# A STUDY ON WOMENS EXPLOITATION, POVERTY AND MIGRATION

**Dr Pramod Pandharinath. Waghmare**
*Assistant Professor, M.S.P. Mandals S.S.R.A. Law College,*
*Opp : S.T Workshop,Barshi Road Beed, drpramodwaghmare23@gmail.com*
*PramodWaghmare23@Gmail.com*

**Abstract:** Poverty can be important for achieving the third Millennium Development Goal – to promote gender equality and empower women, as a way of enhancing economic growth and reducing poverty. But also about empowerment, opportunity, capacity and security of poor people, which are also important causes and effects of migration. Migration can result from poverty, but it is not always the poorest who migrate, because of the costs and opportunities involved. And poverty may result from migration, both for the migrants in destination locations and the families left behind, often mostly affecting women and children. At the same time, female migration can indirectly help alleviate poverty by raising the productivity, education and health of the females and their families, all key to reducing inequality and poverty in the home. Overarching this is a general deficit of evidence on the exact impact of migration and remittances on poverty. I will look at some gendered aspects of the determinants, processes and impacts of migration, because poverty can play a role at each of these stages of the migration. Migration increasingly offers women education and career opportunities that may not be available, or be denied them, at home, as well as alternatives to marriage, the traditional role of home carer (even though it is often home care that the women engage in abroad) and some of the more negative cultural practices regarding women (such as genital cutting). Migration as a transforming experience can improve or worsen the position of women in families and society. It can also do that for men, but often not in a way that is as gender specific.

**Keywords:** Gender, Human Trafficking , Migration , Poverty.

**Introduction:** Gender inequality can permeate the decision, process and impacts of migration, as well as the networks and support systems that play a key role at all stages of migration (UNGA, 2004). But migration can also help reconfigure gendered relations, particularly by offering more women the opportunity to enter the global labour market. Migration can result from poverty, but it is not always the poorest that migrate, because of the costs and opportunities involved .And poverty may result from migration, both for the migrants in destination locations and the families left behind, often mostly affecting women and children. At the same time, female migration can indirectly help alleviate poverty by raising the productivity, education and health of the females and their families, all key to reducing inequality and poverty in the home. But evidence of the positive impacts of migration on poverty remains scanty. Firstly, a number of developing countries with high poverty levels have no significant studies on migration, poverty and livelihoods let alone gender analyses in that field. Secondly, most immigrant-receiving countries do not consider the gender implications of their immigration policies and programs, and thirdly most migration literature to date has been gender indifferent, 1 or given it a male bias. Overarching this is a general deficit of evidence on the exact impact of migration and remittances on poverty. I will look at some gendered aspects of the determinants, processes and impacts of migration, because poverty can play a role at each of these stages of the migration. The main focus is on impacts, because there seems to be more. The gender distribution among migrants today is reasonably balanced, with almost 50 percent of the global migrant population today being female, although the increase has been mainly in the developed world. Between 1970 and 2000 the numbers declined in Asia (46.6% to 43.3%) and North America (51.1% to 50.3%), but rose in Africa 42.7% to 46.7%), Oceania (46.5% to 50.5%), Latin America and the Caribbean (46.8% to 50.2%) and Europe (48% to 51%). But these statistics on recorded migrant populations do not reveal the true numbers of movements, particularly within countries and regions. We do know that in most developing regions more females are

migrating independently, i.e. not just as dependants or family members, and more are making a difference for development

Our perception of international migration is that it was predominantly a male phenomenon during the large labour movements of the 60s and 70s in Europe and the US, with women and children following in secondary waves of family reunification in the 1980s and1990s. But by the 1990s, women were migrating in far higher numbers, both as family members and independently, voluntarily or involuntarily. In the Philippines, Indonesia and Sri Lanka, female migrants account for 60-80 percent of their labour migrants 73 percent for the Philippines and Indonesia in 2002; and currently two-thirds of overseas contract workers for Sri Lanka.

