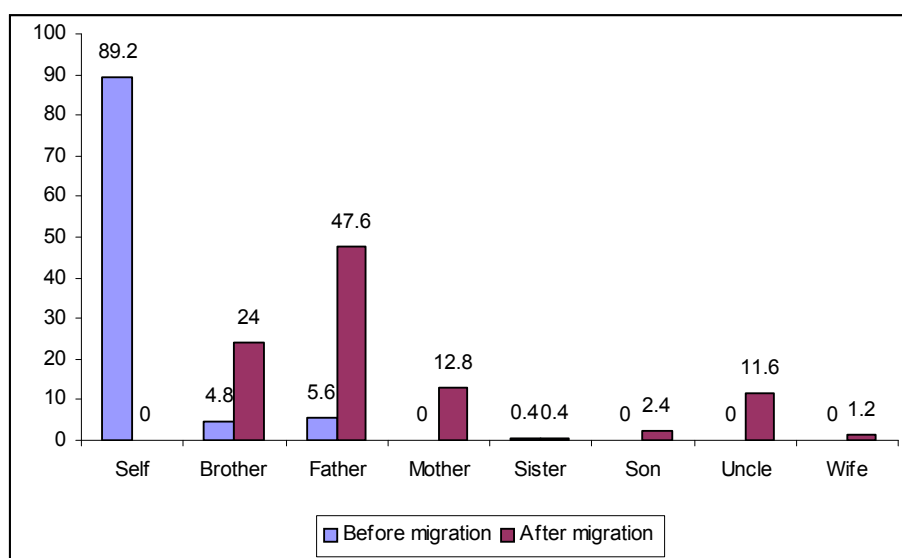


Table – 30 depicts the main responsibility of the nature, stated above was

identified to be carried out by the household head. The data revealed that (84%) such like activities were met by the respondents before migration. However, fathers, brothers and sons were also found involved, but with a negligible extent. It could be explained under the shadow of the available data on the subject concerned that mostly the household head carried and owned this responsibility before migration. In addition, the data provides the information on the nature of duty, responsibility executed as shown in the table above after migration. That this responsibility was performed jointly by the co-members of a family as compared before migration, where in, the household head owned it. It is probably due to the maximum involvement of the household head, which he ought to perform for the livelihood, left with little time to carry-out such activities this diverted the responsibility of pick and drop of kids to their relative schools with the composition indicating as brother (23.2%), father (39.2%), and mother (17.2%) and through uncle i.e., (14.8%) respectively.

**Table 31: Frequency and Percentage Distribution of respondents about caring of old relatives /parents in pre and post migration scenario**

	Before migration	After migration
Self	223 (89.2)	0
Brother	12 (4.8)	60 (24.0)
Father	14 (5.6)	119 (47.6)
Mother	0	32 (12.8)
Sister	1 (0.4)	1 (0.4)
Son	0	6 (2.4)
Uncle	0	29 (11.6)
Wife	0	3 (1.2)
Total	250	100.0



The responsibility for taking care of the old relatives and parents were asked. The responses gathered in light, were found that such activities were mostly found to be executed through the respondents i.e., (89.2%) with a negligible representation from other family members before migration. It is concluded

from this information that mostly, the house hold heads were enjoying the authority and reciprocating with taking pain and labor of caring and protection to other members of family.

However upon obtaining information in regard to the division of labour pertaining to taking care of old family members and parents. It was discussed that this responsibility had been declared and identified as joint co-sharing. This fact was further augmented by the data that father had to discharge such like activities (47.6%), followed by brothers (24%), mothers (12.8%) and uncles (11.6%) respectively after migration. This is because of the hectic efforts, required on part of the house hold head to keep him in the professional business activity which is the prime one as of its monetary repercussions.

**Table 32: Frequency and Percentage Distribution of respondents for paying expenses for children in pre and post migration scenario**

Category	Before migration	After migration
Self	186 (74.4)	0
Brother	14 (5.6)	69 (27.6)
Father	41 (16.4)	108 (43.2)
Mother	4 (1.6)	26 (10.4)
Son	3 (1.2)	16 (6.4)
Uncle	1 (0.1)	27 (10.8)
Wife	1 (0.1)	4 (1.6)
Total	250 (100)	250 (100)

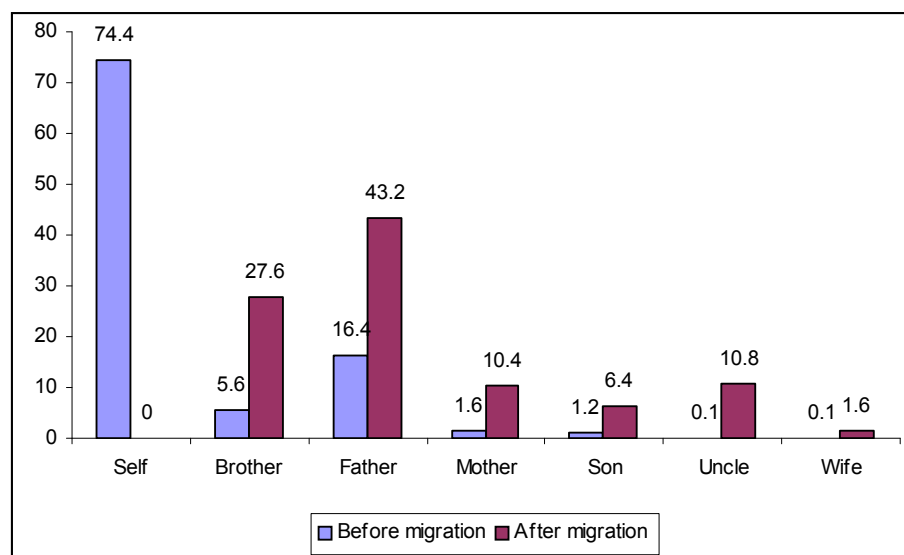
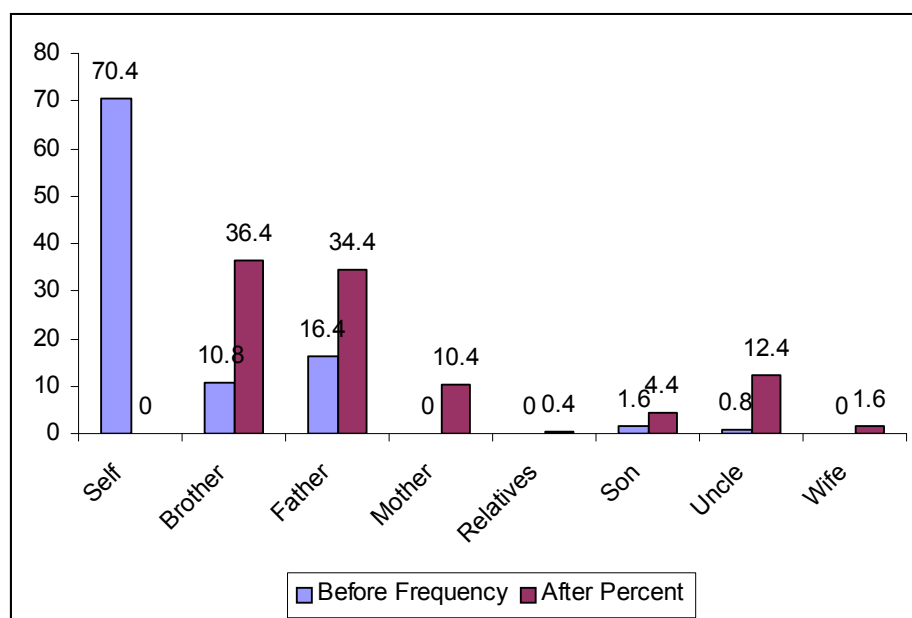


Table – 32 It was found that such expenses were mostly met by the respondents i.e. (74.4%), followed by father (16.4%), brother (5.6%) with negligible representation from other members of the family before migration. It is attributed to the fact that family as a unit had a strong working relationship based on investing in the education of children as a prime task. It

is as the children were considered the custodians of the future, responsible for taking care and along with carrying on the family name, while focusing on the responsibilities adopted and executed indicates towards the enactment of family as social unit, based on sharing the different house hold chores, as depicted in respect to extending care and expenses of children after migration. It was disclosed that almost each member had financial contribution to provide education to family new born and young children through proportion stood at; father (43.2%) , brother (27.6%), uncle (10.8%) and mothers (10.4%).It is evident that after migration the chances of earning had increased for each members, where they invested subsequently. The probable reason of each person involvement in investing into kid's education was due to the attractive working market, where every one had the opportunity to earn with out any gender attachment. Kuhn (2000) showed that the emigration of fathers and male siblings often resulted in improvements in the education of children left behind in some rural areas in Bangladesh. It is concluded that migrants' families had paid maximum attention on the schooling of their children with regard to elevate the position of their families in the society.

**Table 33: Frequency and Percentage Distribution of respondents upon earning family members before and after migration**

Category	Before Migration	After Migration
Self	176 (70.4)	0
Brother	27 (10.8)	91 (36.4)
Father	41 (16.4)	86 (34.4)
Mother	0	26 (10.4)
Relatives	0	1 (0.4)
Son	4 (1.6)	11 (4.4)
Uncle	2 (0.8)	31 (12.4)
Wife	0	4 (1.6)
Total	250 (100)	250 (100)



The professional involvement as depicted by table-33 indicates about two majors i.e. agriculture and business. Most of these activities were performed by the respondents i.e. (70.4%) on their own. The other probable earning attachments were discovered as on part of fathers, i.e. (16.4%) and brothers

i.e. (10.8%) respectively before migration. The data conspicuously disclosed the whole family involvement in the earning activities, as has been noticed in South Asian Societies, where earning is a joint activity under a common household head. It is probable from this result that care and protection, binding upon each adult members for financial survival. Furthermore, the business activities pertaining to the household was probed by asking questions from the respondents after migration. It was found that mostly brothers had taken the responsibilities of earning i.e. (36.4%), followed by fathers (34.4%) and mothers (10.4%) respectively. In addition, uncle had also some level of contribution i.e. (12.4%) to the family livelihood. It could be extracted that joint family practice was prevalent even after migration with sole responsibilities rest upon male members. The debt burden, for instance, may encourage households to send members out to look for work (Finan, 2004).

**Table 34: Frequency and Percentage Distribution of respondents on handling financial affairs before and after migration**

Category	Before migration	After migration
Self	155 (62.0)	0
Brother	15 (6.0)	80 (32.0)
Father	69 (27.6)	98 (39.2)
Mother	1 (0.4)	27 (10.8)
Son	6 (2.4)	11 (4.4)
Uncle	2 (0.8)	29 (11.6)
Wife	2 (0.8)	5 (2.0)
Total	250 (100)	250 (100)

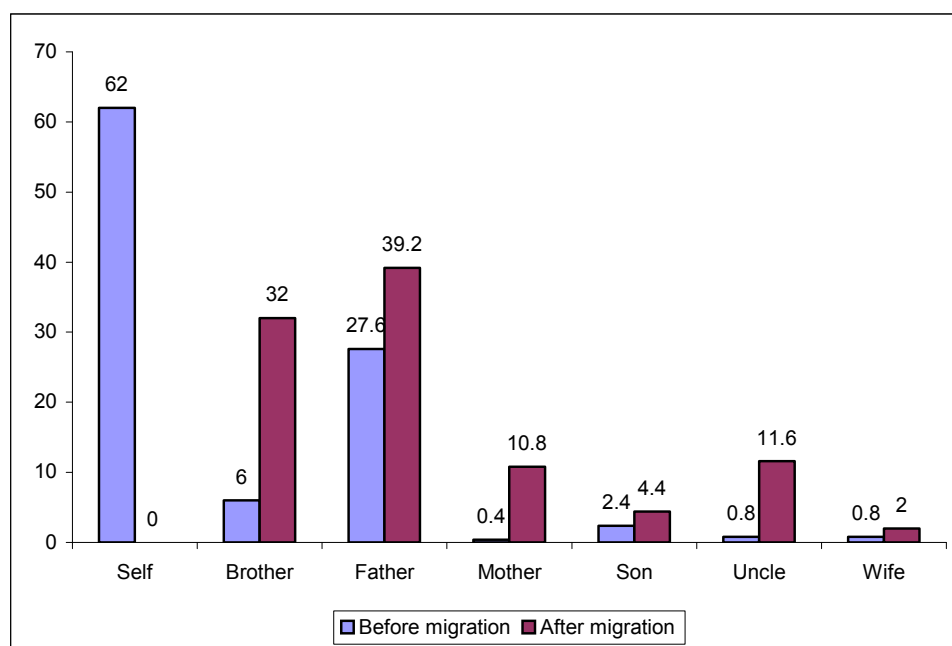


Table-34 depicts that financial matters are mostly confronted and subsequently addressed by male members at house hold level in most of the traditional societies, with no exception to Pakistan. During the study, it was

found that financial arrangements were often made by the adult working males for the family needs as depicted in table-34, where (62.0%) were found to be met by the respondents followed by father (27.6%) and brothers i.e. (6.0%) respectively before migration. It is clearly evident from these information that Chitral, as a society reflects the same characteristics of a traditional look, as has been envisaged from others exist in South Asia. Moreover, responsibilities, pertaining to financial arrangements, for catering the needs of members at house hold level were usually owned as binding by the male members. The data explored that brothers had taken this responsibility of extending financial support, i.e. (32%) followed by fathers (39.2%), mothers (10.8%) and uncles (11.6%) respectively after migration. It is explored from the data that women had some level of autonomy and authority over finance and their utilization also with respect to house hold arrangement. Rogaly and Rafique (2003) also demonstrated the difficulties faced by Women in single-earner households when husbands migrate: “when men migrate, women in single-earner households must adjust their own behavior as a part of their investment in the social relations through which they access credit and other forms of support during their husband’s absences”.

**Table 35: Frequency and Percentage Distribution of respondents with reference to domestic affairs before and after migration**

Category	Before migration	After migration
Self	150 (60.0)	0
Brother	8 (3.2)	51 (20.4)
Father	63 (25.2)	114 (45.6)
Mother	5 (2.0)	24 (9.6)
Relative	17 (6.8)	16 (6.4)
Son	5 (2.0)	11 (4.4)
Uncle	2 (0.8)	31 (12.4)
Wife	0	3 (1.2)
Total	250 (100)	250 (100)

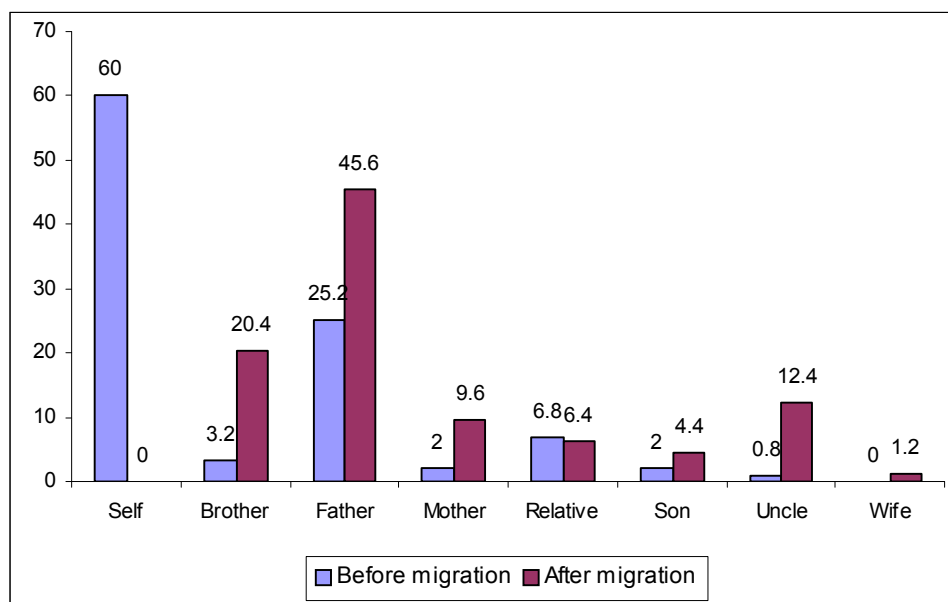
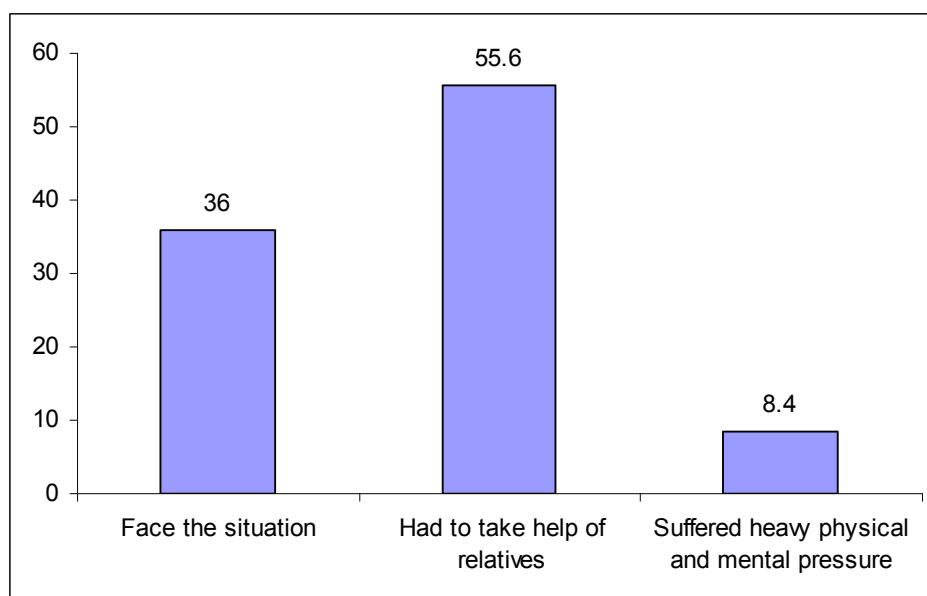


Table – 35 Activities, assigned to gender distribution in respect to division of labor is essential ingredients to a normal life at family level in particular and

community level in general. Division of labor in respect to the relevant families were explicitly asked, where in, it was disclosed that fathers were mostly carrying out (45.6%) followed by brothers (20.41%), uncles (12.4%) and mother (9.6%) respectively after migration with little involvements on part of other members of the family. Data explained with revelation that respondents had little involvement to house hold chores either due to an active role being performed on part of the respondents, while working in economic activities out-side house. This is because of male leading role in south Asian societies, where male are considered superior upon female with particular reference to house hold economy. House hold chores is a co-sharing responsibility, where in roles assigned, are well defined, thus making both genders responsible to perform their perpetuation of house hold as an unit, i.e. (institution). The study area, predominantly cultured by sticking to traditions as a true custodians for preservation and continuity of culture. The respondents provided with information of sharing house hold responsibilities, i.e. (60%), followed by father, i.e. (25.2%) and other relatives (6.8%) respectively before migration. It indicates towards a strong sense of cohesion prevalent at house hold level, justifying for its existence and survival for a larger period of time.

**Table 36: Frequency and Percentage Distribution of respondents with reference to Wives responsibilities after the migration of their Husbands**

Category	Frequency	Percentage
Face the situation	90	36.0
Had to take help of relatives	139	55.6
Suffered heavy physical and mental pressure	21	8.4
Total	250	100.0



The above table 36 depicts the responsibly of the wives after the migration of their husband. Majority of the respondent's i.e. (55.6%) disclosed that their wives take help of their relative at time of trouble, followed (36.0%) of the respondents claimed about that they face the situation and the remaining 8.4% were on the opinion that their wives suffered heavy physical and mental pressure.

**Table 37: Frequency and Percentage Distribution of respondents with regard to effects on children at native place due to migration**

Category	Frequency	Percent
Adopted bad behavior	14	5.6
Mostly remain sick	13	5.2
No effects	115	46.0
remain depressed	85	34.0
Rude attitude	23	9.2
Total	250	100.0

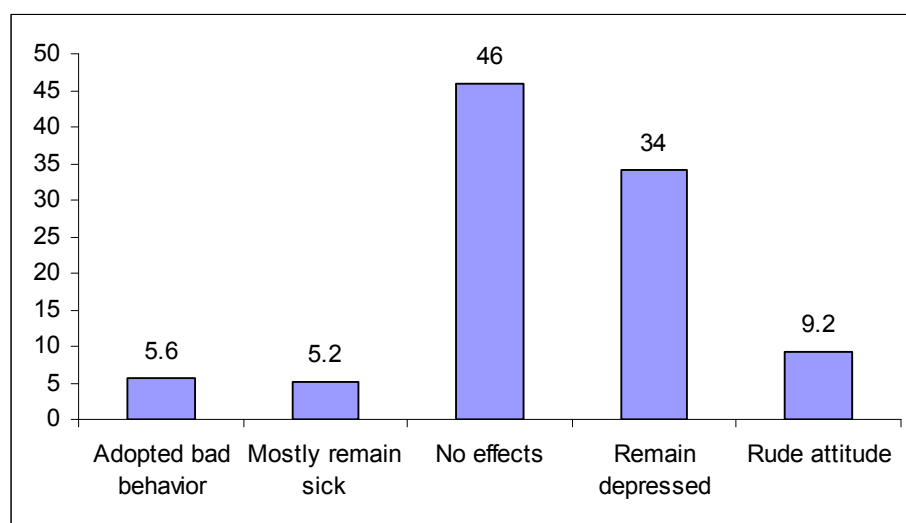


Table – 37 Explicitly displays the various nature of effects witnessed due to migration as phenomena as result factors, identifying by the respondents, indicated that majority of population i.e. (46%) had noticed no effects of migration on children, followed by (34%), which acknowledged the depressed environment at place of origin .It could be concluded that place of origin and destination were representing the characteristics ideal for migration (i.e. Push and Pull factors). As described by D’Emilio *et al*, (2007), the longer the separation between the migrating parents and their children, the more children lose parents’ reference in the management of the household, their authority and their role as providers of love and material care.

**Table 38: Frequency and Percentage Distribution of Respondents according to nature of feeling after their migration**

Did you feel any frustration/indifference in your love and affection after migration?

Category	Frequency	Percent
Depressed	64	25.6
feel loneliness	117	46.8
Far from village	1	0.4
Happy	1	0.4
Learn the art of domestic tasks	6	2.4
loss of love	61	24.4
Total	250	100.0

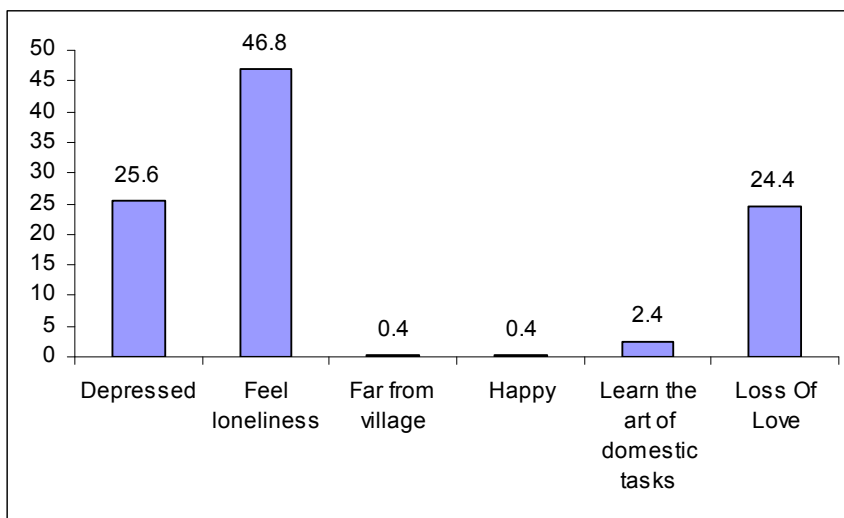


Table-38 Focus on the nature of feeling after migration as were conspicuously asked and determined through responses gathered from face to face contact during data collection. The data revealed that migrants had the experience of loneliness (46.8 %), followed by loss of love (24.4%). It is a natural tendencies, noticed in all biological entities including human beings, that ancestral place is often recalling in the minds, upon migration to place of destination.

**Table 39: Frequency Percentage Distribution of respondents according to development of new behavior after migration**

Category	Frequency	Percent
Early sleeping due to tiredness	31	12.4
Eating with friends outside	38	15.2
Gossip	26	10.4
Reading	4	1.6
Study	18	7.2
Watching T.V	133	53.2
Total	250	100.0

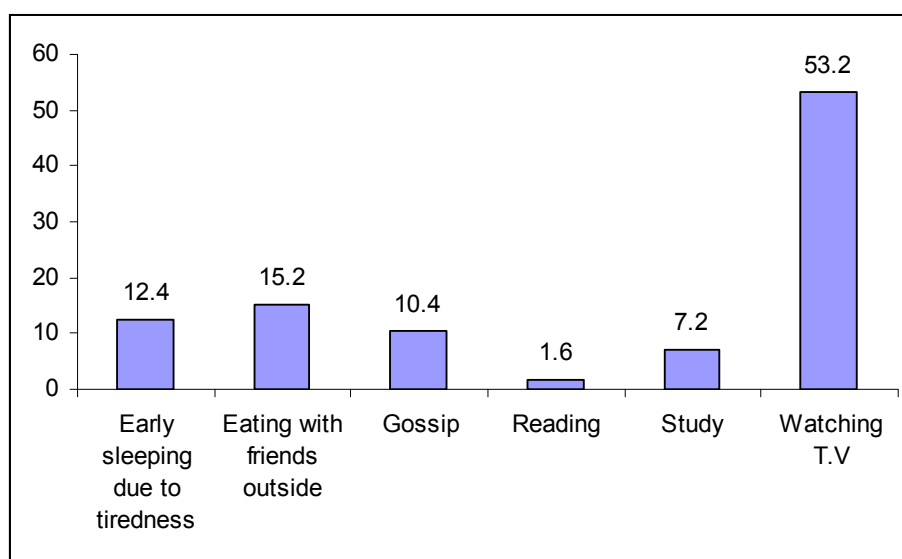


Table – 39 Media is always playing a pivotal role both in behavior adoption and moulding. Socialization, as un-ending phenomena, inflicted might through family at embryonic level up-to adulthood, while passing through peer and school experienced and finally re-emerged as solid picture upon remaining infants. From media has been extensively reported as indicated in the above table. The table disclosed that electronic media was instrumental in regards to behavior formation as reported by (53.2%) followed by enjoying lunch and dinner (15.2), while accompanying friends (10.4) .It is attributed to the friendly and feasible environment prevalent at the destination.

**Table 40: Frequency and Percentage Distribution of respondents with reference to nature of activities performed and being performed**

Change in attitude	Before migration.		After migration.	
	Yes	No	Yes	No
a) Desire to educate children both male and female.	203 (81.2)	47 (18.8)	242 (96.8)	8 (3.2)
b) Become liberal about women employment.	151 (60.4)	99 (39.6)	205 (82.0)	45 (18)
c) Freedom to children to decide about their future and marriage.	167 (66.8)	83 (33.2)	202 (80.8)	48 (19.2)
d) Desire for hard work.	205 (82.8)	45 (18)	243 (97.2)	7 (2.8)
e) Tendency to spend time with family.	200 (80.0)	50 (20)	235 (94.8)	15 (6.0)
f) Increasing interest in religion.	211 (84.4)	39 (15.6)	242 (96.8)	8 (3.2)
g) Interest in politics.	97 (38.8)	153 (61.2)	135 (54.0)	115 (46.0)
h) Interest in religion.	179 (71.6)	71 (28.4)	218 (87.2)	32 (12.8)

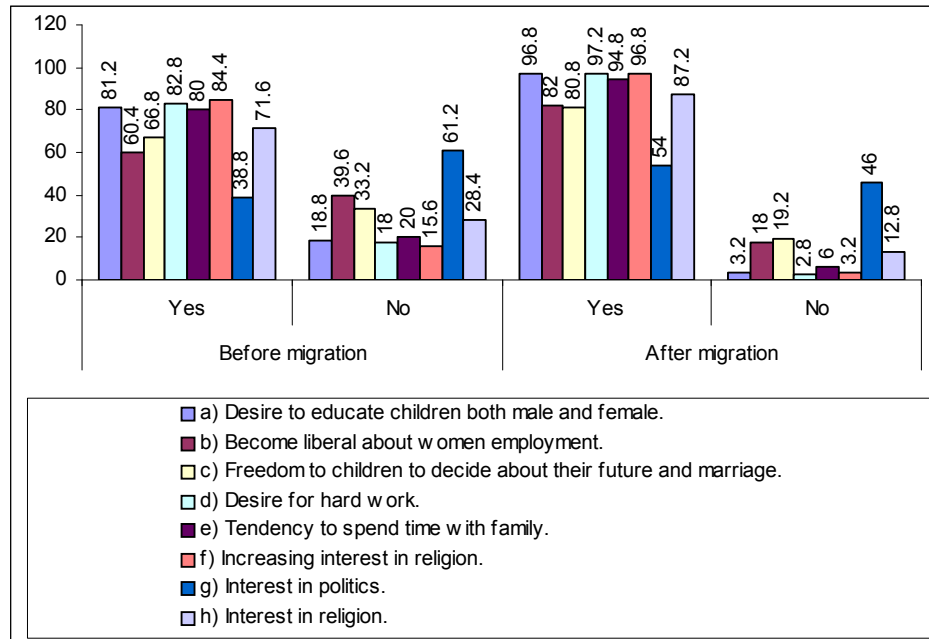


Table -40 Individuals as a social being is bound to participate in the prevalent social milieu while performing his due role. The allocation of prescribed role under the carrier of the assigned status often contribute to the stability at micro-institutional level and at macro, i.e. cultural level as well. The above table indicates towards the migrant's nature of activities performed and desired to perform. The desire for providing education to their children (both male and female) after migration has been risen as indicated by (96.8%) respondents. Liberal attitude to women employment has also been discovered (82.0%). Similarly, children involvement in marriage decision on their own was also found significant (80.8%). The enthusiasm of hard work was found with (97.2%). In addition, time spending with family (94.8%), participating in religious activities (96.8), and in politics (54%) and business activities as (87.2%). The data revealed a comprehensive sketch of improvement in enhancement of activities pertaining to social, cultural and religious attachment of these migrants. Their involvements on encouraging paths indicated towards a friendly and viable environment completely suitable for migration of the far plunged areas people as shown by (Crawford, 2001) both internal and international migration have played a central role in the "landslide of social, political and economic changes" in rural Morocco.

