

Master Thesis

Gender differences in Migration and Remittances behaviour in Bangkok, Thailand



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Abstract

Migration is a very important part of society. Internal migration is less researched than international migration, but the impact of internal migration is considerable. In this thesis I focus on personal characteristics and flows of migration and remittances to and from Bangkok. I want to find out what trends are noticeable over the last 15 years in relation to migration in Thailand and particularly to Bangkok. I will use datasets from the migration surveys from 1995 – 2009 obtained by the National Statistical Office together with Mahidol university in Bangkok, in order to answer my research questions.

Thai population has grown faster than the Bangkok population. The number of migrants is greatly declining over the past 15 years. More males than females migrate, but towards Bangkok more females than males migrate. Most people migrate in order to go home, but toward Bangkok most people migrate to find work, men even more than women. Only a small number of migrants in Thailand and Bangkok are international migrants. Most migrants to Bangkok come from a non-municipal area, mainly from the north (-east). Most migrants are working, but way less men than women are household workers. Female migrants are higher educated than male migrants, and this difference is increasing. There is a downward trend in the number of single migrants, especially for female migrants. Most migrants in Thailand do not remit (80%), mostly because they have no money to remit, or because they have no-one to send a remittance to. More males than females remit in Thailand. From Bangkok 40% of the people do remit however, which is substantially more, and more females remit from Bangkok than males. Most remittances are geared towards the parents, this is true for Bangkok and the whole kingdom.

Key words:

Thailand, Bangkok, Internal migration, Gender, Remittances

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1. Introduction

1.1 Background

Migration is one of the most important components in population composition. Changes in migration flows and composition have a direct impact on sending and receiving societies. Of course internal migration differs from international migration because the total number of inhabitants will stay the same regardless of the numbers involved in internal migration, but nevertheless the impact on sub-regions is considerable. Also the personal characteristics of incoming and outgoing internal migrants can have an effect on the growth rate of a region. There could be different reasons for a internal migrant to make the decision to migrate and when migrated, whether to send remittances or not. Various factors, such as marital status, education purposes, employment etc. could all influence the decision. I am interested what the composition of migrants is regarding these factors. The most important focus will therefore be in the direction of demographic variables such as age, sex, marital status, education, occupation and place of origin.

1.2 Research Objectives

The research objectives in this thesis are to find out what are the main characteristics of internal migrants in Thailand moving to the capital city of Bangkok. This study will examine if there are significant differences in the characteristics in a gendered point of view, and if these characteristics have evolved over time into a different pattern. In this thesis I will also observe if there are differences in remittances being sent from internal migrants in Bangkok.

1.3 Research Questions

- What are the reasons and differences in internal migration to Bangkok in terms of gender, numbers of internal migrants and remittances?
- What is the size and source of the flows of internal migration to Bangkok?
- Are there differences in internal migration to Bangkok and remittances from Bangkok during the last 15 years?
- What are the differences in human capital between male and female internal migrants to Bangkok?

1.4 Setting the scene

In this chapter I will give some background information about Thailand. Geographical and demographical information is included here. Also I will include some maps about Thailand and Bangkok in this chapter.

1.4.1 Map of Thailand and Bangkok metropolitan area



Figure 1.4.1-1, map of Thailand.

source: Ezilon (2009)

In figure 1.4.1-2, the map of Bangkok, the city boundaries are highlighted in red.

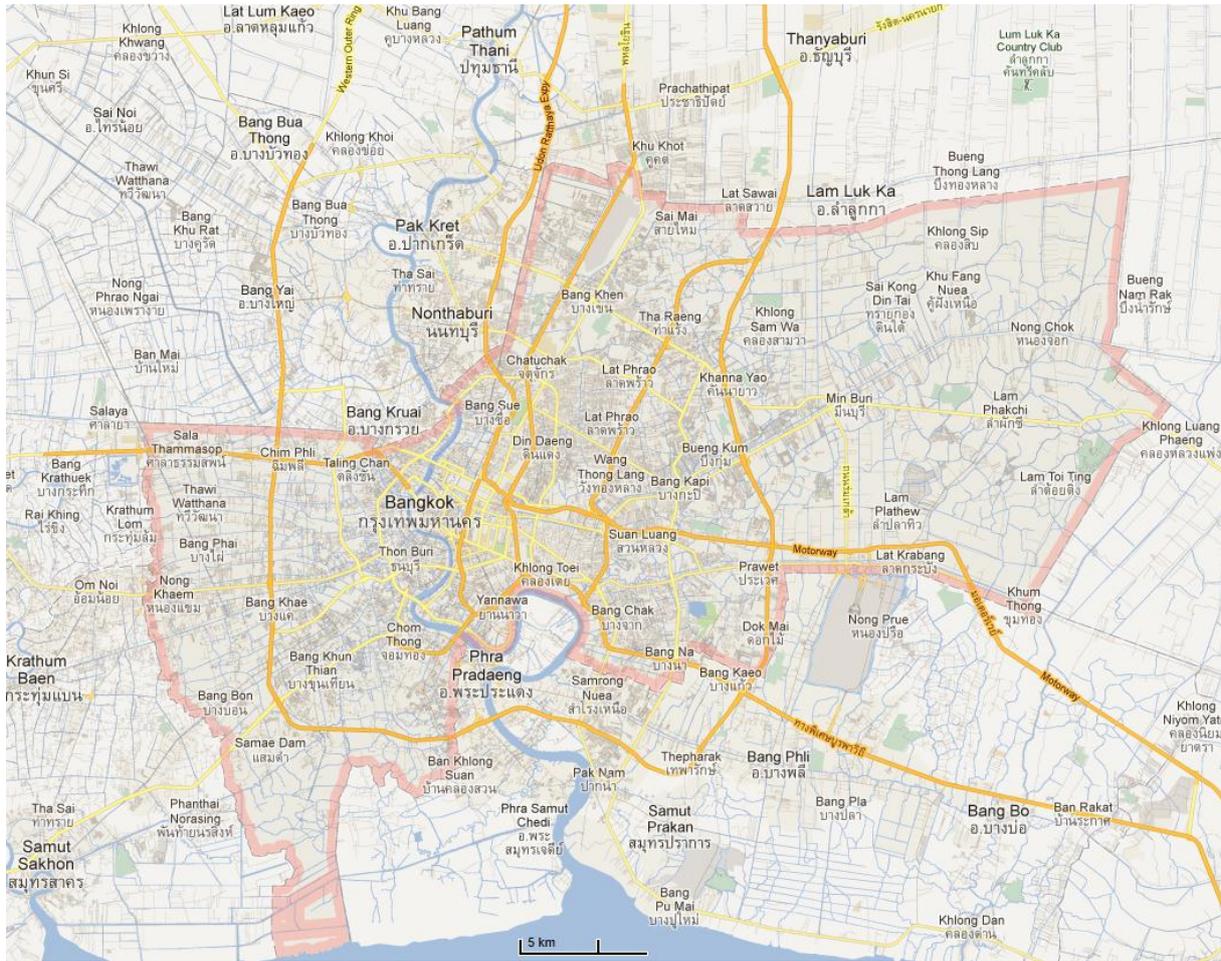


Figure 1.4.1-2, map of Bangkok.

source: Google maps by Tele Atlas (2012)

1.4.2 Geography

Thailand borders Myanmar in the west, Laos in the north, Cambodia to the west and Malaysia in the south. According to Hauser (2000), Thailand has an image of a tourist paradise, but although Thailand isn't regularly faced with natural disasters, it is facing a human-made ecological disaster. In 1930 Thailand's forests covered 75% of the country, in 2000 less than 20% of the country is forest area. Flora and fauna has degraded greatly in the last 80 years as well. Now, according to NSO (2008) less than 33% of the country is currently forest area. The difference between these sources could possibly be explained by some reforestation programmes by the government over the last years, or a difference in counting methods.

1.4.3 Demography

According to Keyes (1987), the Thai population around 1800 consisted of around 4 million people. Around 1900 this number was around 7 million. In 1911 Thailand conducted its first census. 8.3 million people lived in Thailand at that moment. From the 1950's until the 1970's the population grew at a rate of around 3% per year. The Thai government supported a pro-natal policy to increase the population and to fend off a perceived threat to the high number

of Chinese. Since the 1970's however the family-planning organizations played a major role in reducing TFR, and the growth rate of the population is declining since then. According to NSO (2008), the population in 2008 was a little over 61,5 million. In the period 2005-2010 the TFR was 1.6 in Thailand, and in Bangkok 1.2, the forecast is that in 202-2025 the TFR will further decline to 1.4 and 1.0 respectively.

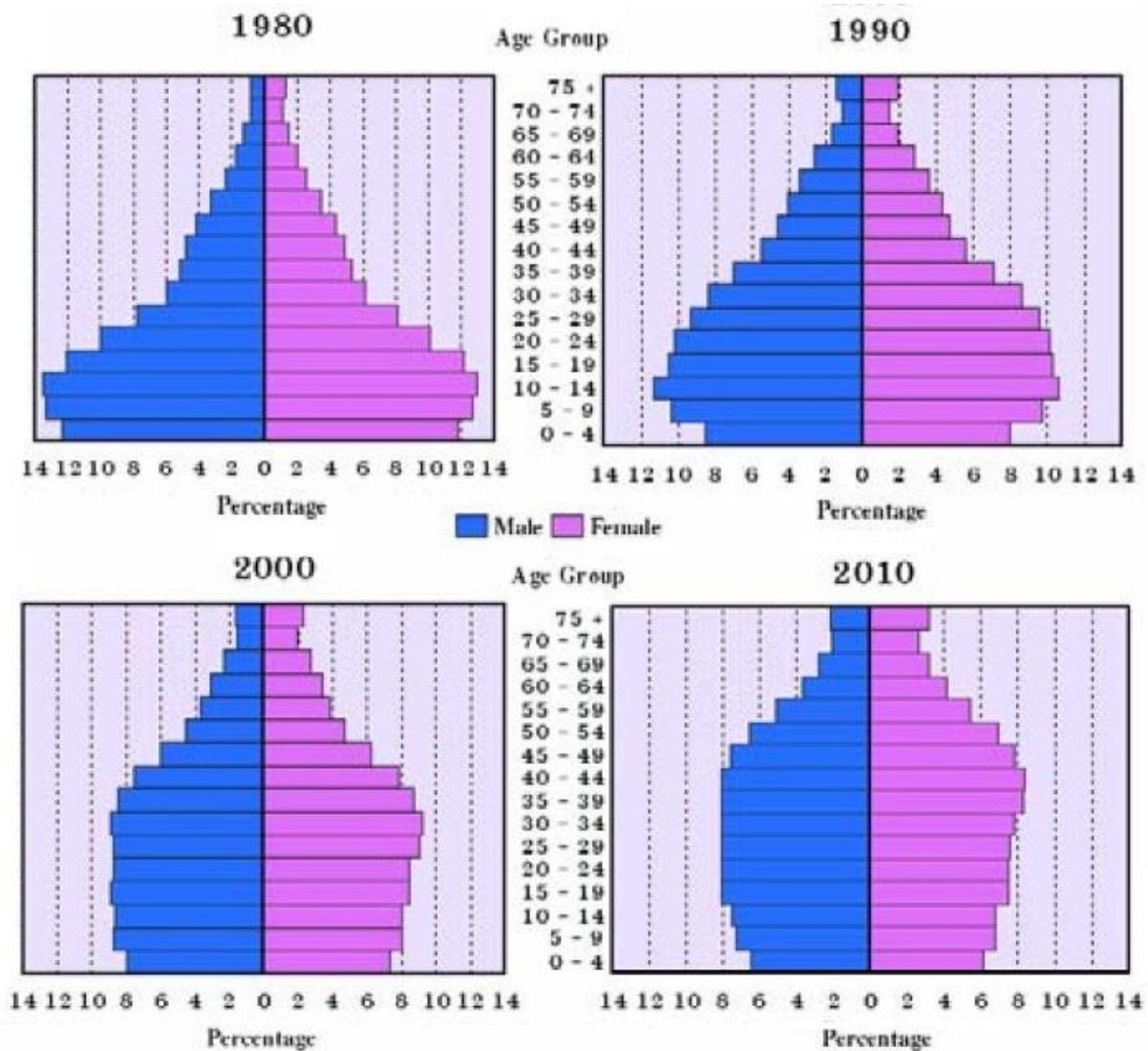


Figure 1.4.3-1, Population composition Thailand.

source: NSO (2010)

1.4.4 Bangkok

Bangkok, or Krung Thep Maha Nakhon (กรุงเทพฯ) in Thai means roughly 'big city of angels', was founded, according to Woodward (1985), in the fourteenth century on the western side of the Chao Praya river. In 1782, after the destruction of the former capital Ayuthaya in 1767, King Chulaloek moved the new capital to the eastern side of the river. Especially in the last 60 years Bangkok has become the primacy city of Thailand, and is the most important commercial and governmental city of Thailand. In 2009, according to NSO (2009) there were

6.866.004 people living in Bangkok.

Hauser (2000) states that Bangkok's biggest problem is the congestion of cars. Lots of Bangkokians spend two to five hours a day in traffic. In the last 10 years there has however been enormous progress. There are elevated metro tracks, the Skytrain, with 40 kilometers of track and a line to the airport, and an underground metro with 18 stations. Nevertheless according to Hauser (2000), the smog can be dramatic in Bangkok, with hundreds of thousands of cases of lead-poisoning every year.

2. Theoretical framework and conceptual model

2.1 Introduction

In this chapter, I give an overview about the literature on the area of study, and secondly tell something about the social and scientific relevance of my study. The policies and interventions part is also included in this chapter. I talk about current or past policies and interventions and how Thailand deals with or has dealt with suggestions in this field. Then I describe something about the theories I use in my research. These theories include the push and pull factors theory, the human capital theory and the new economics of labour theory. The conceptual model follows with a definition of concepts.

2.2 Literature review

Because internal migration is the main point in this study, I would like to start with a definition given by Boyle et al. (1998:34), he states that "Migration is usually defined spatially as movement across the boundary of an areal unit".

According to the UNFPA State of world population (2011) there will be large numbers of migrants coming to cities, so both the migration, remittances and gender aspect of these changes can be influential to people. In order to migrate, people face different kinds of challenges. Curran and Garip (2010) state that in Thailand, migrants face significant costs and risks of internal migrating. Nevertheless, these costs and risks are not proportionate to those involved in international migration. Still, also internal migrants face problems like not being paid in full, or alcoholic and gambling problems made their situation problematic. Migrant networks helped them fighting these problems.

Afsar (2011) states that research from Bangladesh and Sri Lanka continuously confirms the higher rate of internal migration by poor women than by men. Usually migrant men are drawn from the upper and middle economic layers of society, whilst migrant women usually (more than 50%) are drawn from places near or below poverty level. Women have a weaker economic perspective than men, although it would be possible that cultural influences could lead to different results in different countries.

Chalamwong and Sevilla (1996) argue that most illegal international immigrants in Thailand tend to work in low-skilled work places like construction, food industry and manufacturing, so it would be interesting to see if the internal migrants to Bangkok also are low-skilled, or, according to the Human Capital theory of Sjaastad (1962), that the migrants are more likely to be well educated. According to a study done by Chamratrihirong (2007), when researching the push and pull factors of internal migration, the writer states that when the government improved rural areas socio-economically, this action facilitated (internal) migration instead of retain the population.

According to Castles and Miller (2009), Thailand became a major exporter of workers to the rest of South East Asia in the 1980's and early 1990's, but the fast economic growth marked a transition. According to Skeldon (2006), Thailand will become an immigration country,

because of the falling fertility levels and fast economic growth. According to Vasuprasat (2010), the unemployment rate in Thailand is only 1.2%, whereas in a normal good functioning economy this rate should be around 3%. This indicates that there is a huge demand for labour, but not enough people to do the work. Foreign migrants could help relaxing the labour market.

Hugo (2005) states that a lot of Asian governments have set up special departments for emigrant-workers. These governments see migration as economically vital, because they hope it will reduce unemployment, increase training and experience, but mainly because of the remittances. In these cases, governments tend to focus on monetary remittances, but Bailey (2010) points out that remittances are not only money or goods that are sent home, but social remittances are also an important part. Here for example knowledge is remitted home, maybe to brothers, sisters or other people, mainly family members according to Gentry and Mittelstaedt (2010). In this study though, I will handle remittances as money or things that are sent home.

Boonchalaski (1997) and Osaki (2003) say that remittances can improve local development. Mc Granahan et al. (2008) also state that remittances improve standards of living, employment and economic growth. According to Adida and Girod (2011), often remittances are used by recipients to stimulate local markets by spending the money they get on consumption goods, and non-migrants use the money to invest small amounts of the money in local productive activities. Remittances can therefore be an important economic factor.

Lucas and Stark (1985) found in their research about remittances in Botswana that women remit more than men. Vanwey (2004) also found in a research in rural Thailand that women remit more than men but Massey and Parrado (1994) found in Mexico that men remit more than women. The samples used by the three researches were from three different countries hence the inconsistency in the results. This could possibly be because of the cultural differences between the different countries. This thesis will focus on internal migration and remittance patterns in Thailand, meaning that the issue of cultural difference will probably not arise, however, also in a country like Thailand there can be different cultural regions.

Several authors like Blue (2004) in his research on Cuba and, contrary to Massey and Parrado (1994), Cruz (1995) in his study on Mexico, are stating that remittances among female-migrants are higher than remittances from male migrants, because they feel more responsible, are more reliable according to Blue (2004) and that there is more social pressure and thus females send more money home. Osaki (2004) states that Thai women remit more money and things, because they need to accrue religious merit in Buddhist tradition, where men have other ways to do so. Suksomboon (2008) found out that in Thai culture women stay responsible for the welfare of their parents. This is called 'khrop khrua'. Also after marriage a Thai woman needs to take care of her family, otherwise she 'loses face'. But I also read in Hauser (2000), in his book about Thailand, that men tend to send more money/things to the community where they came from. In the Philippines, Gorodzeisky and Semyonov (2005) found out that men remit more than women, partly because they earn more money in their new jobs compared to female migrants, but even in the Philippines other research shows that females remit more than men, according to Tacoli

(1999) although this research was on international remittances among Filipino labour migrants. But also Trager (1984) found out that females remit more than men, and this study was on internal Filipino migrants.

According to Baker and Phongpaichit (2007) in their study about Thailand, and Zhang (2011) in his study about China, regional inequality, unemployment and rural population growth may increase rural to urban migration. Skeldon (1997) states that the poorest regions in Peru are not the regions where remittances are higher, contrary to what one might expect. In Peru, only 5% of all received remittances were in the rural areas. Therefore, the gap between richer and poorer regions might become larger due to the remittances. But Haas (2007) states that although of the total share of remittances only a small percentage flows to the poorest regions, it still makes up for a large part of their income. In this light, remittances must not be underestimated. However, a few sources like Baker and Phongpaichit (2008), Bhaopichitr et al. (2008), Hogue (2005) and Jacque (1999) state that when in 1997 the economic crisis in Thailand halted, poverty rates decreased in northeast Thailand. This might be down to the return of more than a few migrants who were living in Bangkok, but due to the crisis moved back to their hometowns. In this light, remittances could be very important if a person leaves his place of origin, but it could be economically even better for the region if the migrant would have stayed home. Not necessarily for the migrant, but for the region.

I think therefore that given these facts, the internal migration and remittances among male and female migrants are also factors that should be researched more, especially in places such as Thailand where the literature is not so clear.

2.3 Relevance

2.3.1 Social Relevance

This explanatory study aims at providing the key stakeholders like nongovernmental organisations, United Nations agencies, especially the government of Thailand and maybe the migrant associations with the tools and facts that will enhance the gender perspective in the programs that draw connections between internal migration and remittances. A master thesis cannot go in depth as much as needed for these layers of authority, but it could inspire people to go further in depth on this field, and by doing that, it would eventually be possible to make a valuable contribution for the aforementioned institutions. If the directions of flow and the characteristics of internal migrants are clear, then the government could plan ahead and make policies and intervene here and there to try and control the situation. Both in sending and receiving areas it would be important to cope with the changes.

2.3.2 Scientific Relevance

In the Literature review I concluded that internal migration, remittances and gender in these fields should be researched more, especially in the areas where the literature is a bit unclear. With this thesis, I will try to answer a few questions that are under debate in the literature,

by researching the migration flow to Bangkok, the remittances and some characteristics of migrants to Bangkok in a gendered perspective. This master thesis could improve the knowledge in this field a little bit, and make clear how migration patterns and other factors have evolved in the last 15 years. In my search for background literature, I found out that a lot of information is written in Thai only. This is very relevant for everyone who understands the Thai language, but is less relevant in the majority of the scientific world. This thesis could therefore give an insight in the internal migration-field of Thailand, and inspire further research in all countries. Also a comparable study around Jakarta or Ho Chi Minh city would be of great interest.

2.4 Migration policies and interventions

Most policies and interventions seem to focus on international migration, nevertheless, some policies are (also) affecting internal migration

Hundreds of thousands of people migrate from the rural areas to the cities in Thailand each year, according to Rigg and Scott (1992), mainly to Bangkok. According to Curran and Garip (2010), only since the 1980's Thailand has faced serious flows of internal migration, making it a fairly new subject for the government to make policy about. Thai government had tried to improve living conditions and infrastructure in the rural areas in order to keep people motivated to stay in those areas, but unfortunately, thanks to the good infrastructure and development more people left to go to the bigger cities. In the 1990's Thailand began with the migration surveys, according to Chamrathirong (2007) to get an understanding of the flows of internal migration. Also there were recommendations to improve information flows for rural villagers. If people were informed correctly about the true consequences of migration, it was assumed more people would stay in the villages. Unfortunately the government was not interested at that time to try and halt the migration, (this was in 1985).

Chamrathirong & Hugué (2011) state that Thai migration policies have always been short termed and reactive. and they urge the government to develop a well researched holistic new set of policies. Thailand has never had a host agency to develop proper policies on this field.

According to Hanami (2001) the Thai government tries to prevent illegal international immigration, but given the long border, it is a difficult task. The government is not very successful given the rising trend in illegal international immigrants. Thailand is trying to expel illegal international immigrants, but especially in the border areas, the local authorities are not willing to cooperate on this, because it would seriously affect the local economy and business. According to Vasuprasat (2010), the unemployment rate in Thailand is 1.2%, which is already too low in a normal economy (which should be around 3%), and the high demand for people is filled by migrants.

According to Hanami (2001) children born in Thailand (including those from illegal immigrants, diplomats and expats) are automatically granted nationality. Foreigners are also stimulated to take Thai language and culture lessons in Thailand or abroad. Expats are only allowed to work in Thailand in specific work areas, mostly in high skilled areas where less Thai are available.

2.5 Theoretical framework

2.5.1 Push and Pull factor theory

The push and pull theory of Bouge (1969) and Lewis (1982) can play a part in this research, because migration decisions are, according to Boyle et al. (1998) an effect of various pull factors and push factors.

It must be noted however, according to Boyle et al. (1998) that a simple list of push and pull factors are way too simplistic if you want to explain reality. But still we can recognise push and pull factors in migration decision, in both the origin and the destination region.

Lee (1966) developed a graphical model where he stated there are 4 factors that should be taken into account in migration. The first 3 factors are incorporated in the model. (Lee 1966:50)

- 1 Factors associated with the area of origin
- 2 Factors associated with the area of destination
- 3 Intervening obstacles
- 4 Personal factors

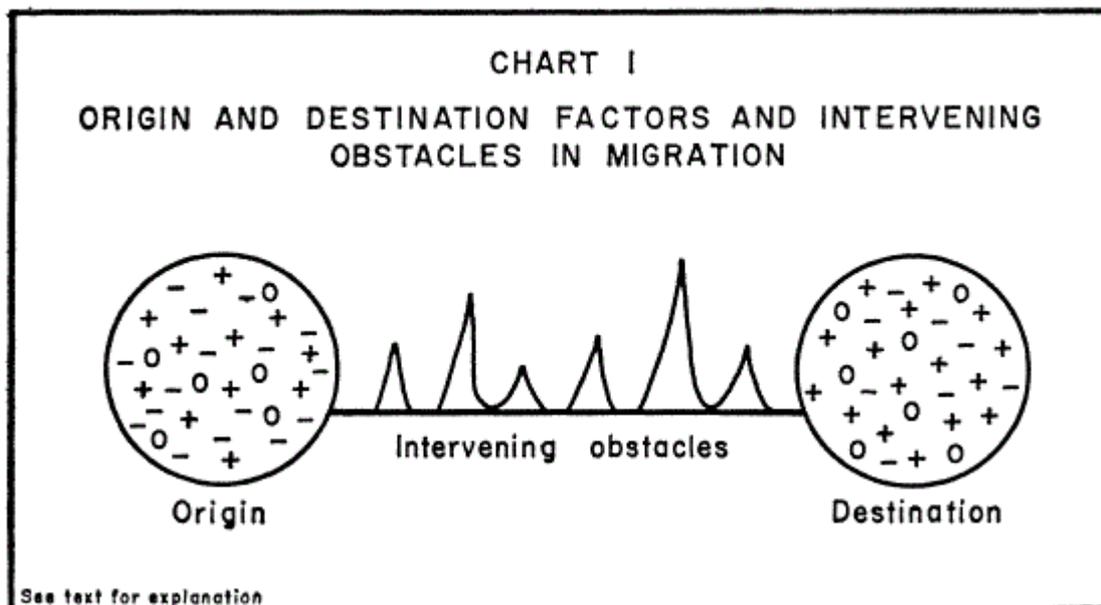


Figure 2.5.1-1, A theory of migration by Lee (1966:50)

In the model, there are "+", pull factors, "-", push factors and "0", factors individuals are indifferent about. All three factors are different for each migrant or possible migrant. Lee states that is impossible to create a list with all factors, but still we could distinguish classes of push and pull factors. There is a very important point Lee makes, which is that (possible) migrants are very acquainted with the place they already live in, and they can make a considerate and unhurried judgement about the area they come from. Knowledge from the area they are going to migrate to, is often not complete and sometime downright mysterious. Only by living in that area, you can get to know the area better.