In China in the 1990s, women moved both internally and internationally predominantly for family reasons; because of the strong cultural bias towards the nuclear family and patriarchalism (despite the government's commitment to sexual equality) many migrant women seize the opportunity to buy land or real estate with their earnings (e.g. Indian and Filipina migrants). Many tend to remit more of their earnings then men, and to exercise control of their household income by ensuring the remittances are spent on food and clothes for the family back home

For many poor women, migration has strengthened their agency within structures that normally offer them few opportunities. And lesser paid, lesser regarded occupations like domestic work or sex work have enabled them to carve out spaces for control and influence at home and in the community. In Kerala, India, in the 1990s, the so-called "gulf wives" left behind by male emigrants were found to experience loneliness and too high a work burden at home. But today, they and their daughters form a new generation of self-confident, independent female managers in Kerala. Migration increasingly offers women education and career opportunities that may not be available, or be denied them, at home, as well as alternatives to marriage, the traditional role of home carer (even though it is often home care that the women engage in abroad) and some of the more negative cultural practices regarding women (such as genital cutting)

Migration as a transforming experience can improve or worsen the position of women in families and society. It can also do that for men, but often not in a way that is as gender specific. It is important to note that while statistics under-represent the number of females who migrate, they tell us even less about the number who ultimately end up in the workforce, Gender, Poverty Reduction and Migration

A gender analysis of migration looks beyond simple differences in migration behaviour between men and women – such as the likelihood and type of migration – and examines the inequalities underlying those differences. It looks at how these are shaped by the social and cultural contexts of the individual, and the influence that membership of social groups and economic and political conditions can have on decisions about migration. The household theory about migration decisions being taken rationally by families was an important departure from earlier neoclassical economic theories of migration. It recognizes that the relative control over resources exercised by men and women has a significant and often gender differentiated impact on family consumption and expenditure.

Migration can result from poverty, but it is not always the poorest who migrate, because of the costs and opportunities involved .And poverty may result from migration, both for the migrants in destination locations and the families left behind, often mostly affecting women and children. At the same time, female migration can indirectly help alleviate poverty by raising the productivity, education and health of the females and their families, all key to reducing inequality and poverty in the home. But evidence of the positive impacts of migration on poverty remains scanty. Firstly, a number of developing countries with high poverty levels have no significant studies on migration, poverty and livelihoods let alone gender analyses in that field. Secondly, most immigrant-receiving countries do not consider the gender implications of their immigration policies and programs, and thirdly most migration literature to date has been gender indifferent, 1 or given it a male bias. Overarching this is a general deficit of evidence on the exact impact of migration and remittances on poverty. I will look at some gendered aspects of the

determinants, processes and impacts of migration, because poverty can play a role at each of these stages of the migration.

Migration as a transforming experience can improve or worsen the position of women in families and society. It can also do that for men, but often not in a way that is as gender specific. It is important to note that while statistics under-represent the number of females who migrate, they tell us even less about the number who ultimately end up in the workforce, regardless of how they migrated. The increase in female migration has several explanations, among them the trans-globalization of economies, which has created a labour demand in low paying service sectors of developed economies. In many developed countries, the combination of demographic change, and growing participation of women in the workforce.

Health can also be an important determinant of migration by the poor and an adverse effect of migration, as discussed later. In the poorest countries, disease (malaria, TB and particularly HIV) is affecting agriculture, changing and reducing crop yields, and directly affecting the work of women. This is causing them to move elsewhere for survival, although we need more information on the scale and implications of this. But the health sectors of developed countries are also increasingly drawing women and men from poorer regions into the global labour markets, as populations age and labour supply diminishes in the critical health care services.