**Table 41: Frequency and Percentage Distribution of respondents upon the attitude of locals before and after migration**

Category	Before migration			After migration		
	Yes	No	Total	Yes	No	Total
a) With great respect.	220 (88.0)	30 (12.0)	250 (100)	238 (95.2)	12 (4.8)	250 (100)
b) Met jealousy.	57 (22.8)	193 (77.2)	250 (100)	69 (27.6)	181 (72.4)	250 (100)
c) Sought advice.	210 (84.0)	40 (16.0)	250 (100)	229 (91.6)	21 (8.4)	250 (100)
d) Feel frustration.	132 (52.8)	118 (47.2)	250 (100)	147 (58.8)	103 (41.2)	250 (100)
e) Give hospitality.	214 (85.6)	36 (14.4)	250 (1000)	229 (91.6)	21 (8.4)	250 (100)
f) Ridicule and Mockery/insulted	74 (29.6)	176 (70.4)	250 (100)	73 (29.2)	177 (70.8)	250 (100)

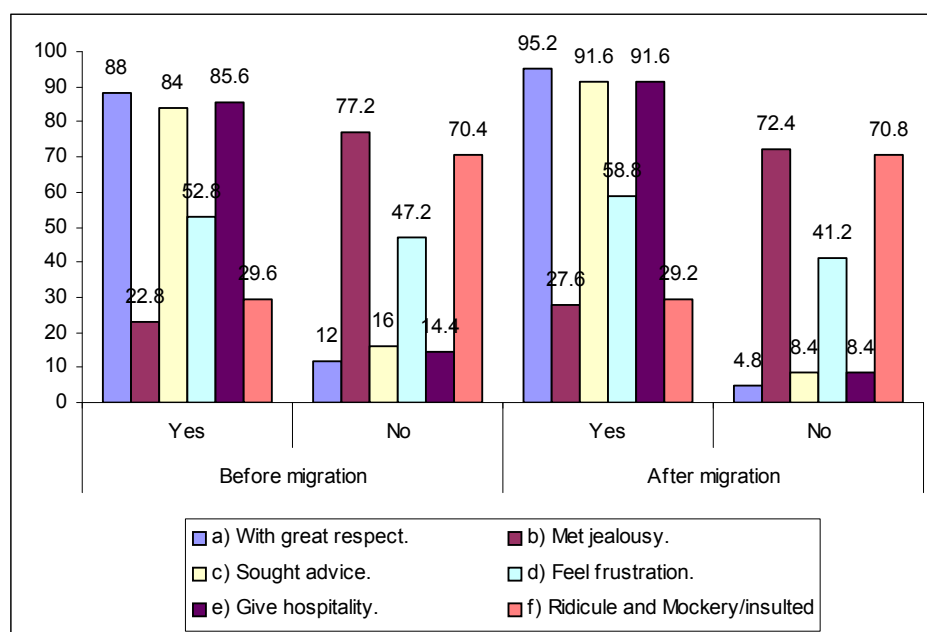


Table-41 The encouraging and appealing environment at place of destination is a critical key and not only to the settlement of migrants but to the cultural consistency also. Some questions pertaining to the incumbent social and cultural facts were taken into consideration. The study found that respect after migration was increased (95.2%), advice of people towards the migration as phenomena (91.6), hospitality (91.6%) respectively .However, the study further disclosed that frustration, mockery and jealousy at the place of destination were found increased with (58.8%) , (27.6%) followed by a decrease in mockery in negligible extent. Feasible and encouraging environment do lead to the enhancement of efficiencies both at individual as well as collective level indicated by the data.

**Table 42: Frequency and Percentage Distribution of respondents in light of suggestions for improvement of business**

Category	Frequency	Percent
Export of Goods	28	11.2
Hard work	102	40.8
Increase Salary	12	4.8
Micro-credit	72	28.8
Peace	36	14.4
Total	250	100.0

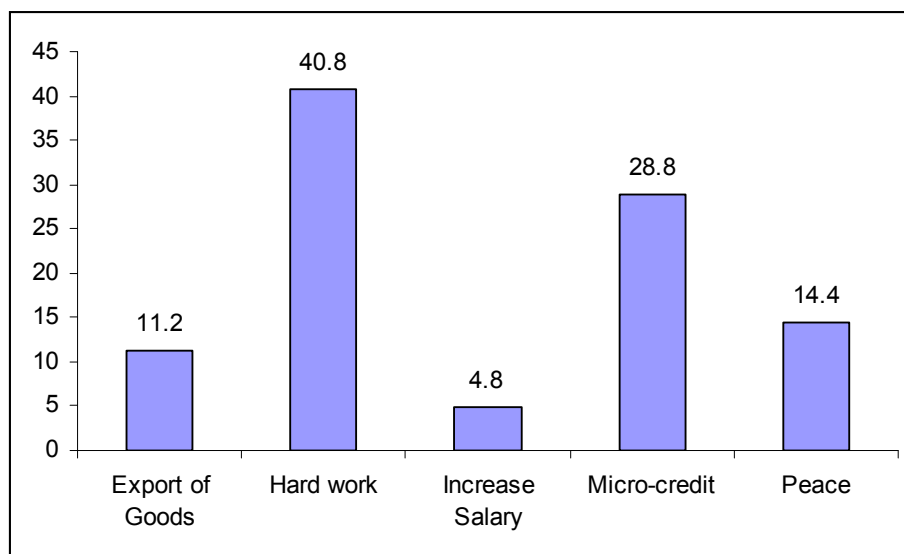


Table-42 shows the suggestions put forwarded by the respondents for improvement in business. As the data suggested (11.2%) suggested further enhancement in the export of goods. Some (40.8%) were of the view that hard work should be done in all fields of life to promote the business. In addition (4.8%) hinted at reasonable increase in the salaries of the workers. A huge number of them i.e. (28.8%) recommended that micro credit schemes against as much minimum interest rate as possible be initiated to encourage business in the country while (14.4%) were of the opinion that law and order situation matters a lot in the improvement of business, which needs to be further improved.

#### 4.2: Uni-variate analysis of Chitral district (Native area).

**Table-1: Frequency and Percentage Distribution of households on the basis of relationship with the migrants**

Category	Frequency	Percent
Brother	148	59.2
Father	46	18.4
Son	56	22.4
Total	250	100.0

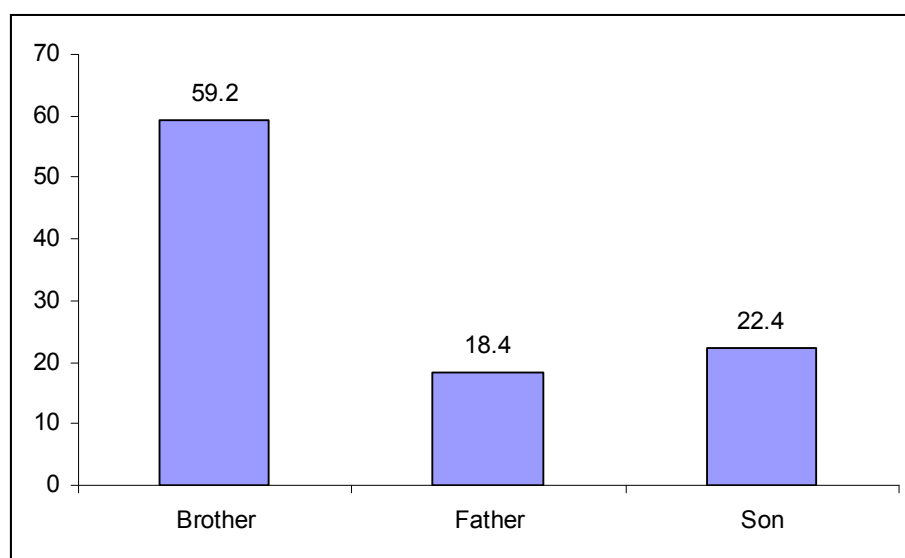


Table No-1 shows frequency distribution of the relationship of the households with the migrants. During the study, it was found that majority of the respondents i.e. (59.2%) claimed that the migrants were their brothers, followed by (22.4%) as their son while the remaining (18.4%) disclosed them as their fathers. Remittances are the basic way of migrants participation to the welfare of household which is a part of agreement between family members. (Ellis, 1998; and Murphy, 2002). The network theory of migration shows the role of social relationships in fostering migration phenomena (Boyd, 1989).

**Table-2: Frequency and Percentage distribution of the households on the basis of type of migration**

Category	Frequency	Percent
Permanent	11	4.4
Seasonal	179	71.6
Year wise	60	24.0
Total	250	100.0

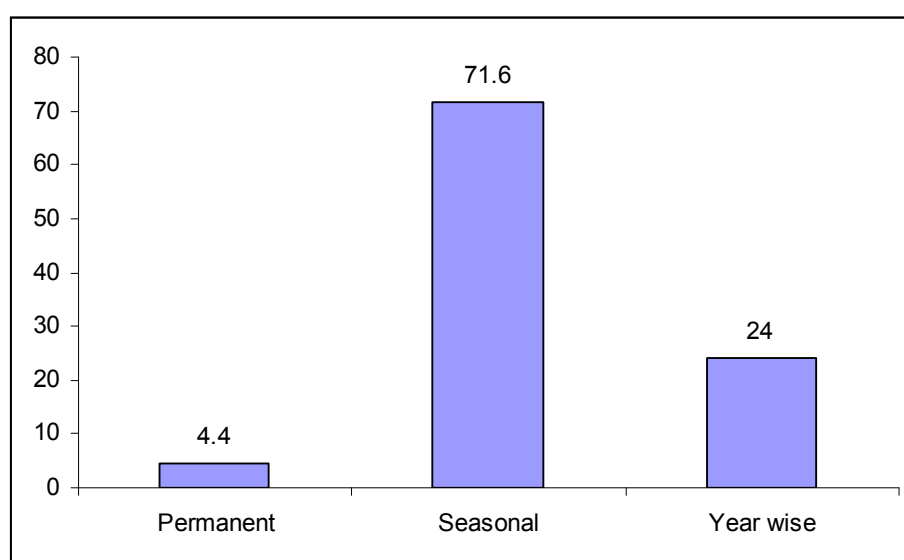


Table No. 2 Explicitly displays the various types of migration in which majority of the respondents i.e. (71.6%) were seasonal migrants followed by (24.0%) as year-wise while (4.4%) were permanent migratory workers. In developing countries, rural areas face problems like lack of private credit and insurance markets, unavailability of public welfare provisions like unemployment insurance, so rural households are exposed to seasonal fluctuations and other external risks. Migration is a way for households to get rid of these risks (Massey et al., 1993). Hossain (2003) from northwest Bangladesh showed that around a quarter of chronic poor households do seasonal migration as an important livelihood strategy.

**Table-3: Frequency and Percentage Distribution of households in relation to number of migrants**

Category	Frequency	Percent
1-2	230	92.0
3-4	20	8.0
Total	250	100.0

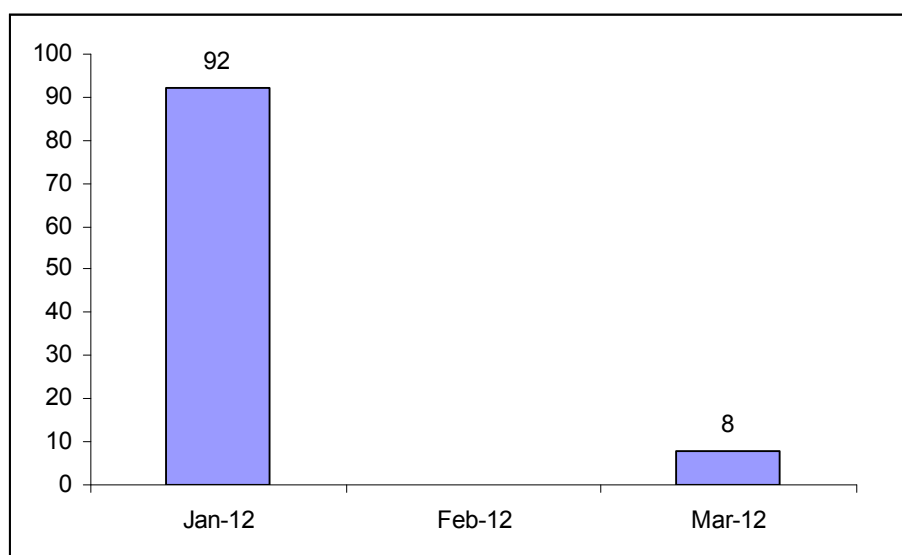


Table NO-3 depicts the number of migrants in the household and revealed that highest number i.e. (90.0%) of the respondents had (1 to 2) members while (8.0%) had from (3 to 4) number of migrants in the family. It is concluded from the data that lack of job opportunities at native compel the people to migrate. Migration is a mean for household to utilize their surplus labor efficiently as a source of income (Murphy, 2002).

**Table-4: Frequency and Percentage Distribution of Households in relation to number of Earners**

Category	Frequency	Percent
1-2	36	14.4
3-4	202	80.8
5 and above	12	4.8
Total	250	100.0

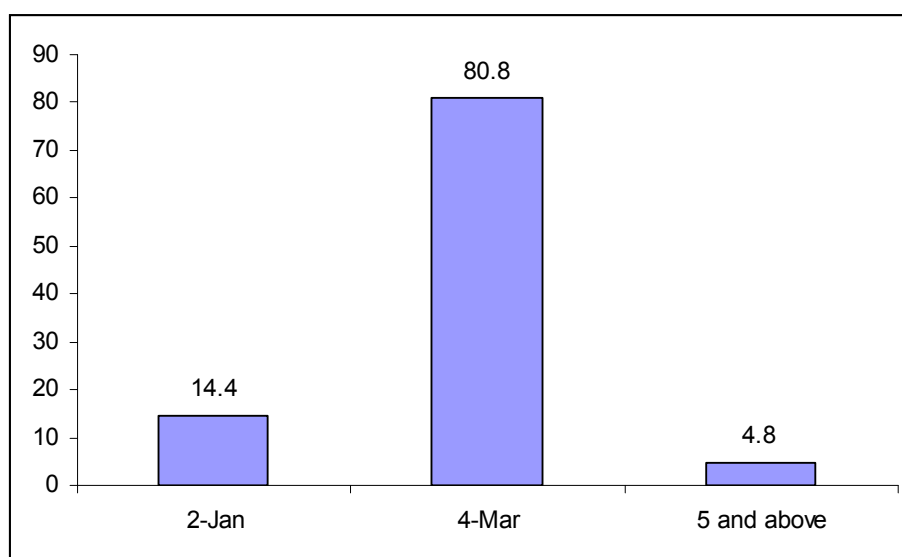


Table No- 4 indicates the number of earners in the households. Majority i.e. (80.8%) of the respondents told they had (3 to 4) earners members in household followed by (14.4%) claimed as (1 to 2) members while (4.8%) disclosed as 5 and above. Saefullah (1996) showed that as the socio cultural conditions don't allow the female to work outside the area of their residence, the migrants are usually male. In times of need the heads of household (male) have to earn money somewhere else, so the migrants are usually heads of household. Similarly several other studies argued that migration is positively related to family size (Connell *et al.*, 1976; Sekhar, 1993; and Upton, 1967).

**Table-5: Frequency and Percentage Distribution of Households in light of source of income**

Category	Frequency	Percent
Business	28	11.2
Livestock	13	5.2
Remittances	83	33.2
Agriculture	121	48.4
Salaries	5	2.0
Total	250	100.0

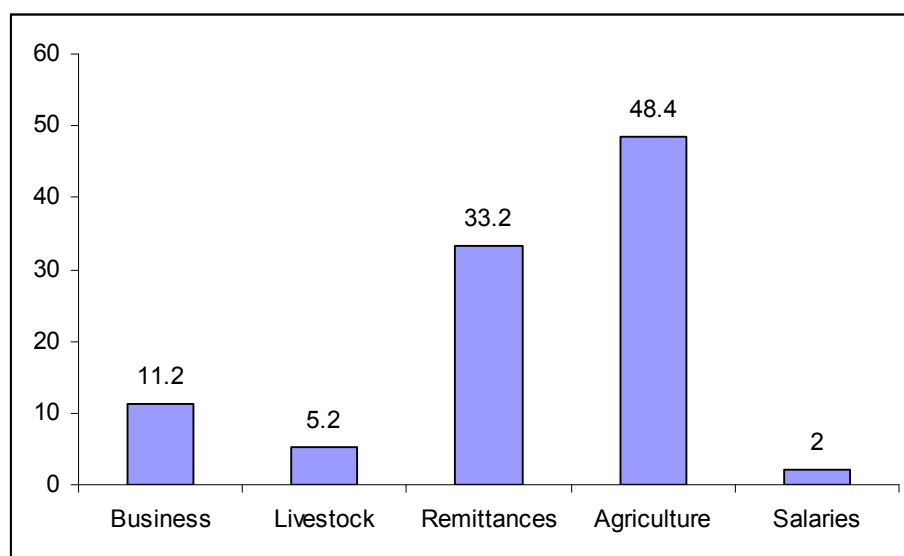


Table No-5 explores the sources of income of the households. Majority i.e. (48.4%) of the respondents had agriculture as their main source of income, followed by remittances indicated as (33.2%) and (11.2%) claimed as their business. These results indicate that majority of the respondents directly depend upon remittances and agriculture. Montgomery et al. (2000) have noted that in developing countries, households are dependent on multiple sources of income that can change from year to year and even from season to season.

**Table-6: Frequency and Percentage Distribution of households as per land holding (in jarebs)**

Category	Frequency	Percent
1-6 jareb	89	35.6
7 -12 jareb	84	33.6
13-18 jareb	77	30.8
Total	250	100.0

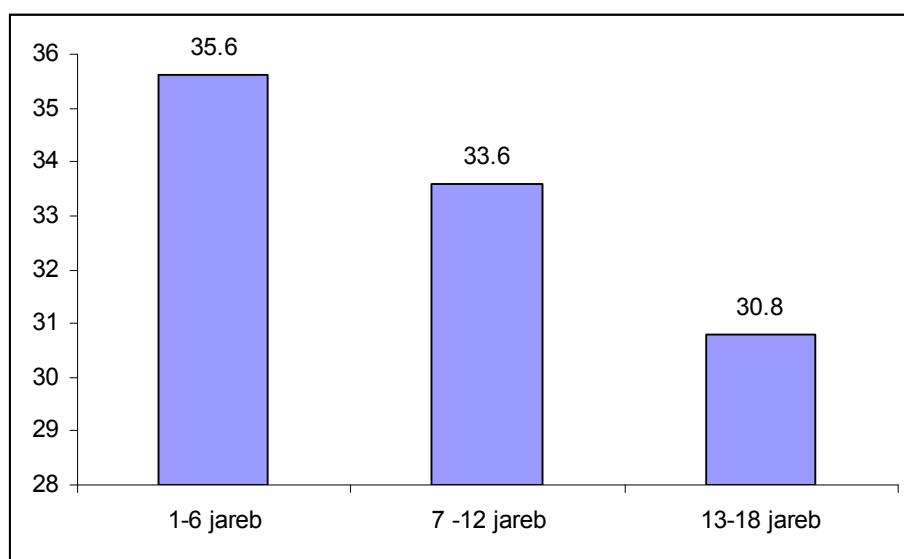


Table No. 6 depicts the size of land holding of the households. (35.6%) of the respondents had between up to (1-6) jarebs of land, followed by (33.6%) had from 7 to 12 jarebs of land, while (30.8%) had in between (13-18) jarebs of land. These findings showed that majority of the respondents are poor in the targeted areas. Kuhn (1999) concluded that family migration is prevalent in those who have no land while those who have some small land practice individual migration.

**Table-7: Frequency and Percentage Distribution of households periodical sending of money**

	Frequency	Percent
Annually	14	5.6
Biannually	25	10.0
Monthly	175	70.0
Quarterly	36	14.4
Total	250	100.0

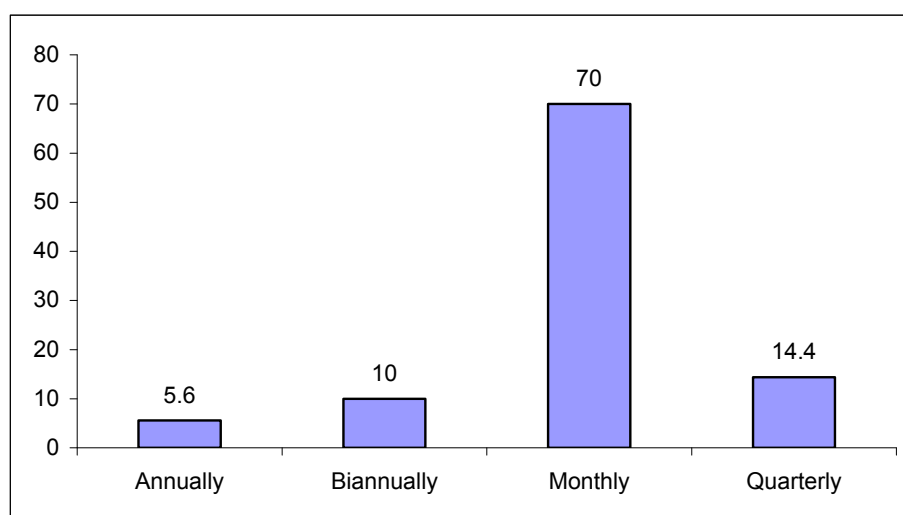


Table No. 7 explores the pattern of sending money. Majority of the respondents, i.e. (70%) were of the view that migrants were sending money monthly followed by (14.4%) of the respondents who claimed about quarterly and (10%) of the respondents opined about bi-annually. It is concluded from the data that majority of the household depend directly on monthly remittances. Some claim that as the poorest are not the typical migrants and people belonging to other economy classes also migrate so inequalities increases with migration (Ellerman, 2005; and Lipton, 1984). Migrant remittances are also an important source of income for savings and investment, as confirmed by Taylor (1996), and thereby lead to growth and development of an economy.

**Table-8: Frequency and Percentage Distribution of households according to dependency on remittances**

	Frequency	Percent
Enough	143	57.2
Not very much	1	.4
Very much	106	42.4
Total	250	100.0

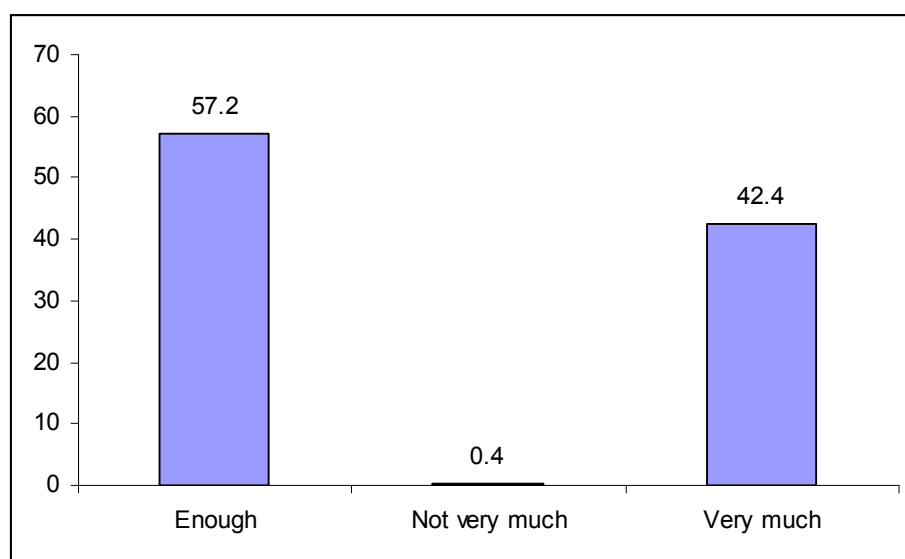
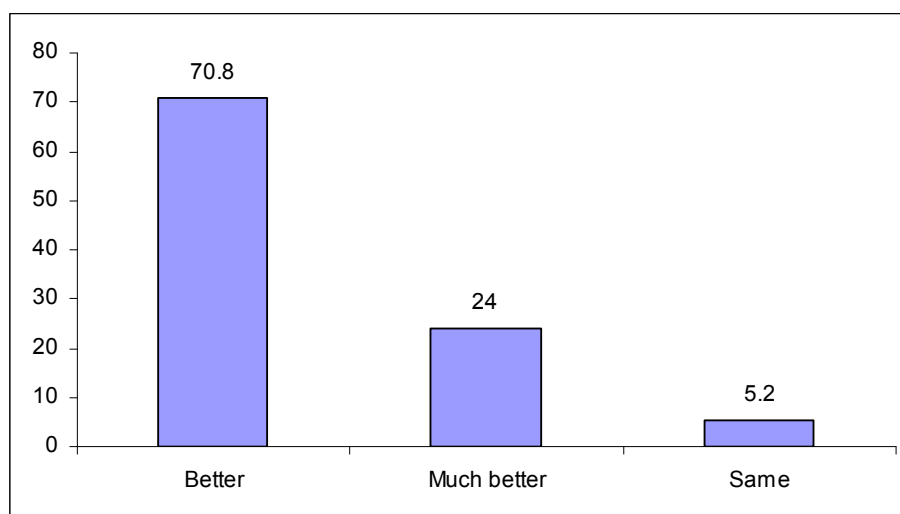


Table No. 8 highlights the dependency of the households on remittances. Majority of the respondents i.e. (57.2%) disclosed about enough dependency on remittances, followed by (42.4%) of the respondents claimed very much dependency on remittances while (0.4%) claimed depend not very much on remittances. This showed majority of the households depend on remittances for their survival. Research shows that migrants belonging to all categories, whether temporary and/or permanent, married and/or unmarried, rich or poor send and receive assistance albeit to different extents (Kuhn, 2000).

**Table-9: Frequency and Percentage Distribution of households according to change in their economic conditions after migration**

Category	Frequency	Percent
Better	177	70.8
much better	60	24.0
Same	13	5.2
Total	250	100.0



Tale No. 9 shows that out of total (70.8%) of the respondents stated about better in economic conditions of households after migration followed by (24.0%) of the respondents who claimed about much better change in economic conditions and the remaining (5.2%) stated about same economic conditions. It showed that majority of the household were in favor of changes in their economic conditions. According to Saith (1997), remittances “accrue disproportionately to the richer areas, sectors and classes”. In contrary, remittances transferred at domestic level are directed mostly to the poorer regions and the poorest classes, as revealed from a broader review of the Asia and Pacific region by the United Nations Economic and Social Commission for Asia and the Pacific (UNESCAP, 2003).

**Table-10: Frequency and Percentage Distribution of the respondents per annum spending on Health before and after migration**

Amount spent on health	Before migration	No. of respondents (%age)	After migration	No. of respondents (%age)
Spiritual treatment	1– 2000	211 (84.4%)	1–10000	102 (40.8%)
Home-made treatment	2001– 4000	17 (6.8%)	10001–20000	60 (24%)
Hakim	4001– 6000	17 (6.8%)	20001–30000	72 (28.8%)
Qualified doctors	6001– 8000	5 (2.0)	30001–40000	11 (4.4%)
Private-doctor	0	0	40001–50000	5 (2.0%)
		250 (100.0%)		250 (100.0%)

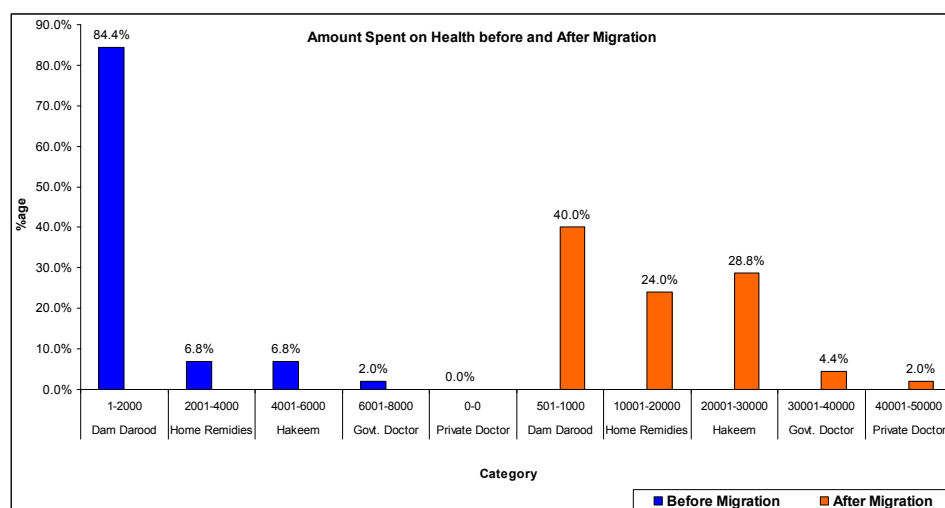


Table No. 10 disclosed that out of total (84.4%) of the respondents claimed spent an amount of Rs. (1 to 2000) on spiritual treatment for health, followed by (6.8%) of the respondents spent up to Rs. (2001–4000) on home made

treatment, (6.8%) of the respondents spent up to Rs. (4001–6000) on Hakeem and (2%) of the respondents spent up to Rs. (6001–8000) on Qualified doctors for health before migration. In rural areas the access to social and health facilities was either difficult or due to the historical development of biases that created “Islands Privilege” in urban areas (Harrison, 1982; Lipton, 1976). Similarly, in rural Africa, economic deprivation has a profound effect on health and other livelihood outcomes (Zulu, Dodoo, & Ezeh, 2002).

However, there was visible change appeared to spent amount on health after migration. Majority of the respondents i.e. (40.8%) claimed that they increased to spent amount on health Rs. (1–10000) on Spiritual treatment, followed by (24%) of the respondents up to Rs. (10001–20000) on home made treatment, (28.8%) of the respondents up to Rs. (20001–30000) on Hakim , (4.4%) of the respondents claimed up to Rs. (30001–40000) on Qualified doctors and (2%) of the respondents disclosed up to Rs. (40001–50000) on private doctors after migration in the targeted areas.

The results pointed out that remittances played an important role to spend more on health after migration of the respondents. These findings are supporting the out-come that migration increases the awareness about health in addition to the direct effect on wealth, which has led to lower rates of infant deaths and higher birth weights in Mexico (Hildebrandt & McKenzie, 2005).

**Table-11: Frequency and Percentage Distribution of the respondents per annum spending on Housing conditions before and after migration**

Housing conditions	Before migration	No. of respondents (%age)	After migration	No. of respondents (%age)
<b>Mud-houses</b>	1-50000	136 (54.4%)	1-100000	134 (53.6%)
<b>Semi-concrete houses</b>	50001-100000	111 (44.4%)	100001-200000	100 (40.0%)
<b>Concrete houses</b>	100001-150000	3 (1.2%)	200001-300000	16 (6.4%)
		<b>250 (100.0%)</b>		<b>250 (100.0%)</b>

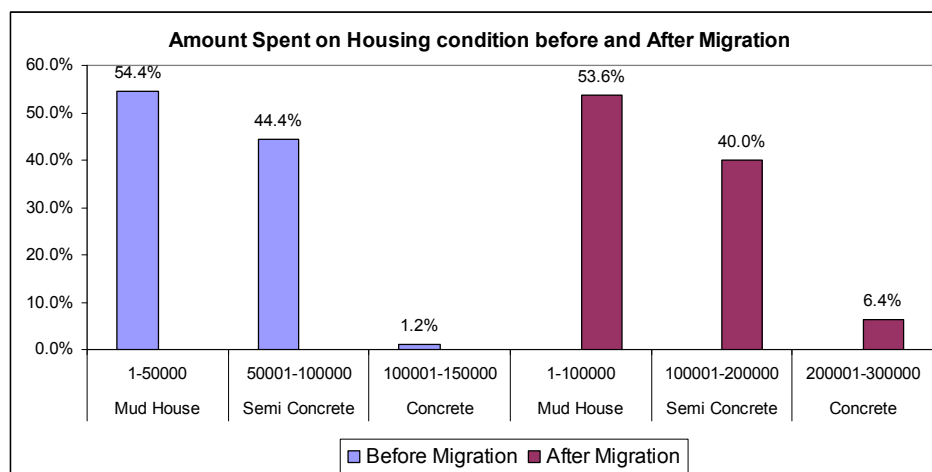


Table No.11 shows amount spent on housing conditions before migration. Majority of the respondents i.e. (54.4%) spent between Rs. (1 to 50000) on construction of Mud houses, followed by (44.4%) of the respondents between Rs. (50001-10000) on construction of semi-concrete houses and (1.2%) of the respondents between Rs. (100001-150000) on construction of concrete houses

per annum before migration. Majority of the households were living in stone made houses in hilly areas and were not able to invest more in their houses due to extreme poverty. The post revolution land regarding reforms and the new socioeconomic structures emerging from the societal reorganization has expedited rural-urban migration (Rafiq and Hailemariam, 1987).