According to Bogue (1969), the following push and pull factors were summarised:

Push factors

- decline in resources, or incline of prices.
- loss of employment due to incompetence, changing needs by the employer or automation and mechanisation.
- natural or human-induced catastrophes
- low educational possibilities
- poor marriage or employment opportunities
- discrimination on political, religious or ethnic ground

Pull factors

- improved employment opportunities
- superior income opportunities
- educational or specialized training opportunities
- preferable environment or general living conditions
- moving because someone else moved (e.g. spouse)
- novel, rich and varied cultural, intellectual or recreational environment (especially the city for rural populations)

According to Castles and Miller (2009), the push and pull theory states that people tend to leave overpopulated areas and move to areas that are sparsely populated. Migrants do not have full information on their options before they migrate, and they compensate by developing cultural and social capital.

I apply this theory because I would like to know on which factors people base their decision to migrate and to remit. Personal characteristics and assumed future benefits (which can be social and or economical) induce internal migration, so therefore it is an important theory for my study.

2.5.2 Human capital theory

The Human Capital theory, developed by Sjaastad (1962) could therefore be a very important one to research the migration aspect of this study. This theory is according to Castles and Miller (2009) individualistic, and emphasizes the individual decision to migrate. This decision is based on a rational comparison of the relative costs and benefits of migration or staying at home. It is assumed in this theory that potential migrants have perfect knowledge of wage levels and employment opportunities in the region where they want to migrate to. According to Lee (1966), migration is a very much selective process made by a individual, and younger migrants with a high quality, which is well-educated and skilled, are more motivated to migrate. For this group, migration means advancement and these migrants perceive better opportunities when they choose to migrate. In addition to this, they have a longer lifespan in front of them, making the investment to migrate a more profitable, because they can earn for a longer period of time the higher assumed benefits.

According to Sjaastad (1962) Age, sex, education and skills are the key factors for this theory.

Migration (both international and internal) is a way to create an equilibrium in the economy. Somewhere is a high supply of educated and or young men or women available, but in another region there is a bigger demand for these people. Using the technique of migration, there will be sooner or later a situation of balance between the two. Sjaastad (1962) does argue however that migration alone might not be the solution to get to a balanced state.

It is argued in this theory, by Sjaastad (1962) that more migration will occur from a prosperous part of the country to a less developed part of the country, because it is assumed that demand for higher skilled people will be bigger in a depressed part of the country than in the prosperous part. Contrary to what the theory suggests, Hugo et al. (1993) claim that the migration of the younger, educated people leads to a reduction of human capital in the sending areas and leads to economic growth in receiving areas, whilst creating stagnation in sending regions. Sending regions often are the 'depressed' regions.

Lee (1966) also argues that migration is lower in those regions where there is large similarity among people. This similarity is found in the terms of ethnic origin, education, income and tradition. The areas where there is large diversity, Lee expects less migration.

According to Becker (1962), there are various ways to invest in human capital. Among these ways are for example schooling, on the job training and medical care.

I use this theory in my master thesis, because the personal characteristics such as age, occupation, sex, marital status and educational level which are used in this theory are important. Some people might internally migrate for example because of educational possibilities, or because their educational level is too high for the area they currently live in.

While the literature on economic development is very rich in explaining migration behaviour, there is no formal theory of how remittances are determined.

2.5.3 The new economics of labour migration theory

Stark and Bloom (1985) developed the new economics of labour migration theory, where, according to Castles & Miller (2009) the migration decision is not made purely by the individual, but in a larger whole. The family, the household or even the entire community are part of the decision to migrate. The decision to migrate is not considered to be made purely to increase income or for higher wages, but also for diversifying the income sources and to provide capital for investment. Among these investments can be existing activities like the family farm.

This theory therefore provides a link with remittances and according to Stark and Bloom (1985) these remittances are vital in developing countries due to the lack of usable credit sources or insurance possibilities for the farmers. Taylor (2001) states that migrants frequently substitute the role of banks for the source migration households. Also the remittances are, according to Stark and Bloom (1985), used as a way to compensate the people staying behind against income loss created to migrate. Usually the costs for sending people to the city or even abroad are quite high, so a compensation is in a lot of cases necessary. Support of family members is deeply rooted in the cultural habits of developing

countries. The sending of remittances becomes stronger when the migrant has left a spouse or children at home with their parents to look after them, according to Stark and Bloom (1985).

Also Milne (1991) states that migrants remit often to reduce risks. They migrate often to an uncertain future, and to stay welcome in the future at home, they 'insure' themselves through remittances for unemployment or other risks after the migration process. A migrant can always go home again when the migration was not successful in the eyes of the migrant.

Furthermore, Boyle et al. (1998) argue that the role of information is a central theme in order to reduce or avoid risks. This goes further than it does in the original human capital model.

For me, this model is important because it includes the remittances factor into my model. Remittances can be a very important source of income for the family back home, so I think this factor should be taken into account in my research.

2.6 Conceptual Model

In this section of my thesis I will present my conceptual model, which is based on the theories used in this research, and described in the previous section. It combines the push and pull model with the human capital theory and the new economics of labour theory.

Internal migration occurs as a result of the human capital of the possible migrants, which are made up out of personal characteristics like age, sex, marital status, employment and education, and the pull and push factors of the origin and destination region. Finally this migration leads to the question of remittances. With remittances there are again some human capital reasons and push and pull factors in order to decide to remit.

All of these factors lead to a model I can use which will include these concepts:

It is seen that first, centrally located, the human capital of the possible migrants are noted, with push and pull factors of the origin region and destination region are used. These push and pull factors are influencing the migration motives. These motives are used in order to make a decision to migrate, which creates a migrant. Remittances are also the result of push and pull factors and personal characteristics, which influence the motives to remit and ultimately lead to a remit decision, so they are also included in this model.

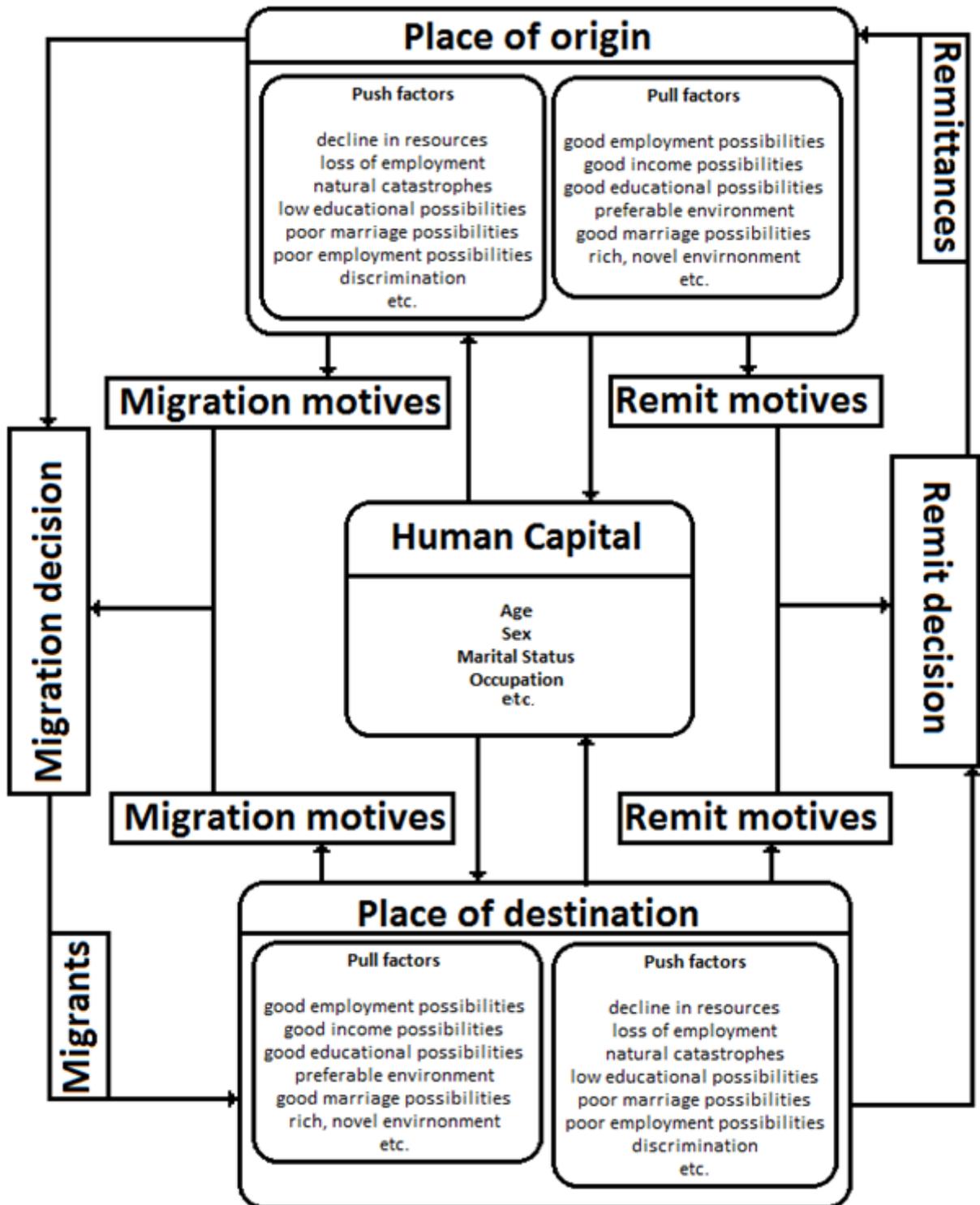


Figure 2.6-1, Conceptual model

2.7 Definitions of concepts

Human Capital

Age, sex, education and skills are the key factors of the human capital theory, according to Sjaastad (1962:87). Especially the investment in knowledge and skills creates capital, and the decision to invest in these things leads hopefully to a return later-on. According to Husz (1998) we mean with human capital the experience, knowledge and abilities of a person.

Migration

Boyle et al. (1998:34) states that Migration is usually defined spatially as movement across the boundary of a areal unit. In this thesis, internal migration is defined as movement across the boundary of a administrative region within one country. In Thailand, in this research, there are 5 different regions: North, Northeast, Central, Bangkok and South.

Migrants

The illustrated Oxford dictionary (2003:515) states that a migrants is a person that migrates. In my research, it is important that the movement (across regions, not within) occurred within one year prior to the survey.

Place of origin

Place is, according to Knox and Marston (2004: 510) a specific geographic setting with distinctive physical, social and cultural attributes. In my thesis the place of origin refers to the administrative region where a migrant comes from

Place of destination

The illustrated Oxford dictionary (2003:221) states that a destination is a place to which a person or thing is going. I interpret this a bit altered; the region someone is migrating to. In my thesis I am focussing on internal migrants to the Bangkok Metropolitan Area, so the place of destination will be Bangkok.

Push factors

According to Knox and Marston (2004:110) events and conditions that impel an individual to move from a location. They include a wide variety of possible motives, from the idiosyncratic, such as an individual migrant's dissatisfaction with the amenities offered at home, to the dramatic, such as war, economic dislocation or ecological deterioration.

Pull factors

According to Knox and Marston (2004:110) forces of attraction that influence migrants to move to a particular location. Again, factors drawing individual migrants to chosen destinations may range from the highly personal (such as a strong desire to live near the sea) to the very structural (such as strong economic growth and thus relatively lucrative job opportunities).

Remittances

The illustrated Oxford dictionary (2003:694) state that remittance is the act of sending money or things. I will however also include the act of sending money, and the sending should be done by a migrated person to home (family) or community.

3. Data and methodology

3.1 Introduction

This chapter is about the data I will be using, and about the methodology. This research is a quantitative study, and is based on migration survey data from 1995 till 2009. In 2011 there was another survey, but that data is currently not available. The purpose of this thesis is to study the differences in migration to Bangkok in terms of gender, numbers of migrants and remittances.

3.2 Method(s) of data collection

I am going to use tables from the migration surveys conducted in Thailand spanning the last 15 years. I obtained this data from the national statistical office in Bangkok, Thailand. I only use data from the last 15 years, because in 1995 the definition of a migrant changed from 'person moved two years prior to the survey' to 'person moved one year prior to the survey'.

According to the social statistics division from the national statistical office of Thailand (2009) the Migration Survey is a project that has been conducting surveys since 1974 on an annual interval by the national statistical office. By then, the data was only collected for the in-migrants to the Bangkok metropolitan area. In the years following 1983, the survey also included data to cover the vicinity of the Bangkok metropolitan area as well as the main regional urban growth centers in each separate region. They included those areas because the national economic and social development plan was in that time emphasizing the distribution of economic growth in the regional areas. According to these surveys, people especially migrate in a rural to urban context, in order to look for jobs in urban areas. Since 1992, these surveys have been conducted in a 2 year-interval, and was enlarged to cover all provinces of the country, in order to obtain data on a regional and national level. The objective of these surveys are to collect data of migrants and non-migrants. This data is demographic and socio-economic, and includes information about movements, such as reasons for migration, decision makers, frequencies of migration etc. The goal is to serve policy makers and planners with data, to formulate a national development plan regarding human settlement and distribution. The data can also be used to establish projects or measurements for solving problems regarding the stream from migration.

3.3 Population and sampling

The population I am studying is the people in Thailand, and particularly those who migrated in Thailand, and mainly to Bangkok, and the sample is the observed people participating in the Migration surveys. Non-migrants are also included in the surveys, and I will conduct some research on them too, enabling me to value some results on the migrant-outcomes.

3.4 Ethical considerations

For my thesis, I will be using migration survey data. I will not be in contact with respondents themselves, and the collected data was obtained using a questionnaire which is available

from me on request. All data I use is anonymous, because it is already processed by the Thai National Statistical Office.

3.5 Operationalization of variables

In chapter 2.7 I have specified the concepts to be studied, and I formulated my research questions and objectives in chapter 1.2 and 1.3, I can now operationalize the variables, in order to align with the dataset I have available.

Internal migration is a form of migration where a respondent states that (s)he migrated to their present location within one year prior to the survey. This movement needs to be intraregional. The respondent in the survey is called a migrants if (s)he migrated within one year prior to the survey.

Human Capital is measured by:

- Education Elementary schooled
 Secondary education
 University education
- Daytime activity Working
 Looking for work
 Household work
 Studying
- Marital status Single
 (ever) Married
 Seperated
 Divorced
 Widowed
- Sex Male or Female
- Age age category of the respondent

Place of origin is measured by the region where the migrant is coming from. Thailand is divided in 5 regions for this research:

- Northern
- North-eastern
- Central
- Bangkok
- Southern part.

A migrant needs to migrate from one of these regions (or internationally) to another, no more than one year prior to the survey. Otherwise (s)he will not be counted as a migrant in this thesis. The place of origin is of course the starting point of the migrant, and the **place of destination** is the current location where the migrant lives. This current location is always one of the 5 regions of Thailand.

Remittances constitute out of money and or goods. The amount of money or the value of the goods is not measured, I will only speak of 'money' and or 'goods' in this thesis. A

remittance is sent by a migrant to their home-area.

Push and Pull factors are measured by asking the respondent the reason for migration. If a person states (s)he is looking for a job, and that is the main reason for the movement, it can be seen as a pull factor for the new location and a push factor for the previous location.

3.6 Comments on available data

Unfortunately, there are a limited number of migration surveys available, so I can only show the data from the years I have found migration-survey-data. The years where I have found comparable data are the following years: 1994, 1997, 2004-2009. Unfortunately, the data from 2007 is a little less comprehensive than the other years, but I could use it anyway for most of my analysis.

Not every available year does have the same tables, formatting or questions included, so I only used the years where the data was in the same way obtained and formatted.

In some tables, the age groups are 0-14 years, then 15-19 onwards, sometimes it is 0-4, 5-9 onwards. I had to make the cohorts the same in order to make comparisons, which means you have to combine data which is a little bit unfortunate.

There is some data in a few tables that is rounded to 1000's, where all other data is exact. I treated this as if the numbers are the actual results.

Unfortunately regarding the remittances data, not everything was specified by males and females. There is nothing I can do about that unfortunately. Only the tables from 2005 say something about the sex of receivers of remittances.

Unfortunately I was unable to obtain the original dataset from the surveys, so I will have to work with the data I obtained from the National Statistical Office in Bangkok, Thailand. I did have meetings in Bangkok with several statisticians and professor Aphichat Chamrathirong, from the institute for population and social research at the Mahidol University in Bangkok, Thailand, but they could not give me the data, although some of them wanted to if they had the data, because the original dataset is only for Thai nationals to use.

4. Results

4.1 Introduction

In the first part of the findings chapter, I will be presenting the results of the analysis about the total population of Thailand and Bangkok, and how these have changed over the years. Secondly, I will present the total migration figures for Thailand and Bangkok, also with a comparison over the years. Finally I will make a comparison between male and female migrants by year of migration for both Thailand and Bangkok. In the next chapter I will be

4.2 Population by age and sex

4.2.1 Introduction

In this first part of the findings chapter, I will start with telling something about the total population of Thailand and Bangkok, and how these have changed over the years. Secondly, I will present the total migration figures for Thailand and Bangkok, also with a comparison over the years. Finally I will make a comparison between male and female migrants by year of migration for both Thailand and Bangkok.

4.2.2 Whole population Thailand and Bangkok

In these first two graphs, I present some information about the total population numbers, both for the whole kingdom and for Bangkok.

In 2009, according to figure 4.2.2-1, the total number of people living in Thailand was 66.903.283. Out of these people, 6.866.004 (10,26%) lived in Bangkok (according to figure 4.2.2-1). In 1994, the base year for my research, 59.621.005 people lived in Thailand, from which 11,08% (6.609.440) lived in Bangkok. We can conclude then, that over the years, the total population of Bangkok did not grow as much as the total population of Thailand. More people live in Bangkok now than in 1994, but as a share of the total population of Thailand, Bangkok has become somewhat smaller.

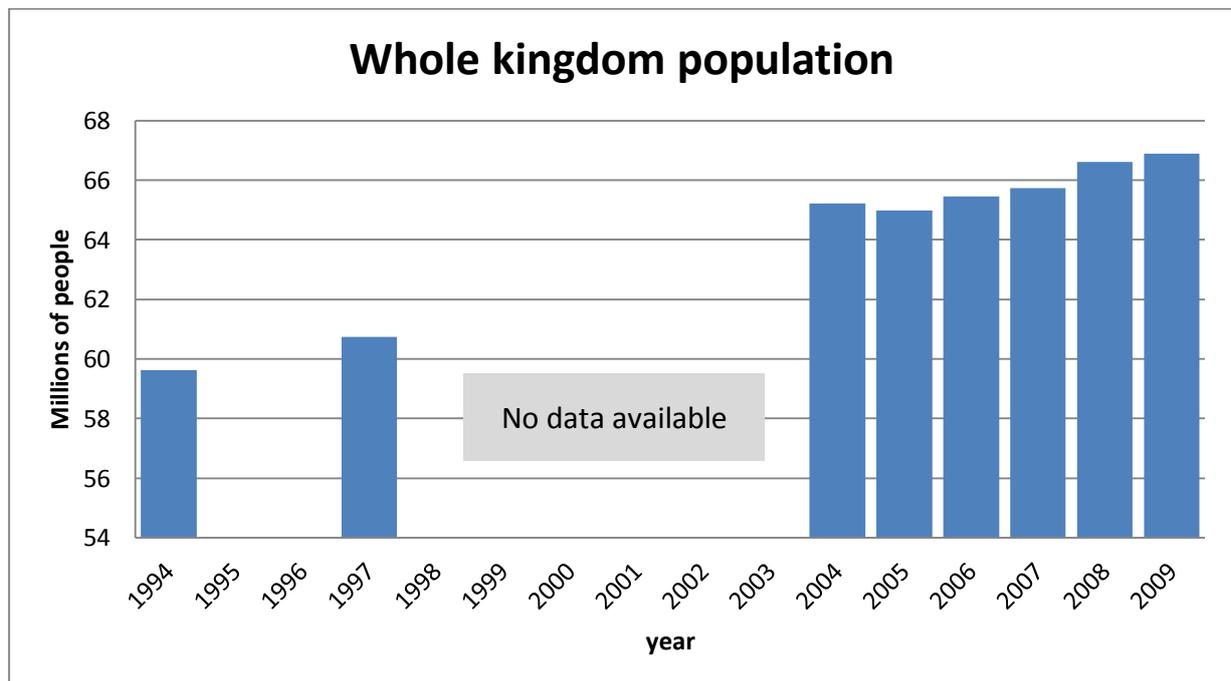


Figure 4.2.2-1, Whole kingdom population

When we take a look at figure 4.2.2-1, the whole Thai population has grown steadily since 1994. When using 1994 as the base year, the Thai population grew these 15 years at the rate of 0,77% a year. According to the World Bank (2011), Thailand ranks 151 out of 213 countries or territories with this rate, which is relatively low and (far) below Malaysia, Laos, Myanmar and Cambodia, which are the neighboring countries.

In 2005 we see a drop in the population. In that year, there were 237.895 people less living in Thailand when compared to 2004. According to Collett & Laczko (2005) and IOM (2005), around 120.000 registered people from Myanmar were living in the south of Thailand. These people were mainly working in tourism and construction, and in the period following the Tsunami (24 December 2004) they were the most vulnerable group, and, according to Collett & Lazco (2005) possibly a lot of them left and went to their hometowns.

According to Collett & Laczko (2005), Australia, Canada and the United States made it easier for Thai, Indian, Sri Lankan and Indonesian victims to (temporarily) immigrate to these countries. Indonesia rejected these offers, the other 3 countries didn't. According to the Thai government, between 5500 and 8500 people died during the Tsunami, which should also be taken into account.

After 2005 the growth recovers from 2006-onwards and the population continues to grow at least until 2009.

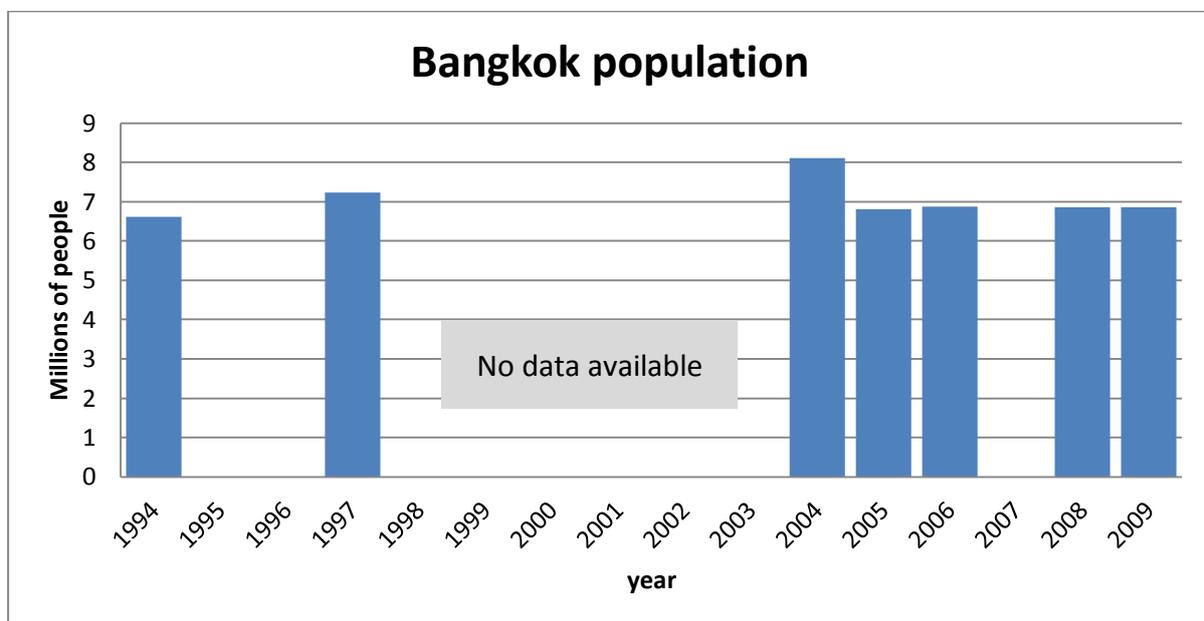


Figure 4.2.2-2, Bangkok population

According to figure 4.2.2-2, the Bangkok population seems to peak in 2004, and in 2005 there was a huge decline in population numbers in Bangkok. This decline is a lot bigger than the decline in population in the whole kingdom in 2005. A drop in population in one year of 1.29 million people in a city with around 7-8 million people is very steep. If we take a look at the trend from 1994-2004, it looks like a steady increase in population, just like for the whole kingdom. Therefore it is extra remarkable that 2005 shows such a decline, because it is a trend-breaker. Since 2005 the Bangkok population has been stable around 6.85 million inhabitants.

