

بِسْمِ اللَّهِ الرَّحْمَنِ الرَّحِيمِ

In The Name Of Allah, Most Gracious, Most Merciful.

**Socio-economic conditions of female domestic workers before**

and after migration in Faisalabad city



By

**Saima Nazir**

**B.A (P.U)**

A dissertation submitted in  
partial fulfillment of requirement for the degree of

**MASTER**

In

**Rural Sociology**

**DEPARTMENT OF RURAL SOCIOLOGY  
FACULTY OF AGRI. ECONOMICS AND RURAL  
SOCIOLOGY, UNIVERSITY OF AGRICULTURE,  
FAISALABAD,  
PAKISTAN**

(2011)

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Signature of the student

Name: Saima Nazir

Regd. No. 2008-ag-843

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1. Chairman \_\_\_\_\_  
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2. Member \_\_\_\_\_  
(Prof. Dr. Ashfaq Ahmed Maann)
  
3. Member \_\_\_\_\_  
(Dr. Ijaz Ashraf Gil)

**DEDICATED**

**TO**

**My beloved parents, who gave me a direction.**

**Their love, affection & prayers walk with me & hold my hand  
in the maze of life.**

**Elixir of their life has made my life**

**Elysium**

**&**

**My supervisor Dr. Izhar Ahmed Khan Who is a “Teacher” in  
the real sense and has been always affectionate to me like a  
Father. My Ideal teacher Mrs Amina, is no more but I always  
feel her presence & affection around me**

**&**

**My sweet sister, Yasmeen Sohail who is always standing by me,  
holding my hands in every difficulty. May Allah bless them  
with good luck and peace of mind.**

**&**

**All those praying hands that made me**

**What I am today**

**&**

**To those for whom I never forget to pray**

## **Acknowledgements**

“Praise to Allah, The Cherisher and Sustainer of Worlds.”(1:6)

All the praises and thanks are for **Almighty Allah**, whom I never hear “Nay” whenever I knocked at His door. The compassionate, the Merciful the Creator of the entire universe, the most gracious and beneficent, whose bounteous blessings present me in a Muslim country.

I offer my humblest thanks to the greatest social reformer, the

source of guidance, the most perfect man, the **Holy Prophet Muhammad (Peace Be Upon Him)**, who is always a torchbearer of knowledge, as a whole whose moral and spiritual teaching enlightened my heart, flourished my thoughts towards achieving high ideas of life.

I seem it my utmost pleasure to avail myself this opportunity in recording my deep gratitude to my Supervisor **Dr. Izhar Ahmad Khan**, Department of Rural Sociology, University of Agriculture, Faisalabad for consistent encouragement and dynamic Supervision during my study and compiling this manuscript. I am thankful to **International Centre for Development and Decent Work (ICDD)** for their support.

Thanks are extended to my committee members and Co-supervisor **Dr. Ashfaq Ahmad Maann**, Department of Rural Sociology, University of Agriculture, Faisalabad for his scholastic guidance, untiring help, kind behavior and I also pay gratitude to my committee member Prof. **Dr. Ijaz Ashraf Gill**, Department of Agri Extension, University of Agriculture, Faisalabad.

I feel pleasure to acknowledge my brothers **Shakeel, Sohail, Nafees&Naveed** for their cooperation, loving and friendly attitude during my work and whose moral encouragement, sincere feedback,

valuable words of advice, observant pursuit all along my studies enabled me to achieve my goals. Special thanks to my loving and caring sisters, **Asifa, Yasmeen & Sidra** sweet **Ifra, Ayesha, Saim, Adil and Arisha** for their care and prayers for me. Words will end to explain the uprising, appealing, loving and caring attitude of my sister. No acknowledgements would ever adequately express my obligations to my sweet **mother**, who always wished to see me glittering high on skies of success. Last but not least words are lacking to express my humble obligation to my loving and affectionate father **Nazir Ahmad Konta** whose prayers, sacrifices, encouragement, moral and financial support paved the way for me to reach this destination. May Allah Almighty give them all happy life. Lastly, I offer my regards and blessings to all of those who supported me in any respect during the completion of the project.

*Saima Nazir*



## CONTENTS

<b>CHAPTER</b>	<b>TITLE</b>	<b>PAGE #</b>
<b>I</b>	<b>INTRODUCTION</b>	<b>01-7</b>
<b>II</b>	<b>REVIEW OF LITERATURE</b>	<b>8-18</b>
<b>III</b>	<b>MATERIALS AND METHODS</b>	<b>19-33</b>
<b>IV</b>	<b>RESULTS AND DISCUSSION</b>	<b>34-65</b>
<b>V</b>	<b>SUMMARY</b>	<b>66-71</b>
	<b>LITERATURE CITED</b>	<b>72-83</b>

## LIST OF TABLES

<b>Ser #</b>	<b>TITLE</b>	<b>Page #</b>
1	Distribution of the respondents according to their age	35
2	Distribution of the respondents according to their religion	36
3	Distribution of the respondents according to their caste system	37
4	Distribution of the respondents according to their education level	37
5	Percentage distribution of the respondents according to their place of origin	39

6	Distribution of the respondents according to their marital status before migration	40
7	Distribution of the respondents according to their marital status after migration	41
8	Distribution of the respondents according to their age of family head	41
9	Distribution of the respondents according to their occupation of family head	42

10	Distribution of the respondents according to their income from all sources before migration	42
11	Percentage distribution of the respondents according to their income from all sources after migration	44
12	Distribution of the respondents according to their male family members	45
13	Distribution of the respondents according to their female family members	46
14	Distribution of the respondents according to their number of children	47
15	Distribution of the respondents according to their total family members	47
16	Distribution of the respondents according to their family system before migration	48
17	Distribution of the respondents according to their family system after migration	49
18	Percentage distribution of the respondents according to their factors of migration	51
19	Distribution of the respondents according to their motivation for migration	52

20	Distribution of the respondents according to their period of migration	53
21	Distribution of the maids according to their earning before migration	54
22	Distribution of the respondents according to their earning after migration	54
23	Percentage distribution of the respondents according to their number of houses for work before migration	55
24	Distribution of the respondents according to their number of houses for work after migration	56
25	Distribution of the respondents according to their rank before migration	56
26	Distribution of the respondents according to their rank after migration	57
27	Percentage distribution of the respondents according to their living conditions before migration	57
28	Percentage distribution of the respondents according to their living conditions after migration	58

29	Percentage distribution of the respondents according to their working hours	58
30	Distribution of the respondents according to their employer's behaviour	59
31	Distribution of the respondents according to their social protection and satisfaction with migration decision	60
32	Distribution of the respondents according to their social problems after migration	61
33	Distribution of the respondents according to their economical security after migration	62
34	Distribution of the respondents according to their social and economic merits of migration	63
35	Distribution of the respondents according to their number of leaves	65

## LIST OF FIGURES

Sr. #	Title	Page #
-------	-------	--------

1	Fig. Religion of the respondents	36
2	Fig. Education Level of the respondents	38
3	Fig. Income from all sources before migration	43
4	Fig. Income from all sources after migration	45
5	Fig. Family system before migration.	49
6	Fig. Family system after migration.	50
7	Fig. Factors of migration	52
8	Fig. Economical security of migration	63
9	Fig. Social & economic merits of migration	64

## LIST OF ABBRIVIATIONS

Sr. #	ABBREVIATIONS	
I	(FDWs)	<b>Female Domestic Workers</b>
II	(ILO)	<b>International Labour Organization</b>
III	(IOM)	<b>International Organization For Migration</b>
IV	(INSTRAW)	<b>The International Research &amp; Training Institute For The Advancement Of Women</b>
V	(UNDAW)	<b>United Nation Division For The Advancement Of Women</b>
VI	(SPSS)	<b>Statistical Package For Social Sciences</b>
VII	(IUSSP)	<b>International Union For The Scientific Study Of Population</b>
VIII	(SEARC)	<b>Southeast Asia Research Center</b>
IX	(UNICEF)	<b>United Nations Children's Fund</b>



<b>X</b>	<b>(UNESCO)</b>	<b>United Nations Educational, Scientific &amp; Cultural Organization</b>
<b>XI</b>	<b>(OECD)</b>	<b>Organization For Economic Co-operation &amp; Development</b>
<b>XII</b>	<b>(ABCDE)</b>	<b>Annual Bank Conference On Development Economic</b>
<b>XIII</b>	<b>(UAF)</b>	<b>University of Agriculture Faisalabad</b>
<b>XIV</b>	<b>(FSD)</b>	<b>Faisalabad</b>
	<b>(UK)</b>	<b>United Kingdom</b>

## **Socio-economic conditions of female domestic workers before and after migration in Faisalabad city.**

### **ABSTRACT**

Domestic workers are hired to work in a private sphere. Majority of them are women whose work is always unrecognized. These domestic workers often migrate from one area to another particularly from rural to urban areas sometimes urban to well developed urban areas to upgrade their socio-economic conditions. The young married women who migrate from distant places with higher number of children and low wages of other family members give preference to domestic work to support their families. A large number of these migrant women are often illiterate or lack of other technical skills, so they find no alternative of domestic work for earning. Higher number of unemployed adult family members and higher expenditure upon medical and other needs sometimes compel them to work more than one house. Majority of FDWs are disadvantaged from overtime pay, local holiday and well-timed payment of salaries. This study was aimed to investigate the working conditions, wage structure, impact of internal migration upon their lives and various other dimensions of this neglected segment of society. Out of four towns of Faisalabad, one town namely Lyallpur town was selected purposely. From Lyallpur town out of 38 Union Councils one UC # 185 was selected purposely for this study. From UC # 185 four localities were selected randomly. In this study for the purpose of data collection and selection of 120 respondent (FDWs) convenient random sampling technique was used. The objectives of the research were displayed through comprehensive interview schedule. The data were analyzed under the descriptive and inferential statistical technique using the statistical package for social sciences (SPSS). Results indicate that majority of FDWs work more than eight hours within one house but they are exploited and deprived from their proper wages. However, a strong linkage between internal migration and higher social, economic status, better living conditions and children education was found.

**Key Words:** female domestic workers, internal migration, socio-economic conditions.

## Chapter-1

### INTRODUCTION

Human beings are restless and mobile creature. Human beings have been migrated from one place to other place, in time and space its advent the planet's known history is full of eventful migration(Kenkel, 1997).

Various studies on migration from Asian countries reveal changing trends in direction of internal migration. The process of migration especially internal migration in Pakistan is an old phenomenon (Parveen 1993).It not only provides opportunities for employment but also improves the socio-economic condition of migrant households (Arif, 2005).

Migration (human)is the movement of people from one place in the world to another for the purpose of taking up permanent or semi permanent residence, usually across a political boundary. An example of "semi permanent residence" would be the seasonal movements of migrant farm laborers. People can either choose to move ("voluntary migration") or be forced to move ("involuntary migration"). Migrations have occurred throughout human history, beginning with the movements of the first human groups from their origins in East Africa to their current location in the world.

Migration occurs at a variety of scales:

1. Intercontinental(between continents),
2. Intercontinental(between countries on a given continent),
3. Interregional(within countries).
4. One of the most important migration patterns has been rural to urban migration—the movement of people from the countryside to cities in search of opportunities.

In information technology, migration is the process of moving from the use of one operating environment to another operating surroundings that is, in most cases, is thought to be a superior one.

Virgo *et al*, (2003) the incidence of migration was clearly growing in the area as a few years later another study in the same area found that in many villages up to three-quarters of the population were absent between November and June.

In Pakistan both the volume and nature of internal migration have varied overtime and

so their impact on migrant households Arif (2005) and on economy (Naseem 1981).

Migration is familiar as useful to both sending and receiving countries. Migration relieves joblessness pressures in countries of origin, and provides dynamic labor and an economic lifeline for millions of women and men. At the same time, remittances have a very optimistic impact on home economies representing a significant source of external funding for many developing countries. In the receiving countries, migrant workers typically take on jobs that are not attractive to national workers, yet in demand in the labour market. In adding up, migration can be empowering in terms of higher self-esteem, and increased economic independence of migrant workers. However, migration has also permitted unprincipled employers, staffing agents and others, some practices considered abusive by international standards.

Particular impact of migration in family structure and functioning was the increasing levels of female headship. A major impact which was evaluated relates to the effect of migration on women's traditional sides and status in the family. Absence of husband after migration and wife take the responsibilities to look after the children in case of other family members in the origin area. (Hugo 2003).

Migration has been the so called push-pull theory. Which describes that some people move because they are pushed out of their former location, where as others move because they have been pulled or attracted to somewhere else (Ravenstein, 1889)

It is just another market relationship, created by the so called 'supply and demand' balance by the some Migration theorists, which has been used as clarification for migration movements for a very long time. However, due to some reasons it argues that domestic work is not just another labor market, but that it is marked by the following aspects:

The close character of the social globe where the work is performed; the social construction of this work as a female gendered area; the special relationship between employer and employee which is highly emotional, modified and characterized by mutual dependency; and the logic of care work which is clearly different from that of other service areas.

Kenkel (1997) presented a comprehensive definition of migration behavior. According to this definition migration is simultaneous change in social and physical space of a person. Consequences of numerous situational, interactional, personal and cultural variables.

Migration has played along key role in shaping the size and division of the population of Pakistan. Since the partition of the British Indian Empire in 1947, and up to recent and

ongoing conflicts within the region, Pakistan has been the destination for large numbers of cross-border migrants and refugees. These migrant groups, together with the growing number of rural people displaced by agricultural modernization and mechanization, have contributed to the substantial increase in the levels of urbanization in Pakistan, especially in the more industrialized provinces of Punjab and Sindh. At the same time, like the people of so many low- and middle-income nations, Pakistani citizens have sought work abroad, and in the 1970s large-scale labor migration to the Middle East began in earnest. Remittances have since become an important component of the national economy and of the livelihoods of many households.

These complex and substantial movements have resulted in profound changes in settlement patterns, and also in deep socioeconomic and cultural transformations. Smaller urban centers, , reflect the growing discrepancy between changing values and widening economic opportunities on the one hand, and the persistence of a feudal system of political power often supported by a highly controversial administrative and political devolution plan, on the other hand.

According to the 1998 census, 43 per cent of all lifetime migrants said that they had moved with the household head, 17 per cent because of marriage, 12 per cent for employment and 9 per cent for business. On this basis, researchers conclude that most people migrate for family-related reasons. However, the people who have moved for family-related reasons are women and children and the underlying reason for their movement is related to the reasons why the family “head” has moved. These reasons are discussed below.