Furthermore, the distribution of households on the basis of amount spent on housing conditions per annum after migration showed that majority i.e. (53.6%) of the respondents claimed between Rs. (1–100000) on construction mud houses, followed by (40%) of the respondents between Rs (100001–200000) on construction of semi-concrete houses and (6.4%) of the respondents between Rs. (200001–300000) on construction of concrete houses. It was concluded from the data that after migration the people earned money and invested a lot on their houses. The findings of Rachel Murphy (2002) found that during the interview of the respondents the question of priority was the amount spent on house building. De Brauw and Rozelle (2003) have, tested whether or not migration resulted in productive or consumptive investments (where the former were investments in agricultural and non-agricultural activities and the latter were investments that directly to improve the standards of life for members of the households, such as housing and durable goods.

**Table-12: Frequency and Percentage Distribution of the respondents per annum spending on Education of children before and after migration**

Educational Level of children	Before migration	No. of respondents (%age)	After migration	No. of respondents (%age)
Primary	1-15000	213 (85.2%)	1-20000	24 (9.6%)
Matric	15001-30000	36 (14.4%)	20001-40000	83 (33.2%)
Intermediate	30001-45000	1 (0.4%)	40001-60000	120 (48.0%)
Higher education	0	0	60001-80000	23 (9.2%)
		250 (100)		250 (100.0)

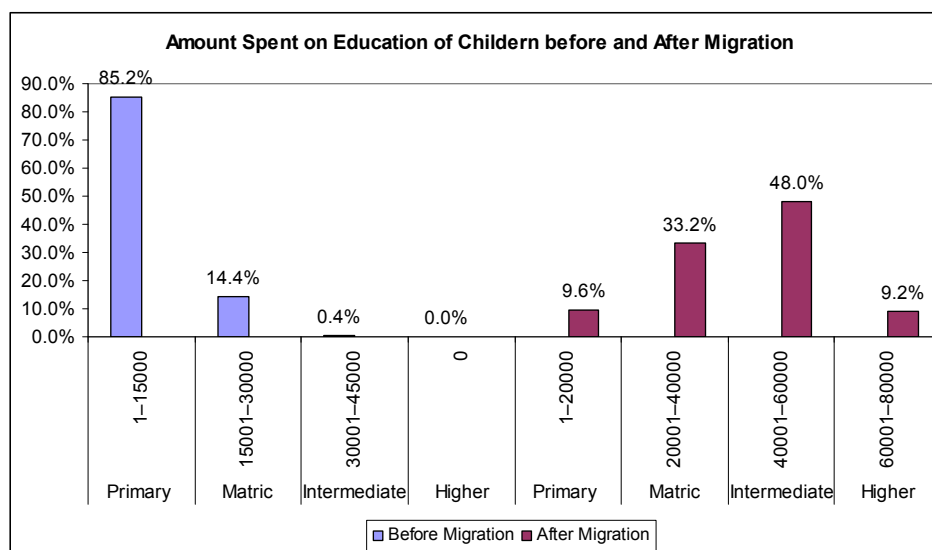


Table No. 12: highlights that the highest number i.e. (85.2%) of the respondents spent an amount between up to Rs. (1–15000) on primary education, followed by (14.4%) of the respondents up to Rs. (15001–30000) on metric, and (0.4%) of the respondents spent up to Rs. (30001–45000) on intermediate level of education per annum before migration. Majority of the households invested less money on children education due to poverty. Close to this finding, Afsar (1995) claimed that as compared to non migrants the migrants often benefited more because of their innovative, risk taking and desperate nature. The benefits included higher or regular income, gain in wealth, greater access to public services and education.

The investment on children education increased per annum after migration as (48%) of the respondents spent an amount of Rs. (40001–60000) on intermediate level of education , followed by (33.2%) of the respondents up to Rs. (20001–40000) on metric level of education and (9.6%) of the respondents between up to Rs. (1–20000) on primary level of education and (9.2%) spent between up to Rs. (60001–80000) on higher education in the study area. Migration plays an important role in gaining more education as the remittances provide an additional source of income for children’s education (Cox-Edwards and Ureta, 2003 , Yang 2008 and UNDP, 2009). Similarly, Mansuri 2006) says that in rural Pakistan temporary migration is an important factor for higher school enrollment of girls. Malone (2007) also found that remittances sent by father were very important to achieve education. The more allocative power of mothers in the absence of fathers allows them to allocate the remittances toward education.

**Table-13: Frequency and Percentage Distribution of the respondents per annum spending on women education before and after migration**

Educational level of women	Before migration	No. of respondents (%age)	After migration	No. of respondents (%age)
Primary	1–500	19 (7.6%)	1–5000	246 (98.4%)
Matric	501–1000	122 (48.8%)	5001–10000	2 (0.8)
Intermediate	1001–1500	86 (34.4%)	10001–15000	2 (0.8)
Bachelor	1501–2000	11 (4.4%)	0	0
Master	2001–2500	12 (4.8%)	0	0
Total		250 (100)		250 (100)

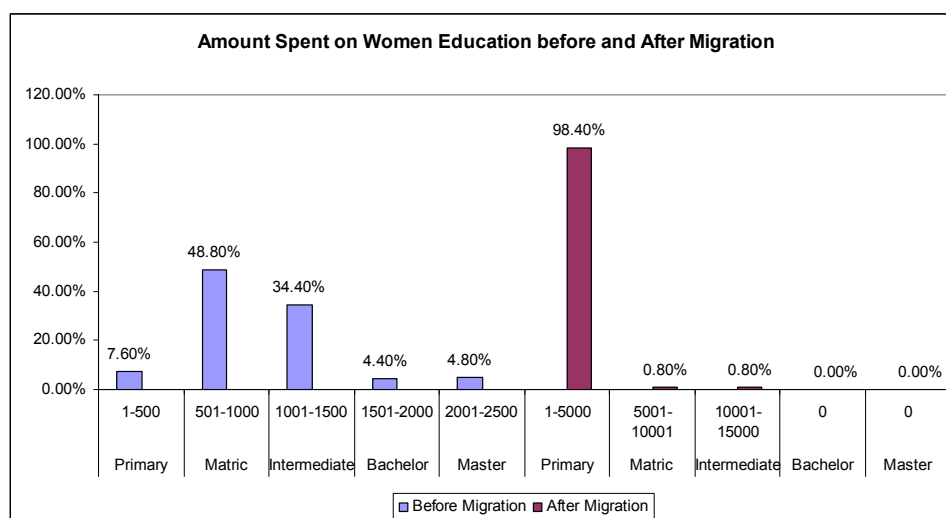


Table No.13 disclosed that (48.8%) of the respondents spent an amount from Rs. (501 to Rs.1000) on metric education before migration, followed by (34.4%) of the respondents who claimed in the range of Rs. (1001–1500 on intermediate and (7.6%) of the respondents Rs (1–500) on primary education per year.

The results revealed that majority of the respondents i.e. (98.4%) spent from Rs. (1 to Rs.5000) on female primary education after migration, followed by (0.8%) of the respondents who stated between up to Rs. (5001–10000) on metric per annum. However, Malone (2007) is contrary to the present results, where children were enabled to achieve better education due to the improved income from remittances sent by fathers.

**Table-14: Frequency and Percentage Distribution of the respondent's pre and post spending on annual basis on household goods**

House hold goods	Before Migration	No. of respondents (%age)	After migration	No. of respondents (%age)
Washing machine	1–5000	249 (99.6%)	1–25000	66 (26.4%)
Refrigerator	5001–10000	1 (0.4%)	25001–50000	12 (4.8%)
Furniture	0	0	50001–75000	172 (68.8%)
		250 (100)		250 (100)

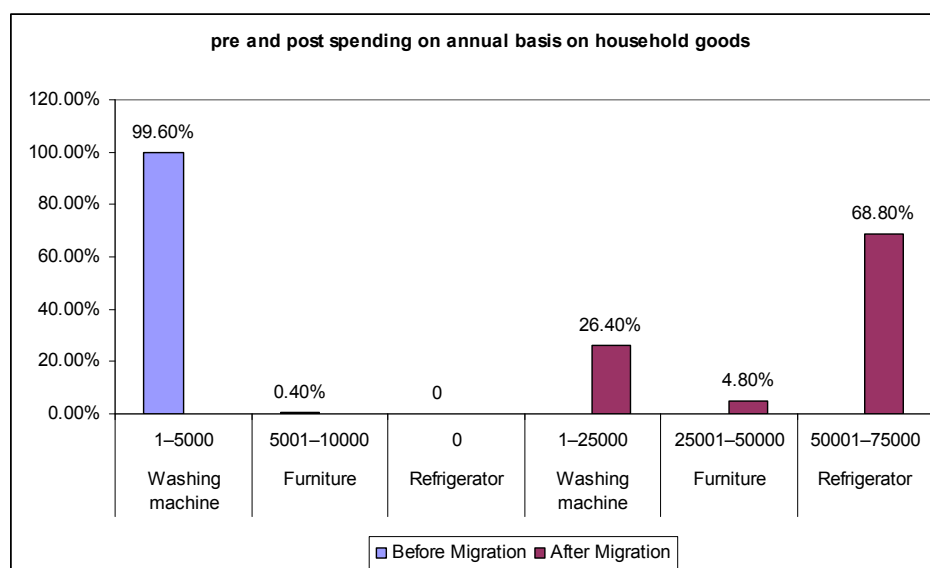


Table No. 14 depicted that majority of the respondents i.e. (99.6%) spent an amount between up to Rs. (1–5000) on purchase of washing machine, (0.4%) of the respondents between up to (5001–10000) on purchase of refrigerator per annual before migration. In this perspective (Oda, 2007) explains his findings that households of migrants have better economic position than those of non migrants due to foreign remittances.

Furthermore, the table indicated that (68.8%) of the respondents spent an amount from Rs 50001 to Rs. 75000 on purchase of furniture, followed by (26.4%) of Rs. (1–2500) on purchase of washing machine while (4.8%) of the

respondents claimed to have spent Rs. (25001–50000) on purchase of refrigerator per annum after migration. Most of the sample households possessed consumption of durable items such as refrigerators, air conditioners, televisions, etc., and the number of those were significant than pre-migration era.

Further, studies showed that in Albania remittances were primarily utilized on basic amenities of life. The second and third use of remittances were building or repairing houses and purchasing durable items and medical expenses respectively (Nicholson, 2001; World Bank, 2003; and Arrehag *et al.*, 2005).

**Table-15: Frequency and Percentage Distribution of the respondents spending on use of agricultural in-put on annual basis before and after migration**

Agricultural in-puts	Before migration	No. of respondents (%age)	After migration	No. of respondents (%age)
Quality seeds	1–1750	194 (77.6%)	1–7000	235 (94.0%)
Pesticides	1751-3500	43 (17.2%)	7001–14000	10 (4.0%)
Fertilizer	3501–5250	12 (4.8%)	14001–21000	5 (2.0%)
Spray	5251–7000	1 (0.4%)	0	0
Total		250 (100)		250 (100)

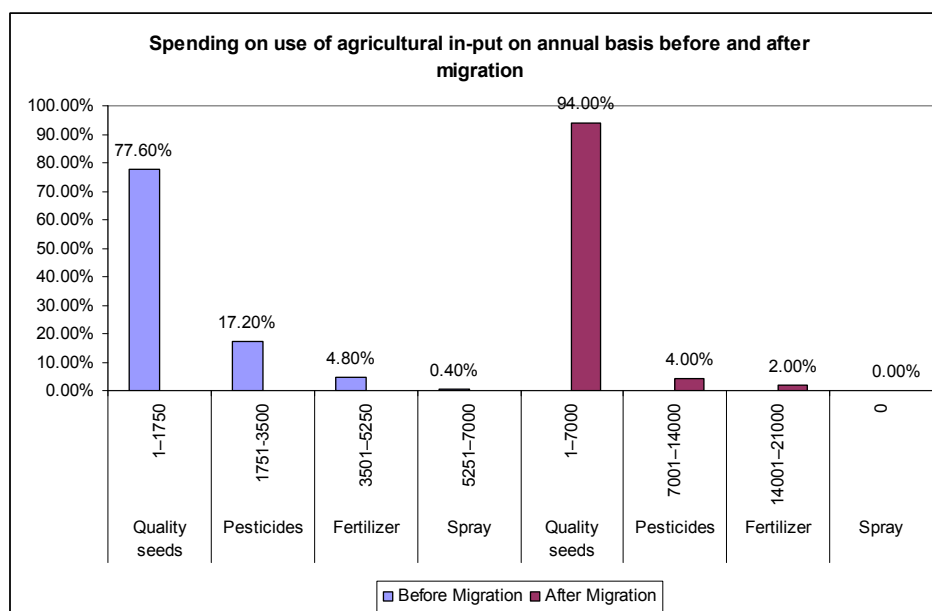


Table No. 15 disclosed that the majority of the respondents i.e. (77.6%) spent an amount between up to Rs. (1–1750 on quality seeds, followed by the respondents i.e. (17.2%) spent Rs. (1750–3500) on pesticides and (4.8%) of the respondents up to Rs. (3501–5250) on fertilizers per year before migration. Remittances primarily were utilized on daily and household related expenses, with 60 percent spent on immediate household expenses, construction and

renovation. Other expenses comprised of education, the purchase of appliances and domestic goods, ritual costs and health care (Cohen, 2004) with little focus on agriculture.

As against, majority of the respondents i.e. (94%) stated that an amount spent between up to Rs. (1–7000) on quality seeds, followed by (4%) of the respondents between up to Rs. (7001–14000) on pesticides and the remaining (2%) had spent from Rs. (1400 to Rs.21000) on fertilizers per year after migration. It is clear from the data that households spent more in agricultural items after migration of their members to Peshawar where they earned money. (Russell et al. 1990) suggests that after fulfilling basic requirements, migrant remittances are used for investment purposes such as education, livestock, farming, and small scale enterprise.

**Table-16: Frequency and Percentage Distribution of the Households daily items usage per year before and after migration**

Daily use items	Amount spent before migration	No. of respondents (%age)	Amount spent after migration	No. of respondents (%age)
Grocery	1–1500	139 (55.6%)	1–15000	35 (14.0%)
Clothes/shoes	1501–3000	107 (42.8%)	15001–30000	62 (24.8%)
Food	3001–4500	4 (1.6%)	30001–45000	142 (56.8%)
Vehicle expenses	0	0	45001–60000	11 (4.4%)
Total		250 (100)		250 (100)

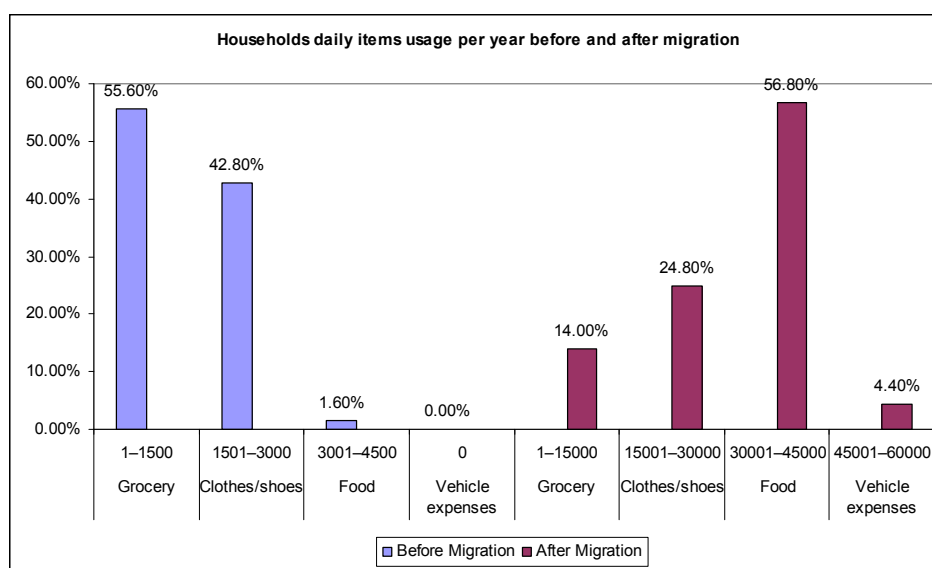
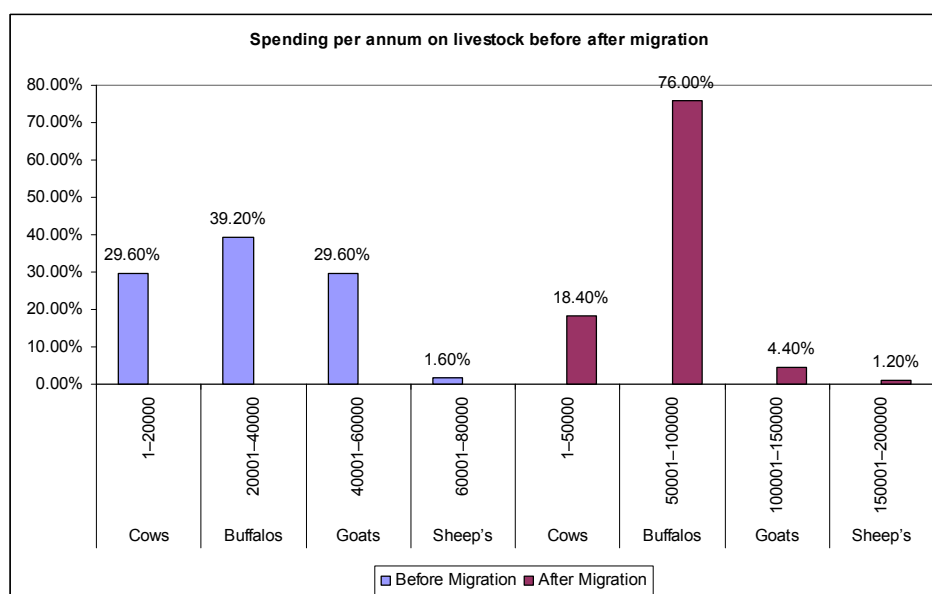


Table No. 16 explores that majority of the respondents i.e. (55.6%) spent amount between Rs. (1–1500) on grocery, followed by (42.8%) of the respondents spent Rs. (1501–3000) on clothes/shoes and (1.6%) of the respondents Rs. (3001–4500) on food per year before migration. The findings of Arrehag *et al.* (2005) are similar who found that most of the respondents claimed that they used remittances primarily on ‘clothing and food’, compared to when they were questioned what the remittances had allowed them to buy, showing that people do not always use the transfer in the way in which they intended claiming.

However, calculation on the purchase of daily use items after migration showed that (56.8%) of the respondents spent an amount from Rs.30001 to Rs. 45000 on food, followed by (24.8%) up to Rs. (15001–30000) on clothes/shoes and (14%) claimed as Rs. (1–15000) on grocery per year after migration. It is concluded from the data that there is a big difference in the purchase of daily use items before and after migration of the household's members in the targeted areas. A significant proportion of remittances are consumed while a smaller part is saved for housing, land and jewelry as said by (Chami, 2003).

**Table-17: Frequency and Percentage Distribution of the respondents spending per annum on livestock before and after migration**

Livestock	Before migration	No. of respondents (%age)	After migration	No. of respondents (%age)
Cows	1–20000	74 (29.6%)	771–50000	46 (18.4%)
Buffalos	20001–40000	98 (39.2%)	50001–100000	190 (76.0%)
Goats	40001–60000	74 (29.6%)	100001–150000	11 (4.4%)
Sheep's	60001–80000	4 (1.6%)	150001–200000	3 (1.2%)
		250 (100)		250 (100)



It is clear from the above table that majority of the respondents i.e. (39.2% spent an amount Rs.20001 to 40000 on purchase of buffalos, followed by (29.6%) of the respondents Rs. 40001 to Rs.60000 on purchase of goats and (29.6%) of the respondents Rs. (1– 20000) on cows on annual basis before migration. These result correlates with the findings of Gebre (2001) that a number of factors have shaped the character, direction and volume of migration in Ethiopia in the last two to three decades. These factors included

political instability, decline in the agricultural sector, and government resettlement policies of the 1980s, whose official objective was to prevent famine and attain food security.

The results further revealed an increase in amount on the purchase of livestock per annum after migration as indicated from the table 15 where majority of the respondents i.e. (76%) were of the view that they spent an amount between up to Rs. (50001–100000) on purchase of buffalos followed by (18.4%) of the respondents Rs (1 to 50000) on purchase of cows, followed by, (4.4%) of the respondents Rs. (100001–150000) and (4.4%) were in the range of Rs. (100001–150000) on purchase of goats per year after migration. It is concluded from the data that purchase power of households increased after migration. These result correlate with the findings of Ellis (2000) that primarily the household's increases farm income in a number of ways like raising livestock and crop income. Secondly, *off-farm income* means the income that comes from working on other farms and always within the agricultural sector. Finally, *non-farm income* is the rural wage labor outside agriculture, such as self employment (business income) or other types, leasing land, and property, urban-rural remittances, and other means of urban-to-rural transfers like subsidies, pensions, formal loans, and welfare provisions.

**Table-18: Frequency and Percentage Distribution of the respondents spending on annul basis on in-door Recreational facilities before and after migration**

Category	Before migration	No. of respondents (%age)	After migration	No. of respondents (%age)
Video-games	1–4000	249 (99.6%)	1–10000	157 (62.8%)
T.V	4001–8000	1 (0.4%)	10001–20000	74 (29.6%)
Computer	0	0	20001–30000	19 (7.6%)
Total		250 (100)		250 (100)

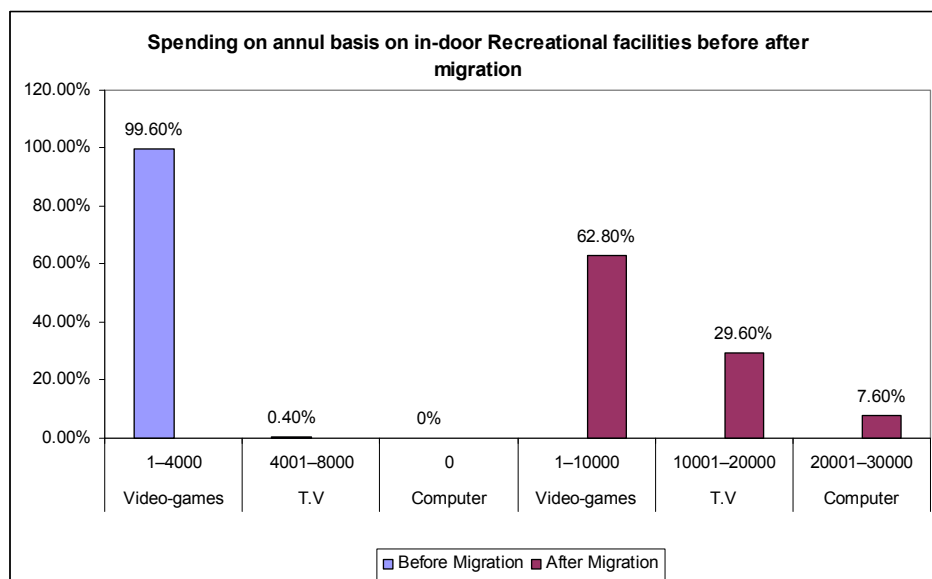


Table No. 18: explored year-wise amount spent on in-door recreational facilities before and after migration. Table disclosed that majority (99.6%) of the respondents spent Rs. (1–4000) on purchase of video games, followed by (0.4%) of the respondents Rs. (4001–8000) on purchase of T.V. per annum before migration. It could be due to purchasing T.V. on annual basis.

There was an improvement in amount spent after migration on in-door recreational facilities. The result provided the information that majority of the respondents (62.8%) spent Rs. (1– 10000) on purchase of video games, followed by (29.6%) of the respondents Rs. (10001 –20000) on purchase of T.V. per year after migration respectively.

To migrate and leave children behind is a matter of sacrifice for parents so that their children can live a better life and the households can take maximum benefits from the remittances, though the parents also consider the risks associated with travel (Funkhouser, 1995; Stark, 1995; and Becker, 1974).

**Table-19: Frequency and percentage distribution of the respondents invested money in other business per annum before and after migration**

Category	Before migration	No. of respondents (%age)	After migration	No. of respondents (%age)
Shop	1–21000	198 (79.2%)	1–81000	185 (74.0%)
Vehicle for public transport	21001–42000	45 (18.0%)	81001–162000	57 (22.8%)
Handicraft	42001–63000	6 (2.4%)	162001–243000	2 (0.8%)
Agriculture	63001–84000	1 (0.4%)	243001–324000	6 (2.4%)
Total		250 (100)		250 (100)

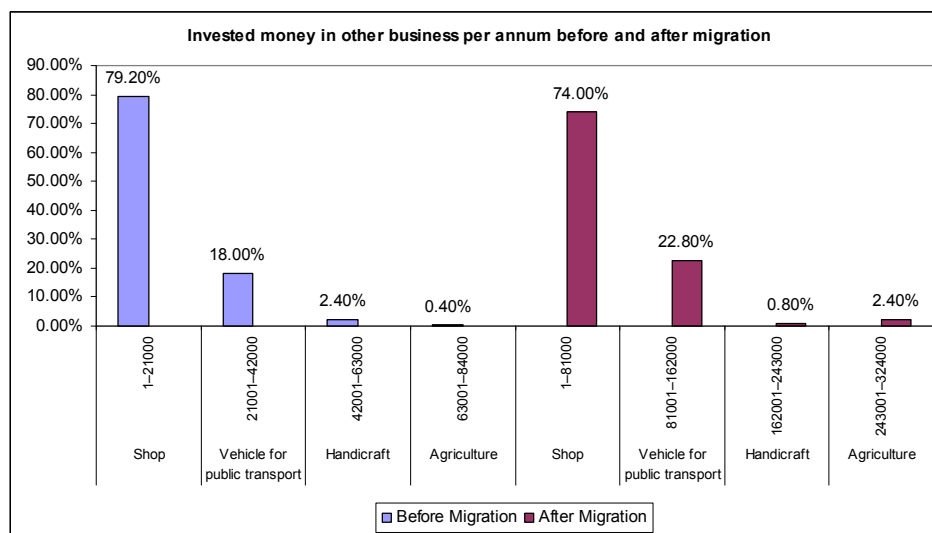


Table No.19 disclosed that (79.2%) of the respondents spent an amount of Rs (1 to Rs.21000) on investment on shop to increase households income before migration, followed by (18.0%) of the respondents spent an amount of Rs. (21001 to Rs. 42000) on vehicle for public transport and (2.4%) of the

respondents spent an amount Rs. (42001–63000) per year on handicraft. (Mberu, 2006) suggested that the living conditions of both permanent and temporary migrants were improved as compared to those of non migrants because the permanent migrants become able to get jobs in non agricultural sector and the temporary migrants get the chances to achieve better education which enabled them to get good jobs.

Table no 19 spoke over that investment in other businesses increased after migration of the household's members. The results disclosed that majority of the respondents i.e. (74%) invested an amount between up to Rs. (1–81000) per year in shop to increase income of the households after migration, followed by (22%) of the respondents Rs. (81001 to 162000) after migration on vehicle for public transport. There was a sharp difference of investment in other businesses after migration. Moreover, the remittances did not lead the growth of economy as a whole rather it increased the level of income of poor people (Jongwanich, 2007). In this regard Rahman (2004) found a significantly inverse relationship between remittances and poverty, showing that remittances decrease the chances of a household's poverty.

**Table-20: Frequency and Percentage Distribution of the respondents spending on monthly basis on different fuel before and after migration**

Category	Before migration	No. of respondents (%age)	After migration	No. of respondents (%age)
Fire-wood	1—500	230 (92.0%)	1—5000	237 (94.8%)
Kerosene-oil	501—1000	19 (7.6%)	5001—10000	7 (2.8%)
Electricity	1001—1500	1 (0.4%)	10001—15000	3 (1.2%)
Gas	0	0	15001—20000	3 (1.2%)
Total		250 (100)		250 (100)

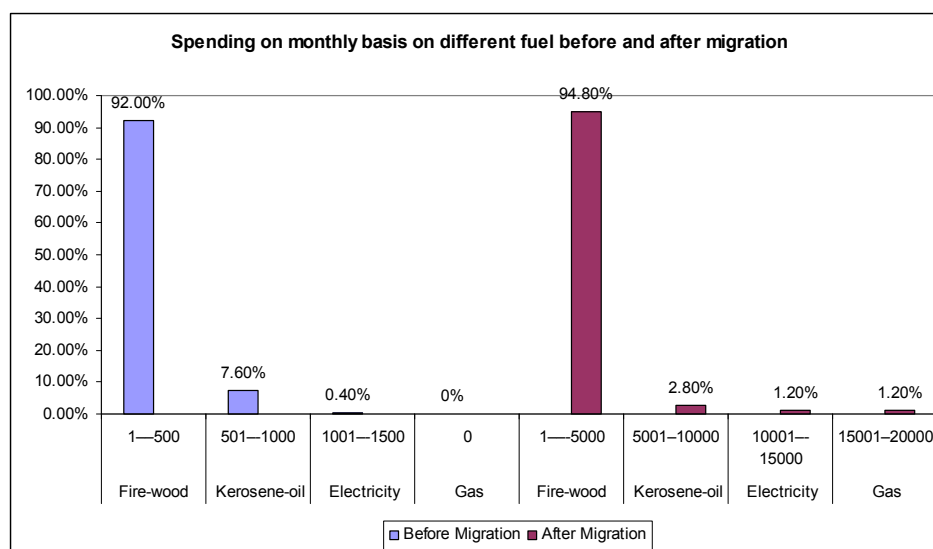


Table No.20 indicated that a huge number of the respondents i.e. (92%) were spending monthly expenses on fire-wood before migration between up to Rs. (1—500), followed by (7.6%) of the respondents which ranged Rs. (501 to Rs. 1000) on kerosene-oil per month.

The table further indicated an increase in monthly expenses of different fuel charges after migration. Majority of the respondents (94.8% disclosed that monthly fire-wood expenses increased from Rs. (1 to Rs. 5000), followed by (2.8%) who spent up to Rs. (5001–10000) on kerosene-oil per month. These findings correlate with those of Koc and Onan (2001) who found a significant association between remittances and household welfare in Turkey.