In the literature I did not yet find out why this would have been the case. However, in chapter 4.6.3 we see that there is a larger than usual inflow of migrants in 2004 from the south. This could have been triggered by the Tsunami, because according to Howard (2004) and TIN (2004) both Bangkok Airways and Thai Airways for example announced 26 December 2004 already that they would bring more and bigger planes to the south, to

accommodate the sudden increase in people who wanted to fly to Bangkok. According to Oberle (2005) Thai airways increased their daily flights from Phuket alone with 10 extra flights to cope with demand. These people might have gone back to their hometowns in 2005. Still, the numbers of migrants from the south do not explain the 1.29 million drop, because the difference in internal migrants from the south in 2004/2005 is only 20.000 people.

4.2.3 Migrant population Thailand and Bangkok

In the following 2 figures, figure 4.2.3-1 and 4.2.3-2, I present the information showing the total number of migrants in the whole kingdom, and the total number of migrants to Bangkok.

These numbers include all migrants, both internal and international migrants. The share of international migrants is, as we will see in chapter 4.6.2 not very big, and due to data-lock-in I was not able to filter these migrants out. In most cases, they comprise maximum 3% of all migrants.

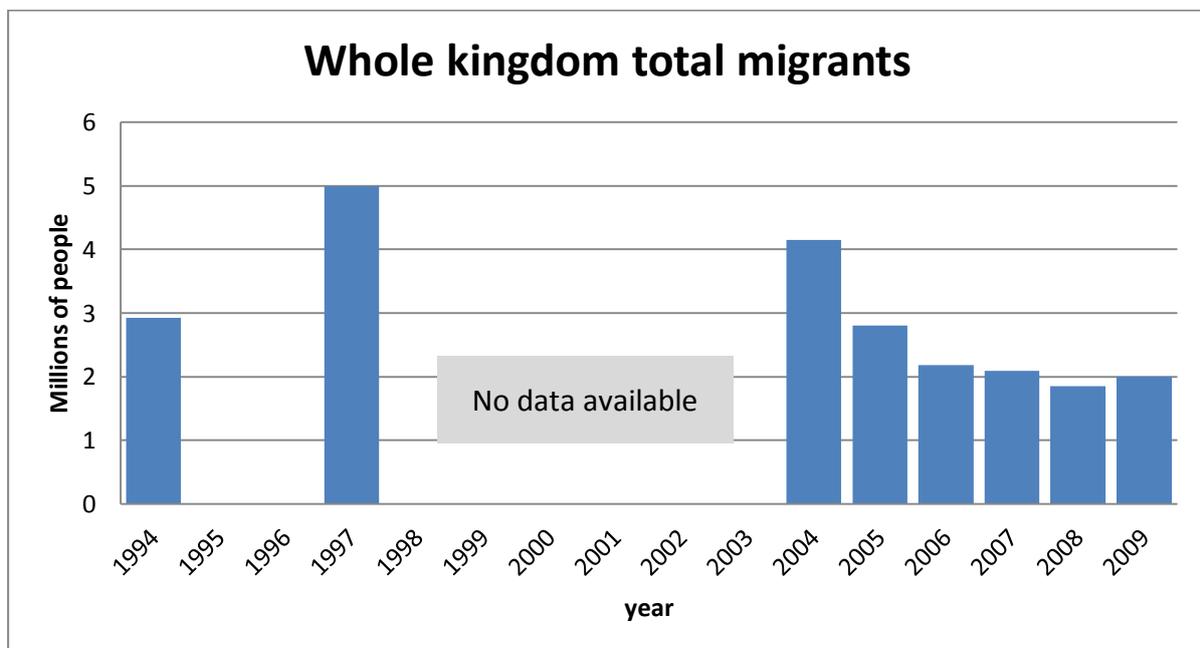


Figure 4.2.3-1, Whole kingdom total migrants

With a clear peak in 1997, the total number of migrants in Thailand has declined a lot over the years, according to figure 4.2.3-1, with around 2 million migrants each year for the last 4 years. The numbers of migrants coming to Bangkok have declined even more.

According to Lo and Marcotullio (2001), Bangkok was the major destination for labor migration since the 1960's. In the 1970's until 1986 44% of all population growth in Bangkok was due to in-migration. Since the late 80's though, Bangkok's city centre is no longer the key destination for migrants. But still, the Bangkok metropolitan area was the major destination for migrants. In the 1990's most population growth was in the 5 surrounding provinces of Bangkok. Lo and Marcotullio (2001) forecast for the period after 1995 a continual decline in the migration towards Bangkok, and an increase in the migration to the

wider periphery of Bangkok. So the figures show a decline in migration towards Bangkok, but that does not mean there are less migrants to the whole Bangkok metropolitan area or the Economic System of Bangkok.

In percentages with 1994 as the base year, in the whole kingdom the total number of migrants in 2009 was about 68% of the number of migrants it was in 1994. According to IOM (2011), the Thai population is ageing, and the cohorts of people in the most important 15-19 and 20-24 years old categories are becoming smaller every year. This is also a reason why people migrate less than they did in the 1990's and before. This is of course true for both the whole kingdom and Bangkok.

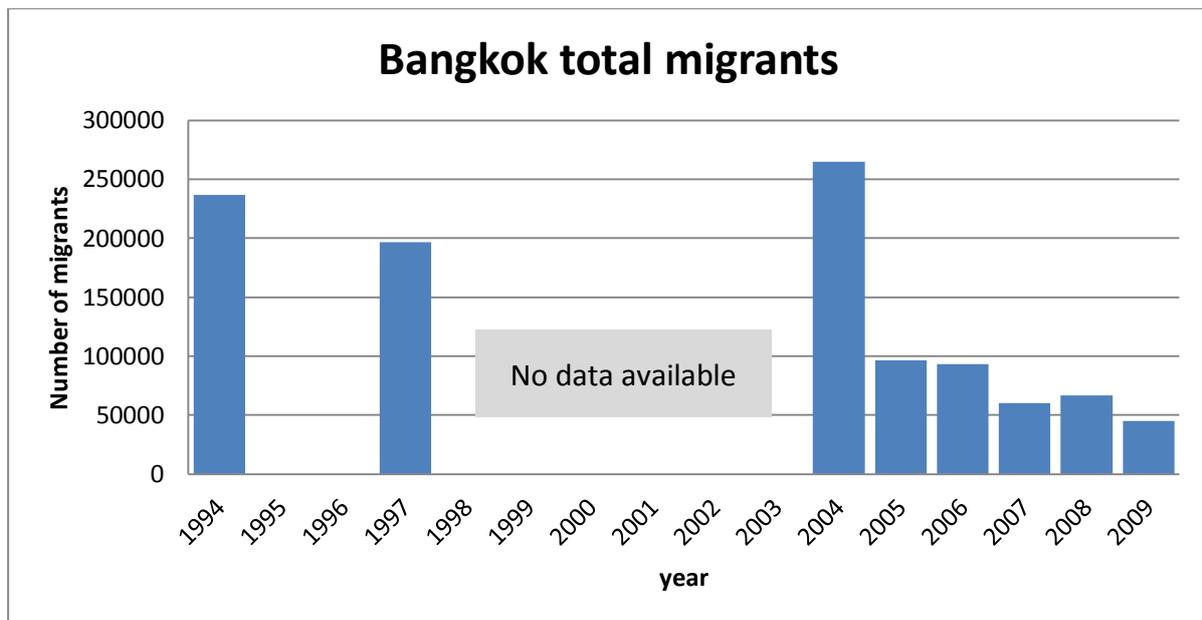


Figure 4.2.3-2, Bangkok total migrants

According to figure 4.2.3-2, the percentage of migrants coming to Bangkok in 2009 in comparison to the percentage of migrants coming to Bangkok in 1994 is only 18,96% (with only 2004 being above the base year). From 2004 to 2005 we clearly see a very large decline in migration toward Bangkok. 2004 was a special year in migration toward Bangkok. If 2004 wouldn't be taken into account the decrease in migration is very stable. Again, it is possible that the influences of the tsunami in 2004 contributed to the increase in migration to Bangkok, as Oberle (2005) stated earlier. This looks like a very legit explanation in this case.

4.2.4 Migrants by sex, Thailand and Bangkok

In the next 2 graphs on this chapter, figures 4.2.4-1 and 4.2.4-2, I present the differences in migration numbers regarding males and females, for both the whole kingdom and for Bangkok.

In the whole kingdom, we see in figure 4.2.4-1, that every year there are structurally more male migrants than female migrants. Since 2006 it seems that these differences are becoming less apparent, but still we can clearly see that there are more males in comparison to females that migrate in the whole kingdom. According to Archavanitkul & Guest (2000), the only sectors where women are more likely to migrate are the sex-service sector and

tourism/industry, which are all sectors who are clustered in specific parts of Thailand. Curan et al. (2005) state that the migration networks for men and women function differently which is why men are more likely to migrate in general in Thailand.

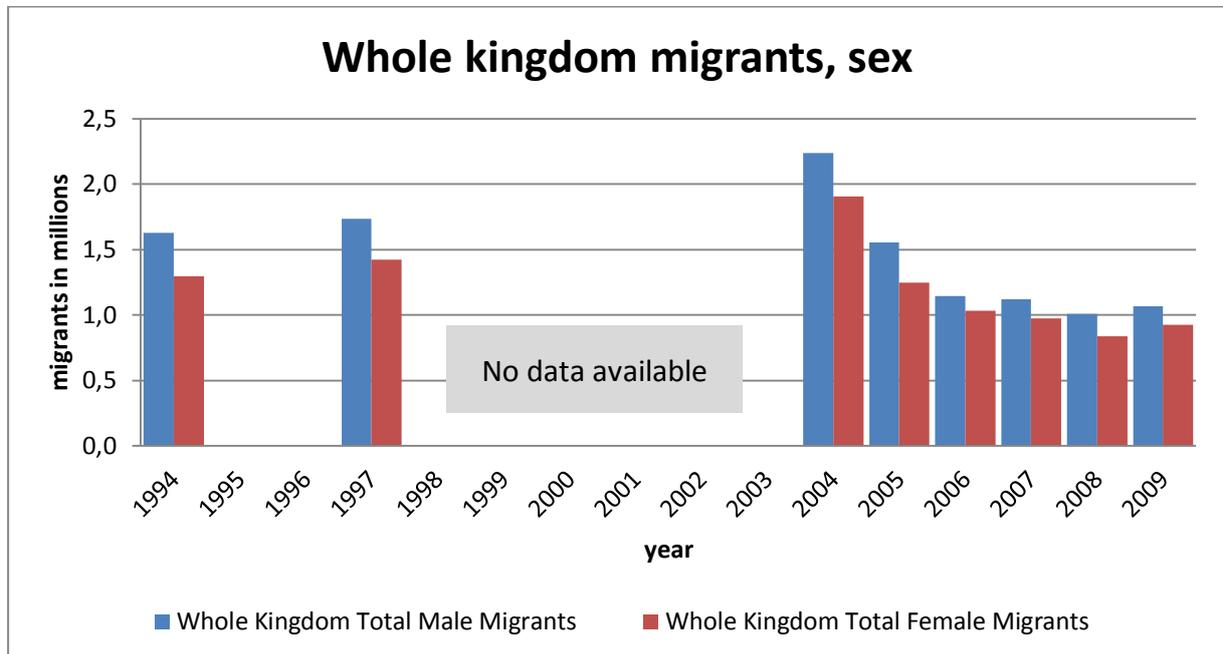


Figure 4.2.4-1, Whole kingdom, migrants by sex

The trend since 2004 shows us also again that there are less migrants almost every year, as we have seen in chapter 4.2.3.

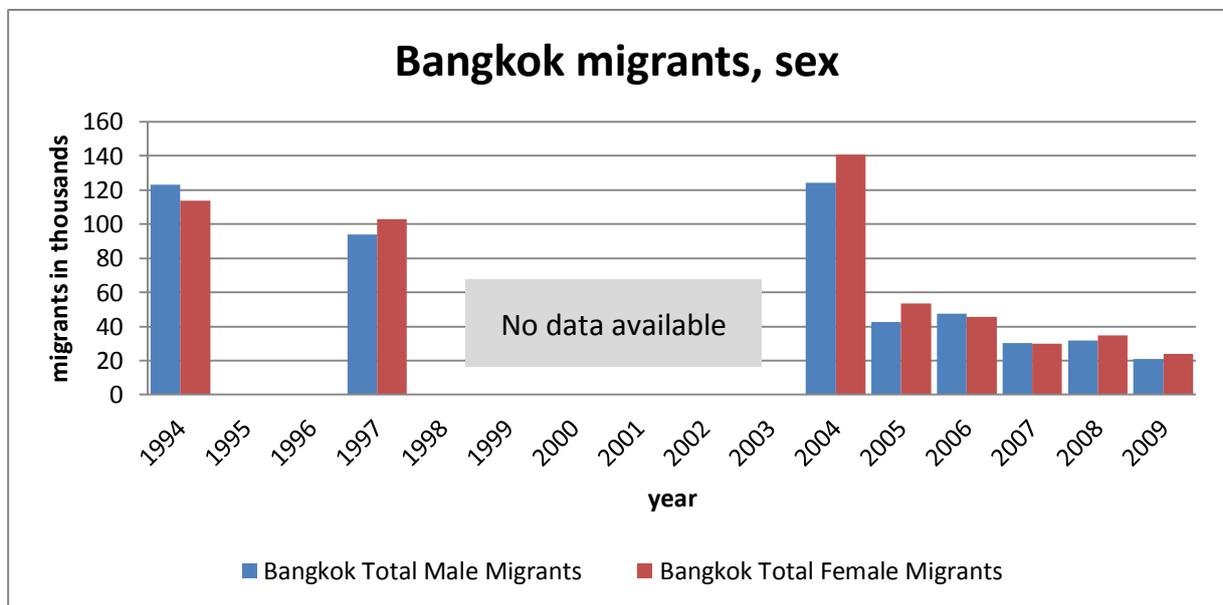


Figure 4.2.4-2, Bangkok, migrants by sex

When we take a look at figure 4.2.4-2, we see the male/female migration towards Bangkok. We do see clearly that towards Bangkok there are slightly (not in 1994, but clearly in 2004 and 2005) more female migrants than male migrants. It is interesting to see that there are more male migrants in the whole of Thailand who migrate (figure 4.2.4-1), but less males in comparison to females who migrate to Bangkok. An explanation could be, according to

Cranfort & Hondagneu-Sotelo (2006), that female Thai are more likely to migrate if they are higher educated or if they are working in the sex-industry. A big city like Bangkok could be a big magnet for both of these reasons.

4.2.5 Migrants by age-group

In the last part in this chapter, I present the age-group differences between all migrants in Thailand and the migrants to Bangkok over the last 15 years. I combined males, females, Thailand and Bangkok in one table for each year. 8 population pyramids are a lot to make a comparison, but because every year has some interesting things in it, as we will see in figures 4.2.5-1 – 4.2.5-8.

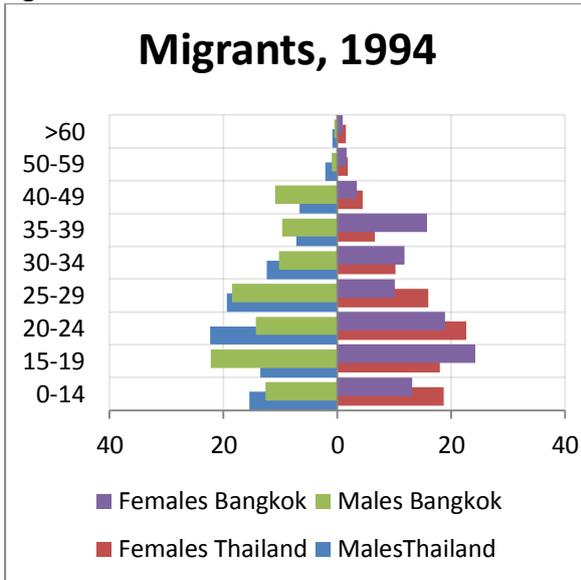


Figure 4.2.5-1 Migrants, 1994

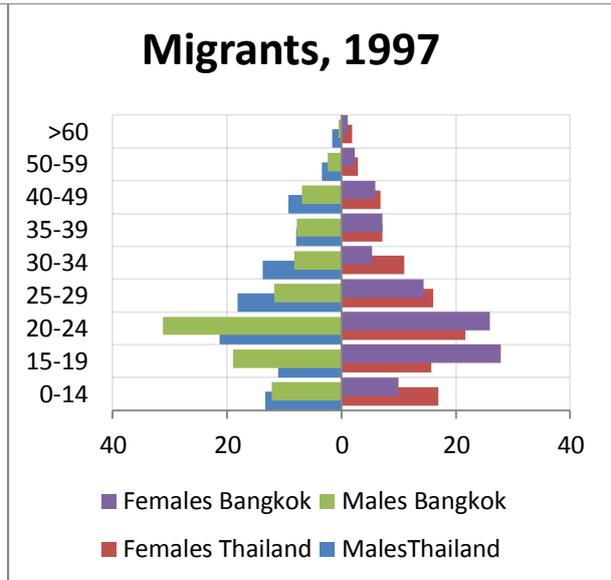


Figure 4.2.5-2 Migrants, 1997

First of all, there are quite big differences per year. In 1994 for example, as seen in figure 4.2.5-1, 14,34% of all migrant males bound to Bangkok, were in the 20-24 age category. In 1997, we see in figure 4.2.5-2, 31,20% of all migrant men to Bangkok fell in this category.

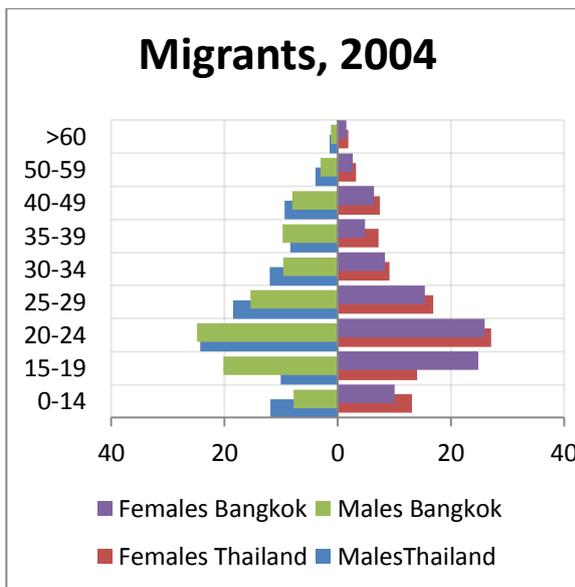


Figure 4.2.5-3 Migrants, 2004

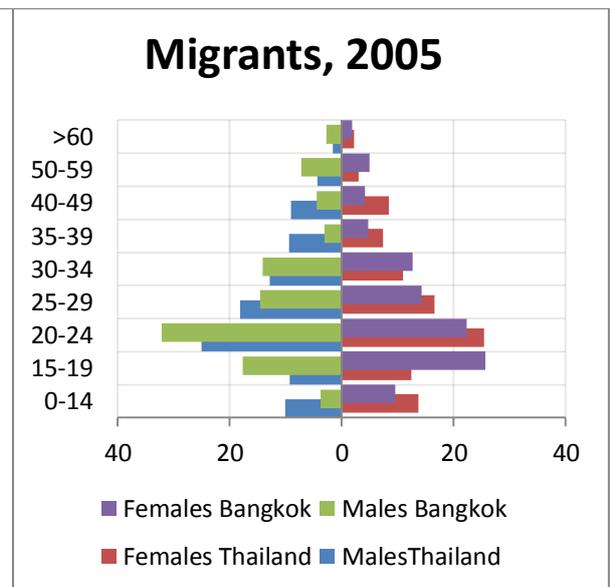


Figure 4.2.5-4 Migrants, 2005

From 1994 until 2007 we see a decrease in the share of children aged 0-14 in the total flow of migrants heading to Bangkok. There are also very few people aged 60+ who are migrants. The largest group of migrants in Thailand is aged 20-24, for both males and females, but for Bangkok, the biggest group differs per year. In 2008 for example, figure 4.2.5-7 shows there were very little migrants to Bangkok in the 20-24 years old category. Only 4.81% of all Bangkok migrant males were in that category, whilst in 2007, figure 4.2.5-6 shows us that 25,57% of all migrant men to Bangkok were in that age group. That is really a big difference, and unfortunately my literature does not explain why, and I also have no explanation.

In 2008 (figure 4.2.5-7), and 2009 (figure 4.2.5-8) for Bangkok, the cohort-spread of migrants is more even compared to other years.

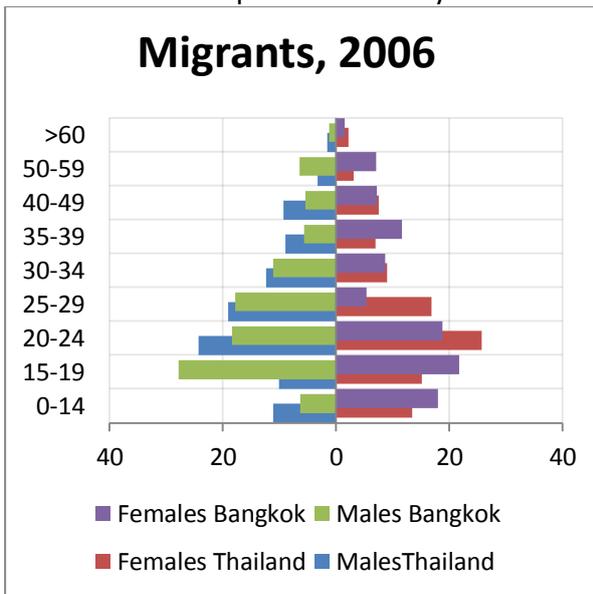


Figure 4.2.5-5 Migrants, 2006

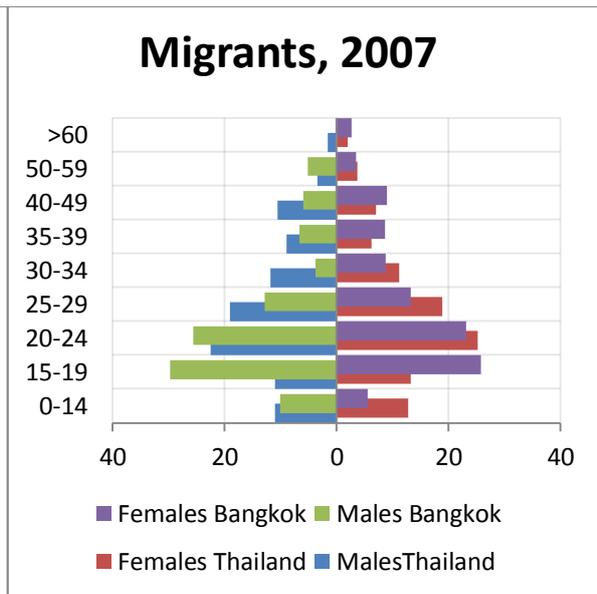


Figure 4.2.5-6 Migrants, 2007

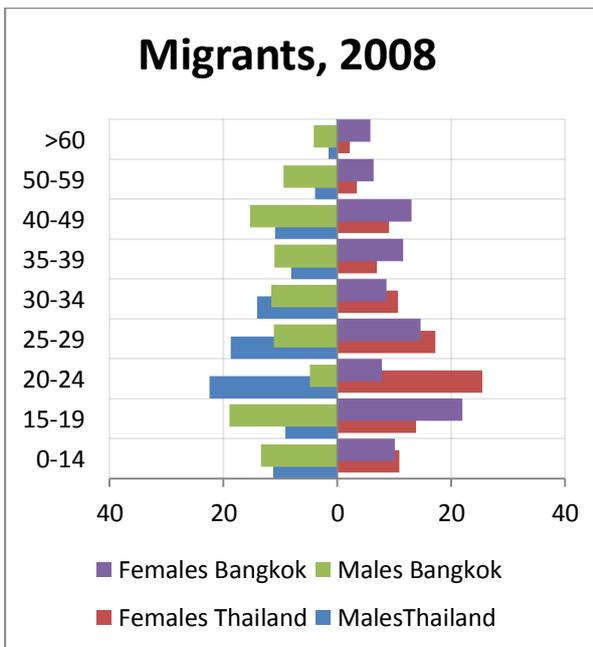


Figure 4.2.5-7 Migrants, 2008

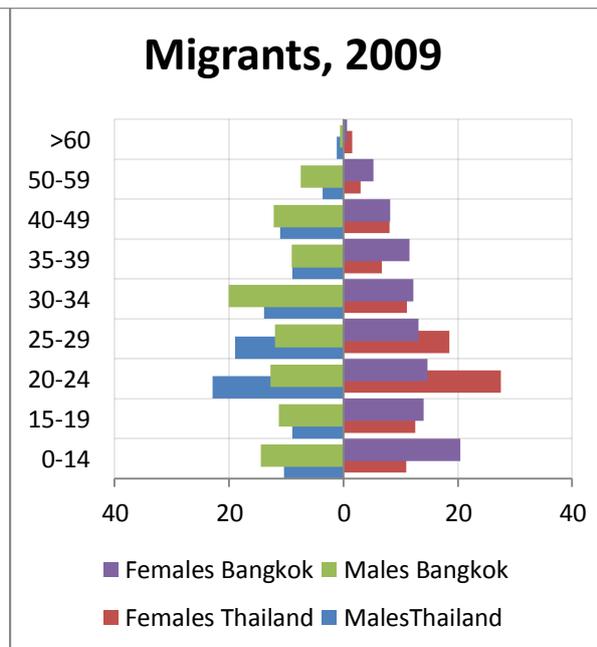


Figure 4.2.5-8 Migrants, 2009

4.2.6 Conclusion

In 2009, there were 66.903.283 people living in Thailand, and 6.866.004 people in Bangkok. Over the last 15 years, the population of Thailand grew stronger than the population in Bangkok. In 2004-2005 Bangkok saw a big decrease in population numbers, which could possibly be contributed to the return of Tsunami refugees to the south in 2005. The total number of migrants has declined a lot since 1997 in Thailand, and in Bangkok we saw a huge increase in 2004, and relatively low numbers of migration since then. In the whole of Thailand we see that more males than females migrate, but in Bangkok it is the other way around. The largest cohorts of migrants fall in the 15-19 and 20-24 years old category, and the 60+ category is a very small cohort in terms of migration.