In the interviews carried out for this study and the previous work done by the authors, the main reason for migrating is the changes that have taken place in the socioeconomic environment of the village.

Migration has also had a physical impact on the villages from where migration has taken place. Again, this has been highlighted in the interviews carried out for this study. Migrant families have improved their homes or have built new ones in the style of the urban areas.

They have lobbied for piped water and schools and in many cases successfully acquired them under government programmers. Cultural values and urban lifestyles in an increasing number of locations have resulted in the creation of new types of eating places and shops on

the urban model.

A domestic worker is someone who works within the employer's household. Domestic workers perform a variety of household services for an individual or a family, from providing care for children and elderly dependents to cleaning and household maintenance, known as housekeeping. Responsibilities may also include cooking, doing laundry and ironing, food shopping and other household errands. Some domestic workers live within the household where they work.

Servant is an older English term for "domestic worker", though not all servants worked inside the home. Domestic service, or the employment of people for wages in their employer's residence, was sometimes simply called "service". It evolved into a hierarchical system in various countries at various times. Domestic work covers many different activities, situations and relationships, and so is not easy to categorise.

It includes many tasks such as cleaning, laundry and ironing; shopping, cooking and fetching water; caring for the sick, elderly and children; looking after pets; sweeping and garden-tidying.

It involves workers in many different types of employment relationship:

- In societies where care workers are employed by the State or organisations subsidized by the State, they often (though not always) benefit from proper employment contracts, union rights, and collective bargaining agreements.
- With privatisation of such services, however, has come the growth of private supply agencies and a deterioration in working terms and conditions and unionisation.
- In just a few countries there are collective bargaining agreements between trade unions and confederations of householders.
- Most domestic work around the world, however, is done through private arrangements between individuals, someone hired in or a family member, sometimes with a written contract but usually with none.
- Many live-in and are on almost permanent call in that household; others live elsewhere and may work for several employers, perhaps spending only a few hours per week for each.

Domestic work fundamentally involves power relationships. It is:

- Never free of a genderperspective: in all societies domestic work remains seen as ‘women’s work’; nowhere do men do an equal share of work in the home. It is when women get jobs outside the home that - rather than men of the household doing more of the caring work - other women (or children) are brought in to do it.
- Often holds a race or ethnic perspective: this is especially so for international migrant workers, whose labour is wanted but who are often met by racism or xenophobia; also within countries women from certain cultures or racial/ethnic groups are more likely to be employed by others from more powerful cultures or groups.
- Sometimes involves age as a key aspect: in many countries there are still thousands of children doing domestic work in private homes; on the other hand, there are also many older women whose only skills to sell in the labour market are domestic ones.
- Almost always concerns povertyand class: very few who are not poor leave their own homes to work in those of other people, who are usually more wealthy

The conditions faced by domestic workers have varied considerably throughout history and in the contemporary world. In the course of twentieth-century movements for labour rights, and immigrant rights, the conditions faced by domestic workers and the problems specific to their class of employment have come to the fore.

Domestic work, however, is still undervalued. It is looked upon as unskilled because most women have traditionally been considered capable of doing the work, and the skills they are taught by other women in the home are perceived to be innate. When paid, therefore, the work remains undervalued and poorly regulated. By contrast, studies that provide space for domestic workers to speak often reveal their belief in the dignity of their hard work, 4 and, as such, it warrants recognition and respect and calls for regulation.

Data on the number of domestic workers throughout the world are hard to collect.

The main reasons for the lack of accurate and comparable data include the high incidence of undeclared domestic work and the consequent under-reporting, the varying definitions of domestic work in statistical surveys, and the fact that national statistics often do not count domestic workers as a distinct category but register them under such headings as “community, social and personal service activities”.

Domestic workers are among the few categories in which the employer is generally tacit to be a woman, reflecting the perception that the “domestic” globe is traditionally their responsibility, irrespective of who really pays for the work. In the nonappearance of effectively enforced labor legislation, domestic workers stay dependent on their employers’ sense of fairness rather than on an accepted legal norm that recognizes their dignity as human beings.

In millions of households throughout the world, the workplace is also the domestic worker’s residence. Living and working in their employer’s home has a major impact on workers’ personal autonomy and mobility and can influence decisions as to their future, including the decision to found a family of their own. One consequence of this is that, when they reach the age of retirement, domestic workers may not have children to provide them with personal or financial support.( M. Díaz Gorfinkiel)

Child domestic laborers are also subject to various kinds of abuses, i.e., verbal, physical and sexual abuse or harassment. Being shouted at or being beaten is a common form of punishment for working slowly or for doing a task badly or to be kept compliant for making mistakes. Girl domestic laborers are at risk of sexual harassment and rape not only by the male members of employer’s household but also by male visitors. Studies have shown that many child domestic laborers are victims of physical and sexual abuse. Children may be abused or tortured, and not only by the adult members of the family but by children in the family who see cruelty as a valid relationship with ‘inferior’ members of the household, or by other domestic helpers trying to impose a hierarchy even among those being exploited Together these factors contribute to the assertion that domestic work cannot just be analyzed using the terminology of migration theories following the rationale of a global push-pull model in which demand in one part of the world leads to supply from less developed areas with surplus labour.

Domestic workers, the majority of whom are women, constitute a large portion of today's migrant worker population. In Latin America, for example, they constitute as many as 60 percent of all internal and international migration. The feminization of migration, a trend that began in the early 1980s, has resulted in an increased number of women who migrate alone.

This state of affairs is due in part to the fact that paid domestic work remains virtually invisible as a form of employment in many countries. Domestic work does not take place in a factory or an office, but in the home. The employees are not male breadwinners, but



overwhelmingly women. They do not work alongside other co-workers, but in isolation behind closed doors. Their work is not aimed at producing added value, but at providing care to millions of households. Domestic work typically entails the otherwise unpaid labour traditionally performed in the household by women.

This explains why domestic work is undervalued in monetary terms and is often informal and undocumented. It tends to be perceived as something other than regular employment, as not fitting the general framework of existing labour laws despite the fact that its origins go back to the “master-servant” relationship. As a result, the domestic employment relationship is not specifically addressed in many legislative enactments, thus rendering domestic workers vulnerable to unequal, unfair and often abusive treatment.

Domestic work is one of the oldest and most important occupations for millions of women around the world. It is rooted in the global history of slavery, colonialism and other forms of servitude. In contemporary society, care work at home is vital for the economy outside the household to function. In the past two decades demand for care work has been on the rise everywhere. The massive incorporation of women in the labor force, the ageing of societies, the intensification of work and the frequent lack or inadequacy of policy measures to facilitate the reconciliation of family life and work underpin this trend. Today, domestic workers make up a large portion of the workforce, especially in developing countries, and their number has been increasing – even in the industrialized world.

Domestic work, nonetheless, is undervalued and poorly regulated, and many domestic workers remain overworked, underpaid and unprotected. Accounts of maltreatment and abuse, especially of live-in and migrant domestic workers, are regularly denounced in the media. In many countries, domestic work is very largely performed by child laborers.

Prior to that time, women generally accompanied their spouses to destination countries or joined them later. Unemployment and household poverty, which have significantly affected countries of origin since the beginning of the 1980s, pressured these women to find jobs abroad. In wealthy countries, heightened demands in certain employment sectors, especially in the household or domestic sphere, also made migration an attractive alternative

Many cities import domestic workers from others, usually poorer villages, through recruitment agencies and brokers because their own nationals are no longer obliged or inclined to do domestic work. For most of these areas, the number of domestic workers run into the

hundreds of thousands. There are millions domestic workers work in other areas.

Major sources of domestic workers include the Philippines, Thailand, Indonesia, India, Bangladesh, Pakistan, Sri Lanka, and Ethiopia. Taiwan also imports domestic workers from Vietnam and Mongolia. Organizations such as Kalayaan support the growing number of these migrant domestic workers.

Employers may require their domestic workers to wear a uniform, livery or other "domestic workers' clothes" when in their employers' residence. The uniform is usually simple, and was even in the 19th century and 20th centuries. Female servants wore long, plain, dark-colored dresses or black skirts with white belts and white blouses, and black shoes, and male servants and butlers would wear something from a simple suit, or a white dress shirt, often with tie, and knickers. In traditional portrayals, the attire of domestic workers especially was typically more formal and conservative than that of those whom they serve. For example, in films of the early 20th century, a butler might appear in a tailcoat, while male family members and guests appeared in lounge suits or sports jackets and trousers depending on the occasion. In later portrayals, the employer and guests might wear casual slacks or even jeans, while a male domestic worker wore a jacket and tie, or a female domestic worker either a blouse and skirt (or trousers) or a dress.

Domestic workers, the majority of whom are women, constitute a large portion of today's migrant worker population. As part of the international trend of feminization of international labour, much of this work remains invisible in national statistics and national labour legislation. It is not certain whether the increasing participation of women in international migration provides them with a decent wage, good working conditions, social security coverage and labour protection. It is therefore important to provide more attention to the labour situation of the growing number of women migrant workers.

Islam has given the highest position to the women on earth. Islam had accorded women a position of honour, respect, safety and love, that has not been yet matched to this day. The status of women in Islam is given on the basis of equality and honour. But as the concept or trend of domestic workers they mostly rely on their women's working or hardships. The Quran places women on a footing of equality with men and grants permission to women to develop her intellect. She is equal to men in the pursuit of education and knowledge (Bashir, 2001).

Working women are probably the most important for natural and national development. For a developing country, like Pakistan female labour force is as important as material ones. In our country female labour force has not been fully utilized because of their un organizing supply, lack of training, want of job opportunities, insecure social environment and inadequate economic incentives.

The women can play a crucial role in every aspect of life. Economic crises in the less developed countries enhanced the women sense of taking part alongwith men in income generating activities (Zia, 2000).

Khan and Shahnaz (2000) based on Labour Force Survey 1996-97 reached to the conclusion that rural to urban direction reverse to urban-urban direction. Presently Arif (2007) based on PSES (2001) indicates the dominance of rural to urban migration in internal migration. Although, the studies come to different conclusion, they indicate a modest increase in rural to urban migration.

A few studies [Afzal and Abbasi (1979); Shah (1985); Arif and Hamid (2007)] reveal the tendency in family migration. To fill this gap, an in depth analysis of gender dimensions of rural to urban migration is needed.

Interestingly, the proportion of household having only female migrants reveals an increasing trend till the year 1997-98. After that the proportion gradually declined and it reached to 30.6 percent in 2006-2007. The percentage of households having only female migrant is lower than that presented by Arif and Hamid (2007). They observed a higher (46.2 percent) percentage of such households analyzing 2001 PSES data, the difference in result may be due to different data sets. Their study is based on PSES Survey 2001 that covers both intra-district and inter-district migration.

Human Rights Watch has documented that domestic workers employed by government and international agencies in urban New York City and Washington D.C. have a median workday of 14 hours and that their median wage was \$2.14 an hour, including room and board.

Most of the women migrant workers are engaged as a domestic worker and that is completely the informal sector. Government has not developed a scheme to provide Skills that is essential to work in informal sector and even the trainees are also not Sincere to get appropriate training that requires to them.

In all sense women are found to be in uncertainty and confused position. The level and

harassment is also very high. Their health issues are not properly addressed and they have not informed about their rights and duties.

Migrant women workers are more vulnerable to situations of risk because of a number of factors and these factors are inter-linked right from the government policies to the availabilities of opportunities, the social and gender roles of women, their vulnerability to violence as well as their access to information and services. While policy by itself is not solely responsible for the problems of migrant women workers, it lays the foundation for some of the issues. All these aspects affect migrant women workers live negatively, sometimes resulting in psychological and physical trauma (UNIFEM 2002).

In an era of globalization, economic or labour migration is on the rise. Due to lack of employment opportunities in developing countries and increased demands for low-wage workers in developed countries, youth, women and men are pursuing work in other countries in order to support themselves and their families back home.

The International Labour Organization (ILO) estimates that out of approximately 175 million migrants around the world, half of them are workers. Migrant workers not only contribute to the economies of their host countries, and the remittances\* they send home augment their home economies. The ILO reports that remittances figured \$223 billion in 2005, more than twice the level of international aid.

Many studies about migration have demonstrated that migration offers important economic benefits. The political benefits of migration, as the state makes plain in official policy documents, include mitigating the growth of the communist insurgency. The availability of employment overseas addresses the' perennial un- and underemployment problem, which, state officials believe, communists take advantage of to increase their ranks (see (DOLE 1995)).

Feminist scholars of development have argued that development is gendered in multiple ways. Postcolonial states draw on gendered representations to legitimize their developmental projects amongst their citizens, and they simultaneously draw on gendered representations to attract foreign capital on which they depend for investments (see (Ong 1999, Ong and Peletz 1995)). States that depend on labor export, like the Philippines, must be able to mobilize their citizens for labor migration while also producing global demand for migrant labor. Gender shapes these two processes. For instance, the state has produced a discourse of "migrant

heroism” representing overseas workers, particularly women migrants, as self-sacrificing, nationalist martyrs to normalize migration and migrants’ faithful remittance-sending to the homeland.

Migration was much larger phenomenon encompassing half of the workforce in informal sector. The Governments are encouraging external migration for remittances and internal migration for cheap labour to meet the profits of finance capital.

The problem of Migrant Labour is too huge and requires cooperation and coordination between trade unions and other social actors. Trade Unions being a dynamic and vibrant social institution can contribute to social change in a big way, provided, they absorb migrant workers in their rank and file and make them equal partners for sustainable development and social justice. The NGO’s having skilled manpower and resources can provide the trade unions with research and background. Trade unions with their organizational structures, organizing skills can take on the employers, Policy makers and governments for a better deal to the Migrant Workers and contribute for social harmony and sustainable growth.

Trade Unions have been working for defending and promoting Trade Union Rights and Human Rights, but it is high time, that, they take up the Migrant Workers Rights and address the causal aspects of the “cause and effect relationship” of migration, so that, the conditions which create migrant labour are addressed and necessary policy shifts and alternatives are created. The trade unions in general and GUFs in particular should fight against violations of trade union and human rights and abuses against Migrant workers. Eventually, there would be decent jobs both in the Exporting and Recipient countries and the “race to the bottom thus checked”.

A growing phenomenon in international migration is the employment of women workers abroad. Women comprise half of the estimated 200 million migrants worldwide, and this number has significantly increased over the last three decades. In Indonesia, almost 80 percent of all Indonesian migrant workers are women and 88 percent of these women work in the informal sector. One of the important causes for the feminization of labor migration is the demand for domestic workers in the developed world from labor sending countries such as Indonesia. New career opportunities for women in affluent countries means the need for someone else to take care of household and childcare duties, which falls to the role of foreign domestic workers. The women who are recruited as domestic workers come from areas in

Indonesia where poverty, high unemployment and lack of educational opportunities are most acute. Domestic work in middle to upper income households is traditionally a principal form of work for poor women to earn some form of remuneration.