**Table-21: Frequency and Percentage Distribution of the Households on monthly expenses of telephone/cell before and after migration**

Category	Before migration	No. of respondents (%age)	After migration	No. of respondents (%age)
Wireless-set	1–1000	201 (80.4%)	1–2500	229 (91.6%)
Telephone	1001–2000	41 (16.4%)	2501–5000	3 (1.2%)
Mobile	2001–3000	8 (3.2%)	5001–7500	18 (7.2%)
Total		250 (100)		250 (100)

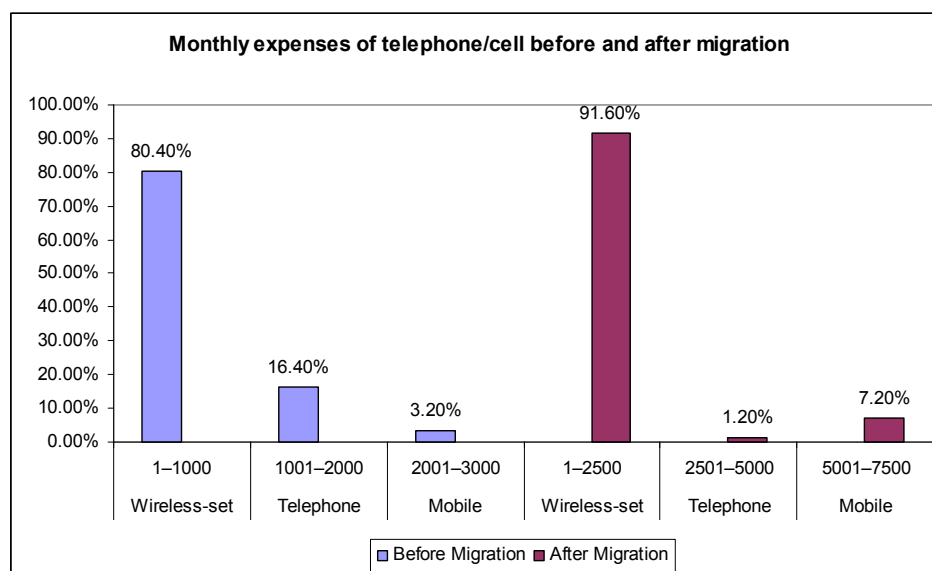


Table No.21 highlighted that majority of the respondents i.e. (80.4%) spent monthly wireless-set expenses ranges from (Rs. 1 to Rs. 1000) before migration, followed by (16.4%) of the respondents between up to Rs. (1001 to 2000) on telephone expenses per month.

There was a sharp difference in monthly expenses on telephone/mobile after migration as depicted from the table further disclosed that majority of the

respondents i.e. (91.6%) had monthly expenses Rs. (1 to Rs. 2500) on wireless-set, followed by (7.2%) of the respondents Rs. 5001 to Rs. 7500 on mobile after migration. Similarly, G.M. Arif (2009) found that at the time of survey 48 percent of household had telephone, while before migration only 17 percent had one at a time.

**Table-22: Frequency and Percentage Distribution of the Households according to amount spent on Toilet facility**

Category	Amount spent on toilet facility before migration	No. of respondents (%age)	Amount spent on toilet facility after migration	No. of respondents (%age)
Flush connected with open drain	1–4000	240 (96.0%)	1–15000	71 (28.4%)
Flush to sewerage	4001–8000	2 (0.8%)	15001–30000	155 (62.0%)
Pit Latrine	8001–12000	3 (1.2%)	30001–45000	24 (9.6%)
Flush to septic tank	12001–16000	5 (2.0%)	0	0

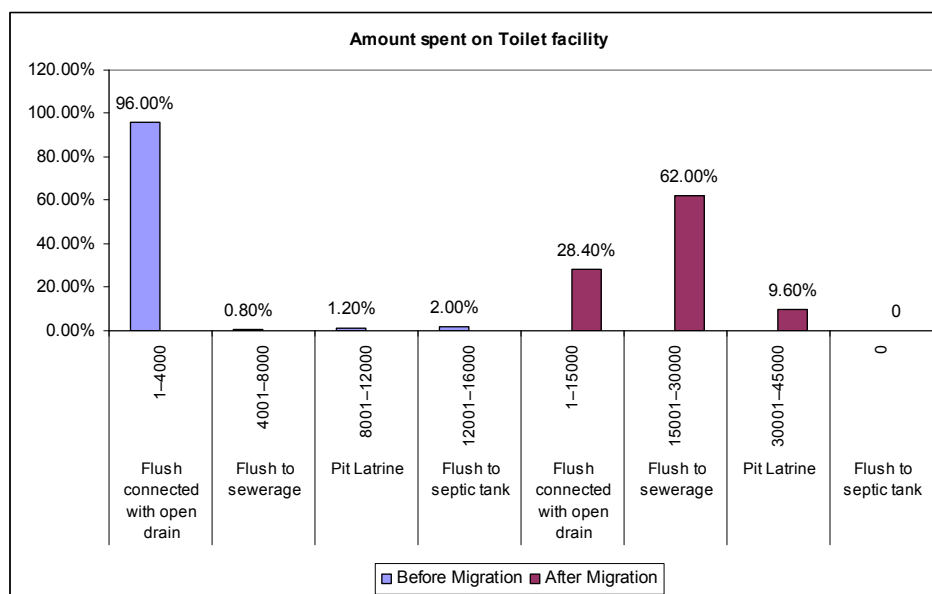


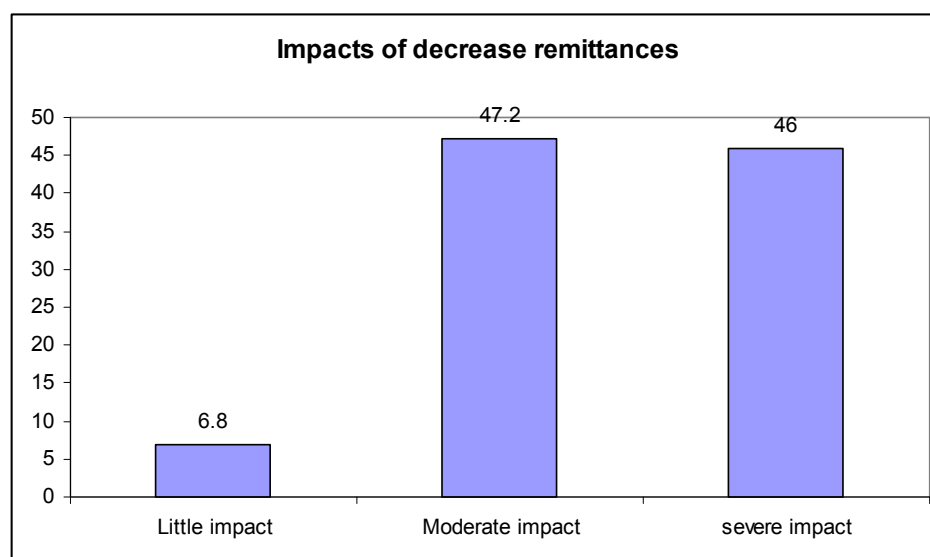
Table No. 22 proved that majority of the respondents i.e. (96%) spent an amount Rs. (1 to Rs. 4000 on flush connected to drain before migration,

followed by (2%) of the respondents Rs. (12001–16000) on flush to septic . A study by Litchfield and Waddington (2003) on Ghana also examined the welfare outcomes of migrants and non-migrants in Ghana using GLSS data. They found that migrant households have significantly higher living standards as compared to non migrants.

The results further disclosed after migration that amount on toilet facilities increased of the households. Majority of the respondents i.e. (62.0%) spent Rs. 15001 to 30000 on flush to sewerage after migration, followed by (28.4%) of the respondents Rs. 1 to Rs. 15000 per year on flush connected to drain. The above results correlate with the findings of Addleton (1984) who demonstrated that in Pakistan the families having members abroad consume the remittances in a demonstrative pattern.

**Table-23: Frequency and Percentage Distribution of the Households according to impacts of decrease remittances**

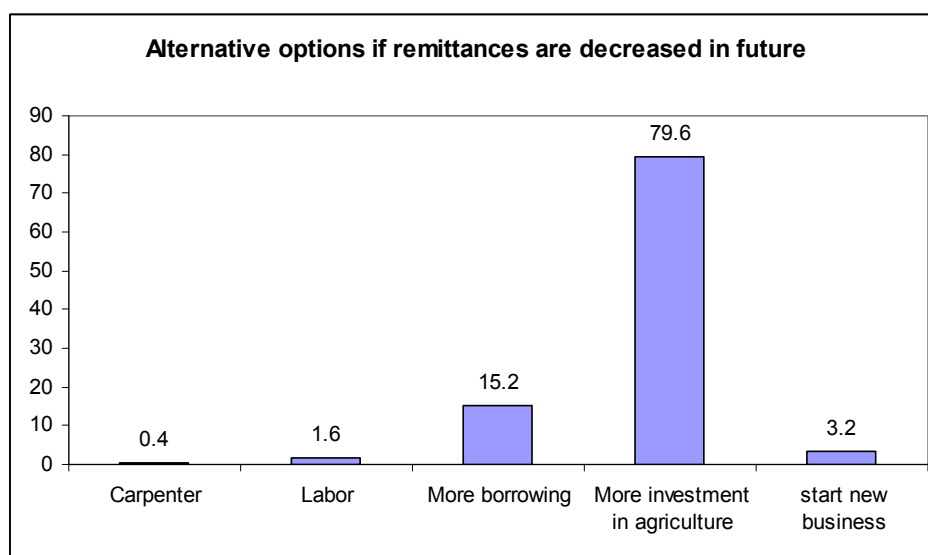
Category	Frequency	Percent
Little impact	17	6.8
Moderate impact	118	47.2
severe impact	115	46.0
Total	250	100.0



Elaboration on frequency distribution of households shows that majority of the respondents i.e. (47.2%) claimed about moderate impact on households economy in case of decrease of remittances, followed by (46%) of the respondents opined severe impact in case of decrease remittances. Haan (1997) indicated in the urban areas the migrants are in a better position as compared to the original inhabitants a pointer to the fact that, these migrants were not the poorest people in the rural area they migrated from.

**Table-24: Frequency and Percentage Distribution of the Households in relation to alternative options if remittances are decreased in future**

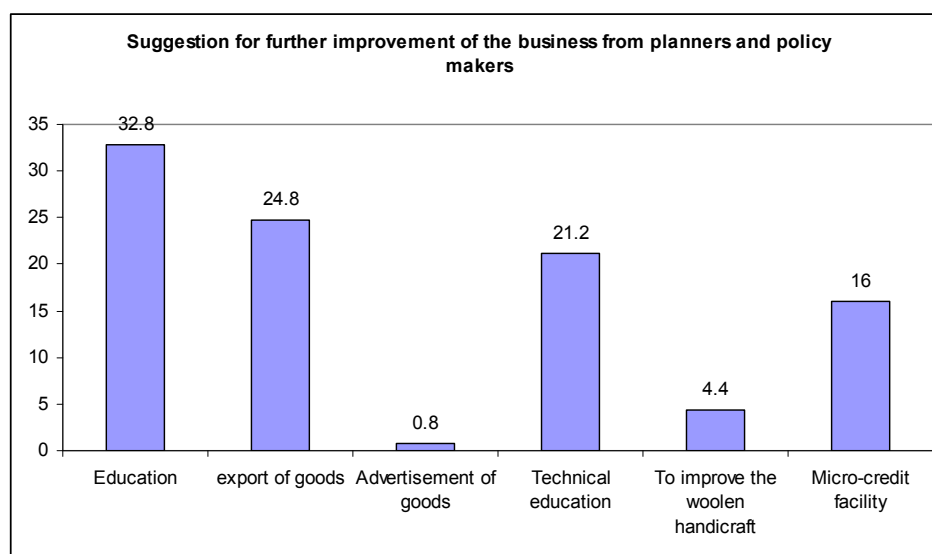
Category	Frequency	Percent
Carpenter	1	.4
Labor	4	1.6
More borrowing	38	15.2
More investment in agriculture	199	79.6
start new business	8	3.2
Total	250	100.0



Elaboration on frequency distribution of households shows that majority of the respondents i.e. (79.6%) disclosed that in case of decrease in remittances in future they will invest in agriculture, followed by (15.2%) of the respondents stress on more borrowing to economic problems. As the person to land ratio is decreased by migration, it enables the non migrant family members to generate extra income from the absentees' land" (Murphy, 2002)

**Table-25: Frequency and Percentage Distribution of the Households according to suggestion for further improvement of the business from planners and policy makers**

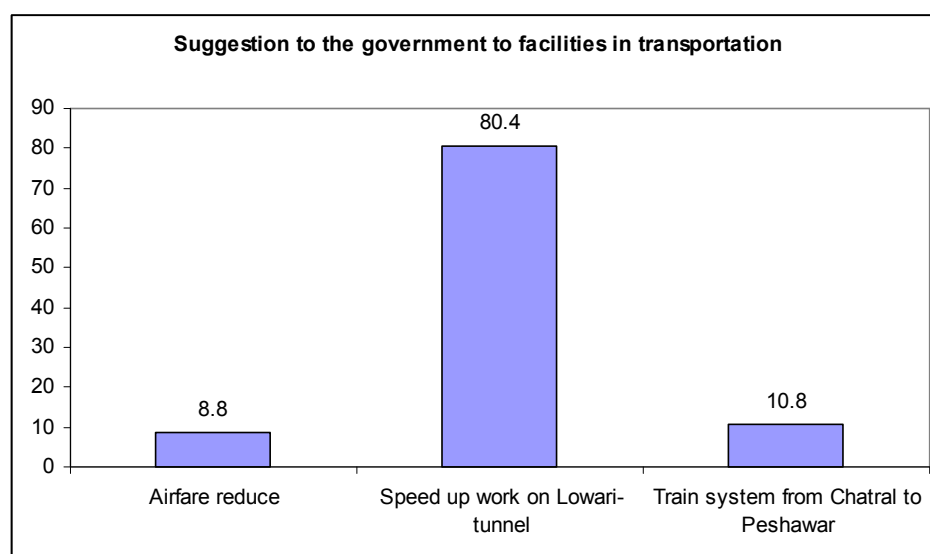
Category	Frequency	Percent
Education	82	32.8
export of goods	62	24.8
Advertisement of goods	2	.8
Technical education	53	21.2
To improve the woolen handicraft	11	4.4
Micro-credit facility	40	16.0
Total	250	100.0



Elaboration on frequency distribution of households relating to suggestion for further improvement of the business from policy makers and planners shows that majority of the respondents i.e. (32.8%) considered education of the people as best for the improvement of the business, followed by (24.8%) viewed export of goods as a source of improvement for the business. According to Matin (2001) urged policymakers to look beyond the factors underlying household poverty towards market and non-market factors that contribute to the creation of poverty traps.

**Table-26: Frequency and Percentage distribution of the Households regarding suggestion to the government to facilities in transportation**

Category	Frequency	Percent
Airfare reduce	22	8.8
Speed up work on Lowari-tunnel	201	80.4
Train system from Chatral to Peshawar	27	10.8
Total	250	100.0



Frequency distribution of the households regarding suggestion to government in facilitation of transportation shows that majority of the respondents i.e. (80.4%) considered speed-up work on lowari-tunnel as best, followed by (10.8%) of the respondents considered train system from Chitral to Peshawar in transport facilitation. To migrate and leave children behind is a matter of sacrifice for parents so that their children can live a better life and the households can take maximum benefits from the remittances, though the parents also consider the risks associated with travel, as the results shown by (Funkhouser, 1995; Stark, 1995; and Becker 1974, 1991).

**Table-27: Frequency and Percentage Distribution of the Households in relation to suggestion from the government of Pakistan in curtailing migration from Chitral**

Category	Frequency	Percent
Handi craft industries	23	9.2
Industrialization	61	24.4
Job opportunities	112	44.8
Marble factories	30	12.0
Micro-credit for small business	24	9.6
Total	250	100.0

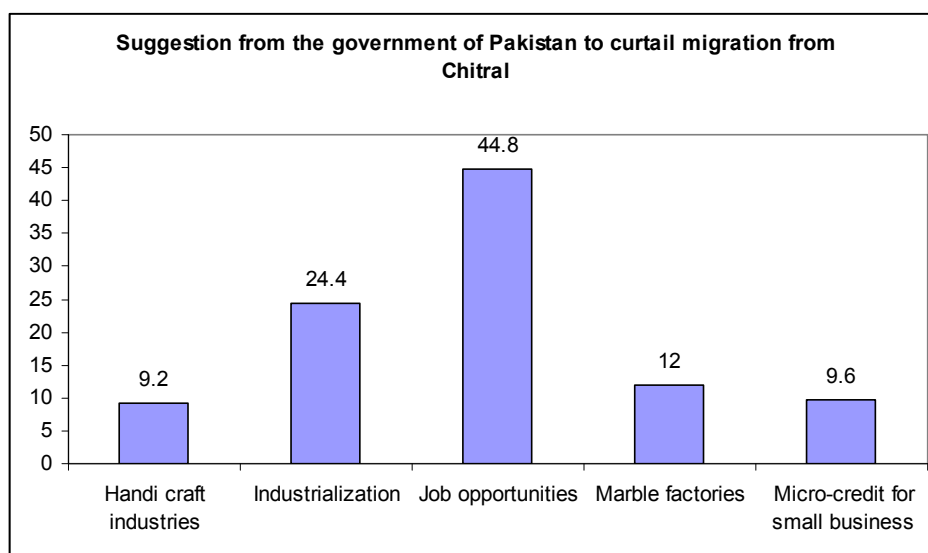


Table No. 27 unveil that majority of the respondents i.e. (44.8%) were of the view that job-opportunities in Chitral is the best option to curtail out-migration, followed (24.4%) of the respondents were of the view that industrialization in Chitral is best to contain out-migration. According to (Bariagaber, 1999) people's migration is also manipulated by governments often out of security reasons.

### 4.3: Bi-variate analysis

**Table-1: Relationship between the effects of migration and family type**

Profiling information		Family Type			Total	Chi-square (p-value)
		extended family	joint family	nuclear family		
Nature of education	Formal	11 (4.4)%	97 (38.8)	14 (5.6)	122 (48.8)	$\chi^2 = 9.092$ (0.168)
	Religious	1 (0.4)	10 (4.0)	2 (0.8)	13 (5.2)	
	Technical	2 (0.8)	3 (1.2)	0 (0.0)	5 (2.0)	
	Uneducated	12 (4.8)	76 (30.4)	22 (8.8)	110 (44.0)	
Years of Schooling	0–5	14 (5.6)	98 (39.2)	23 (9.2)	135 (54)	$\chi^2 = 18.630$ (0.771)
	6–10	12 (4.8)	77 (30.8)	12 (4.8)	101 (40.4)	
	11 and above	0	11 (4.4)	3 (1.2)	14 (5.6)	
Occupation of the household	agriculture (own land)	25 (10.0)	169 (67.6)	34 (13.6)	228 (91.2)	$\chi^2 = 2.553$ (0.863)
	agriculture (rented)	0 (0.0)	1 (0.4)	0 (0.0)	1 (0.4)	
	Business	1 (0.4)	7 (2.8)	1 (0.4)	9 (3.6)	
	Non-agricultural labour	0 (0.0)	9 (3.6)	3 (1.2)	12 (4.8)	
Pre-migration Occupation of the respondent	Business	1 (0.4)	10 (4.0)	1 (0.4)	12 (4.8)	$\chi^2 = 17.096$ (0.029)
	Education	0 (0)	3 (1.2)	0 (0)	3 (1.2)	
	Farming	8 (3.2)	106 (42.4)	20 (8.0)	134 (53.6)	
	Imam in mosque	1 (0.4)	0 (0)	0 (0)	1 (0.4)	
	Labor	16 (6.4)	67 (26.8)	17 (6.8)	100 (40.0)	
Number of persons in the family	0–10	22 (8.8)	130 (70.8)	37 (14.8)	236 (94.4)	$\chi^2 = 47.142$ (0.024)
	11–20	3 (1.2)	7 (2.8)	1 (0.4)	11 (4.4)	
	21 & above	1 (0.4)	2 (0.8)	0	3 (1.2)	
Marital Status before migration	Married	3 (1.2)	39 (15.6)	9 (3.6)	51 (20.4)	$\chi^2 = 1.547$ (0.461)
	Un-married	23 (9.2)	147 (58.8)	29 (11.6)	199 (79.6)	

Figure in the cell represents frequencies while % in parenthesis and in the last column number in the parenthesis represents P value.

Family, one of the most influencing institutions clearly dictating regarding its stature in monetary terms. Socio-economic conditions, as the most effective i.e. variable does reflect an individual economic standing in the prevalent social milieu. Table 4.3 depicts a non-significant relationship between nature of education and family type. The results also reveal that education has become an integral activity of an individual Life there fore irrespective of the family type whether nuclear or joint family, the people tends to get education in order to achieve higher status in the society. The results further suggest that even a family type supports education and therefore it could be inferred from the results that education has gained a significant position, binding itself imperative on part of each and every individual to attain it. This attainment is beyond the consideration of family type. These findings are in consonance to the conclusion of (Boyle et al., 1998) where a close relationship was found between high profile of family and education as an out-come of migration..

Similarly, a non-significant relationship was found between years of schooling and family type. It is attributable from these results that each family considers provision of education to its members as top priority. Education tends to provide skills, required in other parts of country and abroad for catering the future needs in different fields as was the case studied and found by Hossain (2001) that it contributes in the shape of its determinants for migration usually being adopted by the educated youth.

Furthermore, a non-significant relationship was found between occupation of the household and family type. These results proved no links between the nature of education and family, that is why occupation is being owned irrespective of family belonging as most of the educated youth opted for agricultural jobs, along with prefer migrating to other parts of the country for better jobs (Singh and Yadava, 1981b).

Furthermore, a significant association between pre-migration occupation of the respondents and family type was found. It is evident from the results that nearly those family members tend to migrate where either the number of persons is more or the family concerned is suffering from abject poverty

similar findings have been disclosed by Kuhn (1999) that mostly deprived and landless people prefer migrating to urban areas for jobs, While households having at least some small piece of land practice individual migration.

In addition, a significant relationship was found between number of persons in the family and family type in the study area. It could be concluded from the above results that vicious circle of

Poverty compelled family of all types to migrate to earn money for livelihood attainment. Murphy (2002) confirmed Chayanoyan theory and showed that households having many adults' laborers are better off in their income as compared to families having few labor forces.

The relationship between family type and marital status before migration was found non-significant .This result reveals that migration in no way dependent upon the marital status of individuals. Rather it is the pathetic economic position of a family which forces its members to migrate. Additionally it supports the Yadava (1988) finding that not only un-married but married persons also migrate, but lesser in number to the un-married.

**Table-2: Relationship between the effects of migration and family type**

Profiling information		Family Type			Total	Chi square (p-value)
		Extended family	joint family	Nuclear family		
How many children's do you have	1-4	23 (9.2)	137 (54.8)	29 (11.6)	189 (75.6)	$\chi^2=16.004$ (0.716)
	5-8	3 (1.2)	45 (18)	8 (3.2)	56 (22.4)	
	9-12	0	4 (1.6)	1 (0.4)	5 (2)	
At what age did you migrate?						$\chi^2=48.826$ (0.218)
	1-15	13 (5.2)	83 (7.6)	19 (7.6)	115 (46)	
	16-30	13 (5.2)	100 (40)	19 (7.6)	132 (52.8)	
	31& above	0	3 (1.2)	0	3 (1.2)	
Kind of help received at time of migration	Financial support	5 (2.0)	49 (19.6)	9 (3.6)	63 (25.2)	$\chi^2=1.896$ (0.755)
	Helping in employment	19 (7.6)	116 (46.4)	23 (9.2)	158 (63.2)	
	Housing	2 (0.8)	21 (8.4)	6 (2.4)	29 (11.6)	
What is your present job	Businessmen	1 (0.4)	19 (7.6)	5 (2.0)	25 (10.0)	$\chi^2=1.525$ (0.467)
	Skilled labor	25 (10.0)	167 (66.8)	33 (13.2)	225 (90.0)	
Your monthly income at present	1-10000	6 (2.4)	26 (10.4)	7 (2.8)	39 (15.6)	$\chi^2=59.728$ (0.342)
	10001-20000	19 (7.6)	148 (59.2)	29 (11.6)	196 (78.4)	
	20001-30000	1 (0.4)	12 (4.8)	2 (0.8)	15 (6)	
Your monthly expenditure at present	1000-5000	12 (4.8)	72 (28.8)	19 (7.6)	103 (41.2)	$\chi^2=25.728$ (0.899)
	5001-10000	13 (5.2)	99 (39.6)	16 (6.4)	128 (51.2)	
	10001-15000	1 (0.4)	9 (3.6)	2 (0.8)	12 (4.8)	
	15001 & above	0 (0)	6 (2.4)	1 (0.4)	7 (2.8)	
How much your monthly savings	1-5000	14 (5.6)	55 (22)	12 (4.8)	81 (32.4)	$\chi^2=20.610$ (0.545)
	5001-10000	11 (4.4)	123 (49.2)	24 (9.6)	158 (63.2)	
	10001-15000	1 (0.4)	8 (3.2)	2 (0.8)	11 (4.4)	

Figure in the cell represents frequencies while % in parenthesis and in the last columns number in the parenthesis represents P value.

Family type often has a strong relationship with the demographic and socio-economic conditions of an area. Rapid and smooth changes in family structure, have been identified the major change agent to this phenomena. The family as an institution influence structure and functional dynamics by transferring from extended and joint to nuclear status. The results pertaining to number of children in family with the family type found non-significant. The obvious reasons, could be associated to these results were either little changes being ascertained from this association. Moreover, structural and functional transformation was found at a lowest scale. It inferred that changes were at far distance to this neglected segment of population with reference to development at family level. However, contrary to these findings, development initiative through migration in family with large size often tends to migrate for better amenities of life (Agesa and Kim, 2001).

Similarly, a non-significant relationship was found between age at the time of migration and family type. It is obvious from the results that no conspicuous age group is associated to migration phenomena. Further, it is open to all age group, irrespective of gender based consideration. This is further endorsed by (Whitehead, 2005) that mostly migration as phenomena encourages every age group person right from child hood to old age.

Furthermore, a non-significant relationship was found between kind of help received at time of migration and family type. It could be inferred that no family bonds were found between the point of migration and the point of destination of the migrants. Contrary to the above findings, migrants, on the path of moving to other parts are often encouraged by the adult migrant family members at the point of destination (Kuhn, 2000).

The relationship between the migrant's present job and family type was found non-significant. Migration is an excluded way of life having little association to the family type.

A non-significant relationship was found between present monthly income of the migrants and family type. These findings show that the monthly income of

the migrant is related with the skill and nature of job of migrant and not with the family type. Rogaly and Coppard (2003) found that labor power is used for saving through seasonal migration.

A non-significant relationship was found between migrant's monthly expenditure at destination place and family type. It could be concluded that although migrants are contributing to meeting out the needs of the family, but did not cover the all felt needs in a sufficient way.

In addition, a non-significant relationship was found between monthly savings of the respondents and family type. it is an augmentation of the earlier inference that though migrants were contributing but not sufficiently .However, contrary to this result, migrants have sufficiently contributed by making assets up to 53% in Tamil Nadu, India (Sundari, 2005).

**Table-3: Relationship between the effects of migration and family type.**

Profiling information		Family Type			Total	Chi square (p-value)
		extended family	joint family	nuclear family		
How much money do you send to your family?	1000-5000	13 (5.2)	55 (22)	15 (6)	83 (33.2)	$\chi^2=23.945$ (0.775)
	5001–10000	11 (4.4)	114 (45.6)	18 (7.2)	143 (57.2)	
	10001–15000	2 (0.8)	16 (6.4)	4 (1.6)	22 (8.8)	
	15001 & above	0	1 (0.4)	1 (0.4)	2 (0.8)	
For what purpose do you send money?	Accommodation expenses	0 (0)	9 (3.6)	0 (0)	9 (3.6)	$\chi^2=14.799$ (0.022)
	For children education	2 (0.8)	48 (19.2)	17 (6.8)	67 (26.8)	
	For household expenditure	19 (7.6)	108 (43.2)	18 (7.2)	145 (58.0)	
	For investment in agriculture	5 (2.0)	21 (8.4)	3 (1.2)	29 (11.6)	
How do you compare your previous job with the present job	Don't know	0 (0)	3 (1.2)	0 (0)	3 (1.2)	$\chi^2=27.738$ (0.002)
	Some what different	13 (5.2)	30 (12.0)	5 (2.0)	48 (19.2)	
	Some what satisfied	0 (0)	7 (2.8)	0 (0)	7 (2.8)	
	Some what similar	4 (1.6)	18 (7.2)	9 (3.6)	31 (12.4)	
	Very different	8 (3.2)	113 (45.2)	20 (8.0)	141 (56.4)	
	Very similar	1 (0.4)	15 (6.0)	4 (1.6)	20 (8.0)	
Why did you move to choose (Pull factors) Peshawar?	Better economic conditions	2 (0.8)	62 (24.8)	13 (5.2)	77 (30.8)	$\chi^2=23.011$ (0.001)
	Better employment benefits	1 (0.4)	35 (14.0)	2 (0.8)	38 (15.2)	
	More job opportunities	23 (9.2)	83 (33.2)	20 (8.0)	126 (50.4)	
What was the Push factors to move from native village to Peshawar	Lack of job opportunities	23 (9.2)	89 (35.6)	23 (9.2)	135 (54.0)	$\chi^2=23.030$ (0.001)
	Less chances of enhancing income	2 (0.8)	57 (22.8)	3 (1.2)	62 (24.8)	
	Poor economic conditions	1 (0.4)	34 (13.6)	10 (4.0)	45 (18.0)	
	Poor educational services	0 (0)	6 (2.4)	2 (0.8)	8 (3.2)	

Figure in the cell represents frequencies while % in parenthesis and in the last columns number in the parenthesis represents P value.

Income is the most determining variable for measuring the changes in light of its increase or decrease. A non-significant relationship was found between the money send by migrants to home and family type It is probable that almost every family is rigorously involved in the migration phenomena. The sole purpose detected from this phenomenon was sending money back to home destination. The obvious reasons associated could be large family, widespread illiteracy and abundance of un-employment. These findings amply support the conclusion of World Bank (2007) that mostly remittances are invested in education and health care of the future generations.

Contrary to the above, a significant ( $p < 0.02$ ) relationship was found between purpose of sending money of the migrants and family type. It could be easily inferred from these findings that different family types though have different requirements but the goal is common i.e. sending remittances for meeting out the dare needs of family. Remittances are mainly used to cater the daily needs at household. Furthermore, investment in schooling and paying back against debt and investment in saving as proved successful in Korçe district (Arrehag *et al.*, 2005).

The respondents were asked that how do they compare their previous jobs with the present jobs where a significant ( $p < 0.05$ ) relationship was depicted between this comparison and family type. This is probably, the satisfaction associated to the switching over of jobs to the present from previous job scenario.

Moreover, a significant ( $p < 0.05$ ) relationship was found between pull factors and family type. It could be unearthed from these results that desire for high living standards attracted the migrants to migrate from their native villages. This trend is often detectable from migration as phenomena across the globe. Todaro Model (1969) suggests that wage differentials between the native and destination district or GDP at the district level are important economic pull factors.

In addition, a significant ( $p < 0.05$ ) relationship was surfaced between push factors and family type in the study area. Push and Pull factors, in combination make possible the migration as phenomena and taking it to mature limits. This is usually the out-come of prevalent poverty as pointed by (Skeldon, 2002) that poverty and migration is complex whole with in-significant relationship between poverty, emigration had little association to it.