4.3 Reasons for migration

4.3.1 Introduction

In this chapter, I will present my findings related to the reasons for migration of the migrants who migrated in Thailand, and the migrants who came to Bangkok. I made different graphs for both male- and female-migrants. This way, we can make some interesting comparisons.

4.3.2 Reasons for migration, whole kingdom

The graphs 4.3.2-1 and 4.3.2-2 show us the reasons of migration of the migrants in the whole of Thailand. We see that there are no huge differences in reasons for migration between males and females regarding the whole kingdom. Women are slightly more often the ones who migrate in order to return home or for other family related business. Women are more often than men migrating in Thailand because of education. The education group is however a group where the differences are bigger. Every year, more females than males migrate in order to follow education. In percentages females are between 22% (in 2008) and 72% (2005) more than men migrating in Thailand because of education. Men are however more often seeking work, and women tend to migrate a lot more often because of giving or receiving care. When we take a look at the educational level of Thai women, I calculated that Thai women in general are higher educated, and we will see in figures 4.6.2-1 & 4.6.2.2 that this is also very true for the migrants in Thailand. Why this is the case, I will try to find out in chapter 4.6.

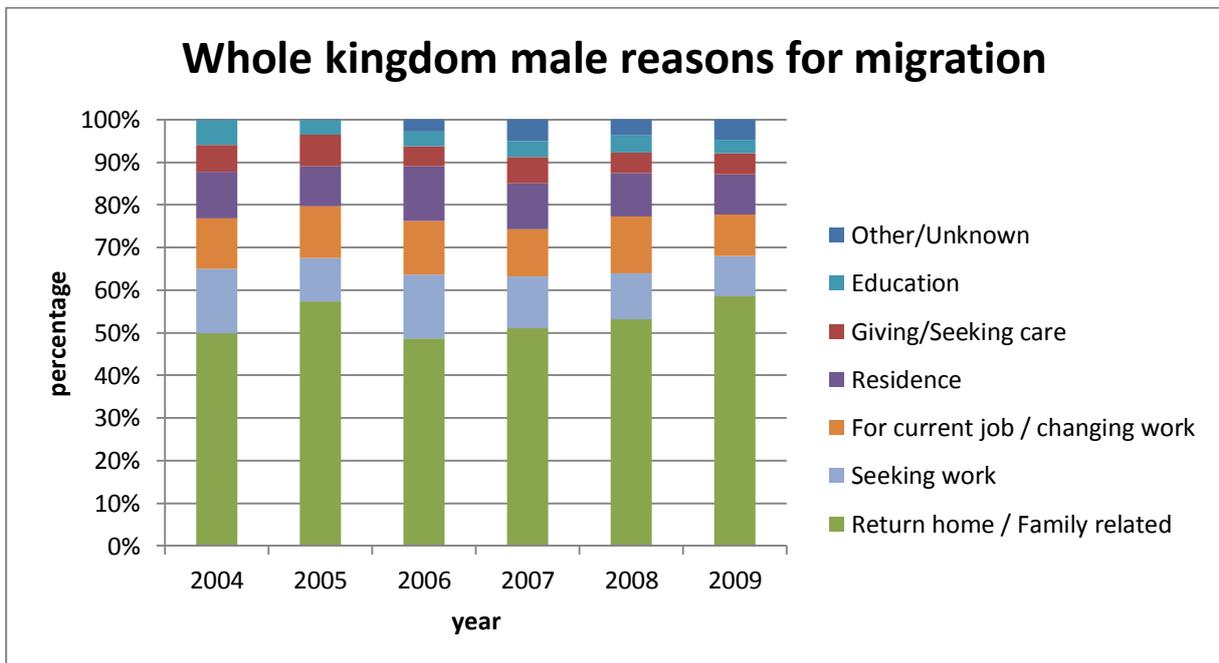


Figure 4.3.2-1, Whole kingdom male reasons for migration

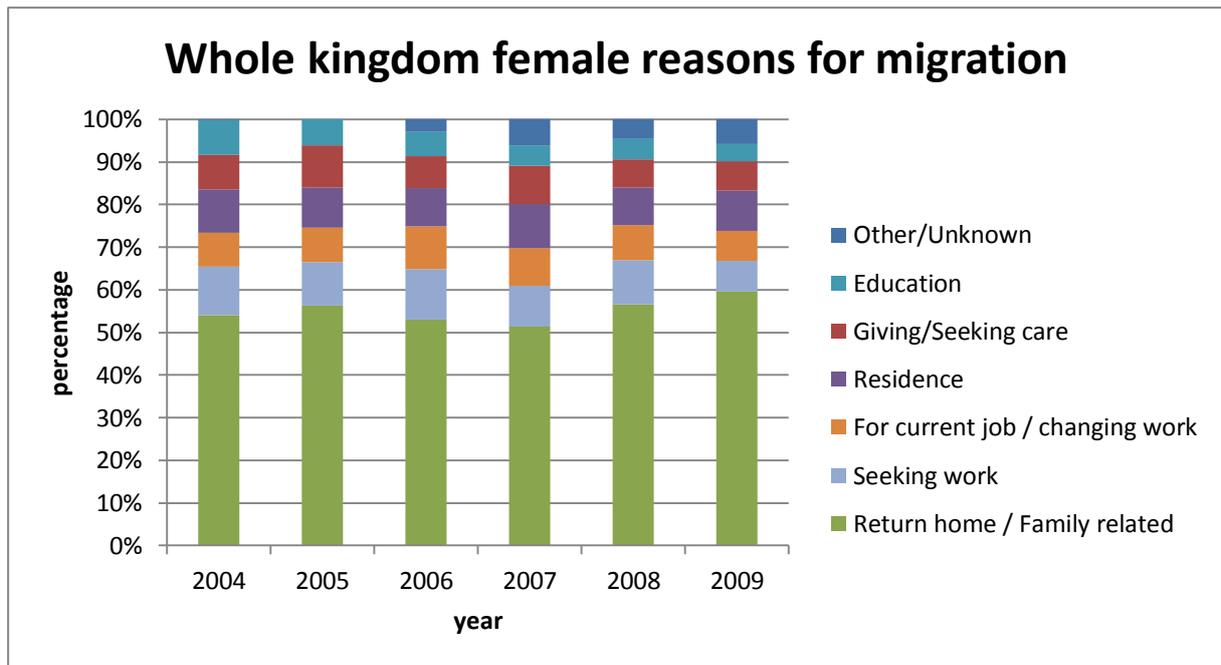


Figure 4.3.2-2, Whole kingdom female reasons for migration

4.3.3 Reasons for migration, Bangkok

The graphs 4.3.3-1 and 4.3.3-2 show us the reasons of migration of the migrants in Bangkok. Here we immediately see very large differences when we compare these results to the results of figures 4.3.2-1 and 4.3.2-2 which represented the whole of Thailand. We see that a relatively small portion of the migrants state they migrate to Bangkok in order to return home or other family related reasons, and we see that the biggest group by far states they are going to Bangkok in order to find work.

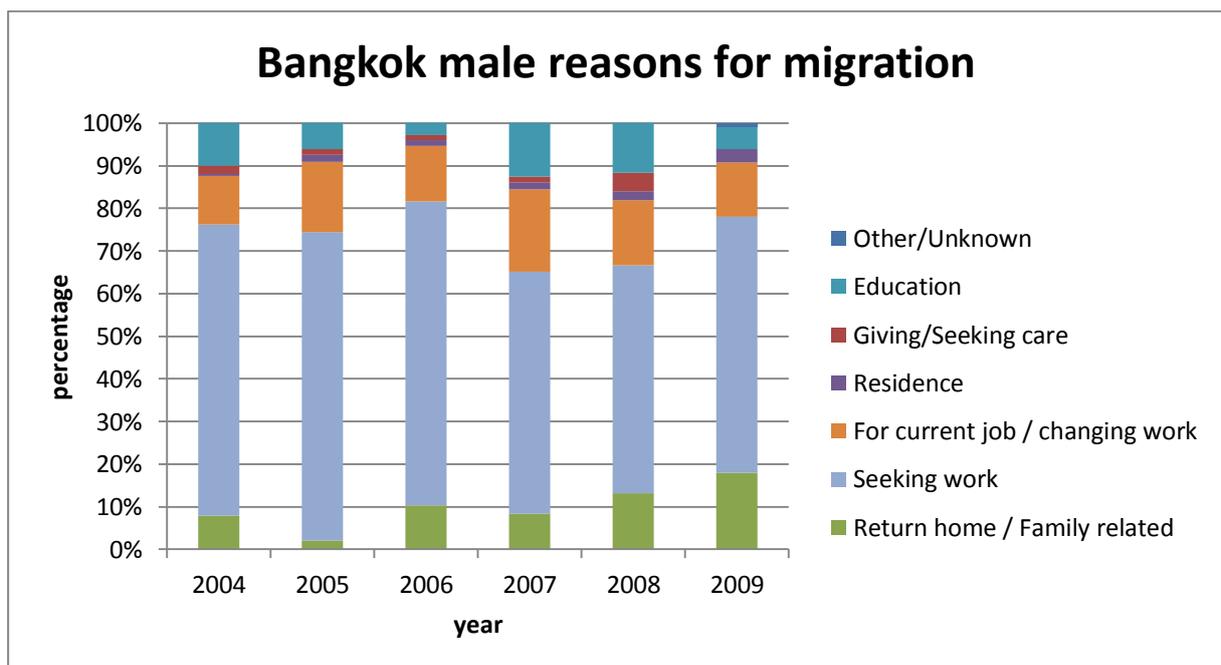


Figure 4.3.3-1, Bangkok male reasons for migration

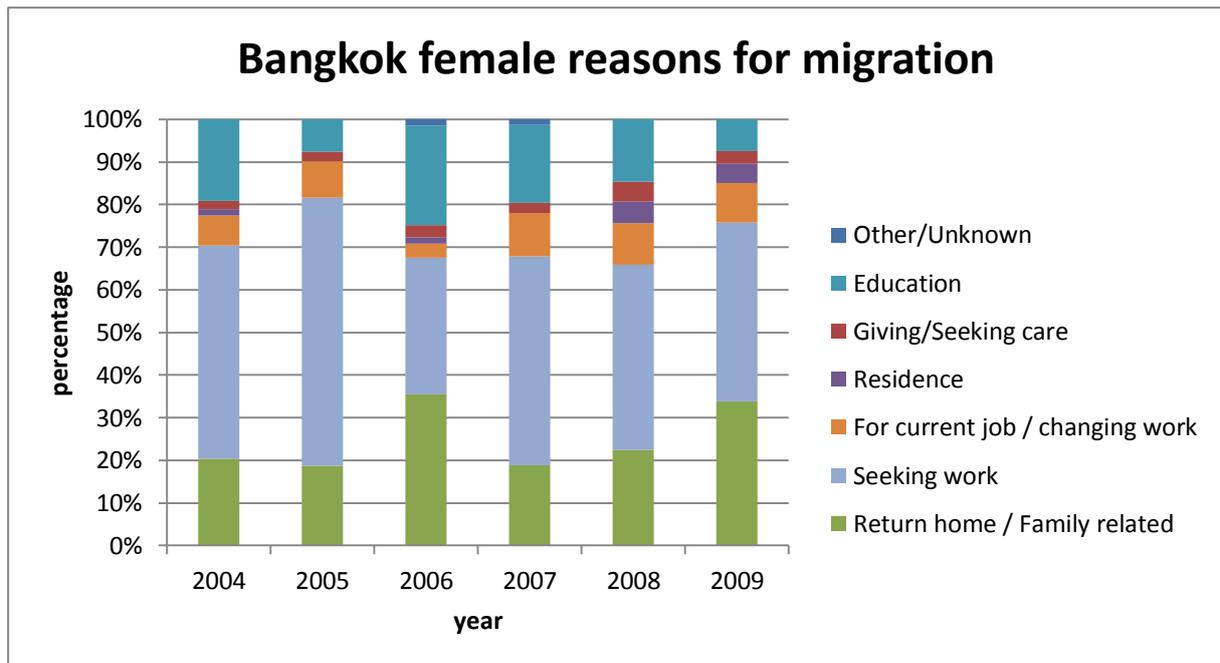


Figure 4.3.3-2, Bangkok female reasons for migration

We do see however other differences. We also see for example in figure 4.3.3-1 and figure 4.3.3-2 that a lot more men than women are moving to Bangkok for their current job or to change jobs. A lot more women than men migrate to Bangkok in order to return home or other family related issues', and especially in 2006 and 2007, a lot more women migrated to Bangkok in order to obtain education. Very few men and women migrate to Bangkok in order to give or receive care, and also the 'residence' group is very small for both men and women.

We can say then, that Bangkok is a city where especially men, but also women are migrating to in order to (find) work or go to school. A maximum of roughly 35% of the Thai women are migrating to Bangkok to return home, which is a large group compared to men, but is a small group compared to the rest of Thai migration figures. It seems that Bangkok is not a city where people mainly move to in order to enjoy the 'city life', for residence reasons. People move there because of practical reasons. Hauser (2000) already stated that most Thai are proud of their roots and don't always feel comfortable going to Bangkok, but a lot of them do not feel like they have much choice, in order to make a decent income and create opportunities. NSO (2011) states that the share of agriculture in the economy is lower every year, which indicates that more people are needed to work outside of agriculture, often forcing them to migrate.

4.3.4 Conclusion

In Thailand, most people (between 50% and 60%) migrate in order to return to their home place, or for other family related business. The groups of migrants who migrate internally in Thailand in order to find work, to change jobs/workplace or migrate for residence purposes are all around 7% – 10%. In Bangkok the story is different, with more than 50% (up to 70%) of all males who migrate in order to find work and another 10% - 15% of all males to change jobs. A little more women migrate to Bangkok in order to return home or other family

related reasons, but also women mainly migrate in order to find work (around 40%). A lot more women than men migrate to Bangkok for education purposes. For both men and women counts that they are moving to Bangkok more often for education than in the rest of Thailand, but women are in the majority here.

4.4 Migrants by previous location and present location

4.4.1 Introduction

In this chapter, I will present my findings related to the place of origin of the migrants who migrated in the whole kingdom, and the migrants who came to Bangkok. I made different graphs for both males and females, internal and international migration. This way, we can make some interesting comparisons.

4.4.2 International migrants

First, we take a look at the International part of the migration flows in Thailand and towards Bangkok. Because it wasn't possible to make a distinction for the rest of the data, I would like to point out how big the percentage of international migrants is in the total flow of migrants.

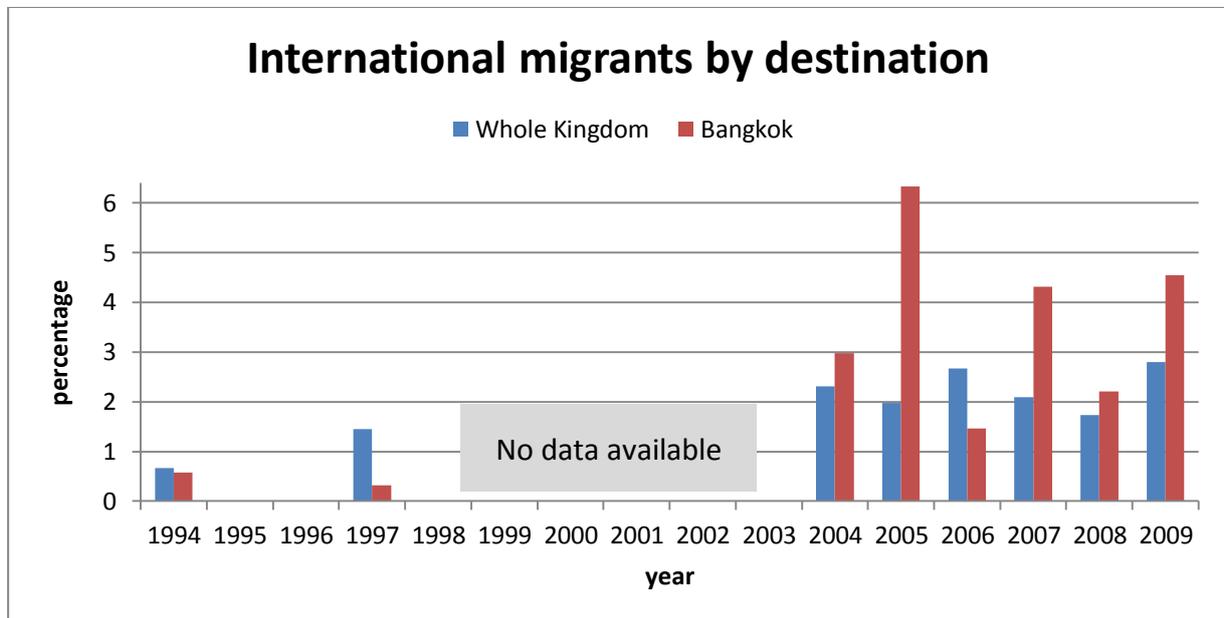


Figure 4.4.2-1 International migrants by destination

In this figure, 4.4.2-1, we see for the whole kingdom, that the percentage of international migrants in the total flow is in every year under 3%. We do actually see an upward trend in this figure, but even in 2009, more than 97% of all migrants were internal migrants.

For Bangkok we do see a much more volatile graph. In 1997 for example we see less than 0,33% of all migrants towards Bangkok are international migrants, but in 2005, we see almost 6,34% of all migrants to Bangkok are from abroad. Still, on a total of Why especially 2005 stands out that much is not clear from the literature, and when we look at the differences per year, it is not excessive, compared to 2007 and 2009. In 2004 we saw a high number of migrants compared to 2005-2009 in figure 4.2.4-2, when 264.893 migrants came to Bangkok. In 2005-2009 'only' 45.000 – 96.000 people migrated to Bangkok. In 2004 and 2005, relatively much people migrated to Bangkok from abroad, with 7882 people in 2004 and 6106 people in 2005. In the period 2006-2009 there were roughly between 1400 and 2500 international migrants each year.

Since 1994, we see an upward trend again, but it is more volatile than it is for the whole Kingdom.

When I make a comparison between males and females, as shown in figure 4..2-2, I only have data for the period 2004-2009, but still it is interesting to see what the differences are.

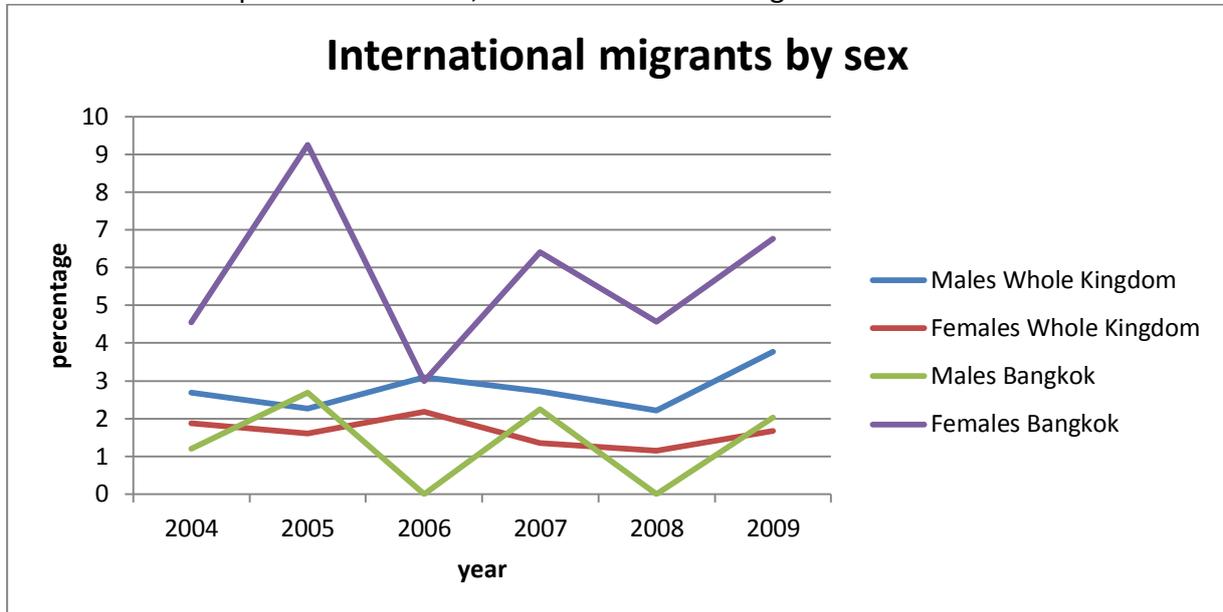


Figure 4.4.2-2 International migrants by sex

In figure 4.4.2-2, we do see some interesting results. For the whole kingdom, we see that every year more males than females migrate from a foreign country to Thailand. But when we take a look at Bangkok, we see that every year more females than males internationally migrate towards Bangkok. The patterns when we compare year by year are roughly the same, where 2006 and 2008 are remarkable, because if the data is correct, not a single male migrated towards Bangkok from a location outside of Thailand in that year. In the literature I couldn't find an explanation. For females we also see a large decline in foreign migrants to Bangkok in those years, but the males category is the outstanding one. Between 2004 and 2009, in total there were 3.742 male migrants coming from abroad, versus 17.850 female migrants from abroad. The dataset doesn't tell me where these migrants are coming from, although I know that 87% of all international migrants in Thailand are coming from Myanmar (IOM, 2011). According to the ministry of labour in Thailand (2010), most international migrants in Bangkok are coming from Japan, United Kingdom, India, the Philippines and the USA. This is a very different list, which could possibly be attributed by the higher demand for skilled workers in Bangkok. Why these are mostly women, I have no explanation for without doing additional research first.

4.4.3 Previous (non-) municipal region to Bangkok

Secondly, we take a look at the total flows of migrants towards Bangkok, divided by municipal areas and non-municipal areas. Municipal migrants are migrants who come from a municipal-area, such as Chiang Mai, Hat Yai or Nakhon Ratshasima. Non-municipal migrants are those migrants coming from the rural areas. The largest rural area in Thailand is the Isaan, according to Hauser (2001), which is the northeastern part of Thailand. We can expect

to see most rural migrants coming from this area to Bangkok.