Domestic workers, the majority of whom are women, constitute a large portion of today's migrant worker population. In Latin America, for example, they constitute as many as 60 percent of all internal and international migration. The feminization of migration, a trend that began in the early 1980s, has resulted in an increased number of women who migrate alone.

Prior to that time, women generally accompanied their spouses to destination countries or joined them later. Unemployment and household poverty, which have significantly affected countries of origin since the beginning of the 1980s, pressured these women to find jobs abroad. In wealthy countries, heightened demands in certain employment sectors, especially in the household or domestic sphere, also made migration an attractive alternative.

Onwork-related problems, domestic workers most frequently cited the presence of physical (including sexual), psychological and verbal abuse; over 50 percent of those surveyed in Kuwait reported this concern. Most workers mentioned vulnerability to sexual abuse by their male employers, who are often also their visa sponsors, as well as by the sponsors' sons or other men visiting the home where they work. The situation in Bahrain and the UAE was also similar.

Domestic workers also reported frequent irregularities in the recruitment system concerning the intermediaries, namely the recruiters and agents in sending and receiving countries who facilitate the migration process. The intermediaries exploited women migrant workers by overcharging for costs such as passports and other government fees.

Domestic workers and their families often incurred huge debts (in many instances unjustified) with the intermediaries and had to work for long periods of time without a salary to cover these costs and fees. Some domestic workers, if deported in cases where the employer withheld wages, came back home indebted for long periods of time. There were also numerous cases of recruitment agents sexually abusing runaway domestic workers.

Targeted political and institutional support at the national, regional, and international levels can help change the situation. For domestic work and other occupations where women migrants are concentrated, Arab governments could join efforts to provide social protection to

migrant workers and especially to female migrant domestic workers. Domestic and care work in private households is now the largest employment sector for migrant Women.

Here is a socio-legal study about a law, empowerment and access to justice for women domestic workers in Pakistan. There are no official statistics available on the number of women working in this informal employment sector, neither are there any in-depth research studies carried out on the subject of women in domestic service in Pakistan. Therefore this exploratory study attempts to fill the gap in existing literature by providing information about the profile, nature, working and living conditions of women domestic workers. It provides a starting point towards an understanding of the situation of women in domestic service by listening to their voices and lived experiences. By using feminist legal perspectives, Islamic perspectives on women's work and legal pluralism, the present study questions the efficiency of law as a tool for empowering women domestic workers in their struggle against exploitative treatment in the workplace. Grounded theory methodology is followed to collect empirical data about domestic service in Pakistan. Semi-structured group and individual interviews have been carried out at four sites in Karachi and Peshawar, Pakistan. A few case studies have also been included to substantiate some of the major themes arising during fieldwork. Listening to voices of women in domestic service has provided an opportunity to uncover the hidden lives of women domestic workers who work in the privacy of homes. The present study also explores the nature of domestic service, dynamics of employer-employee relations and complexities of class, gender and multiple identities impacting on these relationships. The study finally argues that in the presence of plural legal frameworks formal law alone cannot empower women in domestic service. Therefore for an effective implementation of law it is equally pertinent to look into non-legal strategies so that access to justice can be made possible for these women.

This law should exist by the need of time and provide shelter for the needy migrant domestic workers to facilitate them properly and prevent them from ill treatment by their masters.

Employment in private households accounts for about one-third of all female employment in Asia. About 1.5 million Asian women work as migrant domestic workers in other countries; Statistics for internal migrant domestic workers (women and children) migrating from rural or poorer areas to cities scarcely exist, however; In the Philippines, there are estimated to be over 600,000 local domestic workers; Figures from one province alone of

Indonesia, Yogyakarta (Central Java), indicate 40,000 local domestic workers and 40,000 working in Hong Kong; In Hong Kong, nearly one-third of all families employ a domestic worker: one in ten employs a migrant domestic worker, while more than two in ten employ a local domestic worker.

Domestic work has existed for centuries in Asia, when girls were sold by poor families to rich ones, put to work as 'slaves', 'maids' or 'servants' or described as a quasi member of the family so as to deny their rights. Today, such feudal and patriarchal values continue to shape the way the work is valued, i.e. it is 'work of no value done by women of low caste, ethnic group or race'.

As a result, in many countries the definition of 'domestic work' is vague - domestic workers are said to be there to make a person in their own home more 'comfortable'; so there is little recognition for these workers as 'workers'; little or no protection in labour law or social security; little or no respect for collective bargaining rights. This provides a rationalization for abuse; some household workers receive no payment for their work at all, only 'shelter' and food; there is no opportunity for training to upgrade skills; no health insurance; no retirement protection. For others the abuse can be more extreme forms of mental, physical or sexual assault. Isolation from society and lack of personal life add to the stress.

Elsewhere, policy prescriptions from the World Trade Organization (WTO) are causing a collapse in the rural economy and increasing urbanization. Capital flight, factory closures and privatization lead to lay-offs, and the women who become unemployed resort to domestic work for a living. Urban women absorbed into the labour force need help with household work, and this demand is met by impoverished rural women who have few other options.

Many organizations of domestic workers have started up in Asian countries in recent years. Some, for example in Japan and South Korea, are in the form of associations or co-operatives. In Hong Kong and Indonesia there are registered trade unions of domestic workers; however, in most countries, this is legally difficult or impossible. Meanwhile, those who are migrants are joining migrant workers' self-organizations or support NGOs, for example in Xian in China. Others are supported by women's organizations, or religious institutions, or sympathizers such as teachers.

These organizations undertake a range of organizing and mobilizing strategies. Some emphasize the self-organization of domestic/household workers in independent groups, to



speak for themselves to raise public awareness and lobby for legal changes. Others are advocacy groups on behalf of domestic/household workers. Some provide support such as a help-line, or a rest house, or free health aid or legal aid. Some help women find work in households with decent employers.

Getting in touch with individual domestic workers is always difficult and groups try various methods: from personal networking via friends, relatives, or community/religious leaders; to door-to-door surveying and home visits; and going to markets, parks and other public places where domestic workers might be. Some groups try to attract with recreational activities. Others try building rapport with employers.

ADWN's main mission is to support the self-organization of domestic workers, to assist them to strengthen themselves. We do this through training, study tours and exchange programmed where they can share their organizing and legal reform strategies. However, we also want to work closely with others involved in supporting domestic workers such as the child and migrant workers.

We play an advocacy role, lobbying for policies and programmers, at international as well as local levels, that will bring about greater value for the work of domestic workers, give them access to social services and promote their rights as workers. We are particularly interested in the idea of a new ILO Convention to extend 'decent work' to domestic workers.

We also try to secure media coverage, to encourage more social partners to rally to the cause of domestic workers. We do need to make this invisible sector of work more visible in society at large. Our vision is for a society that affirms domestic work as decent and dignified.”

## **OBJECTIVES**

The main objective of the study is to investigate the causes of Migration of Domestic Workers.

The study will however specifically focused on:

- 1-To study the causes of migration of domestic workers from rural to urban areas.
- 2-To study the socio-economic characteristics of domestic workers.
- 3-To study the issues and problems of domestic workers at their place of destination.
- 4-To suggest appropriate measures to reduce the problems of domestic workers.

## CHAPTER-2

### REVIEW OF LITERATURE

The purpose of review of literature is that it gives readers easy access to research on a particular topic by selecting high quality articles or studies that are relevant, meaningful, important, valid and summarizing them into one complete report. It also provides an excellent starting point for researchers beginning to do research in a new area by forcing them to summarize, evaluate, and compare original research in that specific area.

The literature reviewed in this thesis by no means is the opinion of the student and/or supervisory committee conducting this study.

ILO (1948) conducted that to improving the conditions of domestic workers has been an ILO concern since its early days. As early as 1948, the ILO adopted a resolution concerning the conditions of employment of domestic workers.

ILO (1965) stated that it adopted a resolution calling for normative action for domestic workers.

Todaro (1969) described that neoclassical economics has focused on wage and employment differential between regions, conceiving of migration as an individual decision for income maximization

Harris and Todaro (1970) explained migration as across space ,according to, income differentials are taken as the motivating factor in moving people from low-income areas to relatively high-income areas.

ILO (1970) conducted the first survey ever published on the status of domestic workers across the world made its appearance.

Helbock (1975) analyzed the 1961 population census data to examine the flows of lifetime migrants in the 12 largest cities of Pakistan, and found that about 15percent of the total population of these cities had the status of migrants, whomoved into these cities from other districts of Pakistan.

Piore (1979) concluded that the segmented labor market theory linked migration to the structural requirements of modern industrial economics and viewed migration as created by a 'pull' created by labor demand.

Afzal and Abbasi (1979) concluded that reveal the tendency in family migration. To fill this

gap, an in depth analysis of gender dimensions of rural to urban migration is needed.

Naseem (1981) concluded that in Pakistan both the volume and nature of internal migration have varied overtime and so their impact on migrant households.

Irfan *et al.* (1983) concluded that internal migration is becoming increasingly long distance and in rural-urban direction. Lack of employment opportunities coupled with inadequate income from farming are considered the leading cause for rural to urban migration. Based on the 1979 Migration and Labour Force Survey data.

Bourdieu (1984) reported that the migrated have no social or economic value. Paying for domestic work facilitates the maintenance of standards which in turn has social implications as we go “out” into the world marked by the home. Thus although themselves hidden, the results of those who labor in private households are everywhere apparent – how many of those smart politicians, senior executives and newscasters who appear on our television sets night after night have had their shirts and blouses ironed by paid domestic workers, and how many by migrant women? The home itself is a site of consumption and status where “personality” and social status are expressed.

Shah (1985) studied the reveal the tendency in family migration. To fill this gap, an in depth analysis of gender dimensions of rural to urban migration is needed.

Banerjee (1986), described that caste and other kinds of village networks help migrant workers find employment in rural areas.

Stark *et al.* (1986) concluded that the new economics of migration has viewed migration as a household decision to minimize risks to family income and to overcome capital constraints on family production activities.

Van (1988) presented information about washerwomen organized the “Washing Society” to mobilize for higher wages and called a strike to enforce their demand.

Van Raaphorst (1988) documented this early history of domestic worker unionisation in the United States and profiles the formation of domestic worker unions like the American Servant Girls’ Association and the Domestic Worker Industrial Union of the International Workers of the World.

Chaney and Castro (1989) more recent history from other parts of the world revealed a similar flurry of organizing activity amongst domestic workers. The histories of domestic service in Latin America and the Caribbean demonstrated a tradition of active attempts at

unionization in the sector.

Kerala *et al.* (1989) reported that in all the urban areas of the three states, female migrants' work participation rates are generally higher among Christians and Scheduled Castes/Tribe whether married or unmarried and availability of high productivity jobs in the rural areas could reduce in-migration to the urban areas.

Reddy (1990) stated that migration for construction work has brought economic gains and freedom for many but has also brought incredible hardship and personal risk. Many analysts have concluded that it is coping at best and does not result in any long term accumulation for the poor.

Glenn (1992) said that domestic workers have always been amongst the most exploited workers. They are channeled into paid domestic work on the basis of several axes of differentiation – race, class, and gender – which are reflective and generative of social stratification more broadly.

Abello (1992) concluded that many studies of Philippine migration have demonstrated that migration offers important economic benefits. Remittances, which amount to several billion dollars yearly (\$8 billion US dollars in 2003; we have yet to get 2004 figures, but based on the general trends, it is likely to increase), increases the rate of national saving, thereby facilitating increased capital accumulation.

Vasquez (1992) described that moreover, remittances are an important source of foreign exchange.

Nayak (1993) Another study in southern MP also found that migration earnings were an important source of income: he studied 550 households in 60 villages in Jhabua district in 2000/1 it was seen that households in the three poorest quartiles earned 65-70% of their total wage income from seasonal migration. In contrast, households in the top quartile earned the largest share of total labour income (63%) from regular jobs in the private or public sector and only about 30% from off village labour.

Hunter (1993) said that Eventually attracting nearly three thousand washerwomen, cooks, and child nurses, and lasting almost three weeks, this act not only defies the construction of domestics “as passive victims”, it also “revealed an astute political consciousness by making women’s work carried out in private households a public issue.

Pervez (1994) reported from a survey that on child domestic labour in Islamabad, the children engaged as domestic servants were pushed into this activity by poverty. Most of them had rural background. Their family size comprised of 8 -12 members. Most of them were uneducated. Parents of all the children were illiterate. Strong gender discrimination was evident, as mostly boys in the family were attending school, and girls were working as domestic servants. Child domestic servants also complained about job insecurity and harsh behavior of the employers. About 20% of the children were below average in health and their appearance reflected the neglect and lack of love. The employers abused verbally and physically many child workers, the former more frequently. They also suffered abuse at the hands of employers' children and their own parents.

DOLE (1995) documented that the political benefits of migration, as the state makes plain in official policy documents, include mitigating the growth of the communist insurgency. The availability of employment overseas addresses the Philippines' perennial un- and underemployment problem, which, state officials believe, communists take advantage of to increase their ranks.

FBS (1996) consistent with the ILO and UNICEF studied 3 million child domestic workers in Pakistan.

Espinosa and Massey (1997) reported that social networks play an important role in mitigating the hazards of crossing the border.

Massey and Espinosa (1997) said that researchers in the past have combined different models of migration by including a variety of indicators representing each theory, and testing their impact on migration using multivariate regression techniques.

Roberts (1997) conducted Care work in the household – whether performed by paid employees or by unpaid household members as part of their family responsibilities and as a “labour of love” – is quite simply indispensable for the economy outside the household to function.

Mosse *et al* (1997) in the villages in MP and other parts of western India studied by David Mosse and colleagues, for instance, migration for construction work was generating more than 86% of the cash income for migrating households in the mid 1990s.

Government (1998) concluded that the changed these provisions so that migrant domestic workers could change employer after entering the UK and have a route to settlement.

This followed a long campaign by activists within the trade union, church and refugee and migrant sectors based on reports of abuse and exploitation suffered by migrant domestic workers in the UK. Initially these provisions operated as a concession outside of the Immigration Rules, but since 2002 the provisions have been part of the rules.

Smith (1999) argued that far from being relegated to the private, domestic workers made the issue of household labour “nothing less than ‘the Great American’ question of the nineteenth century”.