**Table-4: Relationship between the effects of migration and family type**

Profiling information		Family Type			Total	Chi square (p-value)
		Extended family	Joint family	Nuclear family		
Prices of Chitrali patti in Rs. per items	Blanket (900)	0 (0)	1 (0.4)	0 (0)	1 (0.4)	$\chi^2=5.864$ (0.439)
	Chugha (1000-4000)	0 (0)	5 (2.0)	0 (0)	5 (2.0)	
	Coat (250-400)	14 (5.6)	62 (24.8)	14 (5.6)	90 (36.0)	
	Topi (120-250)	12 (4.8)	118 (47.2)	24 (9.6)	154 (61.6)	
Who manage the remittances in the household?	Brother	3 (1.2)	22 (8.8)	6 (2.4)	31 (12.4)	$\chi^2=15.849$ (0.603)
	Daughter	0 (0)	5 (2.0)	2 (0.8)	7 (2.8)	
	Father	15 (6.0)	88 (35.2)	17 (6.8)	120 (48.0)	
	Grand father	0 (0)	0 (0)	1 (0.4)	1 (0.4)	
	Grand Mother	0 (0)	1 (0.4)	0 (0)	1 (0.4)	
	Mother	4 (1.6)	41 (16.4)	7 (2.8)	52 (20.8)	
	Sister	1 (0.4)	10 (4.0)	0 (0)	11 (4.4)	
	Son	0 (0)	5 (2.0)	0 (0)	5 (2.0)	
	Uncle	0 (0)	2 (0.8)	0 (0)	2 (0.8)	
Wife	3 (1.2)	12 (4.8)	5 (2.0)	20 (8.0)		
Expected time of return for migrant to native village	Once in decade	2 (0.8)	7 (2.8)	0 (0)	9 (3.6)	$\chi^2=2.688$ (0.261)
	Once in year	24 (9.6)	179 (71.6)	38 (15.2)	241 (96.4)	
What were the effects on the children due to your absence?	Adopted bad behavior	1 (0.4)	10 (4.0)	3 (1.2)	14 (5.6)	$\chi^2=14.356$ (0.073)
	Mostly remain sick	0 (0)	8 (3.2)	5 (2.0)	13 (5.2)	
	No effects	13 (5.2)	91 (36.4)	11 (4.4)	115 (46.0)	
	Remained depressed	9 (3.6)	64 (25.6)	12 (4.8)	85 (34.0)	
	Rude attitude	3 (1.2)	13 (5.2)	7 (2.8)	23 (9.2)	
How does your wife fulfill her responsibilities?	Face the situation	4 (1.6)	68 (27.2)	18 (7.2)	90 (36.0)	$\chi^2=15.631$ (0.004)
	Had to take help of relatives	17 (6.8)	108 (43.2)	14 (5.6)	139 (55.6)	
	Suffered heavy physical and mental pressure	5 (2.0)	10 (4.0)	6 (2.4)	21 (8.4)	

Figure in the cell represents frequencies while % in parenthesis and in the last columns number in the parenthesis represents P value.

Local products, whether handicrafts or other items do contribute the best in the local economy. For ascertaining, the various factors, determining the local economy. Certain questions pertaining to economy were designed and asked subsequently.

The relationship between prices of Chitralli-patti and family type was found non- significant. It is obvious from these results that prices of Chitralli-patti depends on quality of putti and its demand in market devoid of any relationship with the family set-up of the migrants.

A non-significant relationship was found between the person who manage the remittances in the household and family type. It could be induced from these findings that in each family type the person who manages the remittances is generally the more sensible and responsible member of the family. Ghosh (2009) pointed out that the values and attitude towards the role of gender is shaped by migration in household.

Likewise, a non-significant relationship was found between expected times of return for the migrants to their native village and family type. These results depicts that no fixed timing for return of migrants were known. It depends on this particular level of meeting the remittances earned or any emergency back home could be the most attributable factors. Moreover, perhaps, the literacy could also decisive factor as indicated by Deshingkar, (2006b) that mostly unskilled and un-educated persons opted for migration back and forth to the places of destination and migration respectively.

Additionally, a non-significant relationship was found between different types of effects with reference to effects on children at the native place due to the migrant's absence and family type. These findings reflect that children of any family type were seldom affected as indicated by the level of association .This is contrary, to the effect that separation between children and parents for a long period of time, parents lose authority and their role as providers of love and material care and improper management of household. With the passage

of time either other family members take the responsibilities of parents or children themselves take upon the task of parenting (D' Emilio *et al.*, . 2007).

However, a significant ( $P= 0.004$ ) relationship was found between wife responsibilities at the native place and family type. This is perhaps, the parental role, signifies, the women position, second in standing, which is often being taken as replacement for the fathers in their absence at the family. However, it is in total contrast to the findings of Lefebver (1985) stated that in many families the positions and responsibilities of wives are not altered after their husband's migration.

**Table-5: Relationship between the effects of migration and family type**

Profiling information		Family Type			Total	Chi square (p-value)
		Extended family	joint family	Nuclear family		
Did you feel any frustration/indifference in your love and affection?	Depressed	3 (1.2)	51 (20.4)	10 (4.0)	64 (25.6)	$\chi^2=15.873$ (0.103)
	Feel Loneliness	12 (4.8)	87 (34.8)	18 (7.2)	117 (46.8)	
	Far from village	1 (0.4)	0 (0)	0 (0)	1 (0.4)	
	Happy	0 (0)	1 (0.4)	0 (0)	1 (0.4)	
	Learn the art of domestic tasks	0 (0)	6 (2.4)	0 (0)	6 (2.4)	
	Loss of love	10 (4.0)	41 (16.4)	10 (4.0)	61 (24.4)	
Is there any hurdle in the way of business from the govt?	Electricity problems	6 (2.4)	82 (32.8)	14 (5.6)	102 (40.8)	$\chi^2=4.459$ (0.108)
	Security and peace	20 (8.0)	104 (41.6)	24 (9.6)	148 (59.2)	
Do you develop any new habit?	early sleeping due to tiredness	0 (0)	23 (9.2)	8 (3.2)	31 (12.4)	27.092 (0.003)
	Eating with friends outside	1 (0.4)	31 (12.4)	6 (2.4)	38 (15.2)	
	Gossip	8 (3.2)	14 (5.6)	4 (1.6)	26 (10.4)	
	Reading	0 (0)	4 (1.6)	0 (0)	4 (1.6)	
	Study	0 (0)	13 (5.2)	5 (2.0)	18 (7.2)	
	Watching T.V	17 (6.8)	101 (40.4)	15 (6.0)	133 (53.2)	

Figure in the cell represents frequencies while % in parenthesis and in the last columns number in the parenthesis represents P value.

The relationship between migrant's frustration in love and affection for their families in destination place and family type was found non-significant. The results declare the frustration, as not an influencing factor, determining the mode of migration. Rather, it is being taken as an integral part to it.

However, a non-significant (P=4.459) relationship was found between the hurdles in the way of business from the government and family type. It means

that problems coming in the way of business are faced by all migrants irrespective of relative family pattern. This is the main reason associated to the denial to access to the basic amenities of life like sanitation, water and proper housing as pointed out by Deshinker and Anderson (2004) that it also leads to police harassment and continuous threats of eviction.

Similarly, a significant ( $p < 0.05$ ) or ( $P=0.003$ ) relationship was found between development of new habits by migrants at the destination place and family type. These results indicated that as the daily life routine and habits of a person are largely the out-come of the activities carried out at the family level. It is very obvious that migrants often adopt new ways of life including ways of behaving and patterns of living, based on coping the locals and prolonged demand of hard work, waiting for handsome returns. These habits, consistent in nature, take the shape of a culture (Castles & Miller, 2009).

Bi-variate analysis for association between independent variables (socio-economic, cultural and demographic aspects) is dependent variable (income).

**Table-6: Relationship between the effects of migration and income**

Profiling information		Your monthly income at present time			Total	Chi square (p-value)
		Low Income	Middle Income	High Income		
Marital Status before migration	Married	39 (15.6%)	10 (4.0%)	2 (0.8%)	51 (20.4%)	0.986 (0.611)
	Un-married	164 (65.6%)	30 (12.0%)	5 (2.0%)	199 (79.6%)	
Family Type	Extended Family	23 (9.2%)	3 (1.2%)	0 (0)	26 (10.4%)	1.425 (0.840)
	Joint Family	149 (59.6%)	31 (12.4%)	6 (2.4%)	186 (74.4%)	
	Nuclear Family	31 (12.4%)	6 (2.4%)	1 (0.4%)	38 (15.2%)	
Occupation of the household	Agriculture (own Land)	187 (74.8%)	35 (14.0%)	6 (2.4%)	228 (91.2%)	8.370 (0.212)
	Agriculture (rented)	0 (0)	1 (0.4%)	0 (0)	1 (0.4%)	
	Business	6 (2.4%)	2 (0.8%)	1 (0.4%)	9 (3.6%)	
	Non-agricultural Labor	10 (4.0%)	2 (0.8%)	0 (0)	12 (4.8%)	
Pre-migration Occupation of the respondent	Business	7 (2.8%)	3 (1.2%)	2 (0.8%)	12 (4.8%)	13.598 (0.093)
	Education	2 (0.8%)	1 (0.4%)	0 (0)	3 (1.2%)	
	Farming	106 (42.4%)	25 (10.0%)	3 (1.2%)	134 (53.6%)	
	Imam in Mosque	1 (0.4%)	0 (0)	0 (0)	1 (0.4%)	
	Laborer	87 (34.8%)	11 (4.4%)	2 (0.8%)	100 (40.0%)	
At what age did you migrate?	1-15	101 (40.4%)	12 (4.8%)	2 (0.8%)	115 (46%)	36.127 (0.726)
	16-30	99 (39.6%)	28 (11.2%)	5 (2%)	132 (52.8%)	
	31 and above	3 (1.2)	0 (0)	0 (0)	3 (1.2%)	
	% of Total	5.6%	.4%	.0%	6.0%	

Figure in the cell represents frequencies while % in parenthesis and in the last columns number in the parenthesis represents P value.

In addition, a non-significant ( $P=0.611$ ) relationship was dismantled between marital status before migration and monthly income of the respondents. It is attributable to the fact, that marriage as criteria is not linked to the process of migration. Rather, each and every person, irrespective of marital standing, could migrate. No any such traits were detected in the migration phenomena, rather the bulk migrated, belonged to the un-married segment, though some were married also (Campbell, 2010; and De Haan, 1999b).

Findings further indicated a non- significant association was found between family type and monthly income. Any sound association could not be attached to the level of income of a particular family. Income may increase or decrease, with no association to the pattern of family. These are in contrast to the outcome that a positive co-relation does exist between migration and family size (Connell *et al.*, 1976; Sekhar, 1993; and Upton, 1967).

Similarly, the relationship was found non-significant between occupation of the house hold and monthly income. Occupation does not matter in determining the level of income. Perhaps, mostly the un-skilled people migrated from the area, where their contribution in economic terms was not significant. These are in support to the findings of Li (1996) and Roberts (1997).

Notwithstanding, a non-significant association was disclosed between pre-migration occupation of the respondents and monthly income. It is detected from this result that no any pro, or post association of increase in income could be traced due to migration. Further, migration usually leads to the loss of young lot of people, supposed to be performing in various sectors like agriculture. Loss of agriculture labor is evident in light of migration from an area Hugo (1981).

Age at the time of migration and income of the respondents was found non-significant. This is clear from these findings that age does not indicate towards the level of income, rather other factors, i.e. literacy and skills could be the attributing factors.

**Table-7: Relationship between the effects of migration and income**

Profiling information		Your monthly income at present time			Total	Chi square (p-value)
		Low Income	Middle Income	High Income		
What was the Push factor to move from native village to Peshawar?	Lack of job Opportunities	117 (46.8%)	17 (6.9%)	1 (0.4%)	135 (54.0%)	20.416 (0.002)
	Less chances of enhancing income	46 (18.4%)	15 (6.0%)	1 (0.4%)	62 (24.8%)	
	Poor economic conditions	32 (12.8%)	8 (3.2%)	5 (2.0%)	45 (18.0%)	
	Poor educational services	8 (3.2%)	0 (0)	0 (0)	8 (3.2%)	
Why did you move to choose (Pull factors) Peshawar?	Better economic conditions	59 (23.6%)	13 (5.2%)	5 (2.0%)	77 (30.8%)	19.906 (0.003)
	Better educational services	9 (3.6%)	0 (0)	0 (0)	9 (3.6%)	
	Better Employment benefits	24 (9.6%)	13 (5.2%)	1 (0.4%)	38 (15.2%)	
	More job opportunities	111 (44.4%)	14 (5.6%)	1 (0.4%)	126 (50.4%)	
Who helped you at time of migration?	Brother	3 (1.2%)	2 (0.8%)	0 (0)	5 (2.0%)	9.288 (0.158)
	Father	1 (0.4%)	2 (0.8%)	0 (0)	3 (1.2%)	
	Friends	25 (10.0%)	5 (2.0%)	0 (0)	30 (12.0%)	
	Relatives	174 (69.6%)	31 (12.4%)	7 (2.8%)	212 (84.8%)	
Kind of help received at time of migration	Financial support	46 (18.4%)	14 (5.6)	3 (1.2%)	63 (25.2%)	6.975 (0.137)
	Helping in employment	135 (54.0%)	19 (7.6%)	4 (1.6%)	158 (63.2%)	
	Help in accommodation	22 (8.8%)	7 (2.8)	0 (0)	29 (11.6%)	
Expected time of return for migrants to native village	Once in decade	9 (3.6%)	0 (0)	0 (0)	9	2.162 (0.339)
	Once in year	194 (77.6%)	40 (16.0%)	7 (2.8%)	241	

Figure in the cell represents frequencies while % in parenthesis and in the last column number in the parenthesis represents P value.

Migration, containing a dual character of immigration and emigration, emanates the number of people leaving and joining an area for search of job. The only aim containing with other relevant aspect, so far has been detected to income. Increase in enjoying basic amenities of life is the resultant factor of enhancement in income. Push factor, a constituent enhancement of migration was found significant ( $P < 0.05$ ) with reference to Peshawar with its relation with the income. It is probably the prevalent abject poverty which was to be met through ensuring remittances from out-side. Poverty is significantly reduced in the aftermath of remittances being received from out-side sent from the migrants (Siddiqui and Kemal, 2006).

Also, a highly significant ( $P=0.003$ ) association was found between (Pull factors) and monthly income. It indicates that better jobs and high income are the main pull factors for migrants and almost all the migrants were satisfied from their present income. Skeldon (2003) stated that although poverty seems the main driving force for migration but in fact the desire to get better life standards was the main reason of migration.

However, the data revealed a non-significant association between the sources/people that helped the respondents at the time of migration and monthly income. It is rather the people as source, working as the main pushing force, however, individual based movement without any association from friends and relatives at the host destination are also attributable to this phenomenon. Perhaps, the diffusion as process is key to understanding the results as indicated by (Stark and Bloom, 1985).

Also a non-significant association was found between the help extended to respondents at the time of their migration and monthly income. Just like the people who helped at the time of migration the type of help also has nothing to do with the monthly income. This is a further endorsement to the previous result, where diffusion is being identified a pull factor of the phenomena.

Furthermore, an association between expected time of return of the migrants to their native villages and monthly income was found non-significant. Income

does not affect/ determine the schedule of migration regarding coming back to the native areas. Some other factors like death of relative, marriages and other ceremonies being attached as a cultural imperative which could also be associated to this phenomenon. Arif (1999) had also found no relationship between income and migrants schedule of getting back to their relative/ native areas.

**Table-8: Relationship between the effects of migration and income**

Profiling information		Your monthly income at present time			Total	Chi square (p-value)
		Low Income	Middle Income	High Income		
What is your present job	Businessmen	21 (8.4%)	3 (1.2%)	1 (0.4%)	25	0.447 (0.800)
	Skilled Labor	182 (72.8%)	37 (14.8%)	6 (2.4%)	225	
How much are you satisfied from your job	Not Satisfied	21 (8.4%)	4 (1.6%)	0 (0)	25 (10.0%)	2.266 (0.994)
	Some what different	1 (0.4%)	0 (0)	0 (0)	1 (0.4%)	
	Some what satisfied	86 (34.4%)	18 (7.2)	4 (1.6%)	108 (43.2%)	
	Un-decided	3 (1.2%)	0 (0)	0 (0)	3 (1.2%)	
	Very different	1 (0.4%)	0 (0)	0 (0)	1 (0.4%)	
	Very satisfied	91 (36.4%)	18 (7.2%)	3 (1.2%)	112 (44.8%)	
How do you compare your previous job with the present job	Don't know	1 (0.4%)	2 (0.8%)	0 (0)	3 (1.2%)	16.072 (0.099)
	Some what different	42 (16.8%)	6 (2.4%)	0 (0)	48 (19.2%)	
	Some what satisfied	5 (2.0%)	1 (0.4%)	1 (0.4%)	7 (2.8%)	
	Some what similar	26 (10.4%)	5 (2.0%)	0 (0)	31 (12.4%)	
	Very different	110 (44.0%)	25 (10.0%)	6 (2.4%)	141 (56.4%)	
	Very similar	19 (7.6%)	1 (0.4%)	0 (0)	20 (8.0%)	
Your monthly expenditure at present	1000–5000	102 (40.8%)	0 (0)	0 (0)	102 (40.8%)	357.954 (0.000)
	5001–10000	101 (40.4%)	26 (10.4%)	1 (0.4%)	128 (51.2%)	
	10001–15000	0 (0)	12 (4.8%)	0 (0)	12 (4.8%)	
	15001 and above	0 (0)	1 (0.4%)	6 (2.4%)	7 (2.8%)	
How much your monthly savings?	1–5000	79 (31.6%)	2 (0.8%)	0 (0)	81 (32.4%)	147.269 (0.000)
	5001–10000	120 (48%)	32 (12.8%)	6 (2.4%)	158 (63.2%)	
	10001 and above	4 (1.6%)	6 (2.4%)	1 (0.4%)	11 (4.4%)	
How much money do you send to your family?	1–5000	78 (31.2%)	4 (1.6%)	1 (0.4%)	83 (33.2%)	59.891 (0.001)
	5001–10000	109 (43.6%)	29 (11.6%)	5 (2%)	143 (57.2%)	
	10001–15000	15 (6%)	6 (2.6%)	1 (0.4%)	22 (8.8%)	
	15001 and above	1 (0.4%)	1 (0.4%)	0 (0)	2 (0.8%)	

Figure in the cell represents frequencies while % in parenthesis and in the last columns number in the parenthesis represents P value.

Employment and income, though taken synonymous in meaning, however, both are different and income is determined as a return in the light of employment, provided by the society. It is usually dependent on the nature of

skill acquired or the level of qualification. Association between the nature of job the respondents had and monthly income was found non-significant. It indicates that mostly the respondents had low profile of employment. No any sophisticated skills were attained and their income in turn to their jobs was not as per their satisfaction. People with low literacy, fewer job skills with vulnerable conditions of female and young specify the movement of migration (Gurmu et al., 2000).

Furthermore, a non-significant relationship was disclosed between migrant's satisfaction with their jobs and monthly income. As already stated these migrants are doing low status jobs and had low income, so majority of them were not satisfied with their income. Contrary, Rachel Murphy's (2002) argued that there were more resources with households having migrants than with households having no migrants.

A non-significant association was observed between the comparison of the respondent's previous and present job and monthly income. These results show that although the migrants were earning to the extent to fulfill the needs of their survival still their return in the shape of income was not up to the expected mark.

However, a highly significant ( $P=0.000$ ) relationship was disclosed between present monthly expenditure of the migrants and monthly income. It means that nearly all of the migrants had a consensus over the balance in income and expenditure due to the remittances received from migration. These remittances sent by the migrants are a mean of poverty alleviation for migrants, their households and their communities of origin in many parts of the developing world (Siddiqui, 2005 and Piotrowski, 2009).

Furthermore, a highly significant ( $P=0.000$ ) relationship disclosed between monthly savings of the respondents and monthly income. It is here debatable that monthly income increase had led to monthly saving also. The livelihood of a low income family is dependent mainly on remittances so it is likely that

the migrants of these families will remit regularly to assist their families (Connell and Brown, 1995; Stanwix and Connell, 1995).

Likewise, a highly significant ( $P=0.001$ ) association was disclosed between upon asking how much migrants sending money to village and monthly income. Again the results disclosed that these respondents were able to earn and save to the extent to send a significant amount to their homes in village. Studying remittances from Lesotho's mine workers in South Africa, Gustafsson and Negatu (1993) found that many of these mine workers were separated from families that would otherwise be poor, and then they arrived at a conclusion that income inequality in Lesotho is reduced through migration.

**Table-9: Relationship between the effects of migration and income**

Profiling information		Your monthly income at present time			Total	Chi square (p-value)
		Low Income	Middle Income	High Income		
For what purpose do you send money?	Accommodation expenses	7 (2.8%)	2 (0.8%)	0 (0)	9 (3.6%)	8.093 (0.231)
	Children education	48 (19.2%)	15 (6.0%)	4 (1.6%)	67 (26.8%)	
	Household expenditure	125 (50.0%)	18 (7.2%)	2 (0.8%)	145 (58.0%)	
	Investment in Agriculture	23 (9.2%)	5 (2.0%)	1 (0.4%)	29 (11.6%)	
Who manage the remittances in the household?	Brother	26 (10.4%)	5 (2.0%)	0 (0)	31 (12.4%)	14.120 (0.721)
	Daughter	4 (1.6%)	3 (1.2%)	0 (0)	7 (2.8%)	
	Father	102 (40.8%)	15 (6.0%)	3 (1.2%)	120 (48.0%)	
	Grand Father	1 (0.4%)	0 (0)	0 (0)	1 (0.4%)	
	Grand Mother	1 (0.4%)	0 (0)	0 (0)	1 (0.4%)	
	Mother	38 (15.2%)	11 (4.4%)	3 (1.2%)	52 (20.8%)	
Did you feel any frustration/indifference in your love and affection due to migration?	Sister	8 (3.2%)	2 (0.8%)	1 (0.4%)	11 (4.4%)	2.955 (0.982)
	Depressed	53 (21.2%)	9 (3.6%)	2 (0.8%)	64 (25.6%)	
	Feel Loneliness	91 (36.4%)	23 (9.2%)	3 (1.2%)	117 (46.8%)	
	Far from village	1 (0.4%)	0 (0)	0 (0)	1 (0.4%)	
	Happy	1 (0.4%)	0 (0)	0 (0)	1 (0.4%)	
	Learn the art of domestic tasks	5 (2.0%)	1 (0.4%)	0 (0)	6 (2.4%)	
Do you develop any new habit?	Loss of Love	52 (20.8%)	7 (2.8%)	2 (0.8%)	61 (24.4%)	9.490 (0.486)
	Early sleeping due to tiredness	22 (8.8%)	8 (3.2%)	1 (0.4)	31 (12.4%)	
	Eating with friends out-side	32 (12.8%)	4 (1.6%)	2 (0.8%)	38 (15.2%)	
	Gossip	23 (9.2%)	3 (1.2%)	0 (0)	26 (10.4%)	
	Reading	2 (0.8%)	2 (0.8%)	0 (0)	4 (1.6%)	
	Study	16 (6.4%)	2 (0.8%)	0 (0)	18 (7.2%)	
	Watching T.V	108 (43.2%)	21 (8.4%)	4 (1.6%)	133 (53.2%)	

Figure in the cell represents frequencies while % in parenthesis and in the last columns number in the parenthesis represents P value.

Money, an economic indicator, emanates the life standard of a country. High income return would certainly indicate to a high standard of life. Money spending, as an indicator was asked from the respondents an insignificant relationship was found between purposes of sending money and monthly income. It emanates that the level of earning is too meager, where wishful list of respondents could be fulfilled. Other probable reasons, associated to the results could just earning and planning later on with respect to their earning. It means that people in the study area was passing through a transitional economic stage.

The level of income and money consumption of the migrants is higher than non-migrant (Sharma, 1997; and Krishnaiah, 1997)

In addition, a non-significant relationship was found between the persons who manage the remittances in the family at the native place and monthly income. The results show that remittances were managed by elder, responsible and sensible person in every family irrespective of gender considerations. Whether income is low or high it will be managed by the most responsible person. Acosta (2006) demonstrated that in most cases females receive and utilize remittances because of the husband's migration.

About migrants frustration in love and affection for their families at native place and monthly income was found non-significant ( $P = 0.982$ ). It indicates that every migrant has love and affection for his family, however, the most dominating factor was earning money, for which they preferred surrounding all the feelings, including belongingness to their native areas. It could be attributed to prevalence of widespread poverty, illiteracy and nature of migration. This is in quite consonance to the earlier findings discovered by Singh and Yadava (1981a) that literate migrate along with their relative families, while illiterate prefer leaving their families back at home station.

The data further disclosed a non-significant association between the development of new habits at destination place and monthly income. Cultural identities are hardly to be changed; even the migrants are in at the host destination. The migrants usually carry along their own culture from their native place to the place of destination (Castles & Miller, 2009).

#### 4.4 T-test statistics (2-Tailed)

**Table-1: Comparative analysis and spending before and after migration.**

Statement	Before		After		Mean difference	T-value	Significant value (2-tailed)
	Mean	Standard Error	Mean	Standard Error			
Amount Spent on Health	1232.76	103.785	15239.48	664.276	-14006.720	-22.020	0.000
Amount Spent on Housing Conditions	53844.00	1465.627	126800.00	6595.700	-72956.000	-11.310	0.000
Amount Spent on Education of children	10978.80	399.069	30010.00	1395.485	-19031.200	-14.024	0.000
Amount Spent on Household Goods	60.00	44.649	7604.00	310.954	-7544.00	-24.564	0.000
Amount Spent on use of quality inputs to raise agriculture production	3013.40	492.920	7140.00	1090.786	-4126.600	-6.138	0.000
Amount Spent on Daily Use Items	15858.00	526.543	33313.60	1672.071	-17455.600	-11.396	0.000
Amount Spent on livestock	29348.00	1248.631	78832.00	3524.863	-49484.000	-15.065	P=0.000
Amount Spent on in-door recreational facilities	44.00	32.193	11637.20	482.792	-11593.200	-24.029	P=0.000

$H_0$ = Amount spent per year after migration don't affect health.

$H_1$ = Amount spent per year after migration affect health.

This table provides information that amount spent after migration on health services which is highly significant as indicated (P=0.000)

It is apparent that null hypothesis is rejected and a relationship between amounts spent after migration on health services is confirmed. Moreover, the data indicates towards conformity of the mean value (-14006.720). It is clearly depicted from the relationship that migration has positively contributed towards improvements in health services. Similar conclusion are also

disclosed by (UNDP, 2009) that Visiting and returning migrants may also bring back health-improving practices such as drinking safe water and better sanitation.

$H_0$  = Amount spent per year after migration do not affect housing conditions

$H_1$  = Amount spent per year after migration affect housing conditions.

According to this table amount spent after migration on housing conditions which is highly significant as indicated ( $P=0.000$ ).The null hypothesis is rejected and a relationship between the amount spent after migration on housing conditions is confirmed.

Amount spent after migration affect housing conditions in the targeted areas as indicated by the mean value (-72956.000).It is clearly depicted from this relationship that migration has positively contributed towards improvement in house hold conditions. Similar findings are also disclosed by Durand et al. (1996) and Taylor et al. (1996) have shown that Mexican migrants are more likely to make investments in housing than other activities which increases household production.

$H_0$  = Amount spent per year after migration don't affect children education.

$H_1$  = Amount spent per year after migration affects children education.

This table provides information that amount spent after migration on educational level of children showed a highly significant relationship ( $P=0.000$ ).It is apparent that null hypothesis is rejected and a relationship between amount spent after migration on education of children is confirmed by the mean (-19031.200). This relationship reflects that migration has positively contributed towards improvement in educational level of the children as concluded by World Bank (2007). Remittances from family members are often used for investment in education and healthcare, which improves the human capital base of the household for future generations.

$H_0$  = Amount spent per year after migration don't affect house hold goods.

$H_1$  = Amount spent per year after migration affects house hold goods.

The above table clearly depicts that amount spent after migration on house hold goods was ( $P=0.000$ ). So the null hypothesis is rejected and the relationship between amounts spent after migration on house hold goods is accepted.

This relationship is further supported by the mean value (-7544.00). These easily indicates towards the positive relationship between household improvement in goods. Supporting findings as disclosed by (Gage et al., 1997), where a linear relationship was detected between parents, number of children and household conditions.

$H_0$ = Amount spent per year after migration don't affect use of quality in-put to raise agricultural production

$H_1$ =Amount spent per year after migration affects use of quality in-put to raise agricultural production.

According to the above table amount spent after migration on use of quality in-put to raise agricultural production showed a highly significant relationship ( $P=0.000$ ). It is obvious that null hypothesis is rejected and relationship between amounts spent after migration on quality in-put raised agricultural production.

Amount spent after migration on use of quality in-put affect agricultural production in the project area as indicated by the mean (-4126.600).It is eminent from this relationship that migration has positively contributed towards improvement in agricultural items for daily use. Temporary migration is a structural feature of agricultural economies. It serves, together with agriculture, as a primary income source of many regions (e.g. Haberland et al., 1999 on India).

$H_0$ = Amount spent per year after migration don't affect daily use items.

$H_1$ =Amount spent per year after migration affects daily use items.

According to the above table amount spent after migration on daily use items showed a highly significant relationship ( $P=0.000$ ). It leads towards rejection of null hypothesis and acceptance of relationship between amounts spent after migration on daily use items is confirmed. Furthermore, amount spent after

migration affects daily use items as indicated by the mean value (-17455.600). It is clearly depicted from this relationship that migration has positively contributed towards improvement in daily use items. These are in consonance to the outcomes of (De Brauw & Rozelle, 2008; and Zhang, 2010), those half of the remittances viewed were spent on consumptive purposes at household level.

H<sub>0</sub>= Amount spent per year after migration don't affect livestock.

H<sub>1</sub>=Amount spent per year after migration affects livestock.

According to the table amount spent after migration on livestock showed a highly significant relationship (P=0.000) between amount spent and number of livestock. It is clear from the significant value that null hypothesis is rejected and a relationship between amounts spent after migration on livestock is confirmed. Which is further endorsed by the mean value (-49484.000).A positive relationship of money and number of livestock was the eminent outcome of this relationship. Which is line to Funkhouser (1992) finds that, in Nicaragua, remittances increase self-employment in men, but reduce labor supply in women.

H<sub>0</sub>= Amount spent per year after migration don't affect indoor- recreational facilities.

H<sub>1</sub>= Amount spent per year after migration affects indoor-recreational facilities.

The above table provides information about amount spent after migration as highly significant relationship as indicated (P=0.000). It is apparent that null hypothesis is rejected and a relationship between amounts spent after migration on indoor-recreational facilities is confirmed with a strong endorsement from the mean value (-11593.200).It is confirmed from this relationship that positive co-relation exists between in-door recreation and migration. However, little clue could be un-earthed from review, which mostly describing migration in terms of change of place, residence as disclosed by Skeldon (1997).

**Table-2: Comparative analysis and spending before and after migration.**

Amount Spent on Women education	1151.20	27.902	576.00	132.299	575.200	4.186	0.000
Amount Spent on Household Income	16412.96	515.036	65945.34	3229.274	-49532.389	-15.643	0.000
Amount Spent on Fuel Use	394.52	35.664	1707.56	169.553	-1313.040	-8.109	0.000
Amount Spent on Telephone/mobile expenses	0.00	0.00	1483.84	144.494	-1483.840	-10.269	0.000
Amount Spent on Toilet Facility	536.00	158.008	20602.80	586.794	-20066.800	-33.299	0.000

$H_0$ =Amount spent per year after migration don't affect women education.

$H_1$ =Amount spent per year migration affect women education

According to the above table amount spent after migration on women status showed a highly significant relationship ( $P=0.000$ ). It is obvious that null hypothesis is rejected and relationships between the amounts spend after migration on women status is confirmed. Amount spends after migration affects women status in the areas as indicated by the mean value (-575.200).It could be attributed to the enhancement in relative economies of the families, which positively led towards improvement in the status of women as well. Migration usually adds to values and attitude based on gender basis at household level (Ghosh, 2009). Further, additional role of kid learning related

to reproductive health was also found positively co-related to women status after migration (King & Vullnetari, 2006).