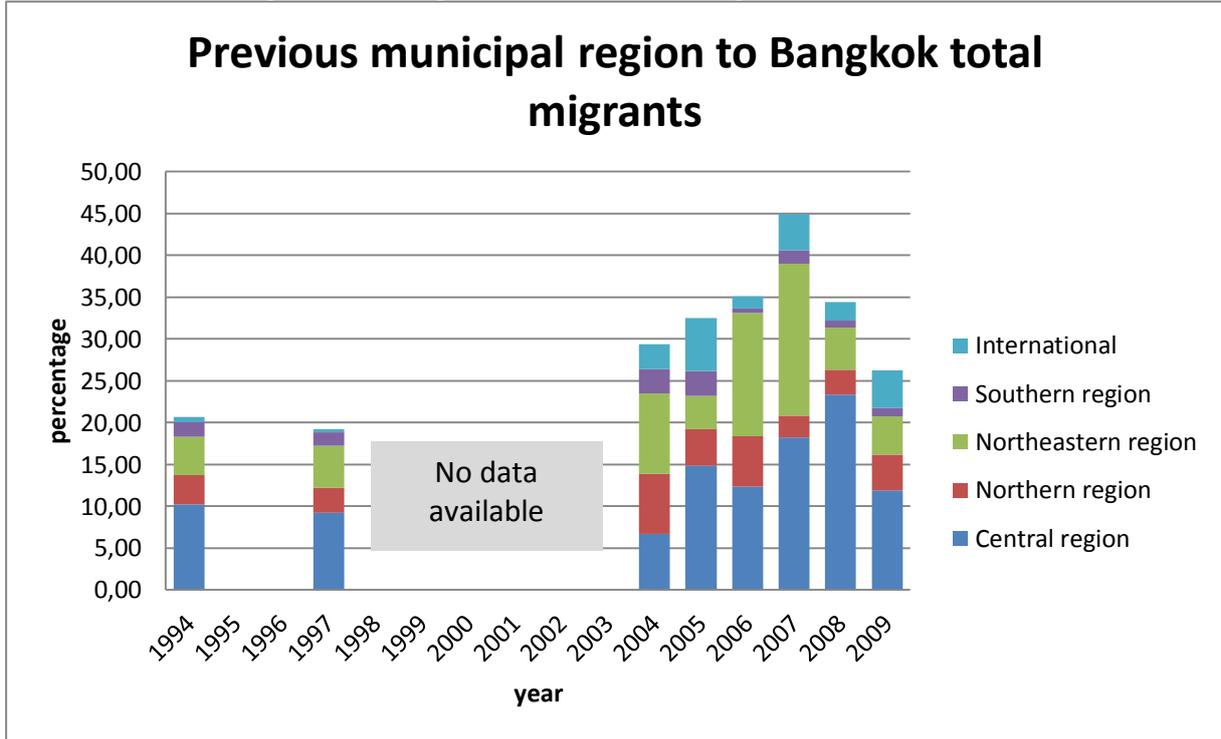


Figure 4.4.3-1 Previous municipal region to Bangkok total migrants

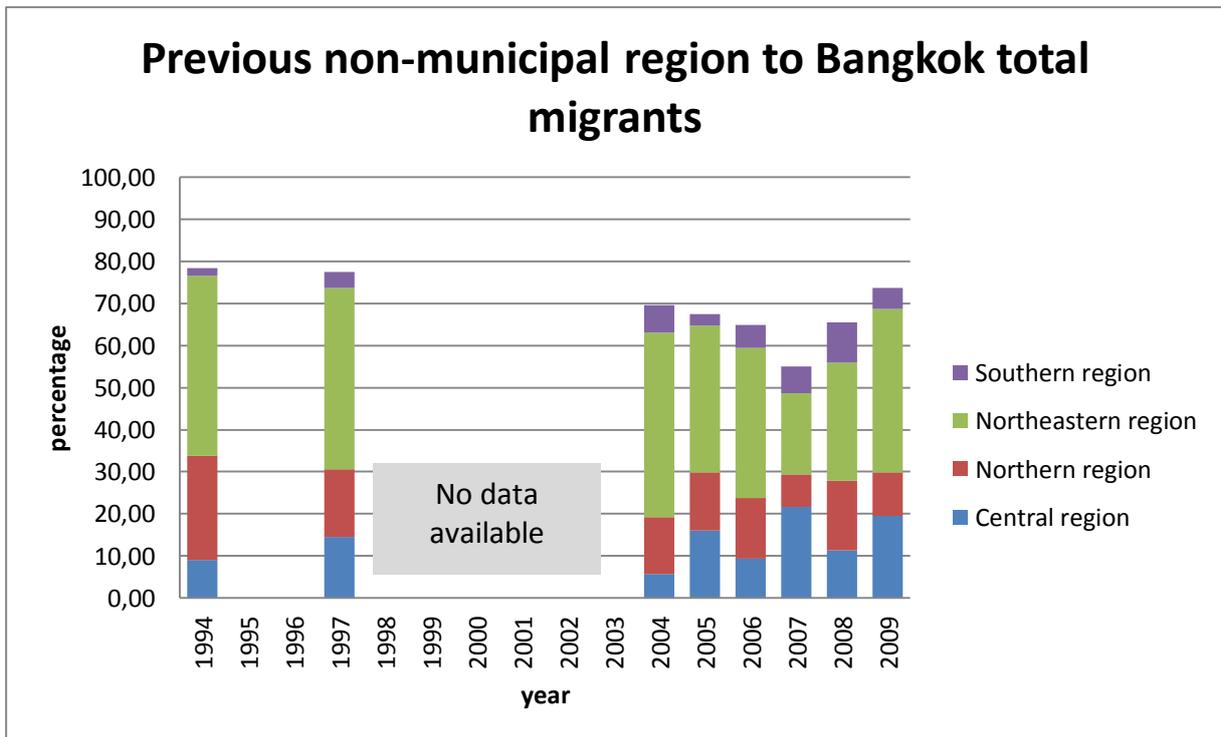


Figure 4.4.3-2 Previous non-municipal region to Bangkok total migrants

In these figures, 4.4.3-1 and 4.4.3-2, we see an overwhelming amount of non-municipal migrants. Note that the scale is different in both figures, so the municipal should be half as long for comparison. The two graphs added to each other count up to 100%. We also see that the northeastern region is by far the most important sending area for migrants towards Bangkok. Around 40% of all migrants towards Bangkok are non-municipal northeastern

migrants. Only 55% of all migrants are from other regions than the northeast. Especially migrants from the south are limited in numbers.

Southern non-municipal migrants were in 2008 a larger group than in other years. Regarding the northeastern migrants, we see pretty big fluctuations over the years. For example: in 2004, as seen in figure 4.4.3-1, 53,6% of all migrants came from the northeast, but in 2005m only one year later, only 38,83% of all migrants came from the northwest. Especially municipal migrants from the northeast came in smaller numbers to Bangkok (2004: 9,58% vs. 2005 3,92%) In 2007 there were even 18,16% of all migrants coming from municipal north-east!

4.4.4 Previous (non-) municipal location by region of migrants by sex

The next two figures tell us something about the previous locations from male and female migrants.

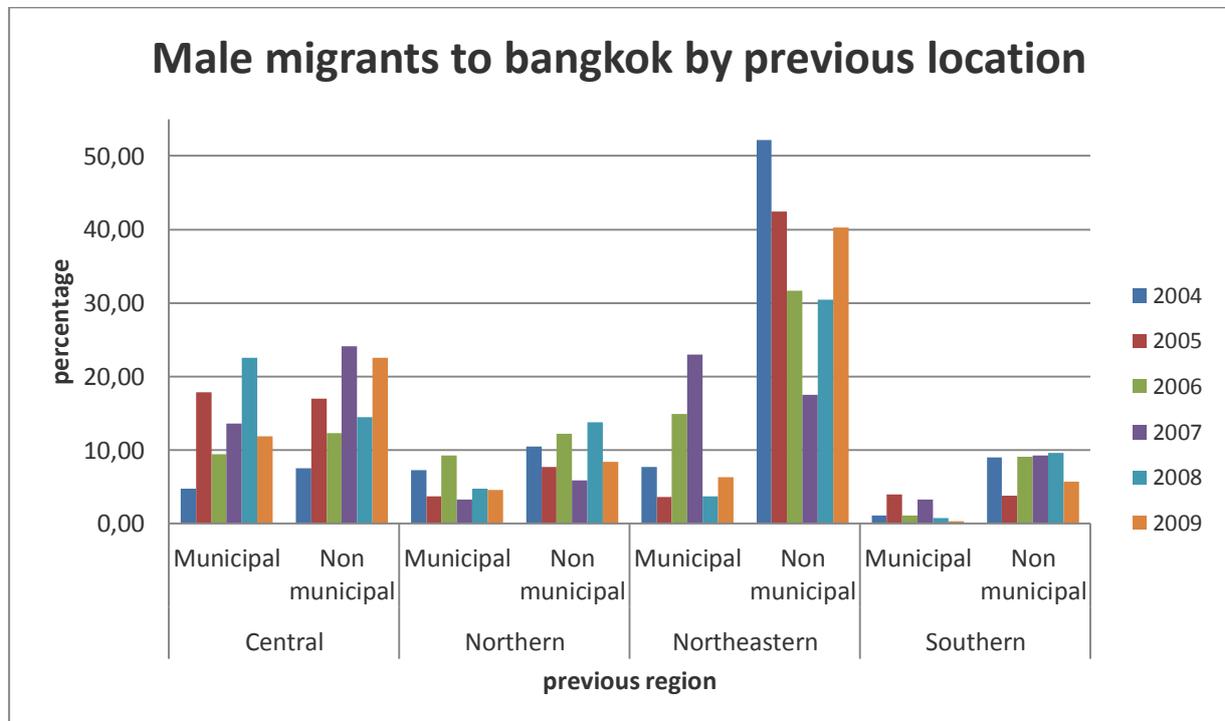


Figure 4.4.4-1 Male migrants to Bangkok by previous location

We see that in figure 4.4.4-1, the central region males who migrate to Bangkok are pretty equally divided between municipal and non-municipal migrants.

From the south, there is a big difference however in 2005, when we compare with 2004. 26 December 2004 was of course the day of the Tsunami in South East Asia. In 2004, only 1.2% of all male migrants were coming from the municipal-south, which is in line with other years, although 2005 shows 3.95% of male municipal migrants from the south. With the non-municipal southern males, we see why 2005 is special. Far less males from the non-municipal south migrated to Bangkok. In the surrounding years, around 9% of all male migrants were coming from the non-municipal south, but in 2005 only 3.77% was coming from that area. Why this decrease was the case is not clear from the literature.

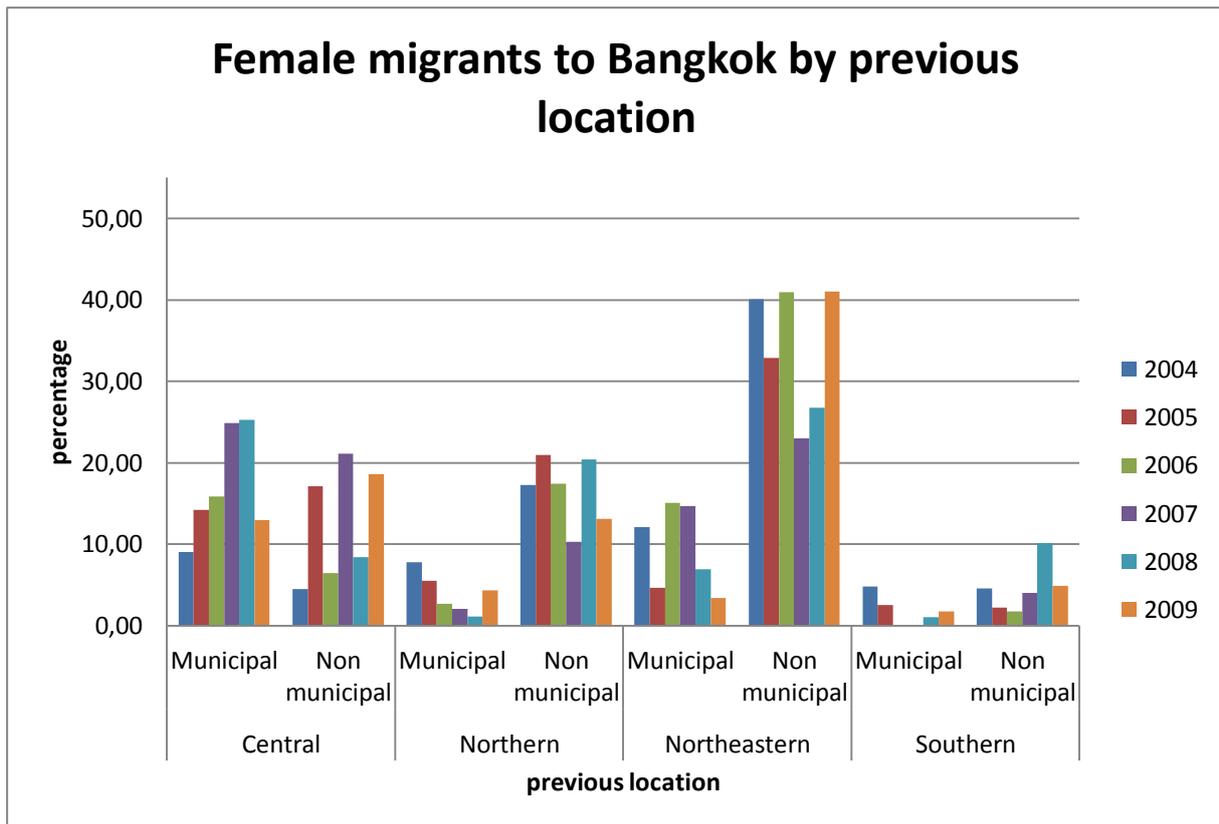


Figure 4.4.4-2 Female migrants to Bangkok by previous location

For the female migrants, we see, except for the central region, that the non-municipal areas are more important sending locations, just like with the males in figure 4.4.4-1. From the north and the south, the municipal area's hardly send any females to Bangkok. The central municipal area sends a lot more females in 2007 than males. Regarding the south, religion could play a role here. Hauser (2000) states that most Thai Muslims are living in the most southern parts of Thailand. According to NSO (2008-2) 93,7% of all Thai are Buddhist, and a little over 5,3% are Muslim. If nearly all of the Muslims live in the same area, this could be a huge push factor for Bangkok and a pull factor for the south.

When we compare males to females, we see that females move substantially more from the northern part (mostly non-municipal) of Thailand. In both categories, the northeastern migration is the biggest group, where 2009 shows somewhat of a revival, reaching the same levels as in 2004 and 2006, especially for females.

For both males and females the data shows that over 40% of all migrants to Bangkok come from the northeast-non-municipal area. In 2009, around 20% of all migrants (both males and females) come from the non-municipal areas in the central region of Thailand, which leaves only 40% to be divided between all other 6 categories.

4.4.5 Previous region

I also made some 'pie charts', which show easily the total migration to Bangkok differences per year. We see, for example in figures 4.4.5-1 – 4.4.5-4 that the southern part of Thailand sends respectively 4%, 6%, 10% and 6% of the total share of migrants to Bangkok. These differences are pretty big, if you consider the small share of the total amount of migrants.

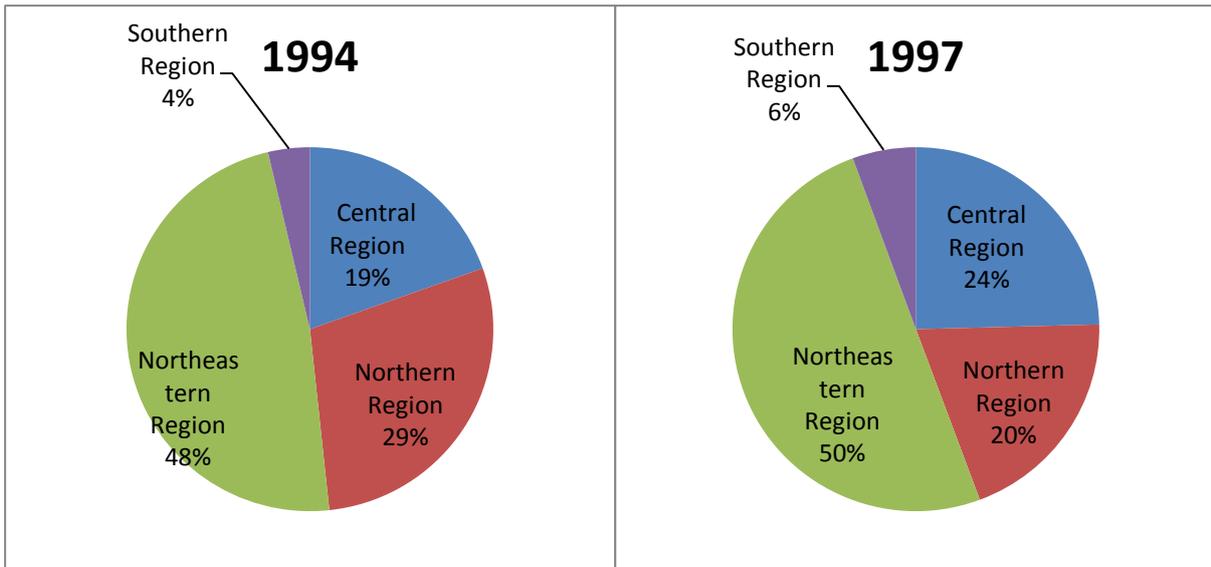


Figure 4.4.5-1 Previous region, 1994

Figure 4.4.5-2 Previous region, 1997

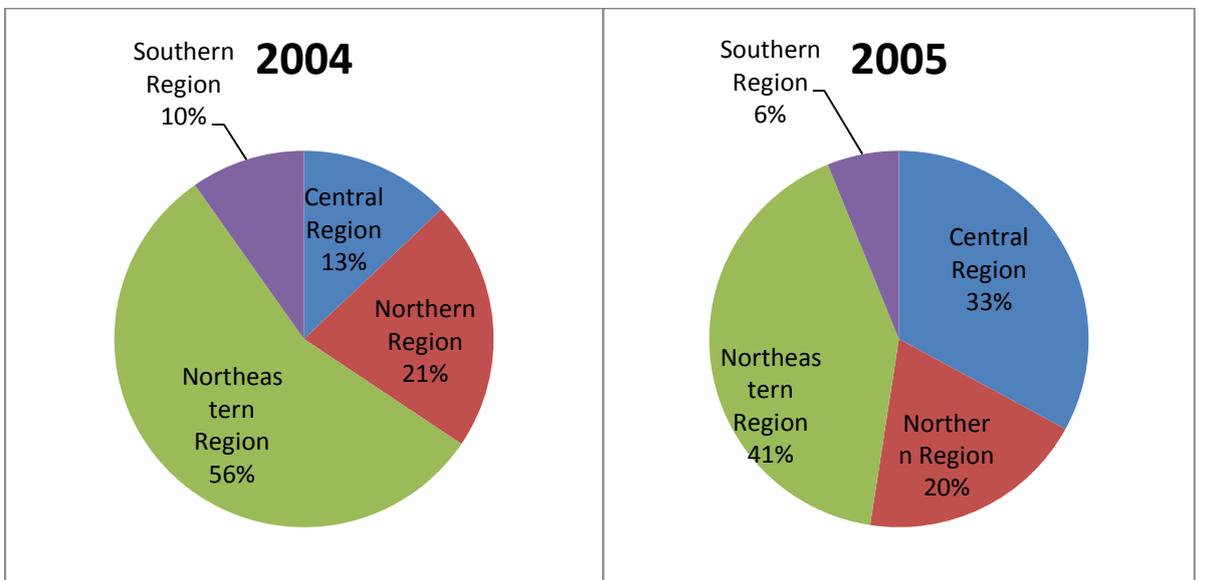


Figure 4.4.5-3 Previous region, 2004

Figure 4.4.5-4 Previous region, 2005

Figure 4.4.5-1 – 4.4.5-8 show us in a nice way that there are sometimes big differences per year in where the migrants come from in Bangkok. In 2004, only 13% of all migrants came from the central region. In 2007, only 3 years later, 42% of all migrants came from this region. This was mainly due to a decrease in migrating people from the northern and northeastern regions. The total numbers of migrants that came to Bangkok in these years also changed a lot: in 2007 there were only 25% of the total number of migrants moving to Bangkok. From the central region, the number of migrants rose from 2004 to 2007 from roughly 24.000 to 32.800, but from the north (-eastern) region, the total declined from roughly 177.000 to 28.000 migrants. According to IOM (2011) this could be attributed to the maturing process of the urban system of Thailand, where Chiang Mai and Nakhon Ratshasima for example are becoming much more important, with good universities and career-possibilities. Bangkok is no longer the single important city in Thailand, and perhaps the cities in the north (-eastern) part of Thailand are the ones that profit the most from this in this period.

In 1994, 29% of all migrants came from the northern area, whilst in 2007; only 11% of the migrants came from there. Also the south shows these differences, with 4% in 1994, and 11 percent in 2008. Also the northeastern part, which contributes almost every year to the largest amount of migrants, contributes to 34% of all migrants in 2008, and 46% to 56% in 2009 and 2004.

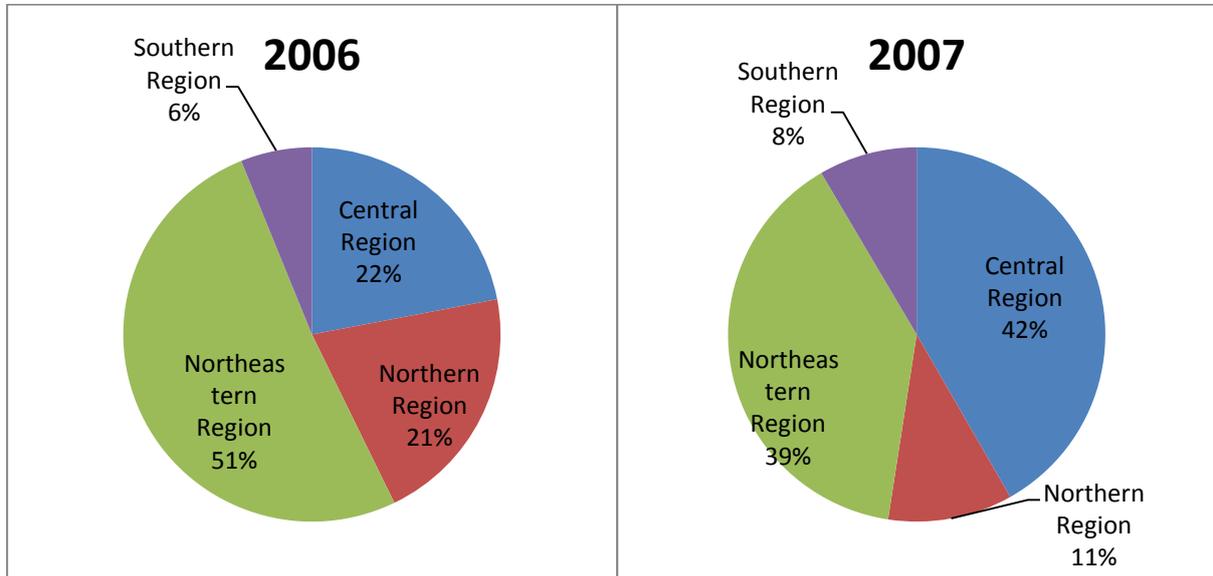


Figure 4.4.5-5 Previous region, 2006

Figure 4.4.5-6 Previous region, 2007

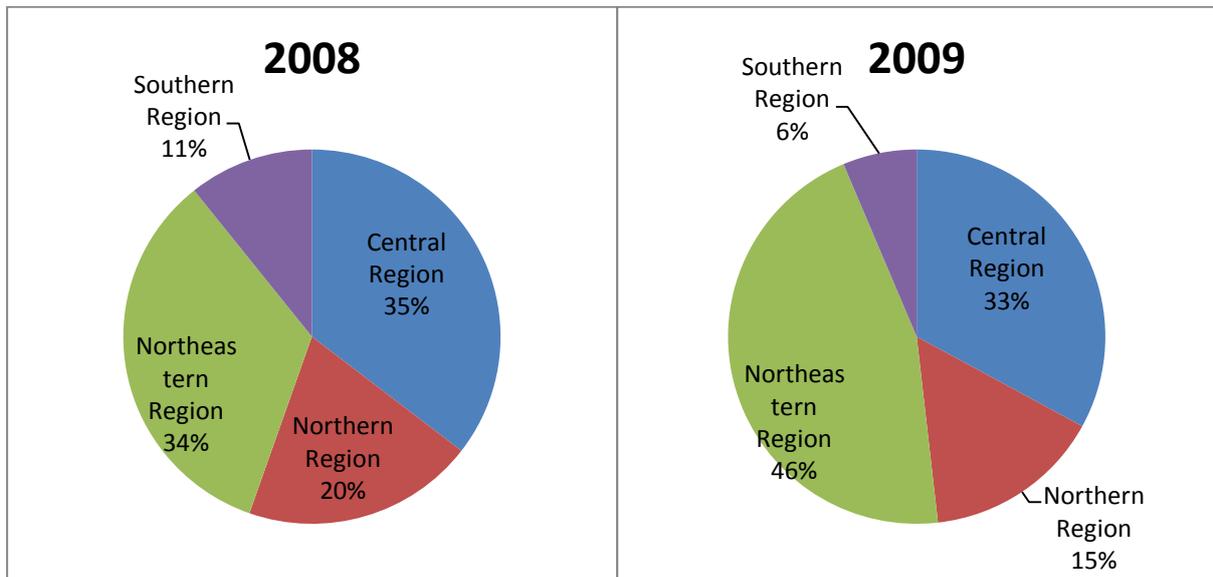


Figure 4.4.5-7 Previous region, 2008

Figure 4.4.5-8 Previous region, 2009

4.4.6 Conclusion

Between almost 0% and almost 3% of all migrants in Thailand are people who are coming from abroad, and between 0 and over 6% of all migrants to Bangkok are international migrants. These. For Bangkok, in 2004 and 2005 relatively much migrants were coming from abroad, which declined greatly thereafter. More men than women are migrating for

abroad to Thailand, but for Bangkok this is again the other way around (with 5 times more female than male migrants). Most migrants to Bangkok are from non-municipal area, with the northeastern region as the biggest sender. From the municipal area's, the central region is the region which sends the largest number of migrants. From the south there are substantially less migrants to Bangkok, especially for females. Religion could play a role here. From 2004 to 2007 there is a huge (84%) decline in Bangkok-bound migrants from the north (-eastern) regions. This could possibly be attributed to the growing importance of regional cities.