Momsen, (1999) described that Finally, researchers point out the case of Middle Eastern countries, where the rate of women participation in the labour force is quite low, but where having a servant has become an important status symbol for middle-class families.

Smith (2000) documented history of unionism amongst domestic workers is limited, especially in terms of geographical and historical scope, it does reveal that, far from being resistant to organization, and especially unionization, domestic workers have organized on the basis of their worker status to form unions. This history challenges the presumption that paid domestic work is “an occupational oddity that defies organization”.

Anderson (2000) stated that Demand for elder care is only one of many factors shaping the labour market for migrant domestic workers. Domestic work involves cleaning as well as caring.

Anderson (2000) argued that the logic of social reproduction is such that the employment of a domestic worker reinscribes gendered, classed and radicalized roles, and that what is being purchased is not simply labour power but “personhood”.

Cancedda (2000) analyzed that (migrant) domestic workers as a challenge to the market/private dichotomy shifts the emphasis from immigration to employment. The questions raised continue to be extremely complex. One can apply the notion of spectrum of irregularity to employment as well as immigration status, and this is particularly useful with reference to domestic work. In countries for which estimates are available 50-80% of those cleaning in private households were working in undeclared jobs .

Smet (2000) stated that Interrogating demand for cleaning services is necessarily complex, and more messy than simply ascribing a value to it. There is a notable lack of literature on demand specifically for cleaning services inside the home but it has been recognized as increasing.

Smet (2000) conducted that Domestic workers who are paid but not declared... have a considerable impact on the black economy. This form of work, which is hidden and not easily quantifiable, provides a significant proportion of women with a source of income which is not subject to any form of state control.

Khan and Shahnaz (2000) based on Labour Force Survey 1996-97 reached to the conclusion that rural to urban direction reverse to urban-urban direction.

PSES (2001) observed a higher (46.2 percent) percentage of such households analysing data, the difference in result may be due to different data sets. Their study is based on PSES Survey 2001 that covers both intra-district and inter-district migration.

NSSO (2001) documented that the 55th round of NSS of 1999-00 was the first to cover short-duration migration defined as: “persons staying away from usual place of residence for 60 days or more for employment or better employment or in search of employment”. It estimates that roughly 1% of the Indian population or 10 million people migrated temporarily.

Sharma (2001) described that Rapid Assessment on child domestic labourers carried out in Nepal have reinforced that there is a preference for hiring younger children for domestic work. This is mostly due to the fact that salaries increase with age and that teenagers and adults are perceived to be more difficult to manage for employers.

Radin (2001) concluded that the migrants Those taking the latter position may recognize that, while certain aspects of reproductive labour may be susceptible to commodification, others, particularly those involving care, can be more problematic or “contested” but nevertheless advocate a pragmatic response.

Deb *et al* (2002) concluded that migration has been an important way of coping with drought in Mahabubnagar which has huge tracts of unirrigated land with only a single cropping season.

Deb *et al* (2002) analyzed the Village Level Studies (VLS) conducted by ICRISAT (International Crop Research Institute for Semi-Arid Tropics) over the last three decades in two villages of Mahbubnagar district in Andhra Pradesh show that both seasonal and permanent migration have increased during the reference period.

Arif Hassan (2002) observed that the migration from India had a major impact on the sociology, economics and politics of Pakistan. Before the coming of the refugees, clan and caste organizations were strong and urban areas were divided into clan neighborhoods. Caste

and professions were interrelated. With the coming of the refugees and the anarchy that followed, caste and clan organizations in the towns where they settled became weak and ineffective, almost overnight. Neighborhoods vacated by migrating Hindus and Sikhs were occupied by Muslims and were no longer homogenous in terms of ethnicity or caste.

HC and Cm (2002) amended that Before 1998 migrant domestic workers could come to the UK under 1 a concession which tied immigration status to a specific employer and did not give them a route to Indefinite Leave to Remain (often referred to as 'settlement').

Anderson and O'Connell Davision (2002) analyzed that why people "need" cleaners the invisible and gendered hand of social institutions and practices is important, as is labor supply, the availability of someone to do the work.

Romero and Tronto (2002) observed that For many of those academically engaged, a key debate that has emerged in recent years is around whether paid domestic work is "just another job"? Does payment for domestic work necessarily further inequality, particularly between women.

Karim and Nasar (2003) described that while analysing intra- and inter-provincial moved of all internal migrants based on 1998 population census indicated the same trend that we have observed for rural to urban migrants. The findings indicated that quite large percentage of rural to urban migrants in provinces of NWFP and Punjab are short distance (intra-provincial), while in provinces of Sindh and Balochistan they are from long distance. (inter-province).

Meagher (2003) stated that Domestic work should be regarded as any other job, requiring recognition and professionalisation rather than elimination.

Meagher (2003) observed that Domestic work in private households, whether or not it is performed by migrants, has widely different forms and relations, some of which are more easy to commodify than others.

Hugo (2003) observed that Particular impact of migration in family structure and functioning was the increasing levels of female headship. A major impact which was evaluated relates to the effect of migration on women's traditional sides and status in the family. Absence of husband after migration and wife take the responsibilities to look after the children in case of other family members in the origin area.



Virgo *et al.* (2003) conducted that the incidence of migration was clearly growing in the area as a few years later another study in the same area found that in many villages up to three-quarters of the population were absent between November and June.

Srivastava (2003) stated that migration for construction work has brought economic gains and freedom for many but has also brought incredible hardship and personal risk. Many analysts have concluded that it is coping at best and does not result in any long term accumulation for the poor.

Srivastava (2003) described that unlike countries in Southeast Asia and East Asia, the bulk of the migrant workforce in India has little or no education.

Neetha (2004) reported that a study of domestic workers in Delhi shows that although domestic work has brought higher incomes to many women and their families it is still far from decent work being characterized by long working hours, low wages and hardly any social security.

Moors (2003) concluded that a worldwide trend that paid domestic work has grown rapidly. Moors argued that paid domestic work has never been a “prestige zone” in social sciences. It is only recently that the studies in this field has started to increase.

Moors (2003) stated modernization theory predicted in the 1970s that paid domestic work would wither away.

Hogdagneu-Sotel, (2003) documented that Meanwhile, in the global south, increasing numbers of households have been displaced from their usual means of subsistence, forcing members to emigrate in search of a livelihood.

Zlotnik (2003) pointed out that globally, the number of female migrants has been large and increasing, both in terms of the sheer number of women involved and in terms of their share of the world's migrant stock.

NCCWD (2003) conducted in 6 major cities in Pakistan, Eight percent of total working children are engaged as domestic servants.

Keough, (2003) parallel to the studies and research on the new international migration flows, the impact of the feminization of migration and globalization of domestic work are generally under-researched fields in migration studies in Turkey. Although there are some ongoing research studies, there are only a few published works on this topic.

Lang (2004) documented that Domestic work is one of the oldest and most important occupations for many women in many countries. It is linked to the global history of slavery, colonialism and other forms of servitude.

Shah and Sah (2004) reported that On the whole migration among poor tribals in southern MP may be helping the households to maintain their standard of living rather than breaking away from poverty: he collected qualitative data from 212 households in a village in Bhadwani district in southern MP shows that migration helped landless households to maintain their standard of living over a decade.

Geneva (2004) said that In its contemporary manifestations, domestic work is a global phenomenon that perpetuates hierarchies based on race, ethnicity, indigenous status, caste and nationality.

McKenzie and Rapoport (2004) observed that Friends and relatives who have migrant experience often accompany new immigrants across the border or arrange coyotes. A reduction in migration costs has two main impacts on the decision to migrate.

Galotti (2004) stated that one of the most striking changes in domestic work in the past 30 years has been the growing prevalence of migrant work. In several regions, including Europe and the Gulf countries and the Middle East, the majority of domestic labourers today are migrant women.

ILO (2004) idealized that employer ideologies that construct domestics as ‘one of the family,’ and social ideologies that refuse to recognize domestic labour as real work, mitigate against domestics’ understanding of themselves as ‘workers,’ and therefore unionisation. Even when domestics can overcome these ideological mystifications, possibilities for collective mobilisation based on a worker identity are limited given the “personal nature of the employer-employee relationship”, and “the worker’s extreme dependence on the employer”

ILO (2004) reported, more than 2 million children are found in domestic labour in South Africa, 559,000 in Brazil, 250,000 in Haiti, 200,000 in Kenya, 264,000 in Pakistan, 100,000 in Sri Lanka, 300,000 in Bangladesh, 62,000 under the age of 14 in Nepal, and 20% of all children under the age of 14 in India.

Ford (2004) described that With cross-national unionisation rates in the domestic service sector at barely 1% (ILO, 2004), domestic workers are not only unorganised, but

widely regarded as 'unorganisable'. In Pakistan many researchers have made valuable contribution to the literature on migration. The population censuses, labour force surveys and special surveys such as population surveys, migration and labour force surveys, have been the major data sources for migration studies, which have covered a wide range of issues including the impact of human capital on migration decision, impact of migration on well-being of migrant households the patterns of migration and inter and intra-provincial migration.

Panda (2005) conducted survey and found that skilled workers did particularly well in getting remunerative work in brick-kilns and construction sites. While this did not mean that migration was viewed as the ideal form of employment, it was certainly seen as better paid and more secure than employment in the village.

Sundari (2005) migration for construction work has brought economic gains and freedom for many but has also brought incredible hardship and personal risk. Many analysts have concluded that it is coping at best and does not result in any long term accumulation for the poor.

Anderson and Rogaly (2005) documented that Services provided by franchises and agencies for example are arguably easier to commodify because they do not involve personalized relation between householder and worker, the worker may not technically be an employee of the householder at all but is self-employed or an agency worker. This does not mean that workers employed under such circumstances are protected from exploitation. Sub-contracting chains are rife within the commercial cleaning sector, and the person at the end of a long sub-contracting chain may often be in an extremely exploitative relation with the person above them on whom they depend for work.

World Bank (2005) reported that disparity between men and women in the work force is evident based on the data gathered by the World Bank. Unemployment rates for women are approximately 50 percent higher than those for men. According to World Bank statistics, only 41% of women versus 73% of men are either working or looking for work.

Kabeer (2005) Migrant labour makes enormous contributions to the Indian economy through major sectors such as construction, textiles, small industries, brick-making, stone quarries, mines, fish and prawn processing and hospitality services. But migrants remain on the periphery of society, with few citizen rights and no political voice in shaping decisions that impact their lives.

Lutz (2005) there is strong evidence that the demand for paid domestic work has started to increase all over the world. As Lutz stated, “domestic workers can be found working for dual earners, middle class families and single people, for double or single parents, for young urban professionals as well as for the elderly and invalid”.

Lutz (2005) in most of Europe, domestic workers have been disappearing since the beginning of the 20th century, and particularly after World War II.

Balisacan and Ducanes (2005), Although significant in recent years, growth has been unequal in India characterized by industry in developed states such as Gujarat, Maharashtra and Punjab drawing labour from agriculturally backward and poor regions such as eastern Uttar Pradesh, Bihar, southern Madhya Pradesh, western Orissa and southern Rajasthan. High productivity agricultural areas (“green revolution areas”) continue to be important destinations, but rural urban migration is the fastest growing type of migration as more migrants choose to work in better paying non-farm occupations in urban areas and industrial zones. Delhi and the states of Gujarat and Maharashtra are top destinations for inter-state migrant labour. Labour mobility has grown and will probably continue to grow once the economy recovers from the current crisis.

Ratha (2005) Remittances from migrants have grown rapidly over the same time, with developing countries receiving \$126 billion in 2004.

Kumbetoglu, (2005) parallel to the studies and research on the new international migration flows, the impact of the feminization of migration and globalization of domestic work are generally under-researched fields in migration studies in Turkey. Although there are some ongoing research studies, there are only a few published works on this topic.

Kalayaan (2006) Migrant domestic workers have the legal status of workers in the UK - and are entitled to rights such as the minimum wage, time off, etc. Yet, of more than 300 workers registered with, 43% of workers reported not being given their own bed, 41% were not given regular meals, 70% were given no time off, 61% were not allowed out of the house without their employer's permission. In addition, 10% reported sexual abuse, 26% physical abuse and 72% psychological abuse at the hands of their employers. Many workers were paid as little as 50p an hour, were made to work up to 16 hours a day, and were on constant call to their employers.

Deshingkar *et al.* (2006) child migration from Purnia, Madhubani and Sitamarhi

districts in Bihar to towns in Uttar Pradesh and Bihar for work in “dhabas” has been on the increase over the last 10 years. These are mainly children from SC families and they migrate for 8-9 months a year. They are paid Rs.500-1500 a month with food. Often the payment is given directly to the parents as an advance and the child repays the debt.

Deshingkar *et al.*(2006) Discussions with NGOs in several parts of Bihar in 2006 showed the different livelihood enhancing ways in which migration money is used.

Shah (2006) Shah’s research on migration to brick-kilns from Jharkhand shows that migration gives young men and women the opportunity to pursue amorous relationships away from social restrictions in the village

Samal (2006) Research on seasonal migration conducted under the Andhra Pradesh Rural Livelihoods Project in two villages in Mahabubnagar district and two villages in Ananthapur found that most households did not save much but some did accumulate wealth and one of the major factors leading to the accumulation of assets was the repetition of migration to the same destination. Long-term migration to places like Mumbai, Hyderabad and Bangalore enabled migrant households to accumulate because of the relatively higher wages and absence of middlemen. Migrants were predominantly from the lower social strata of SCs, STs and BCs (95 per cent). They were mainly illiterate, landless labourers and marginal farmers.

Ghate (2006) the relationship between debt and migration is not straightforward. While some analysts have concluded that migration increases debt levels because of higher expenditures during transit and at the destination, others have argued that migration improves the creditworthiness of households and they are able to borrow more because of that

Deshingkar *et al* (2006) child migration from Purnia, Madhubani and Sitamarhi districts in Bihar to towns in Uttar Pradesh and Bihar for work in “dhabas” has been on the increase over the last 10 years. A case study of the Delhi garment industry which accounts for 35-40 per cent of the value of the country’s total garment exports estimated that there are 3,000-4,000 production units where poor, first generation industrial workers are hired by contractors known as the kedars from rural areas.

Dubey *et al* (2006) argue on the basis of their analysis of the 1999-2000 round of the NSS that individuals from scheduled castes and scheduled tribes and those with little or no education are less likely to migrate to urban areas.