Developing country policies related to demographic planning, such as the “one child” policy in China, or the cultural bias towards male children in India, have shifted the gender balance sufficiently in those countries to attract both voluntary and involuntary migration of women (mostly internal) to redress these imbalances Some governments have attempted to control female migration in order to protect their citizens from abuse abroad (e.g. Bangladesh, Pakistan, Philippines, Vietnam), but these have only driven migrants urgently needing an income into more risky, clandestine forms of migration. Where labour recruiting agencies are not sufficiently monitored by governments, migrants can also be at the mercy of unscrupulous and abusive practices that are often gender-specific

Immigration policies can unintentionally reinforce traditional gender roles. For example, if the legal status of a female spouse is dependent on the male partner, then if there is spousal abuse, the female is usually liable to deportation, unless a special visa category is introduced to protect her independently. Gendered labour niches With the primary shift in labour demand in most developed countries from industrial to service sectors, highly gendered niches have appeared in some sectors (domestic work, health, child and aged care), that are likely to be more female dominated. Export-oriented industrialization driven by foreign direct investment, particularly in the larger growth economies in Asia, but also in Latin America and Africa, is drawing females from depressed rural areas to textile and garments factories, and into domestic caring jobs in the cities.

Rich countries are increasingly dependent on migrant women in the domestic, health, entertainment and textile sectors. 90 percent of all Asian migrant workers in Hong Kong are foreign domestic workers; 30 percent of the total migrant labour force in Singapore. Most are from Indonesia and the Philippines. Trafficking in Persons Clandestine cross-border migration can involve gross forms of human rights abuse, which in turn can undercut the benefits both of migration and development efforts. If age, minority ethnicity, gender and location are major factors in determining poverty, they are also key factors for trafficking in persons. Trafficking mostly targets people in vulnerable, low income, socially deprived circumstances, mostly women, children and minority groups in developing countries and countries in economic transition – often from depressed rural areas
Child trafficking is demand-driven where there is a huge market for cheap labour and sex and insufficient legal frameworks or trained authorities to prevent it UNICEF estimates that in West and Central Africa up to 200,000 children are trafficked annually.

Endemic rural poverty often causes poor families to sell their children to traffickers, in the hope of improving their life chances. In South Asia, two of the most poverty-stricken countries, Nepal and

Bangladesh, are the major source countries (along with Sri Lanka) (ibid). Demographic gaps such as the dearth of females in certain parts of India, or in China as a result of the one-child policy are another demand factor in developing countries

Trafficking can help irretrievably deplete a developing country of its human capital, reduce the returns to the home country through remittances and in many cases lead to the breakdown of families through neglect of children (a large percentage of trafficked women in have children) and the aged It can reduce the availability of family members to care for the elderly, and force children to work, denying them education and reinforcing the illiteracy and poverty cycle that hinder development efforts. It can also pose a threat and cost to public health, also when victims of trafficking return home. The human and economic costs of unattended health problems of trafficked persons, particularly in the sex industry, and given the often unsanitary conditions under which trafficked persons work and live, are immeasurable

Migrants (particularly females) tend to have higher unemployment rates in Europe; and by not benefiting from language and skills training, their chances of finding work or improving their employment situation are reduced. Poverty is also a problem among migrants in certain destinations, including in developed countries, particularly in migrant and ethnic ghettoes in urban slum areas, where they suffer segregation, unemployment and lack of access to mainstream welfare services. Within countries of origin this can be a function of the labour market dynamics between rural and urban regions (e.g. Nepal, Somalia, and Vietnam).

**Conclusion:** The Immoral traffic (Prevention Act) 1956 is important legislation to control the human trafficking and also it is important to control the crime of female trafficking. Migration is also to be controlled because it leads to various issues and therefore the females should be saved from those issues.

**References:**

1. "The Global Dimensions of Female Migration", Migration Information Source, MPI, Washington, D.C. 18regardless of how they migrated (Carling, 2005).
2. "The Effects of Migration on Child Health in Mexico", Department of Economics, Stanford University, Stanford. ILO (International Labour Organization), 2002, A Future without Child Labour, Geneva.
3. "Migration patterns and policies in the Asian and Pacific Region", Asian Population Studies, Series No. 160, United Nations, New York.
4. "Social, Economic and Demographic Consequences of Migration on Kerala", International Migration, Vol. 39
5. "Migration and Pro Poor Policy in East Africa", Working Paper C7, Sussex Centre for Migration Research, University of Sussex, Brighton.

***