4.5 Population by daytime activity and sex

4.5.1 Introduction

In this chapter, I will present my findings related to the main daytime activity status of the migrants who migrated in the whole kingdom, and the migrants who came to Bangkok. I made different graphs for both males and females, and calculations for migrants and non-migrants. This way, we can make some interesting comparisons.

4.5.2 Working migrant population, by sex

First of all, we take a look at the percentage of people who are working, in figure 4.5.2-1.

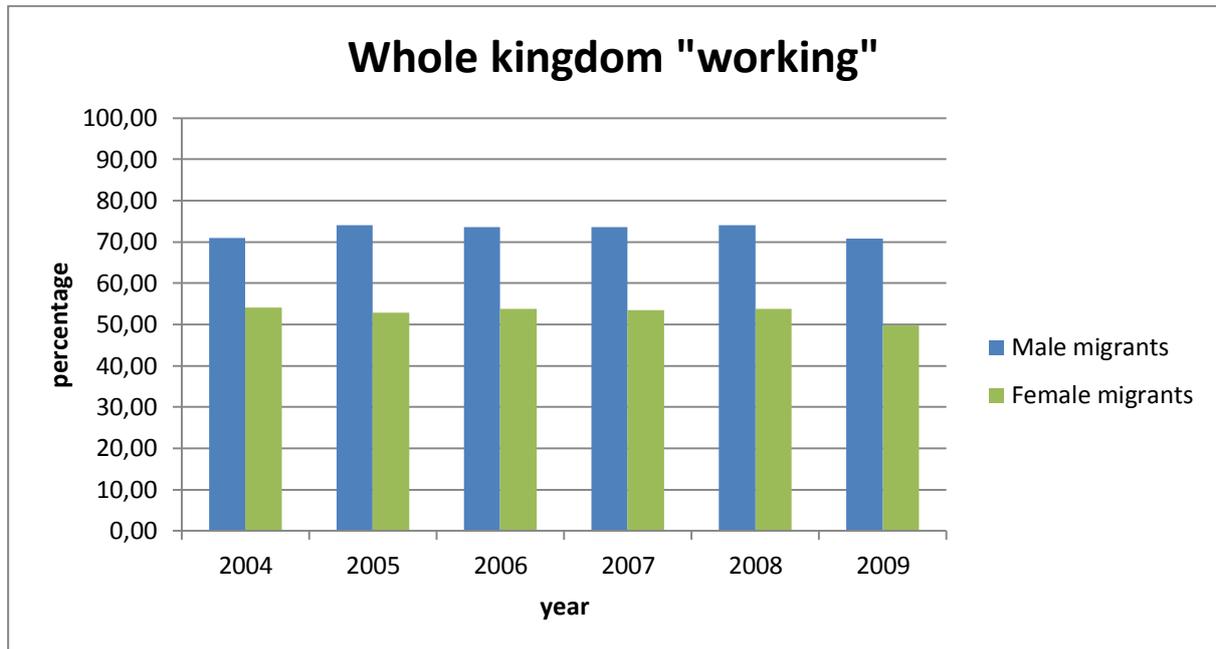


Figure 4.5.2-1 Whole kingdom working by sex

We see that in every year, the group of male migrants contributes the most to the percentage of working people in Thailand. The female migrants also contribute more to the working population in comparison to the non-migrants females (which I also calculated), although the differences are smaller than in the male groups. As far as trends go, I suppose you could say that both the female non-migrant group and the male non-migrant group show a slow but steady upwards trend. But for the female and male migrant groups, we see in figure 4.5.2-1 that in 2009 the share of 'working' people is declining a bit. Still, more than 70% of all migrant men are working, and more or less 50% of all migrant women are working as their main daily activity.

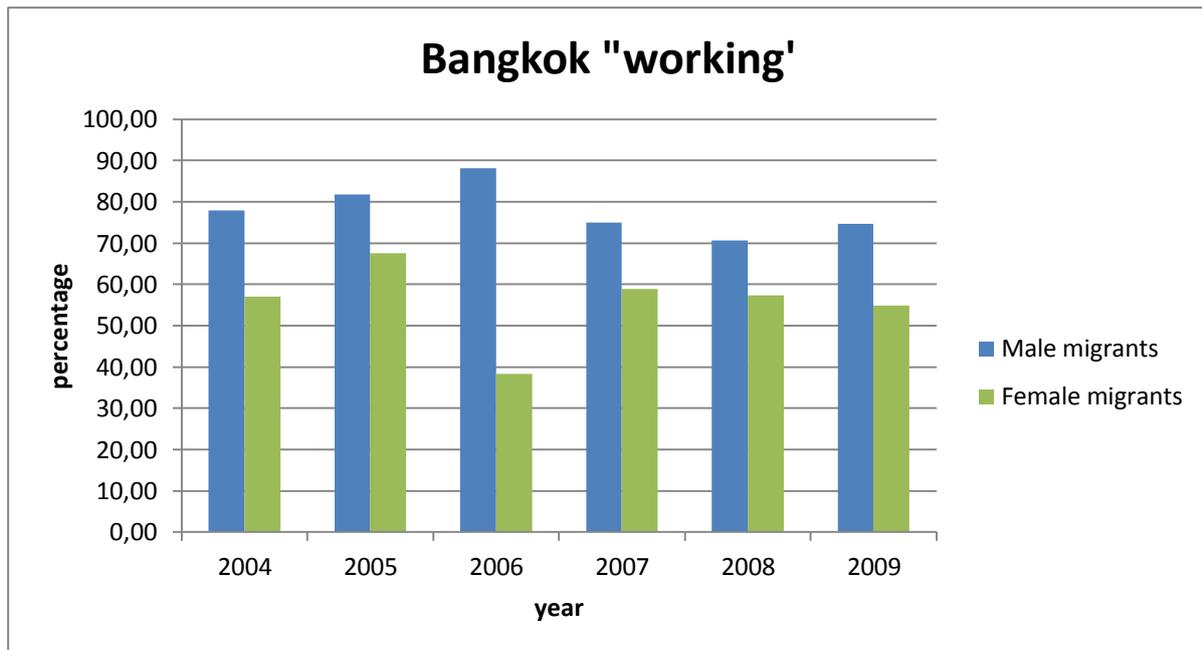


Figure 4.5.2-2 Bangkok working by sex

Then Bangkok, the non-migrant groups are very close to the situation in the whole of Thailand, but in figure 4.5.2-2, we see that the migrant groups are quite different. Especially in 2004-2006 there is a remarkable percentage of males actually working, and females show a significant drop in 2006. We saw in figure 4.3.3-2 that there were an unusual number of migrant women who came to Bangkok for educational purposes, and to return home or other family related business. The fact that so little women migrants are actually working is no surprise then, because a lot of women came to Bangkok in order to study.

4.5.3 Looking for work by sex and migration status

The next figures, 4.5.3-1 & 4.5.3-2, show the percentage of male and female migrants who are looking for work.

Thailand has, according to the literature, a very low unemployment rate, and I calculated with the survey-analysis that in the whole of Thailand not even 1.5% of the males/females are looking for a job. We do see an upward trend over the years for the migrant groups in the whole kingdom in figure 4.5.3-1, and for both the whole kingdom and Bangkok I saw extremely low percentages (under 0.16%) for the non-migrant groups.

According to the literature, it is normal for a country to have a unemployment level which is higher than 1.5%, so the trend in Thailand is not per se a negative trend. Actually, it means that the labor market is becoming a little bit relaxed, which should be a good thing. According to NSO (2011) the Thai population is ageing, which could become a problem in the future. If there are already not enough people to do the work in the last few years, it will be even harder to fill the jobs if the working population is becoming smaller every year. There could be some policy implications on this situation.

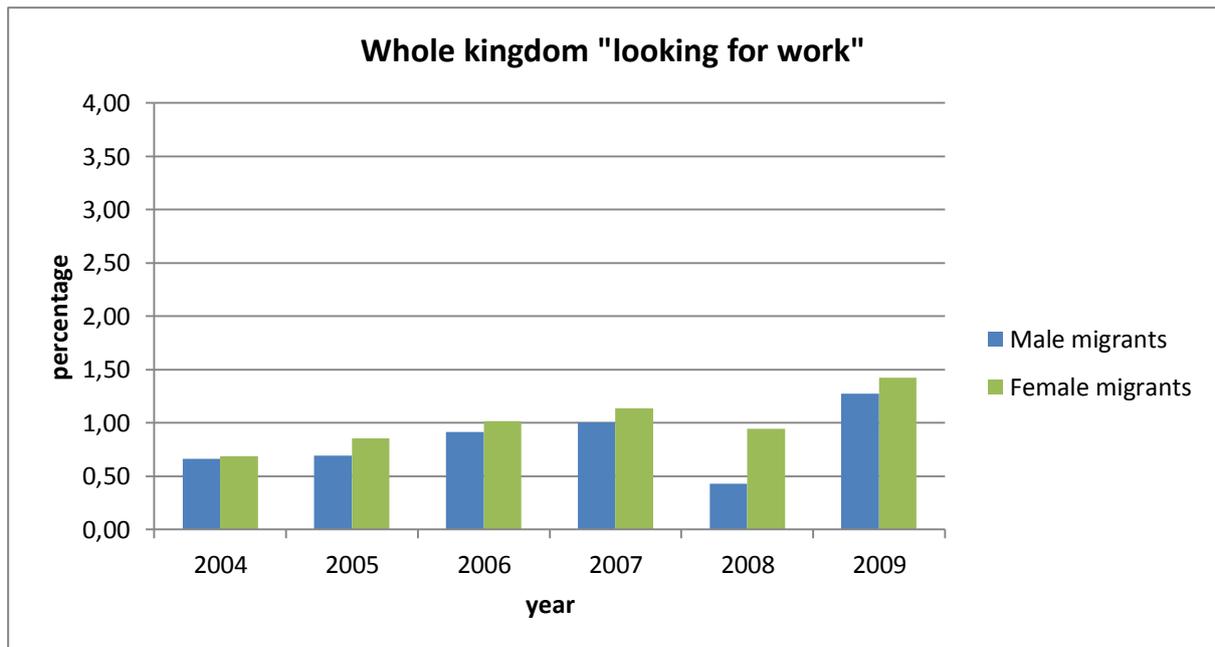


Figure 4.5.3-1, Whole kingdom looking for work by sex

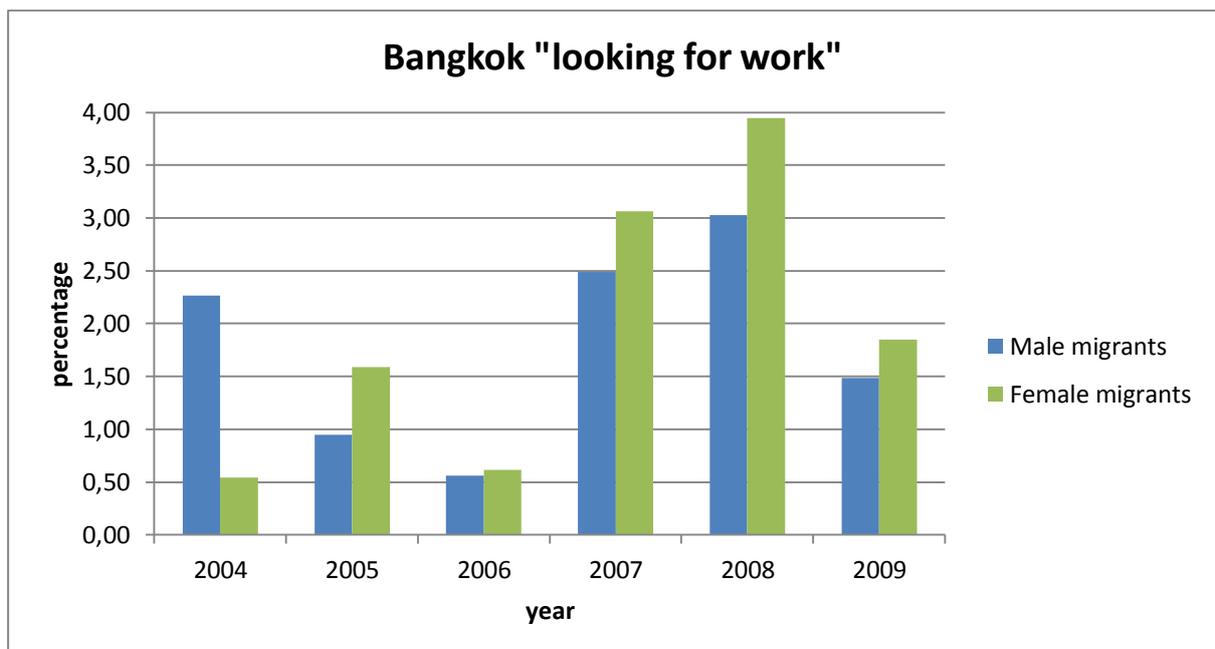


Figure 4.5.4-2, Bangkok looking for work by sex

The migrants in Bangkok show an interesting pattern. Where in 2004 far more male migrants than female migrants were looking for a job and in almost all other years females were looking for work more often than males. From the literature it is not clear why 2004 was such a special year. The United Nations (2008) state that around 2004 the oil and gas prices rose with 40% in Thailand and economic growth slowed down. It might be the case that male migrants were more vulnerable in the sectors where they were looking for work than female migrants. According to Chung et al. (2005), male migrants to Bangkok tend to work more often in heavy industries and especially taxi-services.

Both male and female migrants were looking for jobs more than in other years in 2007 and especially 2008.

4.5.4 Household workers by sex and migration status

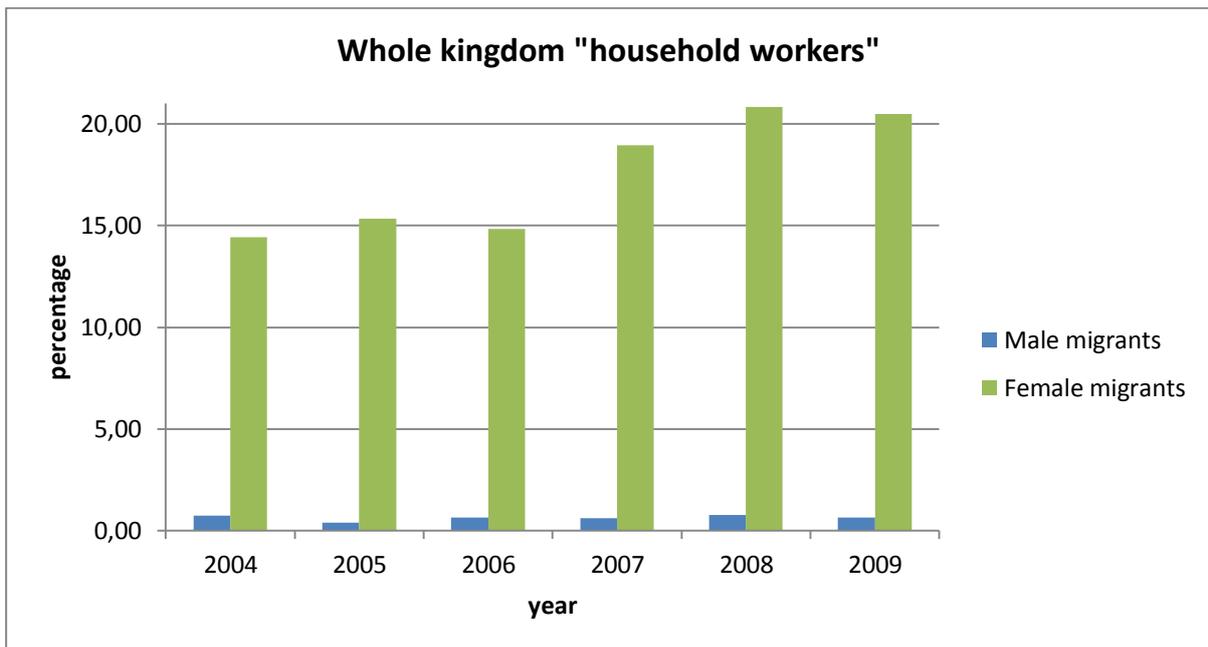


Figure 4.5.4-1, Whole kingdom household workers by sex

In figure 4.5.4-1, we see that female migrants are way more often household workers (not in the labor force) than migrant males. I also calculated the numbers for non-migrant groups, and female non-migrants are way less often situated in this category with only 6.6%. We also see an upward trend over the last years regarding the percentage of migrant females as household workers. We also see a clear difference in sex. Males (both migrants and non-migrants) contribute almost nothing to the percentage of household workers in all years (this is also the case for non-migrant males).

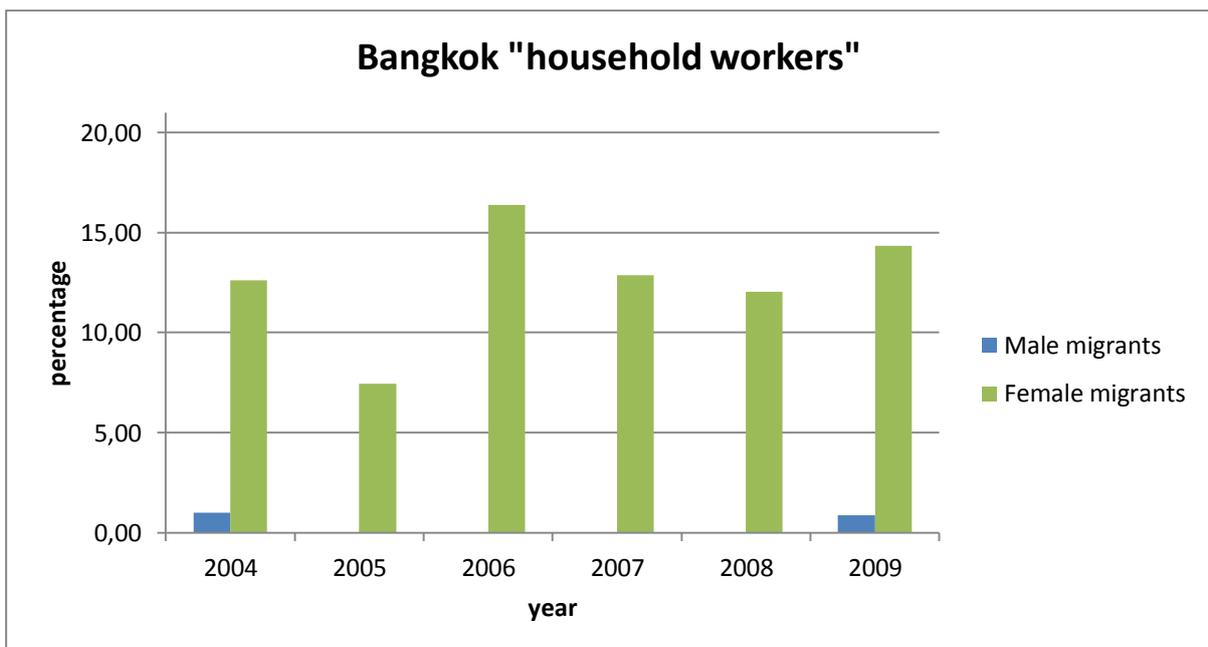


Figure 4.5.4-2, Bangkok household workers by sex

In Bangkok, we see in figure 4.5.4-2 the same situation regarding the males, both the

migrants and, which I also calculated, the non-migrants. For the females we see a more versatile situation than in the whole kingdom, but here I would like to point out that the percentage of females who are household workers is a lot bigger in the non-migrant group in comparison with the whole kingdom. I do not yet see a clear direction in the pattern, but there might be a declining trend for the female non migrant group. We see that in 2006 there were relatively high numbers of female migrants in the 'household' category, which is not that surprising, given the reasons for migration, given in figure 4.3.3-2 earlier, where a relatively high number of women migrated to Bangkok in order to return home or do other family related business.

4.5.5 Studies by sex and migration status

At last, schooling. The percentage of people going to school instead of working or doing household work, seems to be declining over the years, if we take a look at figure 4.5.5-1, especially for the female migrants.

The female and male non-migrant groups, which I also calculated, are quite steady actually, and not that much different from the migrant groups. The male migrant group also seems quite steady. Why females are less inclined to migrate for study-purposes is not very clear from the literature, but the IOM (2011) states that other cities than Bangkok are becoming more important for work and education, which also means that some people do not need to migrate at all to obtain a desired education.

The declining trend does not tell us that people will be less educated, we will take a look at that in the next chapter, but it could also tell us that the school-system is more evenly spread, so people do not necessary need to move to obtain education. If this is true, we can expect a decline in migration for educational purposes for both males and females in the future.

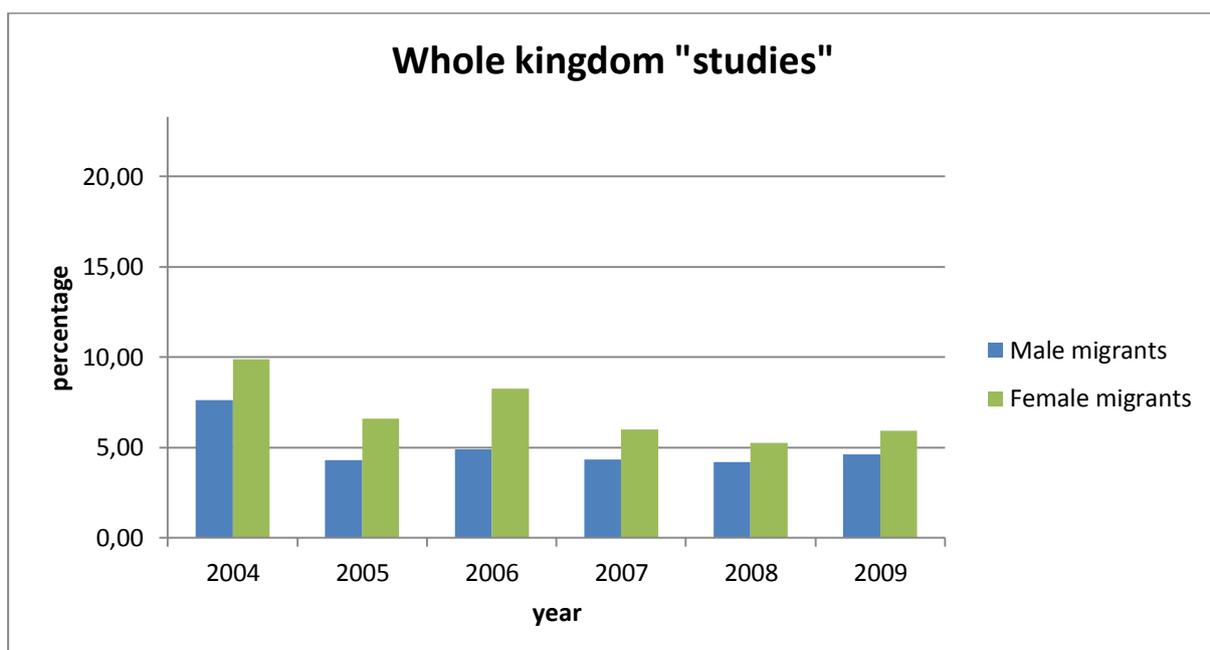


Figure 4.5.5-1, Whole kingdom studies by sex

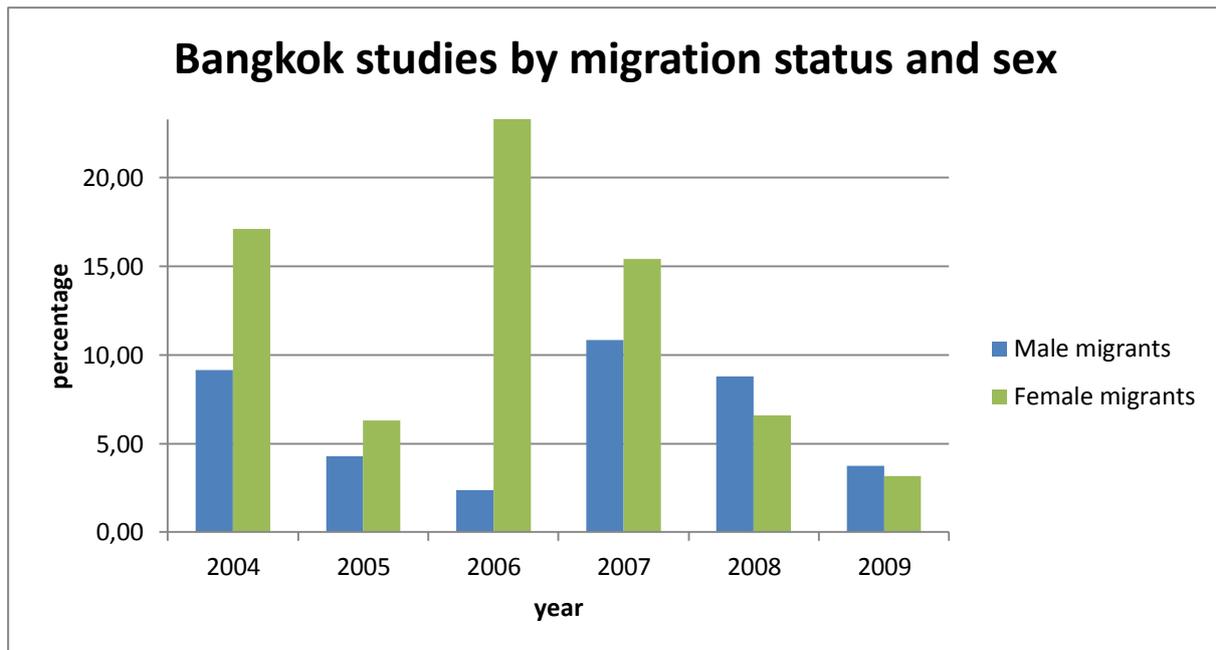


Figure 4.5.5-2, Bangkok studies by sex

When we make a comparison with the situation in Bangkok, we see a big difference, especially for the female migrant group. Females seem to go to Bangkok quite a lot for study purposes, when compared to males. The year 2006 stands out a lot, which can be explaining a bit why the female migrant working group was so low in 2006. There is a huge difference in this category. In 2009, only 3,19% of all female migrants went to Bangkok to study. In 2006 a staggering 23,3% of the female migrants went to Bangkok to study. We already expected this result after figure 4.3.3-2. In all categories there seems to be more variation between years than for the whole kingdom.