Government March (2006) the proposed removing the special immigration category for domestic workers. Instead, employers would have been expected to look to the resident UK workforce or EEA nationals for such staff. The only proposed alternative was that these people may have been able to come to the UK as 'business visitors' for up to six months, which does not lead to settlement. If there was evidence of a shortage of workers, the Government would consider setting up a scheme for domestic workers under Tier 3 of the points-based system (which is for low-skilled workers, but has never been implemented)

Mitra and Murayama (2006) studied 'Rural to Urban Migration: A District Level Analysis for India', during the last 10 years, the number of male and female was almost equal in total rural-to-urban flows. While women outnumber men in intra-state rural-urban flows, the number of male was significantly greater in case of inter-state rural-urban migration. The differences in work participation rates are also observed along the line of religion and caste group of migrants.

McKenzie and Sasin (2007) identified that Measurement of the impact of migration on human development indicators such as health, education, consumption, income (in general, welfare) is difficult. He identified three sets of challenges that researchers face on analysing the impact of migration. The first set relates to data and definition used, the second set relates to endogeneity/selectivity/omitted variable problems; decisions on migration, expenditure allocation, education and health care choices are usually made simultaneously. Many variables that explain migration also determine expenditure choices making it difficult to establish causality. The third set relates to indirect socioeconomic effects (extra burden to members living in the origin, transferring knowledge/information, exchange of ideas/culture, emotional stress on children etc.)

International Migrant Alliance (2007) The export of labor in Indonesia has become part of the country's development plan in addressing poverty recorded remittances sent by Indonesian migrant workers were up to U.S\$ 5 billion. Despite this large contribution, Indonesian domestic workers' rights are neglected both in their home country and abroad. Reports have surfaced that domestic workers are routinely underpaid, overworked, confined to the workplace, and subject to verbal, physical, and sexual abuse. In theory, human rights are supposed to be universal and applicable to all regardless of race and citizenship. However, political and economic interests, rooted in the legal and social structures of countries, have led

to the rights violations, discrimination and exploitation of migrant domestic workers.

Government Karachi (2007) documented that the physical impact of migration is visible in both urban and rural areas. In the urban areas, where migration has taken place, informal settlements have been created. These settlements are increasing in number, and plans for their regularization and improvement are unable to keep up with the increasing housing demand.

Amnesty International (2007) within the formal sector where wages are higher, women are underrepresented; whereas women are over-represented in the informal low-paid jobs like domestic work. There are approximately 2.6 million domestic workers in Indonesia, and the majority of them are women and girls, ranging from 14 to 40 years old. However, some of them can be young.

Sally Cameron, (2007) described that Some abused maids have become so desperate that they commit suicide.

Arif (2007) indicated the dominance of rural to urban migration in internal migration. Although, the studies come to different conclusion, they indicate a modest increase in rural to urban migration.

Arif and Hamid (2007) documented that reveal the tendency in family migration. To fill this gap, an in depth analysis of gender dimensions of rural to urban migration is needed.

Arif and Hamid (2007) described that the Interestingly, the proportion of household having only female migrants reveals an increasing trend till the year 1997-98. After that the proportion gradually declined and it reached to 30.6 percent in 2006-2007. The percentage of households having only female migrant is lower than that presented.

Mezzardi (2008) Migrant workers are preferred because they do not pose the threat of unionization. The workers stay in the city for the production cycle and then return to their villages.

ILO (2008) At its 301st Session (March 2008), the ILO Governing Body agreed to place an item on decent work for domestic workers on the agenda of the 99th Session of the International Labour Conference (2010) with a view to the setting of labour standards.

Madhya Pradesh see Deshingkar *et al* ( 2008) However the situation has changed in some locations recently as migrants have acquired more confidence and knowledge of the

labour market and have begun to negotiate jobs by themselves without depending on agents and contractors. This has led to faster improvements in living standards.

Ozbay, (1990a, 1990b and 2002); Kalaycioglu and Rittesberger-Tilic, 2001; Ozyegin 2001, Bora, 2005) there is only a few work focuses on this issue Although it is quite common to employ local domestic workers in upper and classes houses in urban areas.

Tenaganita (2004-2007), a leading migrant's rights organization in Malaysia, rescued 148 abused Indonesian maids with the help of the Malaysian police after the organization received over 200 calls through its Domestic Workers Action Line, and it has recorded 1,050 violations of human rights, such as non-payment of wages and sexual and physical abuse. On average, each domestic worker suffered 6-7 rights violations.

Kundu and Sarangi (2007) compare migrant and non-migrant populations to argue that the probability of being poor among migrants (both urban-urban and rural-urban including seasonal migrants) is lower than among non-migrants.

Parliamentary Assembly (2007) of the Council of Europe stated that at a conservative estimate there were 5.5 million irregular migrants living within the European Union, with a further 8 million irregular migrants in Russia. The report states that well governed regularisation schemes are valid options for labour markets. Migrant workers who attain a regular status can escape from abusive and exploitative situations. The main economic argument in favour of regularisation schemes is the need of reducing the size of the underground economy and to increase tax and social security contributions. In terms of safety and security, regularisation schemes can be a good instrument to gain a realistic picture of the total foreign population.

Deshingkar *et al.*(2008) regarding health and education, permanent and seasonal/circular migrants were asked to prioritise their use of income from migration; one person was permitted to indicate four most important purposes. The first choice identified health and education less important than consumption, paying off debts and investment. In MP health/education and investment/savings were being valued nearly equally.

Pramod *et al.* (2008) regarding health and education, permanent and seasonal/circular migrants were asked to prioritise their use of income from migration; one person was permitted to indicate four most important purposes. The first choice identified health and education less



important than consumption, paying off debts and investment. In MP health/education and investment/savings were being valued nearly equally. The ILO is a founding member of the Geneva Migration Group, now the Global Migration Group (GMG), established in 2003 to enhance coordination and complementarily on migration. olicies.<sup>17</sup> In spite of international standards to protect migrants, their rights as workers are too often undermined, especially if the migrants go abroad undocumented searching for a job. While no reliable data on undocumented migrants by sex can be found, the report on Gender and Migration prepared by the Global Commission on International Migration argued that due to "... the undervaluing of women's labour and restrictions on their right to work, a higher proportion of women migrants than men are statistically invisible and are or could become undocumented.

## **Chapter-3**

### **MATERIALS AND METHODS**

#### **DATA ANALYSIS**

The data analysis is conducted to evaluate the relative importance of each causal variable in the model or to determine whether the most important causal mechanisms are operating to determine outcomes (Blalock, 1989).

#### **Social research**

Research is a human activity based on intellectual investigation and is aimed at discovering interpreting and revising human knowledge on different aspects of the world.(Dr. Paul Walcott 2009)

Social research is the systematic method discovering new facts or verifying old facts, their sequence, interrelationship, causal explanation and natural laws that govern them. Social research is concerned with exploring, describing and explaining social phenomena involving human behavior (Jafar, 1998).

## **Methodology**

Methodology is a systematic description and “logic in use” of the technique and tools employed during the conduct of research of the collection of reliable information about the phenomenon under study.

Methodology is a discipline, studying the behavior of human Beings in various social settings. According to Nachmias (1981) the scientific methodology is a system of explicit rules and procedures upon which research is based and against which the claims for knowledge are evaluated.

The major objectives of this chapter, therefore, are to explain, various tools and techniques of research along with statistical tests and operational definitions of the concepts being used in this research.

## **Universe**

Universe is any set of individuals or objects having common observable characteristics constitute a population or universe (Dixon and Marry, 1957). The present study was designed to investigate the causes, effects and problems of migrant domestic workers. The present study was conducted on five colonies of university of agriculture Faisalabad. For this purpose a town Layllpur townwas selected through simple randomly technique from the four towns of Faisalabad (Jinnah Town, Iqbal Town, Lyallpur, Madina Town). Then from Layllpur Town 185 Union council was selected randomly.

## **The Sample**

Sample may be defined as “a portion of all the elements in a population that is used to obtain information about the entire population” (Magill and Frank, 1995).

The process of selecting a subset of individuals from a large group of individuals may be defined as sampling, the selection being done with a view to drawing inferences about the larger group on the basis of information obtain from the subset. The large group of individuals is known as sample. (Jafar, 1998).

Only two basic requirements for good sampling procedure were that:

- i) It must be representative
- ii) It must be adequate

It is not possible for researcher to study the entire population situation and event of the universe due to the short period of time and large population of universe, so a sample is drawn. In this study multistage sampling techniques were used for data collection.

At first stage, a town Lyallpur town was selected through simple randomly technique from the four towns of Faisalabad (Jinnah Town, Iqbal Town, Lyallpur, Madina Town).

Then at 2<sup>nd</sup> stage 150 respondents were selected through convenient method technique from Lyallpur Town selected randomly.

Then at 3<sup>rd</sup> stage according to the objectives of the study a questionnaire was designed for data collection and that data were analyzed by using SPSS (Statistical Package for social Sciences). Significance of relationship between certain variables were observed through chi-square test. Gamma test was used to show the strength and direction between the dependent and independent variables.

## **Sample size**

A feature of qualitative sampling is this fact that the number of cases sampled is often small. This is because, as mentioned earlier, a phenomenon only need appear once to be of value. There is no need for scale as there is no need for estimates of statistical significance. Furthermore, because qualitative investigation aims for depth as well as breadth, the analysis of large numbers of in-depth interviews would simply be unmanageable because of a researcher's ability to effectively analyse large quantities of qualitative data. However, the small-scale approach only works if the researcher has a strong sampling strategy (Ritchie and Lewis 2003).

Lachin (2000) gives a good general approach to sample size calculations with unequal numbers of observations in the samples.

The size of the sample was 150 respondents. The respondents were the migrant domestic workers in district Faisalabad.

## **Tools for data collection**

Collection of data is the most important stage in research work. The instruments that are employed to gather new facts or to explain new fields are called 'tools'. It is of vital importance to select suitable instruments or tools. Different tools of data collection are used for different research and it is based on type of research work interviewing schedule was used as a tool of data collection.

### **Interview schedule**

The interviewing schedule is considered an appropriate tool to get the requisite information. For the purpose of data collection, a well designed interviewing schedule was used. An interviewing schedule is a set of questions which are asked from the respondents in a face to face situation.

An interviewing schedule was developed in the light of the objectives of the study. The questions in interview schedule were mostly structured. The interview schedule was prepared in English but question were asked in Urdu and Punjabi according to the situation.

## **FIELD EXPERIENCE:**

For conducting any social research some difficulties are often faced by each researcher at the time of data collection as social research study the human beings and human behaviors. Human beings are master of their well they may or may not respond in a desired manner. The field experience during data collection was very interesting. There were many difficulties in data collection. In many situations it was very difficult to get accurate responses from the respondents. The main difficulty experienced was the respondents (domestic workers) were very busy in their work and they have no time for the research and they did not know the purpose and objectives of social research. Therefore, much of time was consumed in explaining the objectives of the study to the respondents. Mostly the domestic workers were illiterate and they also did not want to tell exact age and income. Majority of the domestic workers were not satisfied with their income. The researcher found that the migrant domestic workers faced many difficulties due to burden of work, and due to their self respect. But the researcher tried her best to get accurate data.

## **PRE-TESTING**

Before collecting the actual data, in order to check the workability, of the interviewing schedule, pre-testing was necessary in the same universe. Ten interviews were conducted to pre-test the schedule. During the interview, some questions did not work, hence detected or either modified. Necessary modification and changes were made in order to have required information.

## **Statistical analysis**

The data was collected statistically analyzed by using computer application, software statistical package for social sciences (SPSS).

## **Percentage**

Percentages of various categories of data were used in the present study, in order to bring the data in to comparable form.

The percentage was computed by using the following formulas:

$$\text{Percentage} = \frac{F}{N} \times 100$$

### Where

P=percentage

F=Frequency

N=Total number of frequency

### Chi-square

Chi-square test was applied to examine relationship between independent and dependent variables. Chi-square was computed by following formula:

$$X^2 = \sum \frac{(O-E)^2}{E}$$

### Where

O = Observed values

E = Expected values

S = Total sum If the calculated value of chi-square was equal to or higher than the

If the table value at 0.05 level of probability at the given degree of freedom, the relationship was statistically significant. If it is less than the table value (0.01 level of probability) it is termed as highly significant. Where the calculated value is less than the table value at 0.05 level of significance. It is declared as non-significant. The data is statistically analyzed on (pc) using the SPSS software.

### Gamma Statistics

The value of Gamma showed the strength and direction of the relationship between independent and dependent variables. Calculations were made by using the following formula:

$$\text{Gamma} = \frac{N_s - N_d}{N_s + N_d}$$

**Where:**

Ns= same order pair

Nd= Different order pair

**CONCEPTUALIZATION**

Conceptualization means to plan, to design, to imagine, to conceive and to envision. It is considered that conceptualization is a dry and difficult intellectual exercise that pulls people into analytical thinking but according to Sedgeman, (1983):

Conceptualization is the application of certain scientific terminologies with a view to clearly communicate the intended outcome of the study. The need for the conceptualization and defining the general concept with specific and purified components is important.

“Conceptualization means deliberately looking beyond the known i.e. beyond assumptions, commonplace interpretations, beliefs, prevailing theories, habitual conclusions and so on to see what is not yet known, or to understand what is not yet known, or to understand what is not yet clearly understood.”

Conceptualization is the use of particulars to illuminate a generalizable idea or construct. We can say that the act of conceptualization is the concept of thinking through and seeing beyond existing ideas to discover higher order ideas within one's mind.

**Socio-economic Characteristics**

Socio-economic may be defined as a complex of attributes, that is interrelated but do not form a single dimension.

Therefore, socio-economic status includes a number of factors and each factor further has indices as every society according to its norms and values determines socio-economic characteristics of a person.

**i) AGE**

Age is an important factor in social study. The whole duration of a being, whether animal, vegetable, or other kind; lifetime. That part of a duration of a being or a thing which is between its beginning and any given time; as, what is the present age of a man, or of the earth. (Tahsina Akhter, 2009). It is defined as the number of years completed since the birth of the respondent. For the purpose of analysis, age of respondents has been categorized as:

**Question**

What is the age of respondents?

Up to 25

26-30

31-35

36+

## **EDUCATION**

Education is future-oriented it is about development and growth even when we are studying the past. Thus, as educators, the aspect of thinking we tend to focus upon is learning. It involves activities that are intended to stimulate thinking, to foster.(Tony and Smith, 2009).

These things mark out education:

- i) A concern with environment
- ii) The intention to foster learning and
- iii) Certain values

In the present study education has been recognized as the total number of years of schooling completed by the respondents in educational institution. Education of respondents was taken as one of the indicators of families, socio-economic factors. The educational categories were as follow:

- a) Illiterate
- b) Primary
- c) Middle

## **INCOME**

Income can be defined as “The remuneration received periodically for work or services performed.” (Peppenocir,1977).