$H_0$ =Amount spent per year after migration don't affect house hold income.

$H_1$ =Amount spent per year after migration affect house hold income.

According to the above table it is evident that amount spent after migration on other businesses to increase house hold income indicated a highly significant relationship as indicated ( $P=0.000$ ). Moreover, the null hypothesis is rejected as relationship between the amount spent after migration on other businesses to increase house hold income is confirmed. This is further supported by the mean value (-49532.389). A probable out-come based on positive contribution towards improvement in house hold income was depicted which in lines to role of migration in economic development. Moreover, over the last five decades migration research and policy have focused on internal and international migration separately. However, a shift has been noticed, while focusing on migration in terms of rural and urban as envisaged through various reviews (Todaro, 1980).

$H_0$ = Amount spent per month after migration don't affect fuel use.

$H_1$ =Amount spent per month after migration affect fuel use.

According to the above table amount spent after migration on fuel use showed a highly significant relationship ( $P=0.000$ ). Thus null hypothesis is rejected and a relationship between the amounts spent after migration on fuel use is confirmed. Amount spent after migration affects fuel use in the areas is further supported by the mean value (-1313.040). It is clearly depicted from this relationship that migration has positively contributed towards improvement in fuel use. Similar findings are also disclosed by (Addleton, 1984) that In Pakistan, for example, consumption patterns of families with members working abroad can have "demonstration effects" inducing increased spending, as a consequence.

H<sub>0</sub>=Amount spent per month after migration don't affect telephone expenses.

H<sub>1</sub>=Amount spent per month after migration affect telephone expenses.

According to the above table amount spent after migration on telephone expenses showed a highly significant relationship (P=0.000). So the null hypothesis is rejected and a relationship between the amount spent after migration on telephone connection is accepted. Amount spent after migration affects telephone expenses in the areas as indicated by the mean value (-1483.840). It is clearly depicted from this relationship that migration has positively contributed towards improvement in telephone expenses. Similar findings are also disclosed where by enhancement has been noticed as an impacts in relation to household and community level on welfare grounds (Ratha *et al.*, 2011).

H<sub>0</sub>=Amount spent per year after migration don't affect toilet facility.

H<sub>1</sub>=Amount spent per year after migration affect toilet facility.

According to the above table amount spent after migration on toilet facility showed a highly significant relationship (P= 0.000). It is obvious that null hypothesis is rejected and a relationship between the amounts spent after migration on toilet facility is confirmed. Amount spent after migration affects toilet facility in the areas is also increased as indicated by the mean value (-20066.800). This positive relationship is indicative of the facts that spending on this vital aspect of life has been increased which led to an improvement in the life standards as indicated by De Brauw and Rozelle (2003) that migration not only contributed in improvement in agriculture side, but also led to an improvement at household level, depicting enjoyment of all basic necessities of life.

## **4.5 FOCUS GROUP DISCUSSION.**

A Focus Group Discussion is a form of group interviewing in which a small group- usually ranging from 7 to 10 persons is led by a moderator (interviewer) in a loosely structured discussion on various topics of interest. The course of the discussion is usually planned in advance and most moderators rely on out-line to ensure that all topics of interest are covered (Krueger,1988).

### ***4.5.1 A Focus Group Discussion in Chitrali Bazaar Peshawar.***

The study under investigation was planned to achieve inferences by using advanced statistical tools. However, being qualitative in nature, a focus group discussion was conducted in Chitrali bazaar Peshawar (universe of the study). Eight migrants including both businessmen and workers as representative of the study population were requested to take part as participants and express their views concerning the study under investigation. Particulars of the respondents are as below;

Name of the respondents Occupation

- 1) Shah Wali, Businessman
- 2) Shakir Khan, Businessman
- 3) Bulbul Khan, Worker
- 4) Nisar Shah, Worker
- 5) Lateef Khan, Worker
- 6) Sardar Shah, Worker
- 7) Khanef, Worker
- 8) Sareer Ahmad, Worker

Majority of the respondents were in the age group between (35–50) and had primary to secondary level of education. They were part of joint and extended type families and dependent on hilly agriculture. Majority of them migrated at the age between (15–30) and were part of seasonal migration. Poor economic conditions were the main Push factors and employment opportunities at work place were main Pull factors as disclosed by majority of the respondents. Workers were expert in making the most demanded items of winter made from Chitrali-pathi like Chuga, Pakol and coats while businessmen were engaged in selling those products in the market, thus making the process indispensable of two sided participation. They all were satisfied with their respective fields. Workers earning were between Rs (16000–20000) while business earned between Rs (35000–40000) while their expenditures were between Rs (5000–10000) and between Rs (8000–15000) after migration respectively. Moreover, they were regularly sending remittances to their native villages for household expenditure and education. Male and female both were responsible to manage remittances in household at native place. Furthermore, they disclosed that their children adopted anti-social behavior and wives faced difficult situations due to absence of their husbands at native place. They felt a sense of loneliness and often watching T.V for time passing. They revealed their low level of literacy back at Chitral due to non-availability of higher studies at the time of their migration. However, they further disclosed sending their offspring's to high seat of learning at the point of destination.

#### ***4.5.2 Focus group discussion in District Chitral***

A focus group discussion was carried out in District Chitral, village oweer in front of terej mir hills. Eight household members were requested to express their views about migrants as their closed relatives with particulars as below;

Name of the participants Occupation

- 1) Amjad Khan, Businessman
- 2) Dulat Khan, Businessman

- 3) Ashfaq, Worker
- 4) Siraj Khan, Worker
- 5) Meskeen, Worker
- 6) Ashraf, Worker
- 7) Kumbat Khan, Worker
- 8) Naeem Khan, Worker

Majority of the respondents were of the view that migrants in Peshawar were their sons and brothers respectively. The natives disclosed, remittances were their main source of income followed by agriculture and herding. The villagers had a small piece of land for cultivation from 04 canals to 20 canals. They were keeping goats and sheep as domestic animals to address meet demand as well as for immediate cash money. The migrants were sending remittances on monthly basis for the household expenditure and some other necessities of daily life. According to them nearly 30% percent of the migrants belonged to this area and every household had one to two migrants in Peshawar. Majority of the migrants were seasonal. The people were living simple life. The major portion of remittances were spent on housing construction, health, education both male and female, livestock, telephone/mobile expenses and up dated toilet or commode facility after household expenditure. Remittances also made possible indoor recreational facilities such as T.V and cable to every household. They further, disclosed that there was considerable improvement in agricultural production after investment in it. Agricultural production was addressing local demand of people. They disclosed that local non-governmental organizations had keen interest to provide electricity to the far-flung areas of Chitral, even to hilly areas. Government was also providing stipend to school level children as well as books to over-come the miseries of poor people of the area. The non-availability of qualified doctors was major problem in the target areas. They further disclosed that there were hydro-generated electricity and a network of

internet and cable. They disclosed that traditional agriculture based on bullock for cultivation and crushing was replaced by modern machinery i.e. tractors and thrashing. Fertilizer and quality seeds were provided by NRSP and AKRSP to improve agricultural out-puts. They also provided storage facility for preservation of fruits i.e. apple and apricot. They further stated that in Garam Chashma (a location) the farmers grow potatoes and peas to meet local demands as well as export it to other parts of country i.e. Lahore and Rawalpindi respectively.

### **Conclusion**

It could be concluded from the inferences that migration as phenomena was instrumental in generating revenue. Most of the migrants had a key role in sending remittances back to the host area. Major chunk of migrants were involved in making the Chitrali products and selling in the winter in the Peshawar market. Some of them had problems of social alienation and isolation to alien cultural exposure. The study concluded that migrants were successful enough in improving the life standard through the remittances being sent back to their point of destination. The remittances sent were mostly used in agricultural products, replacement of old and traditional ways by modern tools application like tractors and harvesters. Improved variety of seeds and fertilizers were also found being used due to utilization of remittances based on migration. Livestock and seasonal dry fruits were found on the rise as new practices due to improvement in these walks of life. People were found spending on children education without any discrimination of gender basis. Access to T.V, Net and other advanced tools of communication were found prevalent in the study area, however, health as sector of life of deficit in terms of availability of qualified doctors. Moreover, the participants attributed their low literacy as the out-come scarcity of educational institutions at the time of their migration in the native area. They also disclosed sending their children to various educational institutions in Peshawar (point of destination).

They suggested that;

- 1) Government should focus on development of communication sources, i.e. roads etc.
- 2) There is dire need to provide small loans on concessional profit to poor masses of Chitral to start small business or improve physical their present business.
- 3) Chitrali-Pathi and products such as Pakol, Chugha and coat should be given traditional coverage and make it possible to export it to other countries to earn foreign exchange. Moreover, it needs to be highlighted in the public media as the art based products of Pakistan.
- 4) Geographically, Chitral basically contain hilly areas, the government should pay attention to establish marble industries to provide job opportunities to the poor masses for curtailing further migration from Chitral.
- 5) Power generation needs to be focused on and foreign investment in this neglected field to be encouraged. It would serve to produce electricity and generate employments also.

# **SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS**

## **5.1 Summary**

The present study titled “The impacts of migration of Chitralese to Peshawar” was carried out to measure the effects of the phenomena at hand over the localities i.e. place of migration and place of destination. The study structure has been categorized in to four major components where efforts have been made to highlight each according to the nature of data with all its manifestations. Section ‘A’ and ‘B’ are related to frequencies and percentages of data from district Peshawar and Chitral respectively. In addition Section ‘C’ comprehensively explores all the viable out-comes through relationship based information (Chi-square) with ‘D’ with major focus on marked differences of out-comes before and after the phenomena (migration) with explicit manifestation through T-test statistics. Conclusion and recommendations are shown after these four sections.

### **Section-A: Uni-variate Results of Peshawar**

All the analysis and results explored that; majority of the respondent’s i.e.36.0% age was between (21-30) years. Moreover, 74.4% of the respondents belonged to joint family and 94.4% have family members from (1 to 10) with 48.8% of the respondents had formal education. Moreover, majority of the respondents (79.6%) were un-married before migration. (75.6%) of the respondents had the number of children in the range of (1-4) in family size. Similarly, (91.2%) claimed agriculture as occupation of the household with working to agriculture as profession stood at 53.6% prior to migration. Further, 54.4% of the respondents claimed that the present jobs were very different from the one in the village.

In addition, majority of the respondents i.e.52.8% were migrated at the age of (16 to 30) years and 63.2% of the respondents disclosed that their relatives helped them in search of employment at the time of migration. Similarly, i.e. 96.4% of the respondents disclosed that they visit their native village once in a year as far as push factors were concerned 54% claimed about lack of job opportunities at native village while, in pull factors 50.4% of respondents disclosed availability of more job opportunities at the place of destination.

Moreover, 90% of the respondents depicted that they were common laborer at the present job followed by 10% as businessmen. About the prices of Chitrali-patti was disclosed Rs. (120 to 250) for one topi by 61.6% respondents, followed by 36% of the respondents as selling of coat on Rs. (250 to 400) as these were popular and prefer in winter season. Majority of the respondents i.e. 59.2% were stressing that lack of peace and security was the main hurdle in the way of their business. Further, 44.8% of the respondents claimed they were very satisfied with their jobs. Majority of the respondents i.e. 78.4% had monthly income between Rs. (10001–20000) with expenditure between Rs. (5001–10000) and 63.2% monthly savings were between Rs. (5001–10000).

The study further showed that majority of the respondents (57.2%) were sending remittances between Rs. (5001–10000) to their families back in Chitral and 58% of the respondents claimed those remittances for household expenditure. Moreover, 48% of the respondents disclosed that their fathers were the sole authority to manage the remittances in native village.

Likewise, a reasonable majority i.e. (51.2%) termed business completely in accordance with their expectation and (47.6%) of the respondents had termed the returns of their business quite in accordance with their expectation. Furthermore, a reasonable number i.e. (56.4%) gave their views about the work timings as being more than their expectations. Most of the respondents i.e. (50.4%) were of the opinion that the facilities they had in their houses were in accordance with their expectations with majority (70.8%) considered the availability of food as per standard.

The study further showed, that majority i.e. (63.6%) of the respondents considered opportunities for performing to participate in any association/political party as very good with the neighboring community followed by (76.8%) with freedom of performing religious rituals.

Majority i.e. (94.8%) of the respondents disclosed that mostly the pick and drop responsibilities were met by the respondents themselves before migration and (33.6%) of the respondents said that after migration those responsibilities were taken by their fathers.

Majority i.e. (89.2%) of the respondents claimed that the responsibility for taking care of the parents and old relatives were met by the respondents themselves before migration and (47.6%) of the respondents claimed that such activities were being performed by their parents after migration.

Monthly expenses on children school were before and after migration (74.4%) and (43.2%) of the respondents respectively.

Earning as part of the respondents had (70.4%) before migration with (36.4%) shares from brothers and (34.4%) from parents after migration.

Family needs were looked after (62%) before migration and (39.2%) of the respondent's fathers after migration.

As far as helping hands in domestic affairs were concerned, (60%) sharing was contributed by migrants themselves before while (45.6%) by the parents after migration.

The study further showed, the various natures of effects, witnessed due to migration, (46%) of the respondents had noticed an effect of migration on children, with depression as most noticeable (34%).

Focus on the nature of feeling after migration, the data high lighted that migrants had the experience of loneliness i.e. (46.8%), followed by remained depressed i.e. (25.6%).

Electronic media was found as instrumental in behavioral transformation (53.2%).

The desire for providing education to their children (both male and female) after migration has been on rise as indicated by (96.8%) respondents and liberal attitude to women employment has also been on rise (82.0%) of the respondents as claimed after migration. Similarly, children involvement in marriage decision on their own was also found significant (80.8%) after migration. The enthusiasm of hard work has been risen after migration as found with (97.2%) significant, time spending with family (94.8%), religious (96.8), in politics (54%) and with business (87.2%) as major activities.

The study further found that respect after migration was increased (95.2%), advice of people towards the migration as phenomena (91.6), hospitality increased (91.6%) respectively.

### **Section-B: Uni-variate Results of Chitral**

The study indicated (59.2%) migrants were brothers and seasonal migration stood at (71.6%) with least 2 persons from a household (92%). Main income from agriculture and remittances were discovered (48.4%). Moreover, possession with respect to land was (1–6) Jareeb, constituted from (35.6%) of the respondents.

A majority i.e. (70%) disclosed sending remittances (57.3%) were dependent on their remittances, which brought economic changes (improvement) in the relative families (70.8%) respectively.

Similarly, majority of the respondents i.e. (84.4%) disclosed spending an amount between Rs. (1–2000) on spiritual treatment for family members health before migration while, (40.8%) of the respondents claimed that amount raised to Rs. (1–10000) per year after migration.

Findings of the study further explored that majority of the respondent's i.e. (54.4%) spent an amount between Rs. (1–50000) on construction of mud

houses before migration while (53.6%) claimed that amount raised to Rs (1 to 100000) per year after migration. Similarly, a huge number of the respondents i.e. (85.2%) disclosed invested ranging Rs. (1–15000) on children primary education before migration while majority of the respondents i.e. (48%) between Rs. (40001–60000) on intermediate level of education after migration per year.

A reasonable number i.e. (48.8%) were spending Rs. (501–1000) on women primary education before migration while (98.4%) raised the amount up to Rs (1–5000) on women primary education per year after migration.

Almost i.e. (99.6%) claimed spending Rs. (1–5000) on purchase of washing machine before migration while (68.8%) spent Rs. (5001–7500) on purchase of furniture per year after migration.

The study further showed that majority of the respondents i.e. (77.6%) claimed spending Rs. (1–1750) on purchase of quality seeds before migration while (94.0%) spent Rs. (1–7000) on purchase quality seeds after migration per year.

In addition, large number of the respondents i.e. (55.6%) spent an amount between Rs. (1 to 1500) on purchase of grocery before migration while (56.8%) spent Rs. (30001–45000) on purchase of food per year after migration.

Moreover, (39.2%) of the respondents expressed spending an amount between Rs. (20001–40000) on purchase of buffalos before migration while (76.0%) spent Rs (50001–100000) on purchase of buffalos per year after migration.

Likewise, the study disclosed a high proportion of the respondents i.e. (99.6%) claimed an amount between Rs. (1–4000) spent on video games before migration while (62.8%) raised the amount up to Rs (1–10000) on video games per year after migration.

Moreover, majority of the respondents i.e. (80.4%) expressed spending an amount Rs. (1–1000) on wireless set before migration while (91.6%) spent Rs (1– 2500) on wireless set per year after migration.

Moreover, majority i.e. (96%) spent an amount between Rs. (1–4000) on flush connected with open drain before migration while (62.0%) spent an amount Rs. (1500 to 30000) on flush to sewerage after migration.

Furthermore, (47.2%) of the respondents said impact on family in case of remittances decrease were noticed moderate and (46%) as severe.

However, alternative to remittances was identified as agriculture (79.6%) to invest more for productivity with education to improve the lot of people as (32.8%) respectively.

Finally, (80.4%) suggested that to speed-up work on Lowari-tunnel is the best option for facilitation in transportation.

Provision of jobs opportunities were ranged (44.8%) for curtailing the magnitude of immigration.

### **Section-C: Bi-variate**

A non-significant relationship was found between nature of education and family type. Similarly, the relationship between family type and marital status before migration was found as non-significant. Moreover, the relationship between occupation of the respondents and family type was found non-significant. The study further disclosed that the relationship between family type and those who helped migrants at time of migration to Peshawar was found non-significant. About migrants frustration in love and affection for their children at native place and family was found non-significant. A non-significant relationship was disclosed between migrant's present job and family type. Upon the association between migrant's satisfaction about their jobs and family type found non-significant. A non-significant relationship was found between migrant's monthly expenditure and family type. Upon the association between how much migrants sending money to village and family type was found non-significant. Likewise, a non-significant relationship was disclosed between family type and various nature of effects on children due to

migration of the migrants. A non-significant association was found between years of schooling of the migrants and family type.

A significant ( $P= 0.029$ ) association was found between pre-migration occupation of the migrants and family type. The relationship between help extended to migrants at the time of migration and family type was found non-significant. Moreover, a significant ( $P= 0.001$ ) association was found between causes of migration (push factors) and family type. A highly significant ( $P= 0.439$ ) association was found between prices of various items made of Chitralli-pati and family type. A significant ( $P= 0.002$ ) relationship was disclosed between the comparison of the respondent's previous and present jobs and family type. Similarly, a non-significant association was found between monthly savings of the migrants and family type. A highly significant ( $P= 0.022$ ) association was found between money sending purposes of the migrants and family type. Furthermore, an association between migrant's wives responsibilities at native place and family type was found significant as indicated ( $P= 0.004$ ). Similarly a significant ( $P= 0.024$ ) association was disclosed between number of members in the family and family type. A non-significant association was found between the number of children in the migrant's families and family type. Moreover a non-significant association was found between age at the time of migration of the respondents and family type. Also a non-significant association was found between expected time of return for the migrants to native villages and family type. A non-significant association was found between the hurdles faced by the respondents in the way of business from the government side and family type. A non-significant association was found between present monthly income of the respondents and family type.

Similarly, a non-significant relationship was found between by asking the migrants about remittances management in household at the native place and family type.

A significant ( $P= 0.003$ ) association was found between by asking respondents about development of new habit at destination place and family type.

A non-significant ( $P= 0.362$ ) relationship was found between marital status before migration and monthly income of the respondents. In addition, a highly significant ( $P= 0.840$ ) association was found between family type and monthly income.

Contrary, the relationship was found non-significant between occupation of the house holds and monthly income. Also, a non-significant association was disclosed between pre-migration occupation of the migrants and monthly income.

Similarly, non-significant relationship was found between age at the time of migration of the respondents and monthly income.

Likewise, a non-significant association was disclosed between people who helped the respondents at the migration and monthly income. Also a non-significant ( $0.137$ ) association was found between the help extended to respondents at the time of their migration and family type. Furthermore, an association between rate of return of the migrants to their native village and monthly income was found non-significant.

In addition, association between the natures of jobs the respondents had and monthly income was found insignificant. Further more. A non-significant relationship was found between migrant's satisfaction with their jobs and monthly income. A non-significant ( $0.099$ ) association was disclosed between comparison of the respondent's previous and present jobs and monthly income. Contrary, a highly significant ( $P= 0.000$ ) relationship was disclosed between present monthly expenditure of the migrants and monthly income. Also, a significant ( $P= 0.000$ ) relationship was found between monthly savings of the respondents and monthly income. Similarly, a highly significant ( $P=0.001$ ) association was disclosed between upon asking how much migrants sending money to their village and monthly income. A non-significant relationship was found between money sending purposes of the migrants and monthly income. In addition, a non-significant relationship was found between by asking respondents about management of remittances in household who

managed the remittances and monthly income. A significant ( $p=0.002$ ) relationship was disclosed between (push factors) and monthly income. Also, a highly significant ( $P=0.003$ ) association was found between (Pull factors) and monthly income. About migrants frustration in love and affection for their children at native place and monthly income was found non-significant. Also, a non-significant association was found between by asking migrants about development of any new habit at destination place and monthly income.

#### **Section-D: Paired-test/T-test.**

A highly significant ( $P = 0.000$ ) relationship was disclosed between amount spent on health after migration. Similarly, amount spent on housing conditions after migration showed a highly significant relationship ( $P=0.000$ ). Moreover, amount spent on education of children after migration showed a significant relationship ( $P =0.000$ ). Likewise, a significant relationship ( $P =0.000$ ) was found between household goods after migration. In addition, amount spent after migration on agricultural in-puts showed a highly significant relationship ( $P =0.000$ ). Furthermore, amount spent after migration on daily use items showed a significant relationship ( $P =0.000$ ). Amount spent after migration on livestock showed a highly significant relationship ( $P =0.0000$ ). Similarly, amount spent on in-door recreational facilities after migration showed a highly significant relationship as indicated ( $P =0.000$ ).Furthermore, a highly significant ( $p=0.000$ ) relationship was disclosed between amount spent on outdoor recreational facilities after migration. Similarly, a highly significant ( $P =0.000$ ) relationship was found between amount spent on women education after migration. Also, amount spent after migration on fuel use showed a highly significant ( $P =0.0000$ ) relationship. Further a highly significant ( $p=0.000$ ) relationship was disclosed between amount spent on telephone/mobile after migration. Amount spent on toilet facility after migration showed a highly significant ( $P =0.000$ ) relationship respectively.

## 5.2 Conclusion

The present study entitled the impacts of migration of Chitralise to Peshawar was conducted in District Chitral upon the local people (Chitralise) migrated to other parts of the country with special reference to Peshawar. The area selected had a lot of implications with reference to socio-economic profile, provision of labor force to demanding area in their interpreneurial activities for shaping of their native area in accordance to the prevalent socio-economic and health indicators at par to the other parts of the country. The eminence of this study would easily be captured once the phenomenon of emigration is understood in light of its relative effects (both positive and negative) for area of destination and migration as well. These ramifications included an increasing rate of crime, lawlessness and pressure of dwelling system with a conflicting situation and cultural prospective as dominant and dominated entities. This cultural differentiations need to be understood if the emigrants find it difficult to amalgamate within the prevalent social system, which often leads to cultural segregation, social isolation and mental alienation. The study at hand focused on these very considerations mentioned above which are of high sociological significance and found that the majority of the respondents had a low level of income and relative family structure was joint with some precedents of extended family also along with the emergence of nuclear. Education was though prevalent but a complex whole with dominant religious form of education along with the formal sector. The study also emanated a substantial diversification in the relative incomes and occupation in positive direction, for the remittances boasted the life standards back at Chitral as well. Enhancement in inclinations towards attainment in education of kids in high seats of learning got prominence on the basis of inferences. Moreover, the structural alterations in the buildings, availing the other facilities like electricity, communication both in the infra-structure and the establishment of latest communication facilities like cell phone etc also brought some new vistas of development. Main occupation was agriculture with non-agriculture labor was found around. Like wise, occupation, i.e., agriculture with disguised

unemployment had also gone through the process of transformation. Only restricted to agriculture, back at Chitral led them to face some new enterprises while migrating to Peshawar, being a hub for a number of economic activities, specifying for some new and innovative areas of interventions. However, these findings had the endorsement from the comparative analysis, applied during the study for reaching into the true crux. These analyses disclosed a hefty spending of money and resources for getting access to standard livings. These included construction and innovation of houses, spending on acquiring standard facilities in health, the use of modern techniques, coupled with improved variety of seeds in agriculture, access to quality education, devoid of disparity on gender basis and access to recreational facilities. It was further found that marital status had no relationship with the nature of education along with the age of migrants respectively. Emigrants were also helped out at the point of destination by their relatives and friends. The study further found that emigrants succeeded in saving from their earnings at the point of destination and its subsequent transfer to their native areas. This migration also explored new attitudinal and working habits amongst the close kins and family members. Those who had high human capital were found in transition to this effect. Matriarchal trends were discovered to be taking into existence, due to the absence of male (head) of the families as eminent outcome of migration. The house wives were found highly efficient managers in the management of household affairs back in the native areas. Moreover, it was concluded that sending of money was well known in the shape of pull and push factors like improvement in economic conditions, trickling down of economic benefits and development of structure to create more job opportunities. The push factors included were identifies as lack of job opportunities at the native areas, less chances of improvement in income with poor economic conditions and poor educational services. Moreover, the emigrants were found successful in developing new habits at the point of destination. Study depicted overall improvement with a highly significant amount spent on health, improvement in housing conditions, provision of education to children, household goods along with focused on agricultural production both land productivity and livestock sector improvement. Moreover, recreational facilities being enjoyed

both inside and outside upon the raise in the relative income. Women education was found as highly benefited from entrepreneurship and some other facilities like access to telephone and mobile services with structural development at household level as well.

### 5.3 Suggestions

After analyzing the impacts of migration from Chitral to Peshawar, certain suggestions based on the findings of the study are presented as;

- 1) Migration, as envisaged from the present study was in continuous shape with the main facets associated were poverty, illiteracy, and abundance of labor in the local market due to non-availability of employment. Institutional and structural mechanism need to be devised in order to regulate and predict the nature, management and direction of migration with all sequential out-comes.
- 2) It was found that emigrants were fully supported and accommodated at the point of destination i.e. (Peshawar). It indicates towards a chain based on occurrence and re-occurrence of the cycle in relation to emigration and immigration. This cycle of process not only embodies the provision of youth labor to market but also the aged and well-off from the point of destination to the point of migration. Replacement of labor in the shape of relatives and locals also emanates the circulation of money between these two obvious points.
- 3) The remittances received in the after math of the completion of this cyclical process of migration could be a major contribution to development of native area. However, any strategy/ policy is lacking which could be designed and anticipated analogy for structural and functional growth of native area.
- 4) Whenever, an area is faced with any sort of sociological problems, it has always tackled/ ameliorated by the concerned government on priority basis. It is sometime; purely a government support or sometimes community participation is also preferred. The case in respect to cyclic process of migration in the study area is completely devoid of any such strategy. The strategy in this respect needs to be

designed which would be fruitful towards the native area development in all capacity of life.

- 5) Infrastructural development has been considered as the major focus of attention over the successful return of remittances from internal migration. This includes expansion and reconstruction of road facility, telephone, education and health etc.
- 6) Further more, cottage industry for the utilization of local resources is another viable option for the development. The study recommends a full package based on development of the area in all respects over the remittances being received. Community participation would further strengthen and ensure locals faith in considering the resources around as their own. The policy of tragedy of commons (Shamilaat) should be avoided by making each and every citizen responsible towards claiming ownership over the local resources. In addition, sustainable environment based on utilization of local resources with an insight into un-tapped resources must be ensured. This would greatly resolve the issue of un-employment and under-employment with the control over population, which the study has emanated so far.
- 7) Improvement in literacy is a vital variable, proven eminent in each and every strategy adopted for the development across the globe. The study recommends special focus on the development of formal sector in education along with technical education and non-technical training both pertaining to industrial and agricultural sector.
- 8) Gender based disparity has always been a great impediment in the development of an area. The present study, however, discovered a trend of matriarchy existed in the absence of male members. It is visible to suggest that this factor needs to be explored with all positive ramifications which would further lead to the elimination of gender inequality and making both genders responsible to participate in the development and growth initiatives on parallel grounds. Thus financial

prosperity and stable institutional framework could be attained at in the study area provided a policy towards this end is vitalized.

- 9) Access to Chitral as far-flung and neglected area is once worked out on permanent basis, this would certainly mitigate miseries and ill-feeling of isolation among Chitralese and hopefully lead towards more working and contributing on part of these neglected people towards the national development in general and local area in particular.
- 10) The important reality pertaining to migration has always been discovered the emigrant's sense of alienation and isolation in the host area. This problem was also discovered to be one of the associated factors in regard to present study. It is suggested on the basis of inferences that local culture needs to adopt the emigrants by considering this at far to their home. This would display cultural phenomena of assimilation and discourage the process of alienation. If ensured on these lines, would certainly lead to curtailment of developing on ethnic and locally based alienations.

## REFERENCES

1. Acosta, P. (2006). *Labour Supply, School Attendance, and Remittances from International Migration: the Case of El Salvador*. World Bank Policy Research Working Paper No. 3903, Washington.
2. Adams, R. H. (1998). *Remittances, Investment, and Rural Asset Accumulation in Pakistan*. *Economic Development and Cultural Change* 47 (1): 155-73.
3. Adams, R. H. (2006). *Remittances and poverty in Ghana*. World Bank, Policy Research Working Paper No. 3838, Washington
4. Addleton, J. (1984). *The impact of international migration on economic development in Pakistan*. *Asian Survey* 23 (5): 574-596
5. Adepaju, A. (1981). *Migration and Socio-economic Changes in Tropical Africa: Policy and Research*. In Jorge Balan (ed), *Why People Move: Comparative Perspectives on the Dynamics of Internal Migration*, the UNESCO Press, PP. 317-336.
6. Adepaju, A. (1991). *Introduction to population studies*. Demographic lecture manual, series No.2. Newyork.
7. Adepaju, A. (1995). *Emigration Dynamics in sub-Saharan Africa. International Migration*. Special Issue: Emigration Dynamics in Developing Countries, Vol. 33, Nos. ¾ .
8. Afsar, Rita. (2002). *Migration and Rural Livelihoods*, in K. Toufique and C. Turton (eds.), *Hands Not Land: Hosw Livelihoods are changing in Rural Bangladesh*, Bangladesh Institute of Development Studies, Dhaka: 89-96.