4.5.6 Conclusion

The majority of migrants in Thailand is working as their main daily activity. Male migrants are the biggest contributors to this group, with over 70% of all male migrants actually working. More or less than 50% of all female migrants actually work. In Bangkok the differences are bigger per year than in the rest of Thailand. In Bangkok 70% - 90% of all men are working, which is even a higher number than for the whole kingdom. And (except for 2006 when an unusual big number of females came to Bangkok for educational purposes or to return home) female migrants also work more often (55% - 70%) than female migrants in the whole kingdom. In Thailand not many people are looking for a job, but in Bangkok a little more than in the rest of Thailand. Only few migrant males are household workers in both Bangkok and the whole kingdom. Female migrants are more often household workers, especially in the whole kingdom. There is a declining trend in the number of migrants that are studying, but more migrant-people tend to study in Bangkok than in the whole kingdom.

4.6 Educational level

4.6.1 Introduction

In this chapter, I will present my findings related to the educational level of the migrants who migrated in Thailand, and the migrants who came to Bangkok. I made different graphs for both male- and female-migrants. This way, we can make some interesting comparisons.

4.6.2 Educational level whole kingdom migrants by sex

The first 2 figures, 4.6.2-1 and 4.6.2-2, show us how educated the migrants are in the whole of Thailand.

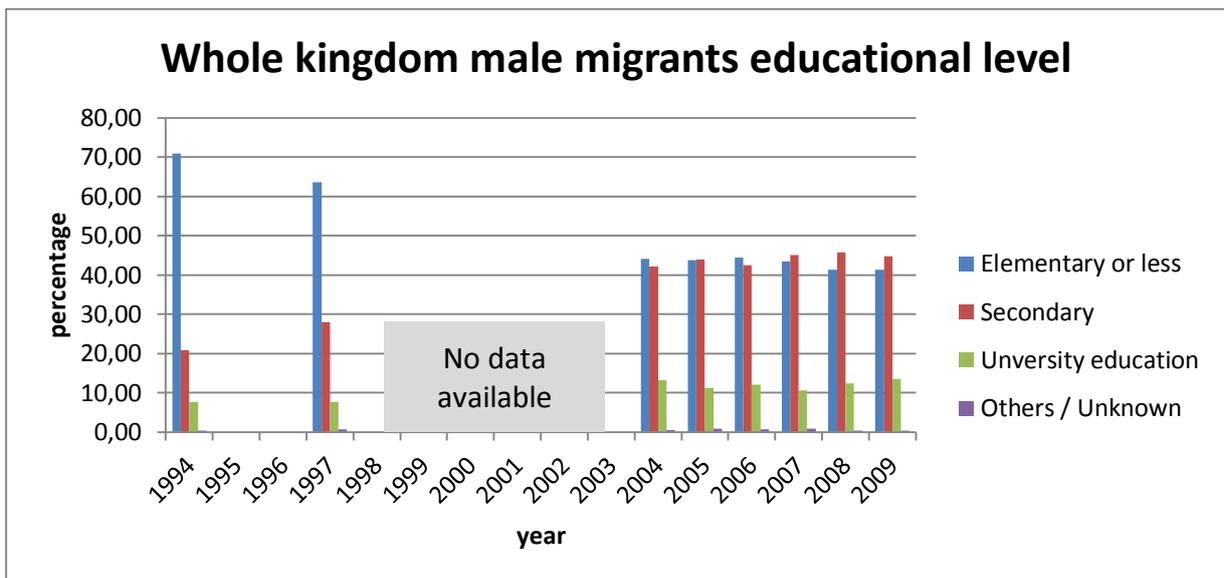


Figure 4.6.2-1, Whole kingdom male migrants educational level

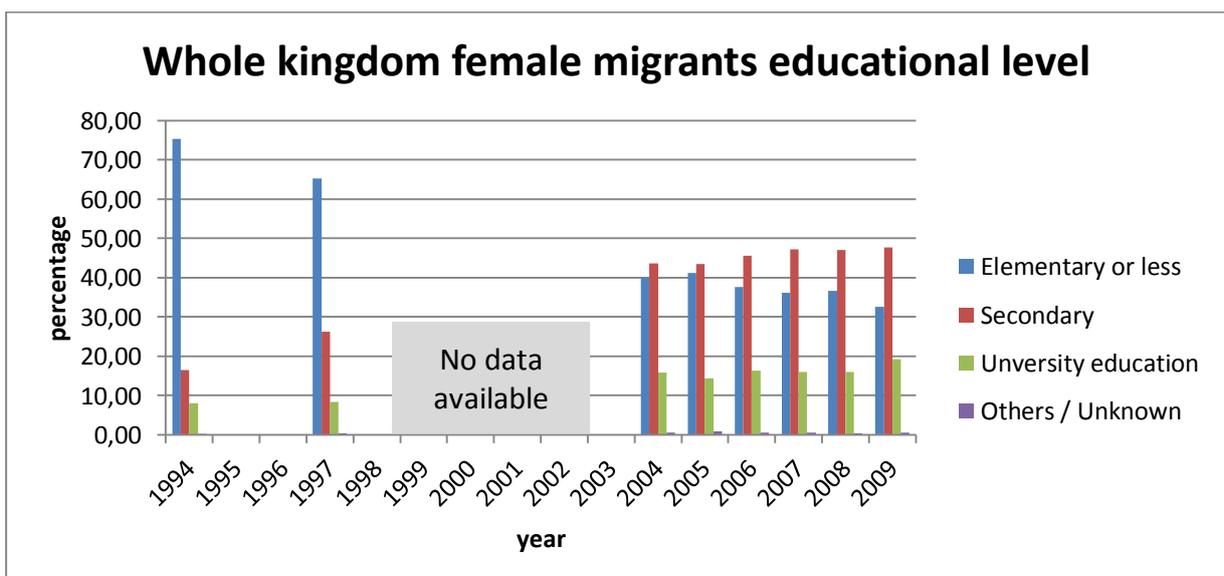


Figure 4.6.2-2, Whole kingdom female migrants educational level

The figures show very clearly that the percentage of people that have followed an education equal to or less than elementary is heavily declined in the period 1994-2004, where in 1997

it was already clear this group was declining rapidly. From 2004 onwards, we see a continuing increase in educational level, but at a lower rate in comparison to the period 1994-2004. I also calculated the educational level of non-migrants, and people who decide to migrate are usually higher educated than people who do not migrate.

If we take look at the university educated migrants in Thailand, 13,60% of the males fell in this category in 2009 (in 1994 only 7,75%). From the female migrants, in 2009, 19,27% fell in this category (in 1994: 7,96%). Since 2004 there has not been an increase in university schooled males anymore, whilst with females the percentage grew further.

Female migrants tend to be higher educated overall compared to males, from 2004 onwards. We will see in chapter 4.4 that females are more often already married when migrating, so a possible explanation could be that females migrate at a later age compared to men, and therefore have had more time to attend higher education. But in chapter 4.2.5 we saw this is not for every year the case, but for 2006-2008 this could be true.

4.6.3 Educational level Bangkok migrants by sex

The last 2 graphs show us how educated the migrants are in Bangkok.

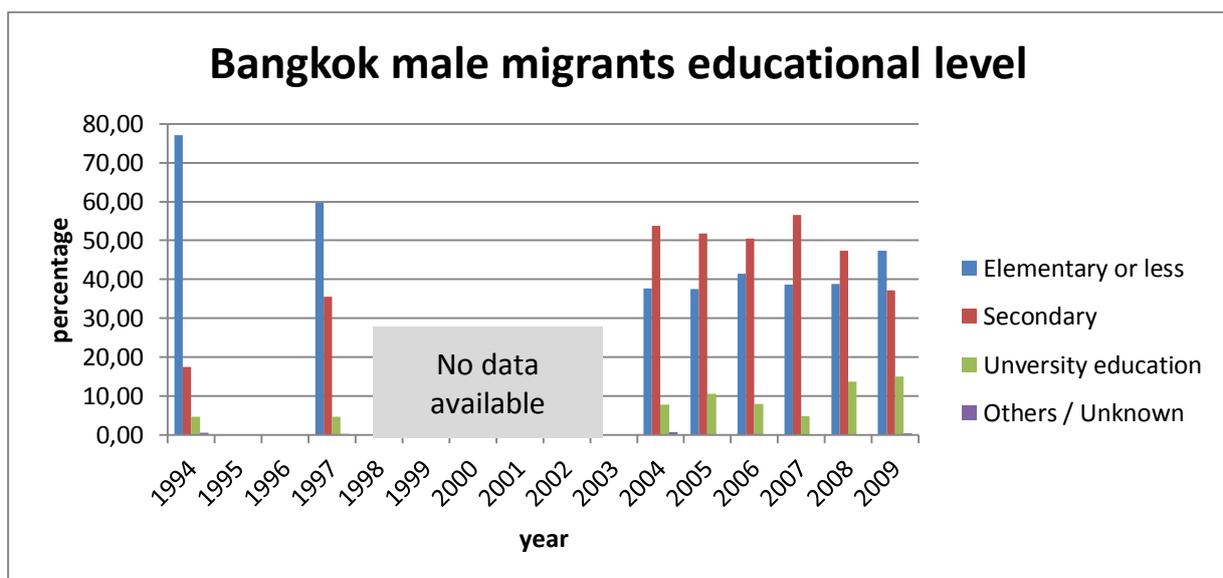


Figure 4.6.3-1, Bangkok male migrants educational level

According to figures 4.6.3-1 and 4.6.3-2, in 1994 77,17% of all male migrants fell in the 'elementary schooled or lower' category, and a staggering 85,58% of all female migrants to Bangkok fell in this category. In 2004, 37,69% of all male migrants to Bangkok fell in this category, and 42,78% of all females. I point out that in 2009 this category is rising again, especially fierce with the male migrants to Bangkok. Still, the change in educational level of migrants to Bangkok is very large.

When we compare the Bangkok migrants to the whole kingdom migrants, we see that the numbers are a lot more versatile. In figure 4.6.2-2 we already saw that the number of migrants has declined greatly over the years, which could explain why the yearly educational

levels are fluctuating more when compared to the whole kingdom migrant population.

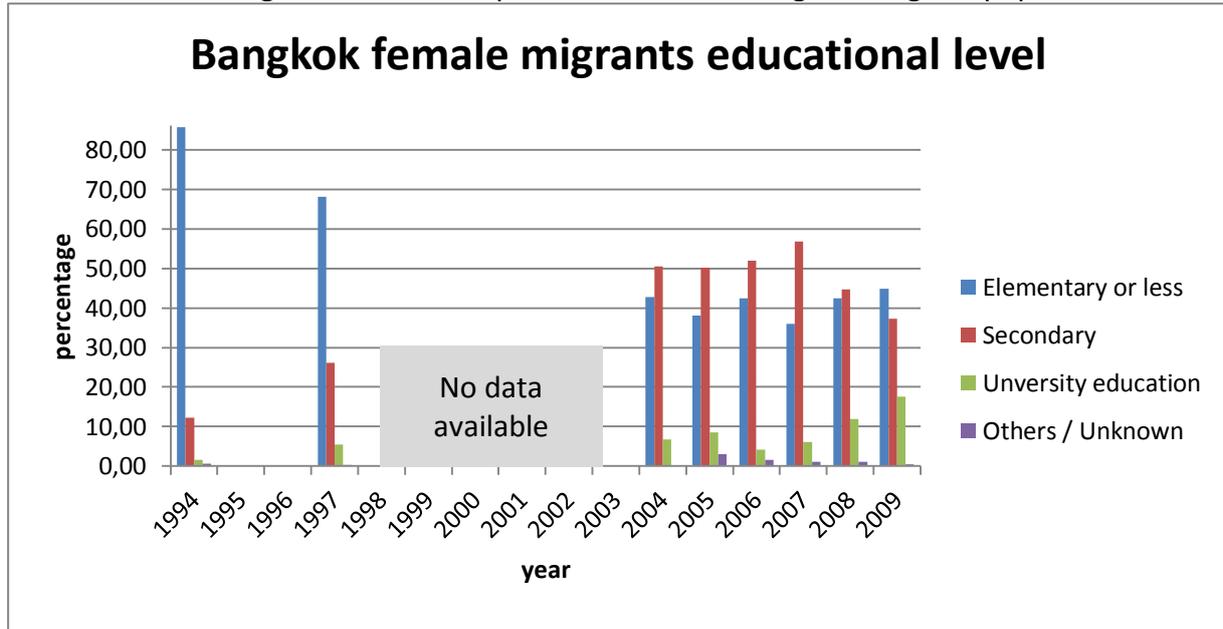


Figure 4.6.3-2, Bangkok female migrants educational level

Female migrants in Bangkok accounted for a percentage of 6.72% in the university training in 2004, according to figure 4.6.3-2, and this increased dramatically in 2009 to 17,50%, but still this is way lower than the non-migrant groups in Bangkok, which I also calculated, and accounted for over 29% university training in 2008 and 2009 for example. Of course it is possible that people move to Bangkok in order to get a higher educational level, but given the fact that most people come to Bangkok to find work, it is not the only explanation probably.

Male migrants are slowly falling behind compared to females. In 2004 there were more males with university training migrating to Bangkok compared to females, but in 2009 the percentage of females in this category took the lead. Why this is the case is not clear yet from the literature.

In the migrants group, there is a recent decline for the upper-secondary schooled female migrants, whilst the university schooled migrants is steadily increasing since 2006.

4.6.4 Conclusion

Regarding the whole kingdom, the educational level of migrants has improved over the years greatly. For women even more than for men. In recent years we still see an increase in education for women, who are higher educated than men now. The males are since 2004 roughly on the same level until 2009, so there is no more improvement in recent years. Bangkok attracts more elementary schooled migrants than the whole of Thailand, but especially in the females category, the share of university schooled migrants is rapidly rising for the last 4 years now. Still, educational levels of non-migrants in Bangkok are a lot higher compared to the migrants.

4.7 Marital status

4.7.1 Introduction

In this chapter, I will present my findings related to the marital status of the migrants who migrated in the whole kingdom, and the migrants who came to Bangkok. I made different graphs for both males and females, migrants and non-migrants. This way, we can make some interesting comparisons.

4.7.2 Marital status of migrants in the whole kingdom

First, we take a look at the marital status of migrant groups for Thailand, by sex.

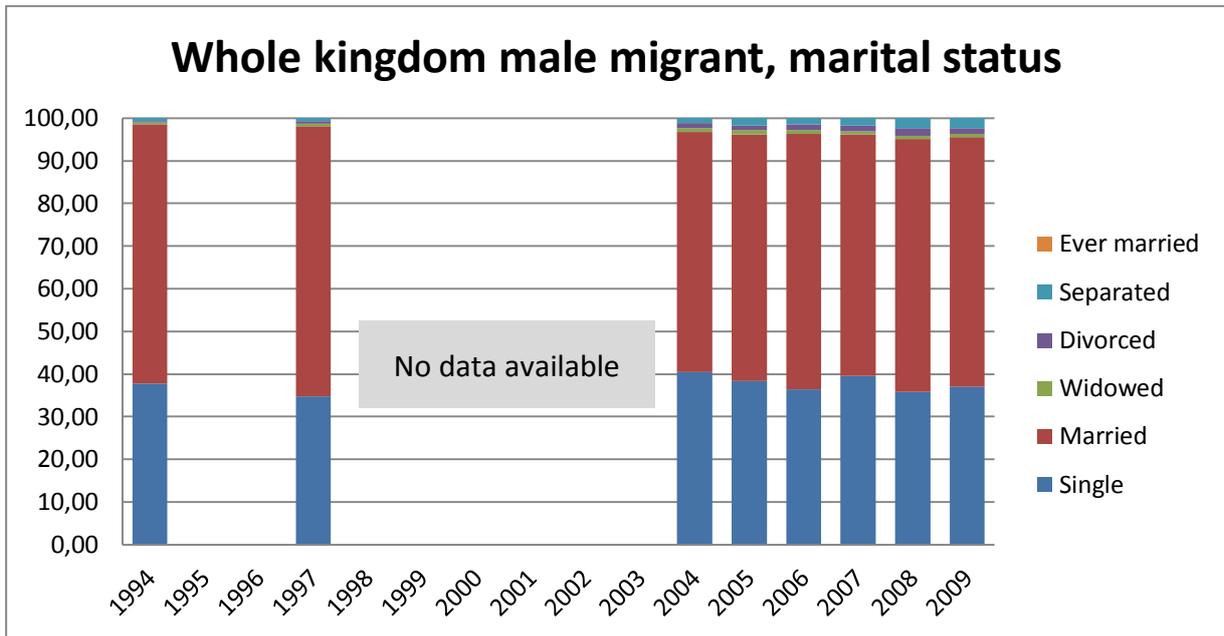


Figure 4.7.2-1, Whole kingdom male migrants, marital status

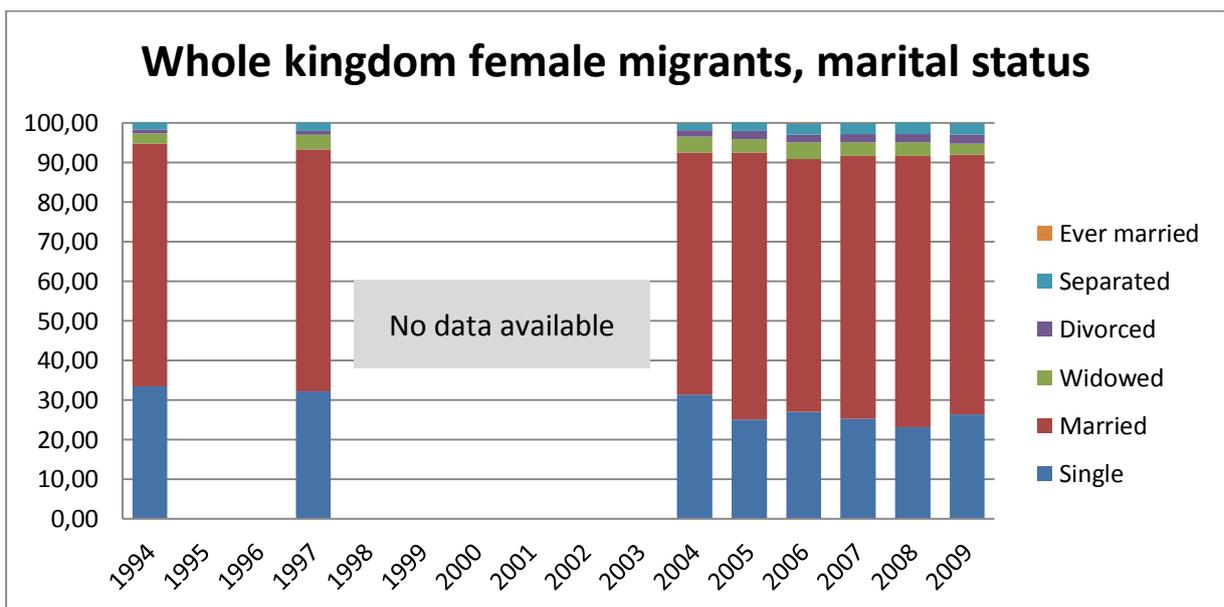


Figure 4.7.2-2, Whole kingdom female migrants, marital status

Regarding the whole kingdom, there is not so much difference since 1994, according to figures 4.7.2-1 & 4.7.2-2. The group that grew most is the separated group for both male and female migrants, but still, this group is mostly under 3%. For the female group, we can state that the 'singles' category is following a downward trend.

2005 was a special year, because a relatively large group of married females migrated, according to figure 4.7.2-2. In 2004, 61,08% of all female migrants were married, and in 2005 67,34% of all females who migrated in the whole kingdom were married. Because I have no data for the period directly before 2004, we don't know if this increase in the 'married' category is a trend which was broken by 2004. The literature is not going into detail on this. There seems to be a trend that the married group is increasing over the years, from a little over 60% in 1994 to more than 68% in 2008. NSO (2011) states that the Thai population is ageing, and as we have seen in figures 4.2.5-1 – 4.2.5-8, this is also true for the migrants. With age comes a higher probability of being married, so it is logical to see that the 'single' group is declining, and the 'married' and other categories are increasing.

4.7.3 Marital status of migrants in Bangkok, by sex

When we take a look at the male migrant Bangkok population in figures 4.7.3-1 and 4.7.3-2, we see the following differences, in comparison with the non-migrant males (which I also calculated) there are less widowed persons, less divorced persons, more separated persons, more single persons (especially in 2006), and except for 1994 and 2009, less married persons. We see more single men migrating to Bangkok in comparison with the whole kingdom, and inevitable less married males migrate towards Bangkok. Most people who migrate to Bangkok do that because they want to find work (figure 4.5.4-2), and it seems that more singles are migrating to Bangkok, and these people are looking for work, which could also have something to do with age.

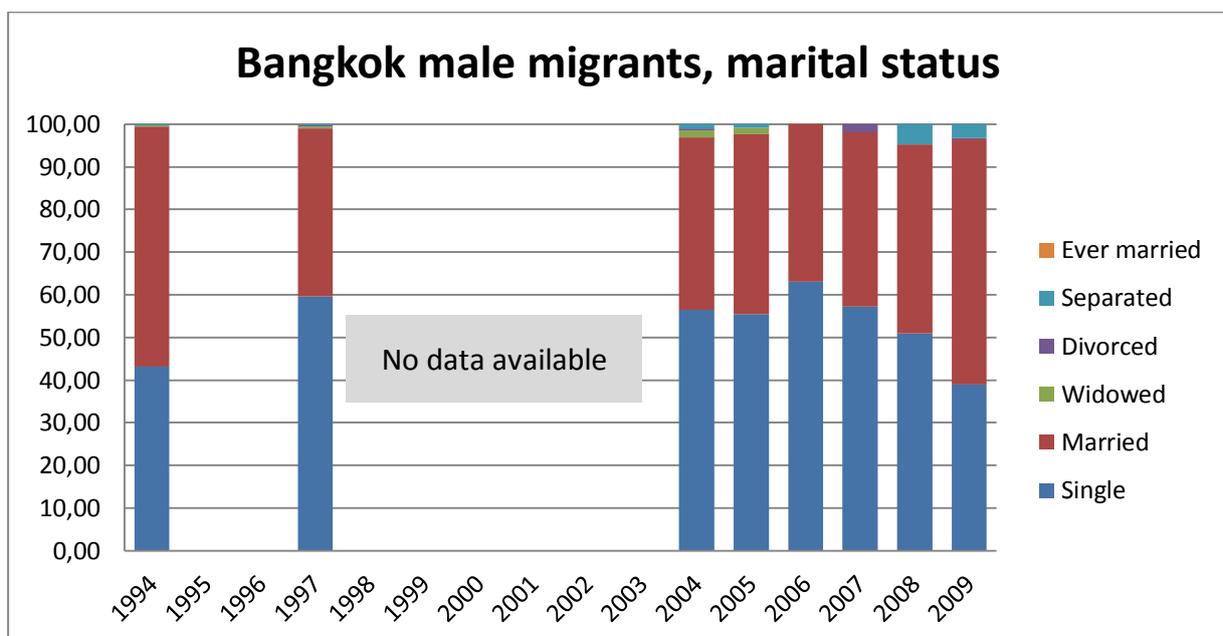


Figure 4.7.3-1, Bangkok male migrants, marital status

The female migrants have also less married, more single and less widowed persons. The female versus the male Bangkok migrants show us that more Bangkok bound female migrants are married than male migrants to Bangkok, according to figures 4.7.3-1 & 4.7.3-2, and that there are more single men than women migrating towards Bangkok. There are a lot more divorced and separated migrant females than migrant males in Bangkok. Camfield and Jongudomkarn (2006) state that in Isaan (north-eastern Thailand) a ‘good woman’ does not divorce. It seems that there is a social problem for a women when she is divorced, and this could be a push factor for her to leave the Isaan, and move to Bangkok to start a new life. This could at least partially explain why there are more female divorced/separated migrants towards Bangkok than males.