In the present study income means the total gross earning of the respondents from all sources. The income of the respondents was categorized as follows:

1000-4000

5000-10,000

11,000-15,000

21,000 and above

## **Caste**



Systems of occupation, endogamy, social culture, social class, and political power, the assignment of individuals to places in the social hierarchy is often now associated with the word “caste”, it was used by the portuguess to describe inherited class status in their own European society. (David, 2001)

In the present study the caste was categorized into:

- i) Araiens
- ii) Rajpoot
- iii) Jutt
- iv) Others

### **Marriage**

A contract made in due form of law, by which a free man and a free woman reciprocally engage to live with each other during their joint lives, in union which exist between husband and wife. By the terms freeman and free woman in this definition are meant, not only that they are clear of all bars to lawful marriage.

### **Marital status**

1. Unmarried
2. Married
3. Widow
4. Divorced

### **FAMILY**

The family defined as” a relatively permanent group of people related by ancestry, marriage or adoption, who live together, form an economic unit, and take care of their young once.” (Robertson, 1987).

Family is the group of intimate people emotionally related either by blood, marriage, responsible for the reproduction and rearing of children. For the present study there are two types of families:

#### **Nuclear Family**

Ordinarily nuclear type of family consists of a couple and their children. By nuclear family here the researcher meant husband, wife and their unmarried children living together.

#### **Joint family**

Joint family consists of blood relatives surrounded by a number of married persons and their children. In the present study joint family consisted of brothers, sisters, cousins, grand mother, grand father living in a household with their spouses.

### **Migration**

Migration is defined as any permanent change in residence, involves the detachment from the organization of activities at one place and the total around of activities at one place and the total around of activities to another.(Goldschider, 1971)

### **Migrant**

“Migrant is a person who changes his location in physical space from one country, state a community, involving at the same time change of the social system at origin to the social system at destination.”( Nelson 1960)

### **Limitations**

There is lack of information to justify this study as a complete one. Very little literature was available at the websites and in other printed form and my approach to these concern authorities was not perfect to do a complete study in this subject.

The sample size of this research was also not adequate. The sample in this study consisted of only 150 migrant domestic workers from one town in district Faisalabad. It would have been preferable if we could have conducted study in different towns of this district and the study population could have consisted of a large sample from different parts of the district so that the results could have been generalized to district as a whole.

Another limitation of this study was financial and human resources that was essential to do a complete study on this subject. All research work from the beginning to be done by the single person, which is almost impossible in a perfect research work.

## Chapter-4

### RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Analysis and interpretation of data are the most important steps in scientific research. This chapter is devoted to the description of research findings, including the decisions as to extent to which they conform to the hypotheses.

**The portion of results and discussion categories as following:**

- 1. Socio-economic characteristics**
- 2. Community satisfaction**
- 3. Push Factors**

**Table 1: Percentage distribution of the respondents according to their age.**

<b>Age group</b>	<b>Frequency</b>	<b>Percent</b>
20-25	79	52.7
26-30	2	1.3
31-35	38	25.3
36-40	31	20.7
Total	150	100.0

Table 1 indicates that 52.7 percent of the respondents were in age group of 20-25 years old, 1.3 percent of the respondents were in age group between 26-30 years old, 25.3 percent of the respondents were in age group of 31-35 years old 20.7 percent of the respondents were in the age group of 36-40 years old. Data shows that majority of the respondents i.e. 52.7 percent were in the age group of 20-25 years old.

The results of my study are similar to Minhas (1995) who concluded that young people are more mobile.

**Table 2: Percentage distribution of the respondents regarding their sex.**

<b>Sex</b>	<b>Frequency</b>	<b>Percentage</b>
Male	14	9.3
Female	136	90.7
Total	150	100.0

Table 2 indicates that 9.3 percent of the respondents were male, 90.7 percent of the respondents were female. Data shows that majority of the respondents i.e. 90.7 percent are female migrant domestic workers.

The present study is inconsistent with Zlotnik (2003), according to her it was widely believed that participation of female was negligible in international labor migration in contrast of males.

The present study is same as George (1970) who concluded in the study of Canadian internal migration. According to him in inter-migratory flows, male and females were almost equally represented.

**Table 3: Percentage distribution of the respondents according to their marital status.**

<b>Marital status</b>	<b>Frequency</b>	<b>Percentage</b>
Single	31	20.7
Married	111	74.0
Divorce	8	5.3
Total	150	100.0

Table 3 depicts that 20.7 percents of the respondents were single, 74.0 percents of the respondents were married and 5.3 percents were divorce. Data shows that majority of the respondents 74.0 percent were married.

The results are inconsistent with Flores (2005) that single people are most likely to migrate relative to those married in areas of recent industrialization, where the Mexican Patriarchal system was weaker and economic opportunities for both men and women make post-marital migration less attractive. The present study is same as F.Riosmena (2008) it found that sometimes marriages occurred in the village, and were contracted the old system and to prepare for the migration to the city.

**Table 4: Percentage distribution of the respondents according to their family type before migration.**

<b>Before migration</b>	<b>Frequency</b>	<b>Percentage</b>
Nuclear	14	9.3
Joint	136	90.7
Total	150	100.0

Table 4 reveals that 9.3 percent of the respondents were Nuclear family structure and 90.7 percent of the respondents were joint family structure before migration. Data shows that majority of the respondents 90.7 percent were joint family before migration.

The result is same as Connel et al. (1976) who said that with the respect to family size, in general, migrants from rural villages tended to come from relatively larger families.

**Table 5: Percentage distribution of the respondents regarding their family type after migration.**

<b>After migration</b>	<b>Frequency</b>	<b>Percentage</b>
Nuclear	63	42.0
Joint	87	58.0
Total	150	100.0

Table 6 reveals that 42.0 percent of the respondents were Nuclear family structure and 58.0 percent of the respondents were Joint family structure after migration. Data shows that majority of the respondents 58.0 percent were lived in joint family after migration.

The result is same as Connel *et al.* (1976) who said that with the respect to family size, in general, migrants from rural villages tended to come from relatively larger families.

**Table 6: Percentage distribution of the respondents according to their family size**

<b>Family size</b>	<b>Frequency</b>	<b>Percentage</b>
1-4	48	32.0
5-9	44	29.3
9+	58	38.7
Total	150	100.0

Table 6 indicates that 32.0 percent of the respondents family members were between 1-4, 29.3 percent of the respondents family members were between 5-9, 38.7 percent of the respondents family members were above 9 family members, data shows that major proportion i.e.38.7 percent of the respondents had above 9 family members .

**Table 7: Percentage distribution of the respondents according to their education.**

<b>Education</b>	<b>Frequency</b>	<b>Percentage</b>
Illiterate	97	64.7
Primary	38	25.3
Middle	15	10.0
Total	150	100.0

Table 7 reveals that 64.7 percent of the respondents were Illiterate, 25.3 percent of the respondents had primary education, 10.0 percent of the respondents had Middle education. Data shows that majority of the respondents i.e.64.7 percent of the respondents were Illiterate.

The present study is similar to the study of Demi et al, (2009) in which they concluded that the factors that shape the educational aspirations of rural youth and the forces that determine success in meeting this goal were critical for the future of rural areas and small towns

**Table 8: Percentage distribution of the respondents according to their religion**

Religion	Frequency	Percentage
Muslim	79	52.7
Non Muslim	71	47.3
Total	150	100.0

Table 8 indicates that 52.7 percent of the respondents were Muslim and 47.3 percent of the respondents were Non Muslim. Data shows that majority of the respondent's 52.7 percent were Muslim.

**Table 9: Percentage distribution of the respondents according to their caste.**

Caste	Frequency	Percentage
Araien	22	14.7
Rajput	33	50.7
Jutt	19	12.7
Others	76	22.0
Total	150	100.0

Table 9 indicates that 14.7 percent respondents were Araien by caste, 50.7 percent respondents were Rajput, 12.7 percent respondents were jutt, and 22.0 percent respondents were from other categories. Data shows that majority of the respondents 50.7 percent were Rajput .

The present study is same as Singh and Harison (1996) who stated in multivariate analysis, caste and migration were statistically significant factors which create variation in the community.

**Table 10: Percentage distribution of the respondents according to their monthly income before migration.**

Monthly Income	Frequency	Percentage
1000-4000	8	5.3
5000-10000	126	84.0
11000-15000	14	9.3
21000- and above	2	1.3
Total	150	100.0

Table 10 depicts that 5.3 percent of the respondents monthly income between 1000-4000 Rs, 84.0 percent of the respondents monthly income between 5000-10000 Rs, 9.3 percent of the respondents between 11000-15000 , 1.3 percent of the respondents between 21000-and above before migration.

Table shows that majority of the respondents 84.0 percent were between 5000-10,000 Rs monthly income before migration.

According to Arizpe (1981) and Jakson (1969), they were found majority (65%) reported that they socio-economic factors compel to migrate.

**Table 11: Percentage distribution of the respondents according to their monthly income after migration.**

After migration income	Frequency	Percentage
1000-4000	8	5.3
5000-10000	57	38.0
11000-15000	46	30.7
16000-20000	37	24.7
21000- and above	2	1.3
Total	150	100.0

Table 11 depicts that 5.3 percent of the respondents monthly income between 1000-4000 Rs, 38.0 percent of the respondents monthly income between 5000-10000 Rs, 30.7 percent of the respondents monthly income between 11000-15000 , 24.7 percent of the respondents monthly income between 16000-20,000 Rs, 1.3 percent of the respondents monthly income 21000-and above after migration. Data shows that major proportion i.e. 38.0 of the respondents monthly income were between 5000-10,000 Rs monthly income after migration.

The present study is same According to Arizpe (1981) and Jakson (1969), they were found majority (65%) reported that they socio-economic factors compel to migrate.

**Table 12: Percentage distribution of the respondents according to their purpose of migration.**

Purpose of migration	Frequency	Percentage
Employment	51	34.0
Better standard of life	60	40.0
Education	31	20.7
Others	8	5.3
Total	150	100.0

Table 12 reveals that the purpose of 34.0 percent of the respondents is employment and 40.0 percent is the better standard of life, 20.7 percent of the respondents were education, and 5.3 percent of the respondents were other purpose. Data shows that majority of the respondents 40.0 percent purpose



were better standard of life.

**Table 13: Percentage distribution of the respondents according to the Push factors about their decision of migration.**

<b>Push factors for your decision</b>	<b>Frequency</b>	<b>Percentage</b>
Insufficient income	32	21.3
Natural climate	16	10.7
Unemployment	37	24.7
Family disorganization	29	19.3
Absence of better facilities	11	7.3
Difficulty to live happy	25	16.7
Total	150	100.0

Table 13 illustrates that 21.3 percent of the respondents migrated because of insufficient income, 10.7 percent of the respondents migrated due to Natural climate, 24.7 percent of the respondents migrated due to Unemployment, 19.3 percent of the respondents migrated due to family disorganization, 7.3 percent of the respondents migrated due to absence of better facilities, 16.7 percent of the respondents migrated because they feel difficulty to live happy. Data shows that about 24.7 percent of the respondents migrate due to Unemployment.

The present study is similar to Barker and Robin (1978) stated people move towards the community for jobs, better climate, low taxes, more room and professional opportunities.

**Table 14: Percentage distribution of the respondents according to their Decision of migration.**

<b>Migration Decision</b>	<b>Frequency</b>	<b>Percentage</b>
Head of the family	91	60.7
Yourself	42	28.0
Your husband	17	11.3
Total	150	100.0

Table 14 illustrates that 60.7 percent of the respondents decision of migration by their head of the family, 28.0 percent of the respondents decision of migration by themselves, 11.3 percent of the respondents decision of migration by their husbands. Data shows that majority of the respondents 60.7 percent decision of migration by the head of the family.

Similarly Massey (1998) described that migration decisions were not made by isolated

individual actors, but by larger units (52%) of related people- typically families or households- in which people act collectively not only to maximize risks and to loosen constraints associated with a variety of market failures, apart from those in the labour market.

Friends and relatives who have migrant experience often accompany new immigrants across the border or arrange coyotes. A reduction in migration costs has two main impacts on the decision to migrate (McKenzie and Rapoport 2004).

**Table 15: Percentage distribution of the respondents according to their effect by migration.**

<b>Effect by migration</b>	<b>Frequency</b>	<b>Percentage</b>
Good	34	22.7
Bad	10	6.7
Normal	106	70.7
Total	150	100.0

Table 15 describes that 22.7 percent of the respondents got Good effect by migration , 6.7 percent of the respondents got Bad effect by migration,70.7 percent of the respondents got Normal effect by migration. Data shows that majority of the respondents 70.7 percent got Normal effect by migration on their personality.

The present study is same as Schulze, et al (1986) using chi-square analysis, they found that higher the desire to migrate, lower was the level of community satisfaction.

**Table 16: Percentage distribution of the respondents according to their sources of information.**

<b>Source of information</b>	<b>Frequency</b>	<b>Percentage</b>
Friends	8	5.3
Peer group	38	25.3
Relatives	104	69.3
Total	150	100.0

Table 16 describes that 5.3 percent of the respondents got information about job opportunities from their friends,25.3 percent of the respondents got information by their peer group,69.3 percent of the respondents got information by their relatives. Data shows that majority of the respondents 69.3 percent got information by their relatives.

Espinosa and Massey (1997) report that social networks play an important role in mitigating the hazards of crossing the border.

Similarly Massey (1998) described that migration decisions were not made by isolated individual actors, but by larger units (52%) of related people- typically families or households- in which people act collectively not only to maximize risks and to loosen constraints associated with a variety of market failures, apart from those in the labour market.

**Table 17: Percentage distribution of the respondents according to their difficulties.**

<b>Type of difficulties</b>	<b>Frequency</b>	<b>Percentage</b>
Security	16	10.7
Respect	102	68.0
Residence	32	21.3
Total	150	100.0

Table 17 depicts that 10.7 percent of the respondents face difficulty in security, 68.0 percent of the respondents face difficulty in respect, 21.3 percent respondents feel difficulty in Residence. Data shows that majority of the respondents 68.0 percent face difficulty due to their self respect.