9. Afsar, R. (1995). *Causes, Consequences and Challenges of Rural Urban Migration in Bangladesh*. Doctoral Dissertation, University of Adelaide, Australia.
10. Afsar, Rita. and Baker, Jonathan.( 1999). Interaction between Rural Areas and Rural Towns, Agderforskning, Agder. Research Foundation, Kristiansan, Norway, mimeo. , RAND Corporation, California.
11. Agesa, Richard U. and Sunwoong, K. (2001). *Rural to Urban Migration as a Household Decision: Evidence from Kenya*, Review of Development Economics, 5 (1), February: 60-75.
12. Ahmed, Maqsood, A. and Sirageldin, I. (1993). *Socio-economic Determinants of Labour Mobility in Pakistan*. The Pakistan Development Review 32:4, 1031–1041.
13. Ait Hamza. (1995). Les Femmes d'Emigrés dans les Sociétés Oasiennes. *Le Maroc et La Hollande*. Rabat: Université Mohammed V, 159-69.
14. Aït Hamza, Mohamed. (1988). L'Emigration, Facteur d'Intégration ou de Désintégration des Régions d'Origine. *Le Maroc et La Hollande*. Rabat: Université Mohammed V, 161-75.
15. Aklilu, J. and Taddesse, K. (1993). *The Elements of urbanization*. Addis Ababa, Addis Ababa University.
16. Anderson, L. (2002). *Rural-urban migration in Bolivia: advantages and disadvantages*. Institute for Socio-economic research, Universidad catolica Boliviana, La paz, Bolivia.
17. Anju. (1991). *Problems of Inter-State Migrants: A Case Study of Faridkot District*. M.Phil. Thesis, Punjabi University, Patiala.

18. Arhinful, D.K. (2001). *'We Think of Them': How Ghanaian Migrants in Amsterdam Assist Relatives at Home*. Leiden: African Studies Center, Research Report 62.
19. Arif, G. M. (2009). *Economic and Social Impacts of Remittances on Households: The Case of Pakistani Migrants Working in Saudi Arabia* Pakistan Institute of Development Economics Islamabad.
20. Arif, G.M. 1999 *.Remittances and investments at the household level in Pakistan*, Research Report No. 166, Pakistan Institute of Development Economics, Islamabad
21. Arrehag, L., Ö. Sjöberg and M. Sjöblom. (2005). *Cross-Border Migration and Remittances in a Post-Communist Society: Return Flows of Money and Goods in the Korçë District, Albania*”, South-Eastern Europe Journal of Economics, 3 (1), 9-40.
22. Atamanov, A. & Van den Berg, M. (2010). *Rural non-farm activities in Central Asia: a regional analysis of magnitude, structure, evolution and drivers in the Kyrgyz Republic*.
23. Bahns, M. K. (2005). *Rural to Urban migration in Developing Countries: The Applicability of the Harris Todaro Model with a Special Focus on the Chinese Economy*. Dissertation zur Erlangung des akademischen Grades des Doktors der Wirtschaftswissenschaften an der Universität Konstanz.
24. Bariagaber, A. (1999). *States, International Organizations and the Refugee: Reflections on the Complexity of Managing the Refugee crisis in the Horn of Africa*. The Journal of Modern African Studies, 37 (4), 597-619.
25. Barke, M. and O'Hare, G. (1991). *The Conceptual Frameworks in Geography*. Second Edition. Oliver and Boyd.

26. Becker, G. (1974). *A Theory of Marriage*, Part II. *Journal of Political Economy*, 82 (2), Part 2: S11-S26
27. Bekure, W. (1984). *Industrial Labor Force in Addis Ababa Region Before 1975*. In *Proceedings of the Seventh International Conference of Ethiopian Studies*, 26-29 April 1992, Scandivian Institute of African Studies, Uppsala, PP. 603-616
28. Ben Ali, Driss. (1996). L'Impact de Transferts des Résidents Marocains à l'Etranger (RME) sur l'Investissement Productif. *Séminaire sur "La Migration Internationale"*. 6-7 juin 1996. Rabat: CERED, 345-263.
29. Bencherifa, A. (1991). *Migration Internationale et Changement Agricole. Le Maroc et l'Allemagne*. Rabat: FLSH.
30. Bencherifa, Abdellatif .(1990). *L'Oasis de Figuig: Persistence et Changement*. Passau: Passavia Universitätsverlag.
31. Bencherifa, Abdellatif and Herbert Popp .(2000). *L'Oasis de Figuig: Persistence et Changement*. Passau: Passavia Universitätsverlag.
32. Berriane, Mohamed. (1996). *Migration Internationale et Extension du Cadre Bâti: Le Cas des Villes du Maroc Nord*. *Séminaire sur "La Migration Internationale"*, 6-7 juin 1996. Rabat: CERED, 365- 401.
33. Bhagat, R. B. & Mohanty. S. (2009). *Emerging Pattern of Urbanization and the Contribution of Migration in Urban Growth in India*, *Asian Population Studies*, vol.5 no.1, pp.5-20.
34. Bilsborrow, R E., Oberai, A. S. and Standing, G. (1984). *Migration Summary in Low Income Countries: Guidelines for Survey and Questionnaire Design*, London and Sydney: Croom Helm.
35. Bogue, D. J. & Zachariah, K.C. (1962). *Urbanization and Migration in India*, in Turner, R. (ed.) *India's urban Future*, Bombay, pp. 27-54.

36. Bonnet, J.J. and R. Bossard. (1973). Aspects Géographiques de l'Emigration Marocaine vers l'Europe. *Revue de Géographie du Maroc*, (23-24), 5-50.
37. Bose, A. (1974). *Studies in India's Urbanization. 1901-1971*, Tata McGraw Hill Publishing Co. Ltd., New Delhi, pp.40-143
38. Bouzid, Naciba. (1992). *Espace et Activités au Féminin dans une Vallée Présaharienne du Sud Marocain: La Vallée du Todra*. Thèse Nouveau Doctorate. Université de Rouen.
39. Boyd, M. (1989). *Family and Personal Networks in International Migration*. Recent Developments and New Agendas. *International Migration Review*, 23 (3): 638-670.
40. Boyle, P., Halfacree K., and Robinson. V. (1998). *Exploring Contemporary Migration*, Pearson Education Limited, Addison Wesley Longman Limited, United King.
41. Breese, G. (1969). *The city in newly developing countries*. USA. Cambridge University Press.
42. Brockerhoff, M. (1995). *Fertility and Family Planning in African Cities: The impact of female migration*. *Journal of Biosocial Science* 27: 347-358.
43. Bryant, J. (2005). *Children of International Migrants in Indonesia, Thailand, and the Philippines: A Review of Evidence and Policies*. Innocenti Research Centre, UNICEF. (Innocenti Working Paper-05).
44. Byerlee, D. et al. (1976). *Rural-Urban Migration in Sierra Leone: Determinants and Policy Implications*, Michigan State University, USA.
45. Caldwell, J. C. (1969). *African Rural-Urban Migration: The Movement to Ghana's Towns*. Columbia University Press, New york

46. Campbell, E. K. (2010). The role of remittances in Botswana: Does internal migration really reward sending families? *Population, Space and Place*, 16 (2), 151-164.
47. Castles, S., & M. Miller. (2009). *the Age of Migration*. 4th Edition, Guilford Press, New York.
48. Charef, M. (1986). *L'émigration Internationale Marocaine et son Rôle dans la Production du Logement au Maroc*, Thesis Doctorat de 3e Cycle. Poitiers: Université de Poitiers.
49. Charles, B. W. (1975). *The Decision to migrate under uncertainty: A case study of rural urban migration in tropical Africa*, Ph.D. Dissertation, University of Maryland.
50. Chattou, Zoubir. (1998). *Migrations Marocaines en Europe: Le Paradox des Itinéraires*. Paris: L'Harmattan.
51. Clarke, J.I. (1966). *Population Geography*, Pergamon Press, Oxford, p.12
52. Cohen, Jerry H. (2005). *the Oaxaca U.S connection and remittances* Pennsylvania state university.
53. Connell, J, Dasgupta, B., Laishley, R. and Lipton, M. (1976). *Migration from Rural Areas: The Evidence from Village Studies*, Delhi: Oxford University Press.
54. Connell, J. and R.P. Brown. (1995). *Migration and remittances in the South Pacific: towards new perspectives*, *Asian and Pacific Migration Journal*, 4 (1): 1-33.1.
55. Connell, J., B. Das Gupta, R. Laishley and M. Lipton. (1976). *Migration from Rural Areas: The Evidence from Village Studies*. Oxford University Press, Delhi.

56. Courbage, Youssef. (1995). Fertility Transition in the Mashriq and the Maghrib: Education, Emigration, and the Diffusion of Ideas, Carla Obermeyer (ed) Family, Gender and Population Policy: Middle-Eastern Realities. Cairo: AUC Press, 80-104.
57. Cox Edwards, A., & M. Ureta. (2003). International Migration, Remittances, and Schooling: Evidence from El Salvador. *Journal of Development Economics*, Vol. 72.
58. Cox, P.R. (1970). *Demography: Fourth Edition*. Aberdeen: Cambridge University Press.
59. Crawford, David. (2001). How “Berber” Matters in the Middle of Nowhere. *Middle East Report*, 219, 21-25.
60. Crawford, David. (2001). How Berber Matters in the Middle of Nowhere. *Middle East Report*, 219, 21-25.
61. Crivello, G. (2003). *Dreams of passage: Negotiating gender, status and migration in the Moroccan Rif*. Unpublished PhD Thesis, University Of California, Riverside.
62. D’Emilio, A.L., B. Cordero, B. Bainvel, C. Skoog, C., D. Comini, J. Gough, M. Dias, R. Saab, & T. Kilbane. (2007). *the Impact of International Migration: Children Left Behind in Selected Countries of Latin America and the Caribbean*. Division of Policy and Planning, United Nations Children’s Fund (UNICEF), New York
63. Davis, K. (1951). *The Population of India and Pakistan*, Princeton University Press, Princeton, pp.107-123
64. De Brauw, A. and Rozelle, S. (2003), *Migration and Household Investment in Rural China*. University of California, Davis, Department of Agricultural and Resource Economics, Davis, CA, USA.

65. De Brauw, A., & Rozelle, S. (2008). *Migration and household investment in rural China*. *China Economic Review*, 19 (2), 320-335
66. De Haan, A. (1999b). *Livelihoods and poverty: The role of migration a critical review of the migration literature*. *The Journal of Development Studies*, 36 (2), 1-47
67. De Haan, Arjan. (1997). *Rural-Urban Migration and Poverty: The Case of India*, *IDS Bulletin*, Vol.28, No.2, Pp. 35-47.
68. de Haas, Hein. (1998). *Socio-Economic Transformations and Oasis Agriculture in Southern Morocco*. L. de Haan and P. Blaikie eds., *Looking at Maps in the Dark*. Utrecht/Amsterdam: KNAG/FRW UvA, 65-78.
69. de Haas, Hein. (2003). *Migration and Development in Southern Morocco: The Disparate Socio-Economic Impacts in the Todgha Oasis Valley*, Unpublished Ph.D. Thesis. Nijmegen: University of Nijmegen
70. de Hass. (2001). *Migration and Agricultural Transformations in the oases of Morocco and Tunisia*. Utrecht: KNAG.
71. de Hass. (2003) *Migration and Development in Southern Morocco. The Disparate Socio-Economic Impacts of Out-Migration on the Todgha Oasis Valley*. Unpublished PhD Thesis, Radboud University, Nijmegen.
72. De Mas, Paolo. (1990). *Over levings dynamiek in het Marokkaanse Rif-Gebergte*. *Geografisch Tijdschrift*, XXIV (1), 73-86.
73. Deepak, N. (1994). *Migration, Remittances and Capital Flow: The Indian Experience*, Oxford University Press, New Delhi.
74. Deshingkar, P., & Grimm, S. (2005). *Internal migration and development: A glob perspective*. Switzerland.

75. Deshingkar, P., & Grimm, S. (2005). *International Migration and Development: A Global Perspective*. Migration Research Series, No. 19, International Organization for Migration, Geneva
76. Deshingkar, P. (2006b) *Internal migration, poverty and development in Asia*. ODI Briefing Paper, No 11. October 2006. [http://www.odi.org.uk/publications/briefing/bp\\_internal\\_migration\\_oct\\_06.pdf](http://www.odi.org.uk/publications/briefing/bp_internal_migration_oct_06.pdf)
77. Deshingkar, P., and Anderson, E. (2004). *People on the move: new policy challenges for increasingly mobile populations*. Priya Deshingkar and Edward Anderson. Natural Resource Perspectives. Number 92, June 2004. <http://www.odi.org.uk/nrp/nrp92.pdf>
78. Dhonte, Pierre, Rina Bhattacharya, and Tarik Yousef. (2000). *Demographic Transition in the Middle East: Implications for Growth, Employment, and Housing*. IMF Working Paper 00/41, March 2000.
79. District Census Report of Chitral. (1998). Population Census Organization, Statistics Division, Govt. of Pakistan.
80. Dupont V. (1992). *Impact of Internal Migration on Industrial Development: A Case Study of Jetpur in Gujarat*. Econ. Political Weekly, 27 (45): 2423-2436.
81. Durand, J., W. Kandel, E.A. Parrado, and D.S. Massey. (1996). *International migration and development in Mexican communities*. Demography 33 (2), 249-264. Economic Review, 19 (2), 320-335.
82. Ellerman, David. (2005): *Labour Migration: A Development Path or a Low - level Trap? Development in practice*, Vol. 15, No. 5: 617 - 630.
83. Ellis, Frank.(1998). *Household Strategies and Rural Livelihood Diversification*. The Journal of Development Studies, Vol. 35, No. 1: 138

84. Ellis, Frank. (2000). *Rural Livelihoods and Diversity in Developing Countries*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
85. Ensel, Remco .(1999). *Saints and Servants in Southern Morocco*. Leiden, Boston, Köln: E.J. Brill.
86. Ezra, M. (2001). *Ecological Degradation, Rural poverty, and Migration in Ethiopia: A Contextual Analysis*. Policy Research Division, population council working paper, No. 149.
87. Fadloulah, Abdellatif; Abdallah Berrada and Mohamed Khachani. (2000). *Facteurs d'Attraction et de Répulsion des Flux Migratoires Internationaux. Rapport National: Le Maroc*. Rabat: Commission Européenne.
88. Fargues, Philippe. (2004). *The Global Demographic Benefit of International Migration: A Hypothesis*. Fifth Mediterranean Social and Political Research Meeting, March 2004. Florence and Montecatini: European University Institute.
89. Farooq, M., Mateen, A. & Cheema, M.A. (2005). *Determinants of Migration in Punjab: A case study of Faisalabad metropolitan*. Journal of Agriculture and Social Sciences. Vol 1 (3), pages 280-282. I.
90. Fellat, Fadlallah Mohammed. (1996). Transferts et Politiques d'Incitation aux Investissements des Emigrés (Maroc). *Séminaire sur "La Migration Internationale"*, 6-7 juin 1996. Rabat: CERED, 305-26.
91. Ferry, M. and G. Toutain. (1990). Concurrence et Complémentarité des Espèces Végétales dans les Oasis. *Les Systèmes Agricoles Oasiens*. Options Méditerranéennes. Série A, N° 11. Paris: CIHEAM.
92. Finan, T. (2004). *The dynamics of debt in southeast Bangladesh*, CARE Bangladesh, Dhaka, mimeo.

93. Fokkema, Tineke, and George Groenewold. (2003). *De Migrant als Suikeroom*. *DEMOS*, Vol. 19, June/July 2003.
94. Fuller, D. Theodore. (1980). *Satisfaction with Urban Life: The Judgment of Villagers Transplanted to Small Urban Centers in Thailand*. *Rural Sociological Society*, 45 (4): 723-730.
95. Funkhouser, E. (1995). *Remittances from international migration: A comparison of El Salvador and Nicaragua*. *Review of Economics and Statistics* 77 (1): 137-146.
96. Gage, J.A., Sommerfelt, E., Paini, A. L. (1997). *Household Structure and Childhood Immunization in Niger and Nigeria*. *Demography* 34 (2): 295-309.
97. Gallego, J.M., & M. Mendola. (2010). *Labor Migration and Social Networks Participation: Evidence from Southern Mozambique*. Working Papers series, No. 183, University of Milano-Bicocca, Department of Economics
98. Gallina, Andrea. (2004) *Migration, financial flows and development in the Euro-Mediterranean area*. Federico Caffè Centre, Roskilde University
99. Garson, J.P and G. Tapinos (ed) .(1981). *L'argent des immigrants: revenus, épargne et transferts de huit nationalités immigrées en France*. Paris: INED.
100. Gebre, Y.D. (2001). *Population Displacement and Food Insecurity in Ethiopia*: *Geoforum*, 37 (4), 565-580. University of Florida.
101. Ghosh, J. (2009). *Migration and Gender Empowerment: Recent Trends and Emerging Issues*. Human Development Research Paper, No. 4, United Nations Development Program, New York.

102. Ghuman, R.S., Brar, J.S., Singh, I. (2007). *Status of Local Agricultural Labour in unjab*. The Punjab State Farmers Commission. Government of Punjab.
103. Gmelch, G. and Zenner, W.P. (1996). *Urban Life: Readings in Urban Anthropology*, Third Edition. USA: Waveland Press, Inc.
104. Goldstein, S. (1976). *Facets of Redistribution: Research Challenges and Opportunities*. Demography, Vol. 143, No. 4, November, pp. 423-434.
105. Government of Pakistan. (1998). *Population and Housing Census of Pakistan, 1998: Census Bulletin-1*, Pp: 2–3. Population Census
106. Government of Pakistan. (2002-03). *Economic Survey of Pakistan*, Pp: 181, 184–85. Economic Advisor Wing, Finance Division, Islamabad.
107. Gugler, J. (1988). *Over-Urbanisation Reconsidered*. in J. In Gugler ed. The Urbanisation of the Third World. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
108. Gugler, Joseph and Flanargan, W. G. (1978). *Urbanisation and Social Change in West Africa*, USA, Cambridge University Press.
109. Guhl, N. and Abdel-Fattah, M. (1991). *Rural Upper Egyptian labourers in Cairo*. Research Monograph Series No. 21. Cairo Demographic Centre, Cairo
110. Gurmu, E., Goldstein, S. and Goldstein, A. (2000). *Migration, Gender and Health Survey in Five Regions of Ethiopia: 1998*. (A United Nation Training and Research Project on the Interrelations of Migration and Economic Change, Women’s Status, Reproduction and Health). Addis Ababa: Addis Abab University and Providence: Brown University.

111. Gustafsson, Bjorn and Negatu, M. (1993). *Poverty and Remittances in Lesotho*. Journal of African Economic.
112. Haberfeld, Y., Menaria, R. K., Sahoo, B. B., Vyas, R. N. (1999). *Seasonal Migration of Rural Labour in India*. Population Research and Policy Review, 18, 473-489.
113. Hajjarabi, Fatima .(1988). Femmes et Emigration: Cas de la Région d'Al Hoceima. *Le Maroc et La Hollande*. Rabat: Université Mohammed V, 177-85.
114. Hajjarabi, Fatima. (1995). Femmes, Famille et Changement Social dans le Rif. *Le Maroc et La Hollande*. Rabat: Université Mohammed V, 105-10.
115. Hamdouch, B., Berrada, A., Heinemeijer W.-F., De Mas P. and Van der Wusten H. (1979). *Migration de Développement. Migration de sous-développement?* Rabat: INSEA, REMPLOD.
116. Hamdouch, Bachir (ed). (2000). *Les Marocains résidant à l'étranger. Une enquête socio-économique*. Rabat: INSEA.
117. Harris, J. R. and Todaro, M. P. (1970). *Migration, Unemployment and Development: A Two Sector Analysis*. in Rhoda, R.E., (1979), *Development Activities and Rural-Urban Migration*. Washington, D.C: Office of Urba Development.
118. Harrison, P. (1982). *Inside the third world*. Harmonds worth, U K: Penguin.
119. Heinemeijer, W.F., J.A. van Amersfoort, W. Ettema, P. De Mas and H. van der Wusten .(1976). *Weggaan om te Blijven. Gevolgen van Gastarbeid op het Marokkaanse Platteland*. Amsterdam: Universiteit van Amsterdam.

120. Heric, B. H. (1965). *Urban migration and economic development in Chile*. Massachusetts Institute of Technology, Cambridge, USA.
121. Hicks, R., R. N. Lalonde and D. Pepler. (1993). *The Mental Health of Immigrant and Refugee Children: Psychosocial Considerations in the Mental Health of Immigrant and Refugee Children*. Canadian Journal of Community Mental Health 12: 71–87.
122. Hildebrandt, N. & D. McKenzie. (2005). *The Effects of Migration on Child Health in Mexico*. World Bank Policy Research Paper, No. 3573, The World Bank.
123. Hill, P. (1972). *Rural Hausa, A Village and Setting*. Cambridge University Press, Cambridge.
124. Hornby, W. F., and Jones, M. (1993). *An Introduction to Population Geography*: Second Edition. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
125. Hossain, Md. Zakir. (2001). *Rural-Urban Migration in Bangladesh: A Micro-Level Study*, Seminar Proceedings on Internal Migration, Brazil IUSSP Conference, August 20-24, 2001.
126. Hossain M.I., Khan I.A. and Seeley J. (2003). *Surviving on their Feet: Charting the Mobile Livelihoods of the Poor in Rural Bangladesh*. Paper prepared for the conference, *Staying Poor: Chronic Poverty and Development Policy*, University of Manchester, April
127. Hugo, G. J. (1981). *Population Movement in Indonesia during the Colonial Period*. In: Fox, J. J. and others (eds.) 'Indonesian, Australian perspectives', Canberra: The Australian University Press, 95-136.
128. Husain, M. (2001). *Geography of India*. Tata McGraw Hill Publishing Ltd, New Delhi, 16.
129. Hussain M. I., Khan I. A. and Seeley, J. (2003). *Surviving on their Feet: Charting the Mobile Livelihoods of the Poor in Rural*

*Bangladesh*”, Paper prepared for the conference, Staying Poor: Chronic Poverty and Development Policy, University of Manchester, April.

130. International Labour Organization. (1998). *The Future of Urban Employment*. ILO, Geneva.
131. IOM. (2000). *World Migration Report*, P: 3. Co published by the International Organization for Migration and the United Nations.
132. James, D.C.S. (1997). *Coping with a new society: The unique psychological problems of immigrant youth*. *Journal of School Health* 67: 98–102.
133. Jongwanich, J. (2007). *Workers’ Remittances, Economic Growth and Poverty in Developing Asia and the Pacific Countries*, WP/07/01.
134. Kagermeier, Andreas. (1997). *Migration Internationale et Changements Sociaux dans le Maghreb*. Tunis: Université de Tunis, 57-74.
135. Kasahun, A. (2000). *Migration to Addis Ababa: An Explanation of Reasons for Migration and Employment status at the Destination*. Addis Ababa, Addis Ababa University.
136. Keban, Yeremias, T. (1996). *Mobilitas Penduduk dan Perubahan Sosial Budaya*. [Population Mobility and Socio-cultural Changes] in *Mobilitas Penduduk di Indonesia [Population Mobility in Indonesia]*, edited by Aris Ananta and Chotib. Jakarta: Lembaga Demografi Fakultas Ekonomi Universitas Indonesia and Kantor Menteri Negara ependudukan/ BKKBN.
137. Kebede, M. (1994). *Migration and urbanization in Ethiopia*. Published by Institute for curriculum Development and Research (ICDR), Ministry of Education (MOE).

138. Kerbout, M. (1990). Les Mutations des Campagnes du Moyen Atlas Oriental. A. Bencherifa and H. Popp eds., *Le Maroc: Espace et Société*. Passau: Passavia Universitätsverlag.
139. Khachani, M. (1998). *Migration from Arab Maghreb Countries to Europe: Present Situation and Future Prospects*, *Forum* 5 (1), May 1998.
140. Khan, J. H. (2010). *Socio-Economic and Structural Analysis of Internal Migration: A Micro Level Analysis*, Serials Publications, New Delhi, p. 72.
141. Khattak, Naeem-ur-Rehman. (2004). *Socio-economic and Demographic Profile of NWFP*. An analysis of 1998 Population and Housing Centre; Censes Monograph Series No.2, Pakistan Institute of Development Economics.
142. Khinchuk, K. (1987). *Agricultural Labour Force in the Soviet Union*. Soviet geography, Vol. 28. No.2. pp. 90-115.
143. Kinfu, A. (2003). *A study on Migration of rural poor from Tigray to Addis Ababa. causes, consequences and possible solutions*, Mekelle, Tigray.
144. King, R., & Vullnetari, J. (2006). *Orphan Pensioners and Migrating Grandparents: The Impact of Mass Migration on Older People in Rural Albania*. *Aging and Society*, Vol. 26, Issue 5, pp. 783-816.
145. Kiros, G. E. and White, M. J. (2004). *Migration, community context and child immunization in Ethiopia*. *Social Science and Medicine*, 59: 2603-2616
146. Koc, I. and Onan, I. (2001). *The impact of remittances of international migrants on the standard of Living of the Left-Behind Families in Turkey*. Conference Proceedings, XXIV International Union for the

Scientific Study of Population (IUSSP) General Conference, Salvador, Brazil, 18–24 April.

147. Kosinski. L.A. & Prothero. R.M (ed). (1975). *People on the move: Studies in Internal Migration*. Methuen & Co.Ltd., London, p.12.
148. Koubry, Fatiha. (1995). *La Population Rurale dans les Chtouka-Massa*. Thèse Nouveau Doctorat. Rouen : Université de Rouen/Dpt. de Géographie.
149. Krishnaiah, M. (1997). *Rural Migrant Labour Systems in Semi-arid Areas: A Study of Tow Villages in Andhra Pradesh*, The Indian Journal of Labour Economics, Vol. 40, No. 1.
150. Krueger, R. A. (1988). *Focus groups: A practical guide for applied research*. Newbury Park, CA: Sage. In Gall, M. D., Borg, W. R., and Gall, J. P. (1996). *Educational Research*. White Plains, NY: Longman Publishers USA.
151. Kuhn R. (2000). *The Logic of Letting Go: Family and Individual Migration from Rural Bangladesh*, Labor and Population Working Papers, RAND Corporation, California.
152. Kuhn, R. (1999). *The Logic of Letting Go: Family and Individual Migration from Rural Bangladesh*. Doctoral Dissertation, Graduate Group in Demography, University of Pennsylvania, U.S.A.
153. Lacroix, T. (2005). *Les réseaux marocains du développement : Géographie du transnational et politiques du territorial*. Paris: Presses de Sciences Po.
154. Lall, Somik V., Harris, S., and Shalizi, Z. (2006). *Rural-Urban Migration in Developing Countries: A Survey OF Theoretical Predictions and Empirical Findings.* Development Research Group. The World Bank.

155. Lazaar, Mohamed. (1987). International Migration and its Consequences in the Central Rif (Morocco). *European Review of International Migration*, 3, 97-114.
156. Lee, E.S. (1966). *A Theory of Migration*. Demography, Vol. 3, 47-57.
157. Lefebvre, A. (1985). *Comparative Study of Emigration from Two Pakistani Villages with Different Forms of Agriculture*. Pp: 109–10. Copenhagen
158. Lewis G. S. (1982). *Human Migration: Geographical Perspectives*. New York, St. Martin's Press.
159. Lewis, A.W. (1954). *Economic development with unlimited supplies of labour*: Bobbs-Merrill Company, College Division
160. Li, Cheng. (1996). *Surplus Rural Laborers and Internal Migration in China: Current Status and Future Prospects*. Asian Survey, Vol. 36, No. 11: 1122-1145.
161. Lipton, M. (1976). *Why Poor People Stay Poor: Urban bias in world development*. Cambridge, MA: Harvard University Press.
162. Lipton, M. (1984). *Migration from Rural Areas of Poor Countries: The impact on Rural Productivity and Income Distribution*. World Development, Vol. 8:124.
163. Litchfield, J. and Waddington, H. (2003). *Migration and poverty in Ghana: Evidence from the Ghana Living Standards Survey*. University of Sussex, IDS Migration
164. Lucas, R. E. B., & Stark, O. (1985). *Motivations to remit: Evidence from Botswana*. The Journal of Political Economy, 901–918.
165. Mabogunje, A.L. (1970). *System Approach to a Theory of Rural-Urban Migration*. *Geographical Analysis*, vol. 2, pp.1-17.

166. Mabogunje. (1975). *System Approach to a Theory of rural - Urban Migration*. in Jones, E. Readings in Social Geography. London: Oxford University Press.
167. Mac Call & Robert, B. (1975). *Fundamental statistics from psychology* (2nd ed): New York. Hancourt Brace Jovanovich Inc.
168. Majumder P. P., Mahmud S. and Afsar R.( 1996). *Squatters of Dhaka: Dynamism in the Life of Agargoan Squatters*, University Press Limited, Dhaka
169. Malone, L. (2007). *Migrants' Remittances and Investments in Children's Human Capital: The Role of Asymmetric Preferences in Mexico*. Mimeograph, University of California, Santa Cruz. 4
170. Mangalam, J. J. (1968). *Human Migration: A Guide to Migration Literature in English 1955-1962*, University of Kentucky Press, Lexington, Kentucky, pp.12-14.
171. Manner, C. K. (2003). *A Model of Rural-Urban Migration and Fertility*. *the journal of developing Areas*, vol. 37 No. 1. pp. 55-71.
172. Mansuri, G. (2006). *Migration, Sex Bias, and Child Growth in Rural Pakistan*. Policy Research Working Paper, No. 3946, World Bank, Washington DC.
173. Massey, D. S., Arango, J., Hugo, G., Kouaouci, A., Pellegrino, A., and Taylor, J. E. (1993). *Theories of International Migration: Review and Appraisal*. *Population and Development Review*, 19 (3): 431–466.
174. Matin, I. (2001). *Targeted Development Programs for the Extreme Poor: Experiences from BRAC Experiments*, CRPC Working Paper No. 20, Research and Evaluation Division, Bangladesh Rural Advancement Committee, Dhaka.
175. Mberu, B.U. (2006). *Internal migraine and household living conditions in Ethiopia*. *Demographic Research*, 14 (21), 509-540.

176. McCatty, M. (2004). *The Process of Rural-Urban Migration in Developing Countries*. An Honours essay submitted to Carleton University in fulfillment of requirements for the course ECON 4908, as credit toward the degree of Bachelor of Arts with Honours in Economics. Carleton University. Ottawa, Ontario.
177. McGee, T.G. (1975). *An Aspect of Urbanization in South-East Asia: The process of City-Ward Migration*. In Jones, E., *Readings in Social Geography*. London: Oxford University Press.
178. Mendola, M. (2005). *Migration and Technological Change in Rural Households: Complements or Substitutes?*”, Development Studies Working Paper N. 195, Centro Studi Luca D’Agliano, Milan.
179. Mendola, M. (2008). *Migration and technological change in rural households: Complements or substitutes?* *Journal of Development Economics*, 85 (1-2), 150-175
180. Mezdour, Salah .(1993). *Economie des Migrations Internationales. Revue Française des Affaires Sociales*, 47 (3), 179-92.
181. Mohtadi, H.(1990). *Rural inequality and rural-push versus urban-pull migration: The case of Iran, 1956–1976*. *World Dev.*, 18 (6): 837-844, DOI:10.1016/0305-750X (90)90006-J
182. Monstead, M. and Walji, P. (1978). *A Demographic Analysis of east Africa: A Sociological Interpretation*. Uppsala: The Scandinavian Institute of African Studies.
183. Montgomery et al. (2004). *Cities Transformed: Demographic Change and Its Implications in the Developing World*. London, Earthscan Publisher. NIDI/Eurostat (2001). “Why do People Migrate?” <http://www.nidi.knaw.nl/web/html/pushpull/index.html>.