**Table 18: Percentage distribution of the respondents according to their accommodation by their owners.**

<b>Do your owners accommodate you</b>	<b>Frequency</b>	<b>Percentage</b>
To a great extent	35	23.3
To some extent	75	50.0
Not at all	40	26.7
Total	150	100.0

Table 18 depicts that 23.3 percent of the respondents got accommodation by their owners To a great extent, 50.0 percent of the respondents got accommodation by their owners To some extent, 26.7 percent of the respondents did not get accommodation by their owners. Data shows that majority of the respondents 50.0 percent got accommodation To some extent.

**Table 19: Percentage distribution of the respondents according to the type of help they expect from their owners.**

<b>Type of help they expect</b>	<b>Frequency</b>	<b>Percentage</b>
Food	32	21.3

Education	61	40.7
Health facilities	18	12.0
Shelter	10	6.7
Clothes	29	19.3
Total	150	100.0

Table 19 depicts that 21.3 percent of the respondents expect food help from their owners, 40.0 percent of the respondents expect Education help from their owners, 12.0 percent of the respondents expect Health facilities from their owners, 6.7 percent of the respondents expect shelter from their owners, 19.3 percent of the respondents expect clothes help from their owners. Data shows that about 40.7 percent of the respondents expect Education help from their owners.

**Table 20: Percentage distribution of the respondents according to the wages .**

Wages	Frequency	Percentage
Yes	54	36.0
No	96	64.0
Total	150	100.0

Table 20 depicts that 36.0 percent of the respondents get their wages, 64.0 percent of the respondents do not get their wages. Data shows that majority of the respondents 64.0 percent do not get their wages.

**Table 21: Percentage distribution of the respondents according to the help in difficulties by their owners.**

Get help in difficulties	Frequency	Percentage
Yes	89	59.3
No	61	40.7
Total	150	100.0

Table 21 depicts that 59.3 percent of the respondents get help in difficulties from their owners, 40.7 percent of the respondents do not get help in difficulties from their owners. Data shows that majority of the respondents 59.3 percent get help in difficulties from their owners.

**Table 22: Percentage distribution of the respondents according to their vacations.**

<b>Vacations</b>	<b>Frequency</b>	<b>Percentage</b>
Yes	61	40.7
No	89	59.3
Total	150	100.0

Table 22 depicts that 40.0 percent of the respondents get vacations from their owners ,59.3 percent of the respondents do not get vacations from their owners. Data shows that majority of the respondents 59.3 percent do not get vacations.

**Table 23: Percentage distribution of the respondents according to their recreations.**

<b>Recreations</b>	<b>Frequency</b>	<b>Percentage</b>
Yes	61	40.7
No	89	59.3
Total	150	100.0

Table 23 depicts that 40.0 percent of the respondents get recreations sources from their owners ,59.3 percent of the respondents do not get recreations from their owners. Data shows that majority of the respondents 59.3 percent do not get help in recreations sources from their owners.

**Table 24: Percentage distribution of the respondents according to their satisfaction with their present work.**

<b>Satisfied</b>	<b>Frequency</b>	<b>Percentage</b>
To a great extent	75	50.0
To some extent	63	42.0
Not at all	12	8.0
Total	150	100.0

Table 24 depicts that 50.0 percent of the respondents were satisfied with their present work To a great extent, 42.0 percent of the respondents were satisfied To some extent, 8.0 percent of the respondents were not satisfied with their present work. Data shows that majority of the respondents 50.0 percent were satisfied To a great extent.

The present study is same as Schulze, et al (1986) using chi-square analysis, they found that higher the desire to migrate, lower was the level of community satisfaction.

**Table 25: Percentage distribution of the respondents according to the change by migration**

<b>Change</b>	<b>Frequency</b>	<b>Percentage</b>
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Positive	108	72.0
Negative	42	28.0
Total	150	100.0

Table 25 describes that 72.0 percent of the respondents got Positive effect by migration , 28.0 percent of the respondents got Negative effect by migration, Data shows that majority of the respondents 72.0 percent got Positive effect by migration.

**Table 26: Percentage distribution of the respondents according to their condition of houses before migration.**

Condition of houses before migration	Frequency	Percentage
Kacha	74	49.3
Paka	76	50.7
Total	150	100.0

Table 26 describes that 49.3 percent of the respondents had kacha houses before migration, 50.7 percent of the respondents had paka houses before migration, Data shows that majority of the respondents 50.0 percent had paka houses before migration.

**Table 27: Percentage distribution of the respondents according to the condition of houses after migration.**

After migration	Frequency	Percentage
Kacha	8	5.3
Paka	142	94.7
Total	150	100.0

Table 27 describes that 5.3 percent of the respondents had kacha houses after migration , 94.7 percent of the respondents had paka houses after migration, Data shows that majority of the respondents 94.7 percent had paka houses after migration.

The present study is similar to (Humeera Sattar,2009) concluded that all of the respondent had paka houses after the migration of their immigrant.

**Table 28: Percentage distribution of the respondents according to their social contacts in their new community.**

Social contact	Frequency	Percentage
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Yes	85	56.7
No	65	43.3
Total	150	100.0

Table 28 depicts that 56.7 percent of the respondents had social contacts in their new community, 43.3 percent of the respondents did not have social contacts in their new community. Data shows that a majority of the respondents, 56.7 percent, had social contacts in their new community.

Espinosa and Massey (1997) report that social networks play an important role in mitigating the hazards of crossing the border.

**Table 29: Percentage distribution of the respondents according to the motivation about migration.**

Motivated to migrate	Frequency	Percentage
Family	65	43.3
Friends	24	16.0
Relatives	61	40.7
Total	150	100.0

Table 28 describes that 43.3 percent of the respondents were motivated by their family, 16.0 percent of the respondents were motivated by their friend and 40.7 percent were by their relatives. Data shows that about 43.3 percent of the respondents were motivated by their family.

Similarly Massey (1998) described that migration decisions were not made by isolated individual actors, but by larger units (52%) of related people- typically families or households- in which people act collectively not only to maximize risks and to loosen constraints associated with a variety of market failures, apart from those in the labour market.

**Table 30: Percentage distribution of the respondents according to the number of houses in which they are working.**

<b>Numbers of houses</b>	<b>Frequency</b>	<b>Percentage</b>
1-2	94	62.7
3-4	56	37.3
Total	150	100.0

Table 30 depicts that 62.7 percent of the respondents were working in 1-2 houses, 37.3 percent of the respondents were working in 3-4 houses. Table shows that about majority of the respondents 62.7 percent were working in 1-2 houses.

**Table 31: Percentage distribution of the respondents according to their duties which they performed in houses.**

<b>Duties</b>	<b>Frequency</b>	<b>Percentage</b>
Dusting	31	20.7
Washing	65	43.3
Clothing	28	18.7
All these	26	17.3
Total	150	100.0

Table 31 illustrates that 20.7 percent of the respondents were performed the duty of dusting in houses, 43.3 percent of the respondents were dish washers ,18.7 percent of the respondents were clothing,17.3 percent of the respondents were performed all these duties. Data shows that about 43.3 percent of the respondents were dish washers.

**Table 32: Percentage distribution of the respondents according to their facilities in their residence.**

<b>Facility of sui gas</b>	<b>Frequency</b>	<b>Percentage</b>
Yes	102	68.0
No	48	32.0
Total	150	100.0

Table 32 describes that 68.0 percent of the respondents had the facility of sui gas in their residence, and 32.0 percent of the respondents did not had the facility of sui gas. Data shows that



majority of the respondents 68.0 percent had the facility of sui gas in their new community.

**Table 33: Percentage distribution of the respondents according to their work alone or other family members.**

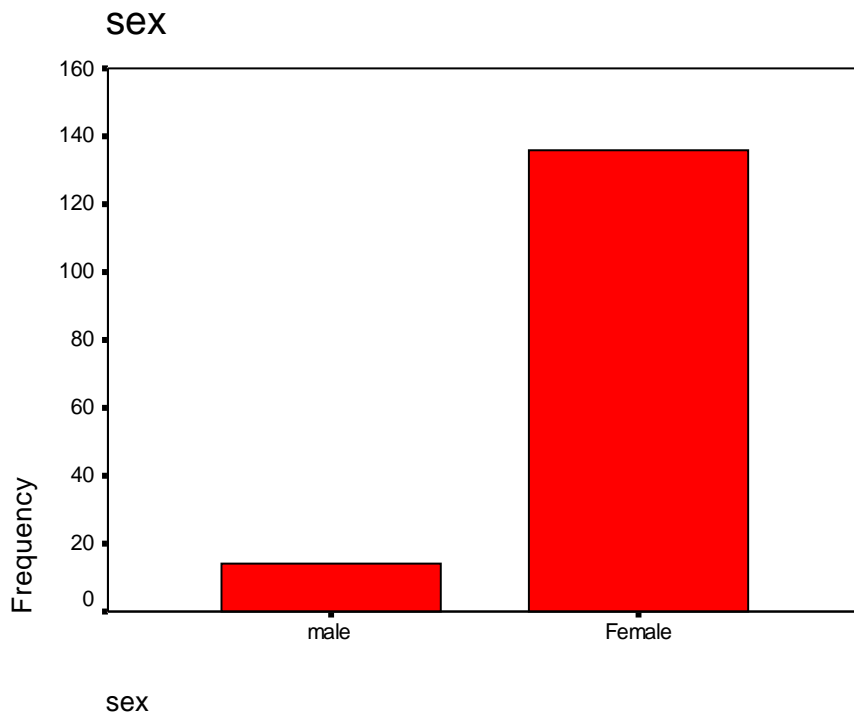
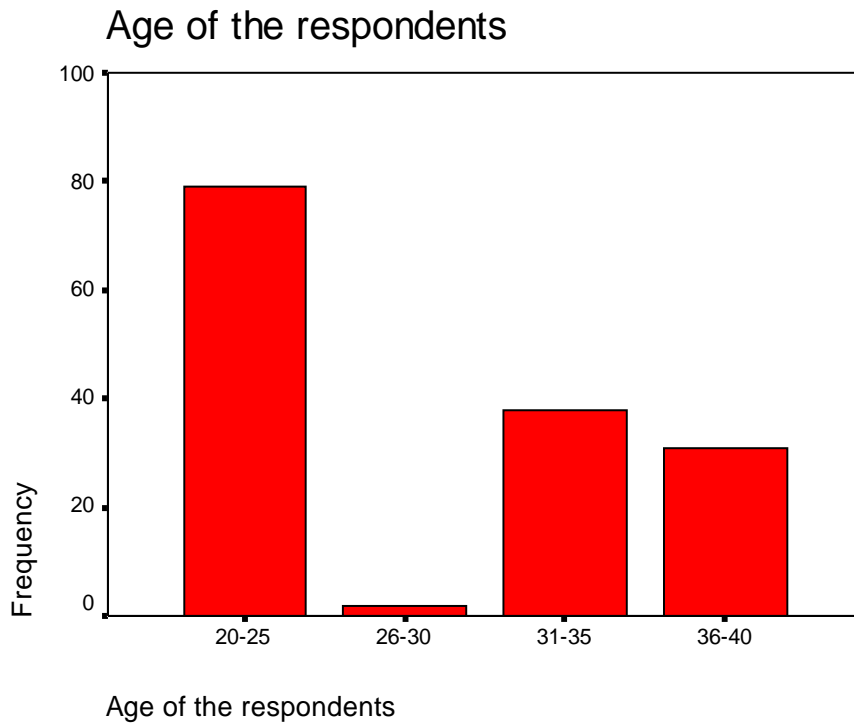
<b>Work alone</b>	<b>Frequency</b>	<b>Percentage</b>
Alone	47	31.3
Family members	103	68.7
Total	150	100.0

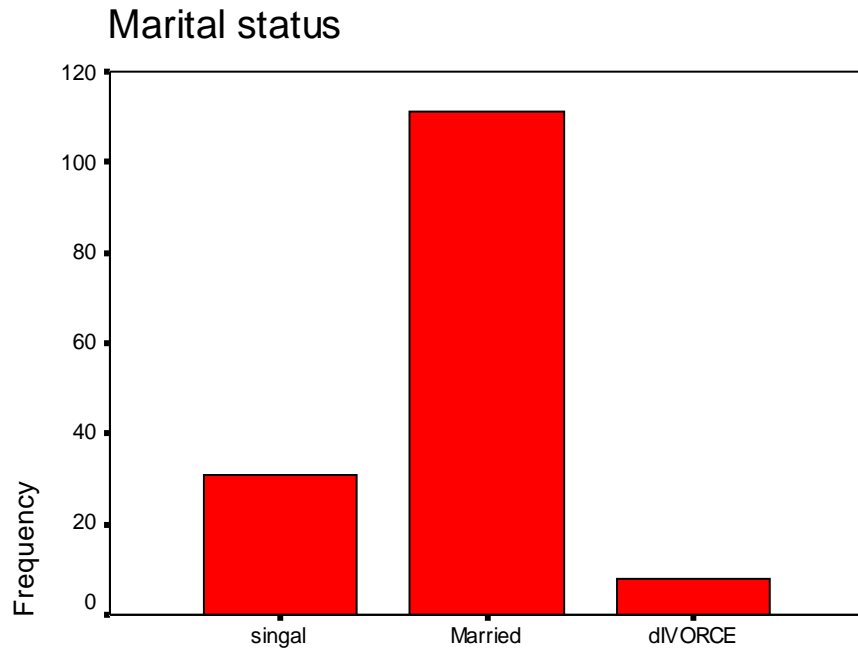
Table 33 describes that 31.3 percent of the respondents worked alone, and 68.7 percent of the respondents did not had the facility of sui gas. Data shows that majority of the respondents 68.0 percent had the facility of sui gas in their new community.

**Table 34: Percentage distribution of the respondents according to their visits in their old residence.**

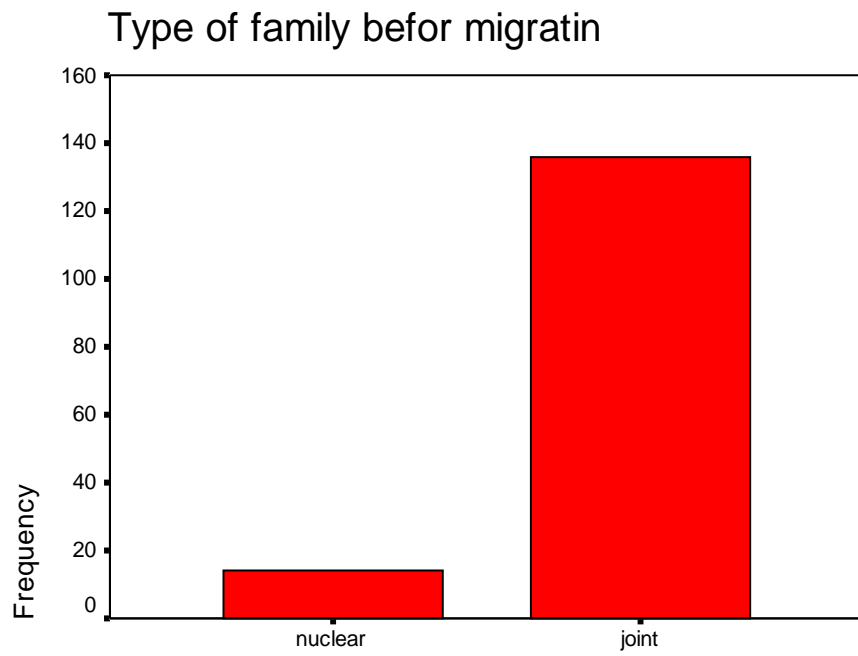
<b>Visit</b>	<b>Frequency</b>	<b>Percentage</b>
Yes	58	38.7
No	92	61.3
Total	150	100.0

Table 34 describes that 38.7 percent of the respondents visited in their old residence, and 61.3 percent of the respondents did not visit in their old residence. Data shows that majority of the respondents 61.3 percent did not visit their old residence.

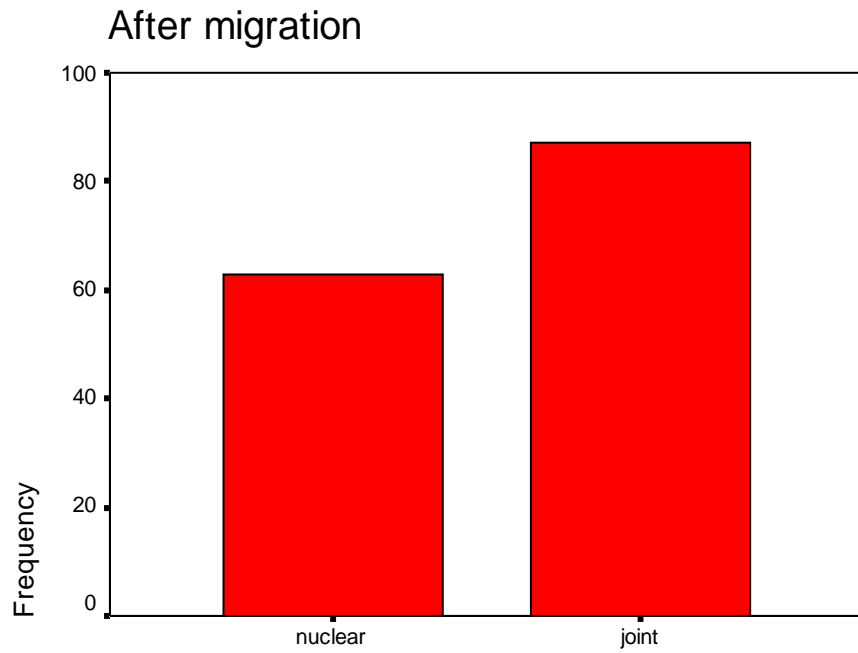




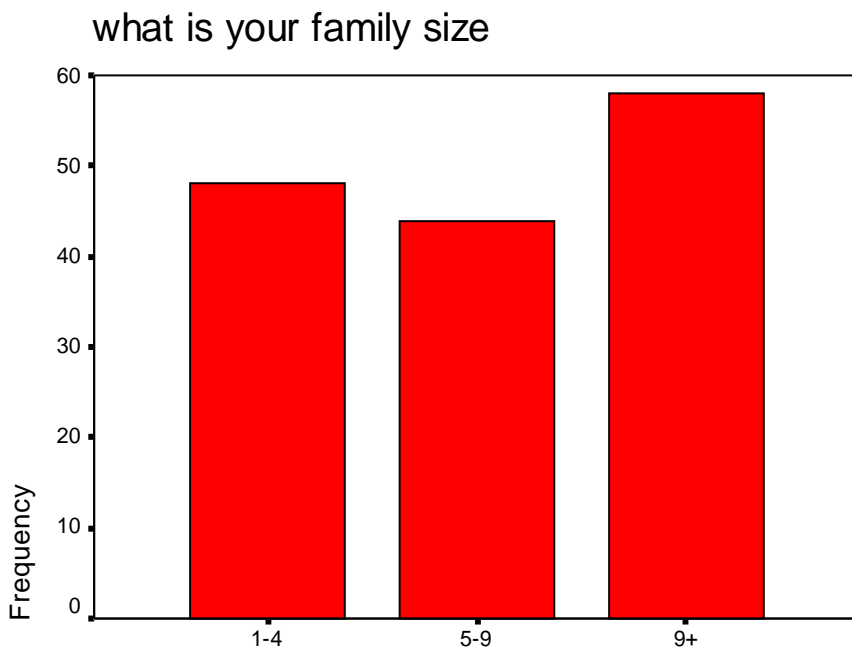
Marital status



Type of family befor migratin



After migration



what is your family size

## TESTING OF HYPOTHESES

**Hypothesis 1:** Young domestic workers faced more problems as compare to old domestic workers.

**Table 34:** Association between age of the respondents and facing problems due to their work.

Age of the respondents	Problems			Total
	Low	Medium	High	
UP to 25	10	29	40	79
	12.7%	36.7%	50.6%	100.0%
26-35	6	8	26	40
	15.0%	20.0%	65.0%	100.0%
36 and above	17	8	6	31
	54.8%	25.8%	19.4%	100.0%
Total	33	45	72	150
	22.0%	30.0%	48.0%	100.0%

Chi-square = 29.72 d.f. = 4      Significance = .00\*\*

Gamma = -.324

The chi-square value (29.72) shows a highly significant ( $P = .00$ ) association between age of the respondents and they facing problem due to their work. The gamma value shows a strong negative relationship between the variables. Above table clearly reflects that young respondents had more problems as compare to old respondents. So the hypothesis “Young domestic workers faced more problems as compare to old domestic workers” is accepted.

**Hypothesis 2: Married domestic workers faced more problems as compare to unmarried workers.**

**Table 35: Association between marital status of the respondents and facing problems due to their work.**

Marital status	Problems			Total
	Low	Medium	High	
Single	18	8	5	31
	58.1%	25.8%	16.1%	100.0%
Married	13	35	63	111
	11.7%	31.5%	56.8%	100.0%
Divorced	2	2	4	8
	25.0%	25.0%	50.0%	100.0%
Total	33	45	72	150
	22.0%	30.0%	48.0%	100.0%

Chi-square = 32.37 d.f. = 4      Significance = .00\*\*      Gamma = .578

The chi-square value (32.37) indicates a highly significant ( $P = .00$ ) association between marital status of the respondents and they facing problem due to their work. The gamma value shows a positive relationship between the variables. Above table clearly indicates that majority (58.1%) of unmarried respondents had low level problem on the other hand married (56.8%) faced high level problems and also divorced workers faced more problems as compare to single or unmarried respondents. So the hypothesis “Married domestic workers faced more problems as compare to unmarried workers” is accepted.

**Hypothesis 3: Higher the education of the respondents, lower was the facing problem due to their work.**

**Table 36: Association between education of the respondents and facing problems due to their work.**

Education	Problems			Total
	Low	Medium	High	
Illiterate	5	31	61	97
	5.2%	32.0%	62.9%	100.0%
Primary	20	10	8	38
	52.6%	26.3%	21.1%	100.0%
Middle	8	4	3	15
	53.3%	26.7%	20.0%	100.0%
Total	33	45	72	150
	22.0%	30.0%	48.0%	100.0%

Chi-square = 48.41 d.f. = 4      Significance = .00\*\*      Gamma = -.700

The chi-square value (48.41) shows a highly significant ( $P = .00$ ) association between education of the respondents and they facing problem due to their work. The gamma value shows a negative relationship between the variables. Above table also indicates that majority (62.9%) of illiterate respondents were facing high problems on the other hand majority of the educated respondents were facing low level problems due to their work. So the hypothesis “Higher the education of the respondents, lower was the facing problem due to their work” is accepted.

**Hypothesis 4: Higher the income of the respondents, lower was the facing problem due to their work.**

**Table 37: Association between income of the respondents and facing problems due to their work.**

Income (Rs.)	Problems			Total
	Low	Medium	High	
Up to 10000	5	16	44	65
	7.7%	24.6%	67.7%	100.0%
10001-15000	7	19	20	46
	15.2%	41.3%	43.5%	100.0%
Above 15000	21	10	8	39
	53.8%	25.6%	20.5%	100.0%
Total	33	45	72	150
	22.0%	30.0%	48.0%	100.0%

Chi-square = 39.40 d.f. = 4      Significance = .01\*      Gamma = -.394

The chi-square value (39.40) shows a significant ( $P = .01$ ) association between monthly income of the respondents and they facing problem due to their work. The gamma value shows a negative relationship between the variables. Its mean if the income washigh than their problems waslow. So the hypothesis “Higher the income of the respondents, lower wasthe facing problem due to their work” is accepted.



## CHAPTER-5

### SUMMARY

Movement of people from one place in the world to another for the purpose of taking up permanent or semi permanent residence is migration. The process of moving from the use of one operating environment to another operating environment that is, in most cases, is thought to be a better one is also migration in information technology.

Migration occurs at a variety of scales:

Intercontinental (between continents)

Intercontinental (between countries on a given continent)

Interregional (within countries).

One of the most significant migration patterns has been rural to urban migration—the movement of people from the countryside to cities in search of opportunities.

A domestic worker is someone who works within the employer's household. Domestic workers perform a variety of household services for an individual or a family, from providing care for children and elderly dependents to cleaning and household maintenance, known as housekeeping. Responsibilities may also include cooking, doing laundry and ironing, food shopping and other household errands. Some domestic workers live within the household where they work.

The conditions faced by domestic workers have varied considerably throughout history and in the contemporary world. In the course of twentieth-century movements for labor rights, and immigrant rights, the conditions faced by domestic workers and the problems specific to their class of employment have come to the fore.

Servant is an older English term for "domestic worker", though not all servants worked inside the home. Domestic service, or the employment of people for wages in their employer's residence, was sometimes simply called "service". It evolved into a hierarchical system in various countries at various times.

Domestic work cannot just be analyzed using the terminology of migration theories following the rationale of a global push-pull model in which demand in one part of the world leads to supply from less developed areas with surplus labor.

Most of the women migrant workers are engaged as a domestic worker and that is completely the informal sector. Government has not developed a scheme to provide Skills that

is essential to work in informal sector and even the trainees are also not Sincere to get appropriate training that requires to them.

The aim of the present study was to investigate the causes of Migration of Domestic Workers and to investigate the issues and problems of migrant domestic workers. The present study was conducted in the areas of university of Agriculture Faisalabad, in District Faisalabad. From District Faisalabad a town Lyallpur was selected through simple randomly technique from the four towns of Faisalabad. The sample of 150 respondents were selected conveniently. The respondents were migrant domestic workers. A comprehensive questionnaire was prepared in the light of research objectives. The data were analyzed by using statistical technique.

## **MAIN FINDINGS**

- Majority of the respondents i.e. 52.7 percent were in the age group of 20-25 years old.
- Majority of the respondents i.e. 90.7 percent are female migrant domestic workers.
- Majority of the respondents 74.0 percent were married.
- Majority of the respondents 90.7 percent were joint family before migration.
- Majority of the respondents 58.0 percent were lived in joint family after migration.
- Major proportion i.e.38.7 percent of the respondents had above 9 family members majority of the respondents i.e.64.7 percent of the respondents were Illiterate.
- Majority of the respondent's 52.7 percent were Muslim.
- Majority of the respondents 50.7 percent were rajput by caste.
- Majority of the respondents 84.0 percent were between 5000-10,000 Rs monthly income before migration.
- Major proportion i.e. 38.0 of the respondents monthly income were between 5000-10,000 Rs monthly income before migration.
- Majority of the respondents 40.0 percent purpose were better standard of life
- about 24.7 percent of the respondents migrate due to Unemployment.
- Majority of the respondents 60.7 percent decision of migration
- by the head of the family
- Majority of the respondents 70.7 percent got Normal effect by migration on their personality.

- Majority of the respondents 69.3 percent got information by their relatives.
- Majority of the respondents 68.0 percent face difficulty due to their self respect.
- Majority of the respondents 50.0 percent got accommodation To some extent
- About 40.7 percent of the respondents expect Education help from their owners.
- Majority of the respondents 64.0 percent do not get their wages.
- Majority of the respondents 59.3 percent get help in difficulties from their owners.
- Majority of the respondents 59.3 percent do not get vacations.
- Majority of the respondents 59.3 percent do not get help in recreations sources from their owners.
- Majority of the respondents 50.0 percent were satisfied To a great extent
- Majority of the respondents 72.0 percent got Positive effect by migration.
- Majority of the respondents 50.0 percent had paka houses before migration.
- Majority of the respondents 94.7 percent had paka houses after migration.
- Majority of the respondents 56.7 percent had social contacts in their new community.
- About 43.3 percent of the respondents were motivated by their family.
- Majority of the respondents 62.7 percent were working in 1-2 houses.
- about 43.3 percent of the respondents were dish washers.
- Majority of the respondents 68.0 percent had the facility of sui gas in their new community.
- Majority of the respondents 68.0 percent had the facility of sui gas in their new community.
- Majority of the respondents 61.3 percent did not visit their old residence.
- Young domestic workers faced more problems as compare to old domestic workers.
- Married domestic workers faced more problems as compare to unmarried workers.
- Higher the education of the respondents, lower was the facing problem due to their work.
- Higher the income of the respondents, lower was the facing problem due to their work.

## **CONCLUSIONS**

This study was designed to examine the causes and effects of migration of domestic workers and to investigate the problems of domestic workers. Age, marital status and education were used as independent variables. Age was found strongly associated with migration. The relationship between age and facing problems was found strongly positive and association was significant. Education was found to be positively related with the problems of migrant domestic workers. This relationship was found to be very strong and association was highly significant. It was found to be positive relationship between marital status and the migrant domestic workers. There was a highly significant association between marital status of the respondents and they facing problem due to their work. It was found negative relationship between monthly income and they facing problems due to their work. Its mean if the income was high than their problems was low.

## **SUGGESTIONS**

- There should be a law which will protect the rights of the migrated domestic workers.
- They should provide residence free of costs with little amount of wages.
- Govt. should increase the employment opportunities so their husbands and family members can get good jobs which will increase their monthly income.
- The people or owners should give the respect and security to their domestic workers.
- Owners should fulfill their rights.

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