184. Montgomery, M., Gragnolati, M., Burke, K., and Paredes, E. (2000). *Measuring Living Standards with Proxy Variables*. *Demography*, 37 (2): 155-174.
185. Mter, Moulay Abdellah. (1995). *La Population Ksourienne du Sud du Maroc et l'Emigration Internationale: Le cas des Vallées du Dadess et du Draa dans la Province de Ouarzazate*. Thèse nationale. Poitiers: Université de Poitiers.
186. Mukherjee, S. (1993). *Poverty Induced Migration and Urban Involution in India: Causes and Consequences*. [Online] Available: [www.vedamsbooks.com](http://www.vedamsbooks.com).
187. Murphy, R. (2000). *Migration and Inter-Household Inequality: Observations from Wanzai County, Jiangxi*. *The China Quarterly*, No. 164: 965-982.
188. Murphy, R. (2002). *How Migrant Labor is Changing Rural China*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
189. Naim, Mohamed. (1997). *La Migration Internationale de Travail et les Transformations Socio- Spatiales dans les Oasis Présahariennes du Maroc: Le cas de la Vallée du Todrha*. Thèse nationale. Nice: Université de Nice.
190. Nicholson, B. (2001). *From Migrant to Micro-Entrepreneur: Do-It-Yourself Development in Albania*. *South-East Europe Review*, 4 (3), 39-41.
191. Nyberg Sørensen, Ninna .(2004). *Migrant Remittances as a Development Tool The Case of Morocco*. Copenhagen: Danish Institute for Development Studies, Strandgade.
192. Oberai, A. S. (1984). *Determinants of Rural-Urban Migration and its Implications for Rural Areas with Special Reference to ILO Research*. Economic and Demographic: Issues for the Proceedings of the

Conference, Volume 2 Helsinki: International Union for Scientific Study of Population.

193. Oberai, A. S., & Singh, H. K. (1983). *Migration, remittances and rural development: Findings of a case study in the Indian Punjab*. Int'l Lab. Rev., 119, 229.
194. Oda, H. (2007). *Dynamics of internal and international migration in rural Pakistan: evidence of development and underdevelopment*. Asian Population Studies, 3 (2): 169-179.
195. Okereke, O. (1976). *Migrant Labor and Its Economic Implication to African Agriculture*. In East Africa Journal of Rural Development, Vol. 8, No. 92-104.
196. Otte, Corine. (2000). *Playing with the Essence of Life*. IMAROM working paper series no. 9. Amsterdam: University of Amsterdam/Vrije Universiteit.
197. Oucho J. O. (1998). *Recent International Migration Process in Sub-Saharan Africa: Determinants, Consequences and Data Adequacy Issues.* In Richard E. Bilborrow (ed), Migration, Urbanization, and Development: New Directions and Issues. Proceedings of the Symposium on Internal Migration and Urbanization in Developing Countries, 22-24 January 1996, New York, PP. 89-120
198. Parthasarthy, G. (1996). *Recent Trends in Wages and Employment of Agricultural Labour*. Indian. J. Agric. Econ., pp. 145-166.
199. Pascon, Paul. (1985). *La maison d'Igh et l'histoire sociale de Tazerwalt*. Rabat: SMER.
200. Pearson, J. E. (1963). *The Significance of Urban Housing in Rural-Urban Migration*. Land Economics, vol. 39 no. 3, pp. 231-239.

201. Piotrowski, M. (2009). *Migrant remittances and skipped generation households: investing the exchange motive using evidence from Nang Rong, Thailand*. Asian and Pacific Migration Journal, 18 (2): 163-196
202. Popp, H. (1999). Les Effets de la Rémigration sur l'Agriculture Irriguée: Etude de Cas dans la Plaine de Zébra. M. Berriane and H. Popp eds *Migrations Internationales entre le Maghreb et l'Europe*. Rabat, Université Mohammed V: 189-196.
203. Premi, M. K. (1980). *Aspects of Female Migration in India*. Econ. Political Weekly, 15 (15): 714-720.
204. Rahman H. Z., Hossain M. and Sen B. (1996). *1987-95 Dynamics of Rural Poverty in Bangladesh*. Bangladesh Institute of Development Studies, unpublished mimeo, Dhaka.
205. Rahman R. I. (2005). *Unemployment and labour Market Situation in Bangladesh: Linkages with Poverty*, paper presented at the seminar on Employment Growth, Unemployment and Labour Market: Linkages with Poverty Alleviation, Bangladesh Institute of Development Studies, Dhaka, June.
206. Rao, M. S. A. (1986). *Some aspects of sociology of migration in India*, in: M. S. A. Rao (ed.), *Studies in migration*. Delhi: Manohar.
207. Rao, M.S.A. (1981). *Some Aspects of Sociology of Migration*. Sociological Bulletin, vol. 30, No.1, pp. 21-38.
208. Ratha, D., Mohapatra, S., & Scheja, E. (2011). *Impact of Migration on Economic and Social Development*. Word bank.
209. Ravenstein, E.G. (1885). *The Law of Migration*. Journal of Royal Statistical Society, Vol. 48, No.2, June 1885, PP. 167-235

210. Rhoda, R.E. (1979). *Development Activities and Rural-Urban Migration: Is it Possible to Keep Them Down on the Farm*. Washington, D.C: Office of Urban Development.
211. Roberts, Kenneth D. (1997). *China's "Tidal Wave" of Migrant Labor: What Can We Learn from Mexican Undocumented Migration to the United States?* *International Migration Review*, Vol. 31, No. 2: 249-293.
212. Rogaia, M.A. (1997). *Sudanese Migration to the New World: Socio-economic Characteristics*. *International Migration*, vol. 35 (4), 513-536.
213. Rogaly B. and Rafique A. (2003). *Struggling to Save Cash: Seasonal Migration and Vulnerability in West Bengal, India*. *Development and Change*, 34 (4), pp. 659-681.
214. Rogaly, B. and Coppard, D. (2003). *They Used to Go to Eat, Now They Go to Earn. The Changing Meanings of Seasonal Migration from Puruliya District in West Bengal, India*, *Journal of Agrarian Change* 3 (3): 395-433.
215. Rogaly, Ben, Biswas, J., Daniel C., Abdur. R, Kumar. R, and Sengupta, A. (2001). *Seasonal Migration, Social Change and Migrants Rights, Lessons from West Bengal*. *Economic and Political Weekly*, pp. 4547-4558.
216. Rossi. A. (2008). *The Impact of Migration on Children in Developing Countries*. *Harvard University Kennedy School of Government, Carr Center for Human Rights Policy*. 79 JFK Street (box 14) Cambridge MA 02138 USA.
217. Russell S. S., Jacobsen, K., and Stanley, W.D. (1990). *International Migration and Development in Sub-Saharan Africa*. Volume 2, Country Analyses. World Bank Discussion Papers No. 102. The World Bank, Washington, D.C.

218. Saefullah, H.A. Djadja. (1996). *Mobilitas Internal Nonpermanen*. [Nonpermanent Internal Mobility] in *Mobilitas Penduduk di Indonesia* [Population Mobility in Indonesia], edited by Aris
219. Saith A. (1997). *Migration Pressures and Structural Change: Case Study of the Philippines*, International Migration Paper No.19, International Labor Office, and Geneva.
220. Sajaastad, L. A. (1962). *The Costs and Returns of Human Migration*. in Bilsborrow, R.E et al. (1984). *Migration Surveys in Low Income Countries: Guidelines for Surveys and Questionnaire Design*. Sydney: CroomHelm Ltd.
221. Samsuddin, S. Dara. (1981). *Aspects of Migration from Rural Areas to Industrial-Urban Centers of Bangladesh*. In: R.B. Mandal (ed.), *Frontiers in Migration Analysis*, Concept Publishing Company, New Delhi.
222. Schiff, Maurice .(1994). *How Trade, Aid, and Remittances Affect International Migration*. Washington: Worldbank.
223. Schoorl, Jeanette *et al.* (2000). *Push and Pull Factors of International Migration: A Comparative Report*. Luxembourg: Eurostat, European Communities.
224. Seddon, David. (1981). *Moroccan peasants: a century of change in the eastern Rif, 1870-1970*. Folkestone: Dawson
225. Sekhar, T. V. (1993). *Migration Selectivity from Rural Areas: Evidence from Kerala*. *Demography India*, vol. 22 (2), 191-202.
226. Sen Gupta, P. (1968). *Some Characteristics of Internal Migration in India*. in Sen Gupta, P. & Sdasyuk, G. (eds.), *Economic Regionalization of India: Problems and Approaches*, New Delhi, pp. 79-89.

227. Sethurman, S.V. (1976). *Jakarta Urban Development an Employment*, ILO, Geneva International Labour Force.
228. Shah, N. M. and Menon, I. (1999). *Chain migration through the social network: experience of labour migrants in Kuwait*, International Migration, 37 (2): 361-382.
229. Sharma, Alakh N. (1997). *People on the Move: Nature and Implications of Migration in a Backward Economy*, Delhi:
230. Sharma, M. (1982). *Impact of Migratory Labor on the Rural Economy of Punjab*. Man Dev. Delhi.
231. Siddiqui, R. and Kemal, A.R. (2006). *Remittances, trade liberalisation, and poverty in Pakistan: the role of excluded variables in poverty change analysis*”, The Pakistan Development Review, 45 (3): 383-415.
232. Siddiqui, T. (2005). *International migration as a livelihood strategy of the poor: the Bangladesh case*. in Migration and Development Pro-Poor Policy Choices, T. Siddiqui (ed.), University Press, Dhaka, pp. 71-108.
233. Singh, S.N. and Yadava, K.N.S. (1981a). *On Some Characteristics of Rural Outmigration in Eastern Uttar Pradesh*. Society and Culture, vol. 12 (1), 33-46.
234. Singh, S.N. and Yadava, K.N.S. (1981b). *Dimensions of Rural-Urban Migration in India and their Impact on Socio-economic and Demographic Factors*. In: Urbanisation and Regional Development, edited by R.B. Mandal and G.L. Peters, New Delhi: Concept Publishing Company, 393-411.
235. Singh, S.R.J. (1985). *A Study of Rural Out-migration and its Effects on Fertility*. Unpublished Ph.D thesis in Statistics, Banaras Hindu University, India.

236. Sjaastad, L. A. (1962). *The costs and returns of human migration*. *Journal of Political Economy*, 70 (5), 80-93.
237. Skeldon, R. (1997). *Rural-to-urban migration and its implications for poverty alleviation*. *Asia-Pacific population journal/United Nations*, 12 (1), 3.
238. Skeldon, R. (2002). *Migration and Poverty*. *Asia-Pacific Population Journal*, December, pp. 67-82.
239. Skeldon, R. (2003). *Migration and poverty*. paper presented at the African Migration and Urbanization in Comparative Perspective conference, Johannesburg, 4-7 June.
240. Sluzki, M.D. (1979). *Migration and Family Conflict*. *Family Process* 18: 379-390.
241. Sorensen, N.N., Hear, N. V. and Pedersen, P.E. (2002). *The Migration-Development Nexus Evidence and Policy Options'*, International Organization for Migration, p. 7.
242. Sovani, N. V. (1961). *Urban Social Situation in India.*, Arthavinjana, vol. III (2). *South-East Europe Review*, 4 (3), 39-41
243. Standing, G. (1984). *Population mobility and productive relations, demographic Links and policy evaluation*. world bank sta work paper. No.695, Washington D.C.USA.
244. Standing, Guy. (1985). *Circulation and the Labor Process, in Standing, Guy (ed. , Labor Circulation and the Labor Process*, London: Croom Helm.
245. Stanwix, C. and Connell, J. (1995). *To the islands: the remittances of Fijians in Sydney.* , *Asian and Pacific Migration Journal*, 4 (1): 69-87.

246. Stark, O. (1995). *Return and Dynamics: The Path of Labor Migration when Workers Differ in Their Skills and Information is Asymmetric*. The Scandinavian Journal of Economics 97 (1): 55-71.
247. Stark, O. and Bloom, D. (1985). *The new economics of labor migration*. American Economic Review 75 (2): 173-178
248. Steinmann, Susanne H. (1993). Effects of International Migration on Women's Work in Agriculture. *Revue de Géographie du Maroc*, 15 (1-2): 105-124.
249. Sundari, S. (May 28-June 4, 2005). *Migration as a Livelihood Strategy: A Gender Perspective*, Economic and Political Weekly. Pp. 2295-2303.
250. Tai. W, Simon. (1978). *Social Science Statistics, its elements and applications*. California, Goodyear Publishing company.
251. Taylor, J. E. (1996). *International Migration and National Development*. Population Inde, 62 (2):181–212.
252. Taylor, J. Edward. (1999). *The New Economics of Labour Migration and the role of Remittances in the Migration Process*. *International Migration*, 37 (1), 63-88.
253. Taylor, J., Edward, J., Arango, G., Hugo, A., Kouaouci, D. S., Massey, and Pellegrino, A. (1996). *International Migration and Community Development*, Population Index 62 (3), pp. 397- 418.
254. Taylor, J.E., and Martin, P. L. (2001). *Human capital: migration and rural population change*. Handbook of agricultural economics, 1, 457-511
255. Tesfaye, T. (2007). *The Migration, Environment and Conflict Nexus in Ethiopia: A Case study of Amhara Migrant Settlers in East Wollega Zone*. Addis Ababa, Printed in Ethiopia.

256. Testas, Abelaziz. (2002). Maghreb-EU Migration: Interdependence, Remittances, the Labour Market and Implications for Economic Development. *Mediterranean Politics*. Vol 6, No 3, 64-80
257. Teto, Abdelkader. (2001) .*Contribution des Transferts à la Solidarité Sociale et Familiale, à la Consolidation des Filets de Sécurités et de Protection contre la Pauvreté: Cas du Maroc*. ERF Poverty Workshop. Sana'a, Yemen.
258. Tiffen, M. (1995). *Population density, economic growth and societies in transition: Boserup reconsidered in a Kenyan case study*, *Development and Change*, Vol. 26, No.1, pp. 31-65.
259. Todaro M. P. (1976). *Migration and Economic Development: A Review of Theory, Evidences, Methodology Priorities*. Nairobi Institute of Development study, University of Nairobi, No. 18.
260. Todaro, M. (1980). *Internal migration in developing countries: A survey*. In e. Richard A. Easterlin (Ed.), *Population and Economic Change in Developing Countries*: University of Chicago Press.
261. Todaro, M. and Smith, P. (2003). *Economic Development*, Eighth Edition, Addison Wesley.
262. Todaro, M. P. (1969). *A Model of Labour Migration and Urban Unemployment in Less Developed Countries*. *American Economic Review*. Vol. 69, pages 486-499.
263. Tucker, C. J. (1976). *Changing Patterns of Migration between Metropolitan and Non metropolitan Areas in the United States: Recent Evidences'*, *Demography*, vol. 13 no. 4, p. 43.
264. Uma, S. (2003). *Research Methods for Business: A Skill Building Approaches* (4th ed). John Wiley and sons, USA, P.295-296

265. UN. (1991). *Integrating Development and Population Planning*. New York: United Nations.
266. UNDP (United Nations Development Program). (2009). *Overcoming Barriers: Uman Mobility and Development*. United Nations Development Program, New York.
267. UNESCO. (1992). *Migration in Africa*. United Nations, New York.
268. UNFPA. (1996). "State of World Population 1996, <http://www.unfpa.org/swp/1996/ch4.htm>
269. United Nations Children's Fund (UNICEF). (2008). *Policy, Advocacy and Knowledge Management (PAKM)*. Division of Policy and Practice, New York,
270. United Nations Economic and Social Commission for Asia and the Pacific. (2003). *Migration Patterns and Policies in the Asian and Pacific Region*, Asian Population Studies Series No. 160, United nations, USA.
271. United Nations Population Division. (2003). *World Urbanization Prospects*. United Nations, New York,
272. Upton, M. (1967). *Agriculture in South Western Nigeria*. Department of Agricultural Economics, Development Studies No. 3, Migration, University of Reading
273. Van Rooij, Aleida .(2000). *Women of Taghzoute: the Effects of Migration on Women left behind in Morocco*. IMAROM working paper series no. 12. Amsterdam: University of Amsterdam.
274. Weinberg, A.A. (1961). *Migration and Belonging: A Study of Mental, Health and Personal Adjustment in Israel*, Martinus Nijh off: the Hague.

275. Wenbao, Qian. (1996). *Rural-Urban Migration and its Impact on Economic Development in China*, Alder shot: Ave bury.
276. White, P. and Woods, R. (ed). (1980). *The Geographical Impact of Migration*, London, p. 2.
277. White, Paul and Woods, R. (1980). *The Geographical impacts of migration*, USA, New York, Longman Inc.
278. Williamson, J. G. (1988). *Migration and Urbanisation*. In H. Chenery and T.N. Srinivasan eds. *Handbook of Development Economics*. Vol. I, North-Holland: Elsevier Science Publishers, B.V. With Proxy Variables. *Demography*, 37 (2): 155-174.
279. Worku, N. (2006). *The impacts of urban migration on village life*, the Gurage case social Anthropology Dissertation series No.8, Addis Ababa University.
280. World Bank. (1995). *Development in Practice: Priorities and Strategies for Education*, World Bank, Washington D. C.
281. World Bank. (1995). *Vietnam: Poverty Assessment and Strategy*. Washington D.C.: World Bank.
282. World Bank. (2007). *World Development Report 2008: Agriculture for Development*. Washington: World Bank.
283. World Bank. (2003). *Albania Poverty Assessment*. Report Number 26213-AL, Washington, DC:
284. Yadava, K.N.S. (1988). *Determinants, Patterns and Consequences of Rural-Urban Migration in India*. Independent Publishing Company, Delhi, India
285. Yadava, K.N.S. (1989). *Rural-Urban Migration in India*, New Delhi: Independent Publishing Company.

286. Yang. (2008). *International Migration, Human Capital, and Entrepreneurship: Evidence from Philippine Migrant's Exchange Rate Shocks*. The Economic Journal, Royal Economic Society, Vol. 118 (528), pp. 591-630.
287. Zachariah, K.C. (1964). *A Historical Study of Migration in the Indian Subcontinent*, Asia Publishing House, Bombay, pp. 1901–1931.
288. Zelinsky, W. (1971). *The Hypothesis of the Mobility Transition*, Geographical Review, vol. 61. Pp. 19-49.
289. Zhang, M. (2010). *The impact of rural-urban migration: Case study on the Loess Plateau of Central China*. China Information, 24 (2), 169.
290. Zhao, Y. (1999). *Labor Migration and Earnings Differences: The Case of Rural China*. Economic Development & Cultural Change, Vol. 47, No. 4, pp. 767-82.
291. Zohry, A. (2002). *Rural-to-Urban Labour Migration: A Study of Upper Egyptian Labourers in Cairo*, Ph.D. dissertation, University of Sussex.
292. Zulu, E. M., Dodoo, F.N. and Ezeh, A.C. (2002). *Sexual risk-taking in the slums of Nairobi, Kenya, 1993-1998*. Population Studies 56 (3): 311-323.

## Annexure

### INTERVIEW SCHEDULE

#### THE IMPACTS OF MIGRATION OF CHITRALESE TO PESHAWAR (A SOCIOLOGICAL ANALYSIS)

- (1) Age of the respondent
  - (a) 20-30
  - (b) 21-30
  - (c) 31-40
  - (d) 41-50
  - (e) 51-60
  - (f) 60 and above
- (2) Family type
  - (a) Nuclear family
  - (b) Joint family
  - (c) Extended family
- (3) Nature of education
  - (a) Formal
  - (b) Technical
  - (c) Any other
- (4) Years of schooling
  - (a) 0-5
  - (b) 6-10
  - (c) 11-15
- (5) Number of persons in the family
  - (a) 0-10
  - (b) 11-20
  - (c) 21 and above
- (6) Marital status before migration
  - (a) Married
  - (b) Un-married
- (7) Number of children in family
  - (a) 1-4
  - (b) 5-8
  - (c) 9-12
- (8) Occupation of the household
  - (a) Agriculture (own Land)
  - (b) Agriculture (Rented)
  - (c) Business
  - (d) Non-agricultural Labor
- (9) Pre-migration occupation of the Respondent
  - (a) Business
  - (b) Education
  - (c) Farming
  - (d) Imam in Mosque
  - (e) Common Labor
- (10) How do you compare your previous job with the present?
  - (a) Don't Know
  - (b) Some what different
  - (c) Some what satisfied
  - (d) Some what similar
  - (e) Very different
  - (f) Very similar
- (11) At what Age did you migrate?
  - (a) 1-15
  - (b) 16-30
  - (c) 31 and above
- (12) Who helped you at time of Migration?
  - (a) Brother
  - (b) Father
  - (c) Friends
  - (d) Relatives
- (13) Kind of help received at time of migration
  - (a) Financial support
  - (b) Help in Employment
  - (c) Housing
- (14) Expected time of return for migrant to native village
  - (a) Once in decade
  - (b) once in year
  - (c) Any other

- (15) What was the factors (Push Factors) to move from your native village to Peshawar  
 (a) Lack of Job opportunities (b) Less chances of enhancing income  
 (c) Poor Economic conditions (d) Poor Educational services
- (16) Why did you move to choose (Pull Factors) Peshawar  
 (a) Better economic conditions (b) Better Educational services  
 (c) Better Employment benefits (d) More Job opportunities
- (17) What is your present job?  
 (a) Businessmen (b) Skilled Labor
- (18) Prices of Chitralli-Patti in Rs. Per item  
 (a) Blanket Rs. ----- (b) Chugha Rs. ----- (c) Coat.Rs. ----  
 (d) Topi. Rs. ----
- (19) Is there any Hurdle in the way of your business?  
 (a) Electricity (b) Security and Peace
- (20) How much are you satisfied from your Job?  
 (a) Not satisfied (b) Some what different  
 (c) Some what satisfy Satisfied (d) Un-decided (e) Very different  
 (f) Very satisfied
- (21) Monthly Income  
 (a) 1—10000 (b) 10001—20000 (c) 20001—30000
- (22) Monthly Expenditure  
 (a) 1000—5000 (b) 5001—10000 (c) 10001—15000  
 (d) 15001 and above
- (23) Monthly Savings  
 (a) 1—5000 (b) 5001—10000 (c) 10001—15000
- (24) How much money do you send to your family  
 (a) 1000—5000 (b) 5001—10000 (c) 10001—15000  
 (d) 15001 and above
- (25) For what purpose do you send money?  
 (a) Accommodation expenses (b) Children Education  
 (c) Household Expenditure (d) Investment in agriculture
- (26) Who manage the remittances in the household?  
 (a) Brother (b) Daughter (c) Father  
 (d) Grand father (e) Grand mother (f) Mother  
 (g) Sister (h) Son (i) Uncle (j) Wife

(27) Differentiate between terms and facilities given below

	Less than expectation	According to expectation	More than expectation
(a) Nature and level of Business			
(b) Return of Business			
(c) Working time			
(d) House facilities			
(e) Food facilities			
(f) other facilities			

(28) How is your relations i.e. (social/cultural) contact with the neighboring community?

Socio-cultural contact with neighbor	Bad/Not good	Adequate	Very good
(a) Opportunities for performance to participate any association/political party			
(b) Opportunities for performing religious duties			
(c) Any other business which is not related to Chitrali-tatti			
(d) any other			

(29) Pick and Drop responsibilities of school going children before and after migration.

Responsibilities	Before Migration	After Migration
(a) Brother		
(b) Children		
(c) Cousin		
(d) Father		
(e) Grand Father		
(f) Mother		
(g) Self		
(h) Son		
(i) uncle		
(j) Wife		

(30) Responsibilities for taking care of non-school going children before and after migration.

Responsibilities	Before Migration	After Migration
(a) Brother		
(b) Self		
(c) Family		
(d) Father		
(e) Grand father		
(f) Mother		
(g) Son		
(h) Uncle		
(j) Wife		

(31) Responsibilities for taking care of the Old relatives and Parents.

Responsibilities	Before Migration	After Migration
(a) Self		
(b) Brother		
(c) Father		
(d) Mother		
(e) Sister		
(f) Son		
(g) Uncle		
(h) Wife		

(32) Responsibilities for care and expenses of school going children before and after Migration.

Responsibilities	Before Migration	After Migration
(a) Self		
(b) Brother		
(c) Father		
(d) Mother		
(f) Son		
(g) Uncle		
(h) Wife		

(33) Earning Responsibilities for the family at native place before and after migration.

Responsibilities of the members	Before Migration	After Migration
(a) Self		
b) Brother		
(c) Father		
(d) Mother		
(e) Relatives		
(f) Son		
(g) Uncle		
(h) Wife		

(34) Responsibilities for taking care of financial arrangement before and after Migration.

Responsibilities	Before Migration	After Migration
(a) Self		
(b) Brother		
(c) Father		
(d) Mother		
(f) Son		
(g) Uncle		
(h) Wife		

(35) Responsibilities for taking care of domestic affairs before and after Migration

Responsibilities of the members	Before Migration	After Migration
(a) Self		
b) Brother		
(c) Father		
(d) Mother		
(e) Relatives		
(f) Son		
(g) Uncle		
(h) Wife		

- (36) How does your wife fulfill her responsibilities at native village?  
 (a) Face the situation (b) Had to take help of their relatives  
 (c) Suffered Heavy physical and mental pressure (d) Any other
- (37) What were the effects on the children due to your absence?  
 (a) Adopted bad behavior (b) Mostly remained sick (c) No-effects  
 (d) Remained depressed (e) Rude attitude
- (38) Did you feel any frustration/indifference in your Love and affection after Migration?  
 (a) Depressed (b) Feel loneliness (c) Far from village  
 (d) Happy (e) Learn the art of domestic tasks (f) Loss of love
- (39) Do you develop any new habit?  
 (a) Early sleeping due to tiredness (b) Eating with friends out-side  
 (c) Gossip With friends (d) Reading/ Study  
 (e) Watching T.V.

(40) What changes occur in your attitude?

Change in attitude	Before Migration	After Migration
(a) Desire to educate children both male and female		
(b) Become Liberal about women employment.		
(c) Freedom to children to decide their future and marriage.		
(d) Desire for hard work		
(e) Tendency to spend time with family.		
(f) Increasing interest in religion		
(g) Interest in politics		
(h) Interest in business		

(i) How you treated by people before and after migration?

	Before Migration	After Migration
(a) with great respect		
(b) Met jealousy		
(c) Sought advice		
(d) Feel frustration		
(e) Give hospitality		
(f) Ridicule and Mockery/insulted		

- (j) Any suggestion for the improvement of business/job  
 (a) Export of goods (b) Hard work (c) To increase salary  
 (d) Micro-credit (e) Peace and stability.

## INTERVIEW SCHEDULE FOR HOUSEHOLDS IN DISTRICT CHITRAL

- (1) What is the relationship of the household with the migrant?  
(a) Father (b) Son (c) Brother (d) Any other
- (2) Type of Migration  
(a) Permanent (b) Seasonal (c) year-wise (d) Any other
- (3) Number of migrants in the household  
(a) 1-2 (b) 3-4
- (4) Number of earners in the household  
(a) 1-2 (b) 3-4 (c) 5 and above
- (5) Sources of income  
(a) Business (b) Livestock (c) Remittances (d) Agriculture (e) Salaries
- (6) Size of Land holding (jareeb)  
(a) 1-6 (b) 7-12 (c) 13-18
- (7) How often does/do the migrant send money?  
(a) Annually (b) Bi-annually (c) Monthly (d) Quarterly
- (8) How much your household dependent on remittances?  
(a) Enough (b) Not very much (c) Very much
- (9) How much your economic conditions changed after migration of family member?  
(a) Better (b) Much better (c) Same
- (10) Amount spent on health per-year before and after migration

Health	Before Migration	After Migration	Amount spent before migration	Amount spent after Migration
(a) Dam darood				
(b) House Remedies				
(c) Hakim				
(d) Govt. doctor				
(e) Private. doctor				

- (11) Amount spent on Housing conditions per year before and after Migration

Housing conditions	Before Migration	After Migration	Amount spent before migration	Amount spent after Migration
(a) Mud house				
(b) Semi-concrete				
(c) Concrete				
(d) Any other				

(12) Amount spent on children education per year before and after migration

Education Level of children	Before Migration	After Migration	Amount spent before Migration	Amount spent after Migration
(a) Primary				
(b) Matric				
© Intermediate				
(d) Higher education				
(f) Any other				

(13) Amount spent on women education per year before and after migration

Amount spent on women education	Before migration	After migration
Primary	1—500	1—5000
Metric	501--1000	5001—10000
Intermediate	1001—1500	10001--15000
Bachelor	1501--2000	0
Master	2001--2500	0
Any other		

(14) Amount spent on household goods per year before and after Migration

Household goods	Before migration	After Migration	Amount spent before Migration	Amount spent after Migration
(a) Washing Machine				
(b) Refrigerator				
(c) Furniture				
(f) Any other				

(15) Amount spent per year on the use of quality in-put to raise agricultural production before and after migration

Use of quality in-put	Before migration	After migration	Amount spent before migration	Amount spent after migration
(a) Quality seeds				
(b) Pesticides				
(c) Fertilizers				
(d) Spray				
(e) Any other				

(16) Amount spent on daily use items per year before and after migration

Daily use items	Before Migration	After Migration	Amount spent before migration	Amount spent after Migration
(a) Grocery				
(b) Clothes/shoes				
(c) Food				
(d) Vehicle expenses				

(17) Amount spent on Livestock pre year before and after migration

Livestock	Before migration	After migration	Amount spent before migration	Amount spent after migration
(a) Cows				
(b) Buffalos				
(c) Goats				
(d) Sheep				
(g) Any other				

(18) Amount spent on in-door recreational facilities per year before and after migration

In-door recreational facilities	Before Migration	After Migration	Amount spent before migration	Amount spent after migration
(a) Video-games				
(b) T.V				
(c) Computer				
(d) Any other				

(19) Amount spent per year on other business to increase income of the household before and after migration

House hold income	Before Migration	After Migration	Amount spent before migration	Amount spent after migration
(a) Shop				
(b) Vehicle for public transport				
(c) Handi-craft				
(d) Agriculture				
Any other				

(20) Amount spent on different fuel per month before and after migration

Fuel charges	Before Migration	After Migration	Amount spent before migration	Amount spent after migration
(a) Fire wood				
(b) Kerosene oil				
(c) Electricity				
(d) Gas				
(e) Any other				

(21) Amount spent monthly on telephone/Mobile before and after migration

Monthly expenses	Before Migration	After Migration	Amount spent before migration	Amount spent after migration
(a) Wireless-set				
(b) Telephone				
(c) Mobile				
(d) Any other				

(22) Amount spent on toilet facility per year before and after migration

Toilet facility	Before migration	After migration	Amount spent before migration	Amount spent after migration
(a) Flush connected with open drain				
(b) Flush to sewerage				
(c) Pit Latrine				
(d) Flush to septic tank				

(23) Is there any impact of decrease in remittances on your family economy?  
 (a) Little impact (b) Moderate impact (c) Severe impact

(24) What are the alternative options if remittances decreased in future?  
 (a) Carpenter (b) More borrowing (c) More investment in agriculture  
 (k) start new business

(25) Any suggestion for the improvement of the business from planners and policy makers  
 (a) Education (b) Export of goods (c) Advertisement  
 (d) Technical education (e) Improve woolen handi-craft  
 (f) Micro-credit facility

(26) Any suggestion to the govt. to facilitate transportation  
 (a) Airfare reduce (b) Speed-up work on Lowari-tunnel  
 (c) Train system from Chitral to Peshawar

(27) Any suggestion from the govt. of Pakistan to curtail migration from Chitral  
 (a) Handi craft industries (b) Industrialization (c) Job-opportunities  
 (d) Marbl factories (e) Micro-credit for small business