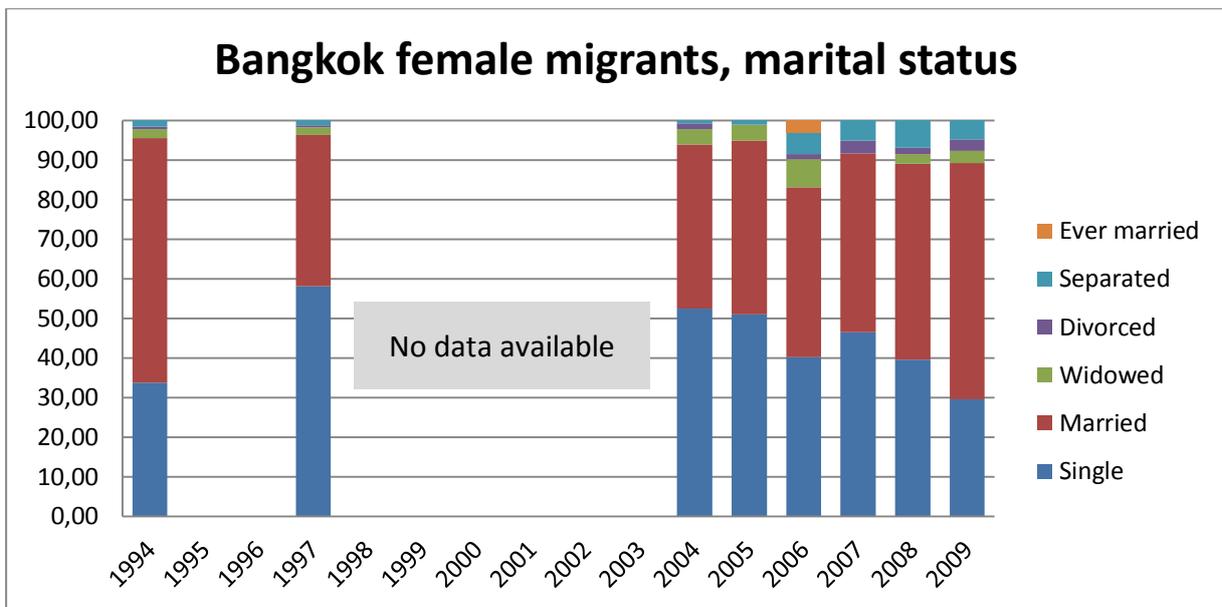


Figure 4.7.3-2, Bangkok female migrants, marital status

4.7.4 Conclusion

For the whole kingdom, not very much has changed in marital status for migrants over the last 15 years, but there is a trend that more married females are migrating over these years, and there are substantially more single male migrants than single female migrants. In recent years there is a sharp decrease in the number of single male migrants coming to Bangkok, and an increase in married male migrants. The female migrants who come to Bangkok are relatively large in the widowed, divorced and seperated categories. Less single females compared to males migrate to Bangkok.

4.8 Remittances

4.8.1 Introduction

In the next part, I am going to present my findings on remittances. First of all, we take a look at the number of people who remit. We take a look at the situation for the whole kingdom, and for Bangkok. We take a look at the type of remittance people remitted, and finally we take a look at the people who did not remit, and what the reasons were not to remit.

4.8.2 Did people remit?

First of all, I would like to focus on the question on how big the group of people is who actually remit anything. I found data for both Thailand as a whole and for Bangkok, so first we are going to see if there are any differences in the percentage of people who remit between the whole kingdom and Bangkok.

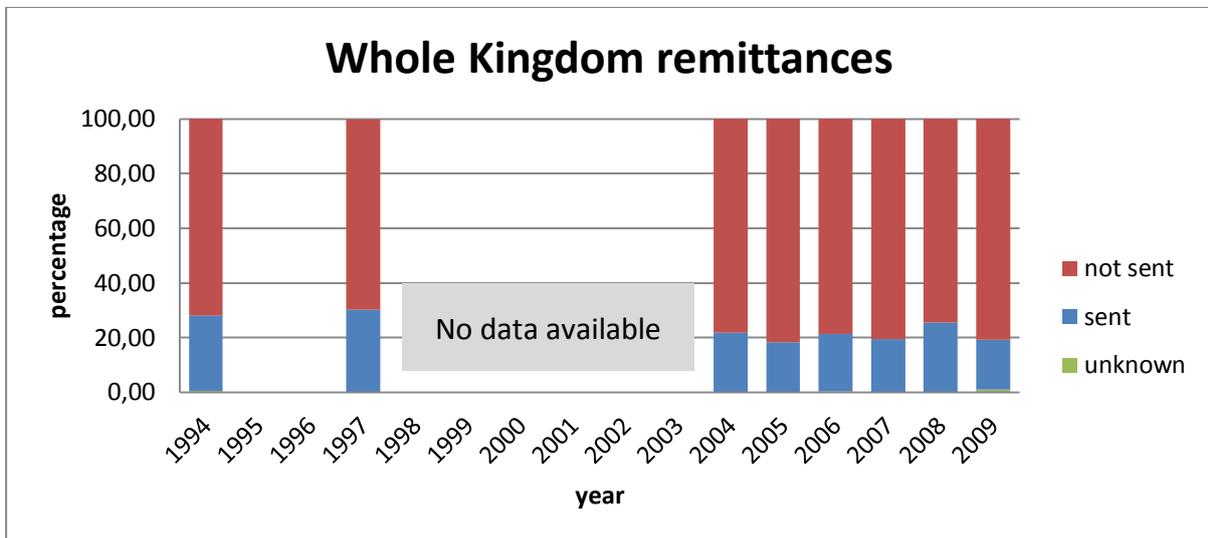


Figure 4.8.2-1 Whole kingdom remittances

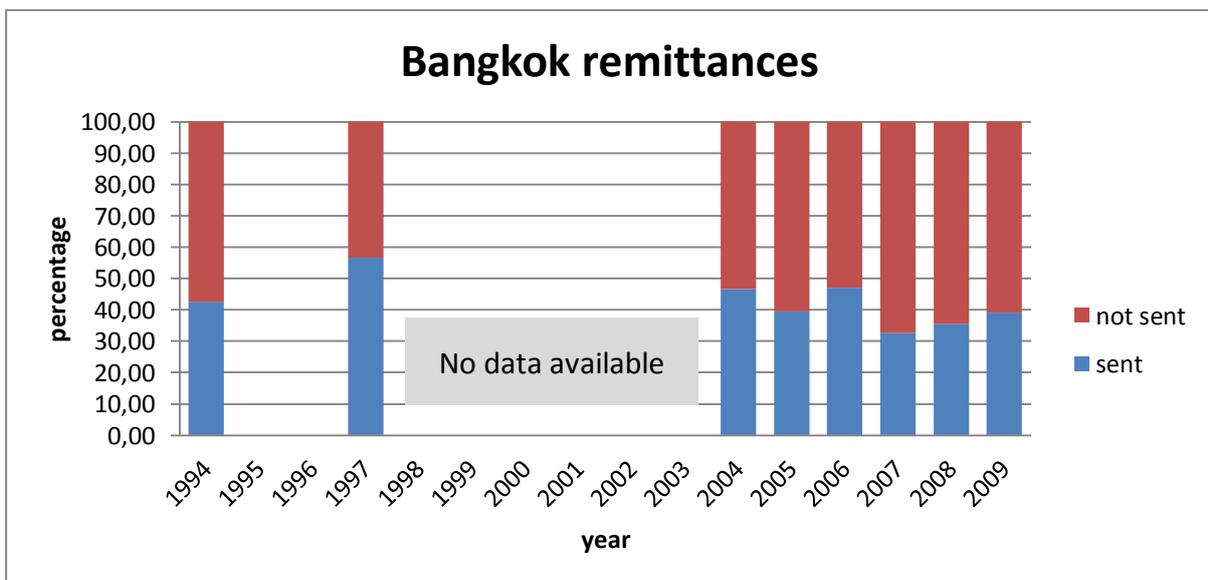


Figure 4.8.2-2 Bangkok remittances

In figure 4.8.2-1, we see that a majority of migrants in the whole kingdom do not remit anything at all. In 1994, almost 72% of the migrants in Thailand did not remit. In 2009 this percentage rose to almost 81%.

In Bangkok, it is a different story, with different results compared to the whole of Thailand. In figure 4.8.2-2 we see that in 1994, a little over 57% of the migrants who went to Bangkok did not remit anything, and in 2009 a little over 60% of the people who went to Bangkok did not remit. In 1997 there even were more migrants in Bangkok who remitted than migrants who did not remit.

In figure 4.8.2-3 I have tried to show, by using a trend line, the downward trend regarding the people who actually do remit from Bangkok. Of course the red line (people who do not remit) is the exact opposite of the blue one, because combined, they add up to 100% of all migrants. It looks like, over the years, that less people are remitting anything to their home town. The total number of migrants is also going down, as we saw in figure 4.2.3-2, but this is no explanation why people would remit less.

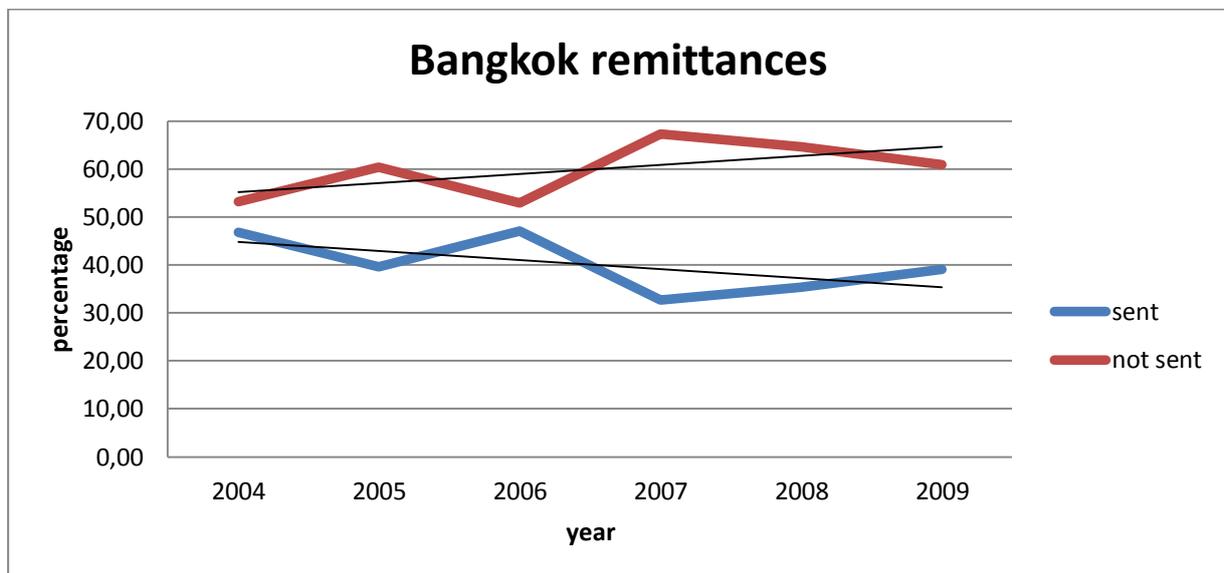


Figure 4.8.2-3 Bangkok remittances trend line

4.8.3 People who remitted

In the next four figures I have tried to show the differences in remittance behavior between males and females for both the whole kingdom and also for Bangkok. The figures 4.8.3-1 & 4.8.3-2 show the data for the whole kingdom, where in figure 4.8.3-1 we can easily see the percentages for each group, and in figure 4.8.3-2 we can make a simple comparison to add up the totals for males and females. In figures 4.8.3-3 and 4.8.3-4 we see the same things, but now they show the data for Bangkok.

There are 3 options on what migrants can remit in my thesis. They can remit:

- Money
- Goods (the dataset speaks of things here, so I keep speaking of 'things' too)
- Money and goods combined. There are migrants who both send money and send or bring 'things' to their hometowns

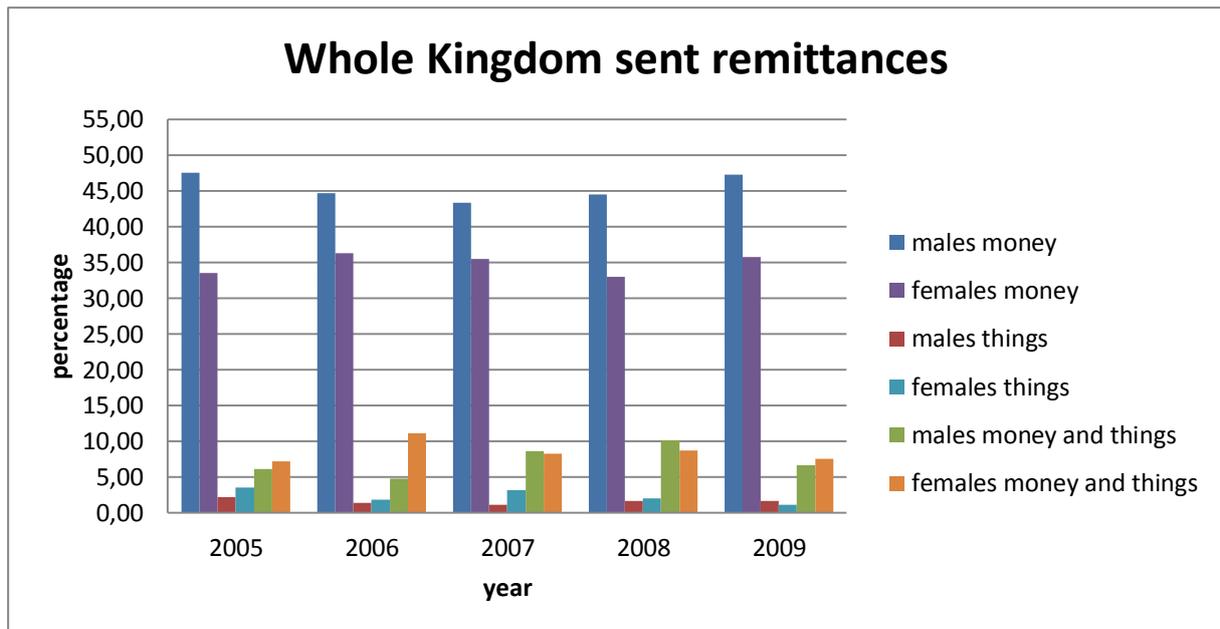


Figure 4.8.3-1 Whole kingdom sent remittances

There are a few things interesting in these figures I think. There are quite remarkable differences between males and females regarding remittances. For the whole kingdom I can point out that men tend to remit more money than women, also the remittances of things or a combination of money and things are for some years in favor of males. All in all, for the 5 years I have data available, every year males remit between 50,8% and 56.25% of all remittances.

Hauser (2000) already stated that men remit more in Thailand than women in his book, and especially for the 'money' category, he is right. Unfortunately also Hauser does not state why this is the case however. Vanwey (2004) found that Thai women remitted more than Thai males, but my data does not show that for the whole kingdom. Of course my data is from a period after all the other research, and the trend from 2006 to 2009 is, according to figure 4.8.3-2 that males are in percentages becoming more important remitters than females. If this trend was already starting in the 1990's, it might explain the different outcomes of my research when compared to other researchers.

Osaki (2004) stated that Thai females remit more money and things than males, and my data shows that the 'money and things' and 'things' categories are in favor of females. The differences are small however, and in 2008 males remitted more 'money and things' than females. 2006 is a remarkable year, where the difference in the 'money and things' category is very big between males and females, where women remitted twice as much as males.

Figures 4.8.3-3 & 4.8.3-4 show us the data regarding Bangkok. Except for 2007, the story is the opposite. In 2005 for example, 56,8% of all remittances were by females. In 2006 and 2007 a little more than half of the remittances were by males, but in 2009 again almost 56% of the remittances from Bangkok were by females. 2007 shows an interesting figure. According to the data no males remitted both money and things, but more than usual they remitted just money. Why this was the case is not clear from literature. So it seems, that in the case of Bangkok, Vanwey (2004) was right when he said that Thai women remit more than Thai males, but his research had focused on rural Thailand, whereas my data only

represents the exact opposite of rural Thailand: Bangkok!

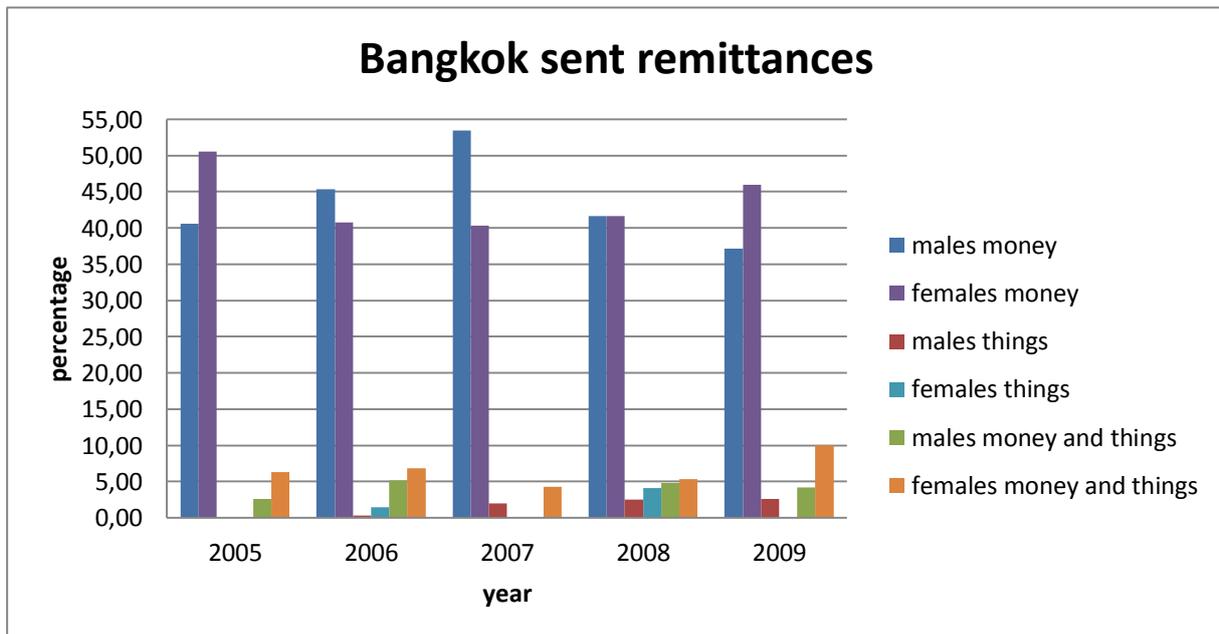


Figure 4.8.3-3 Bangkok sent remittances

Suksomboon (2008) already mentioned that the ‘khrop khrua’ is very important in Thailand. It means that Thai women stay responsible for their parents. There is more social pressure on this responsibility for women than it is for men, which would be the reason why females remit more than males. When, as a female, you are not supporting your parents, you lose ‘face’, which is something Thai women want to prevent as much as possible. However, this does not explain why this is only the case in Bangkok, and not for the whole of Thailand.

What is also clear in the data, is that from Bangkok, males and females both tend to send more often just money. The ‘things’ and ‘money and things’ categories are a lot smaller than those in the whole kingdom. A possible explanation could be that money is easily transferable from Bangkok, but the migrants might have moved a longer distance in order to migrate to Bangkok, which is why they might not be able to visit as often their hometown as the other migrants groups within Thailand, who then can bring ‘things’ with them, but further research would be necessary to see if this would be true.

4.8.4 People who not remitted

We saw in figure 4.8.2-1 and 4.8.2-2 that in Thailand for example in 2009 only 19% of all migrants remitted. For Bangkok it was a lot more with 40%, but still most people did not remit at all. I am actually interested what the reasons are for these people not to remit anything. Therefore I compiled 4 figures that show data for the whole kingdom and for Bangkok. This way we can make a comparison between males and females and between the whole kingdom and Bangkok.

In the following two figures, figure 4.8.4-1 and 4.8.1-2, we see the reasons for the migrants in the whole kingdom why they did not remit. Again, the first figure shows us the percentages in order to compare, the second figure shows us the combined results.

The migrants were offered 3 reasons to choose from:

- I have no money and/or things to send
- I have no person to send to
- I have another reason not to send money and/or things

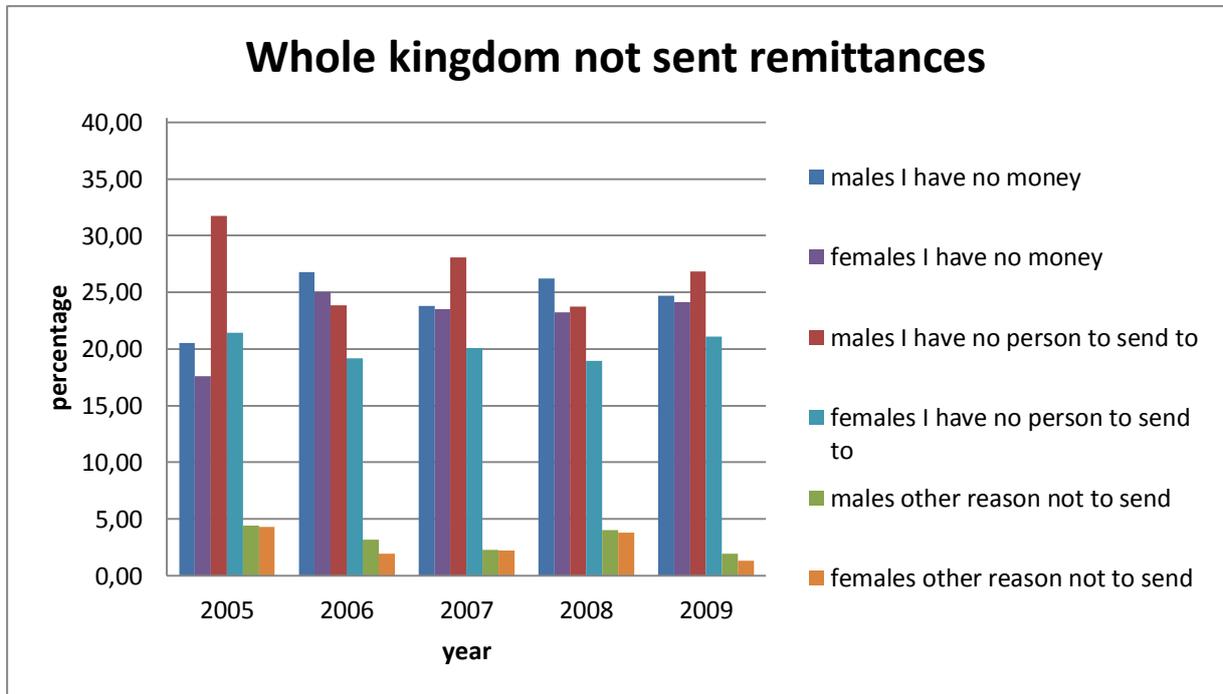


Figure 4.8.4-1 Whole kingdom reasons not to remit

There are no very big differences regarding the years, but between males and females we see some interesting things. More males than females answer they do not have people to remit to. The group that states they do not have a person to remit to, was in 2005 quite large compared to the other years.

Secondly it looks like since 2005 there is a trend upwards for both females and males who state they do not have money to remit. In figures 4.5.3-1 and 4.5.3-2 we saw that there is an upwards trend in migrants in Thailand who are looking for a job, which might explain why more people state they do not have the money to remit. The percentages in figure 4.5.3-1 and 4.5.3-2 are not very big, but still they could explain at least a bit why this is the case.

Now let's take a look at Bangkok's results in figure 4.8.4-2 In Bangkok more females than males (except for 2009) state they have no money to remit as the main reason why they do not remit. Females also state more often that they do not have a person where they can remit to. Since 2006, the number of females who state they do not have enough money to remit is declining, whilst with males, in 2009 more people stated they did not have enough money to remit, compared to 2007 and 2008.

The groups of people stating they do not have a person to remit to is a lot smaller in Bangkok than it is in the whole of Thailand. This could be the case because, according to figures 4.7.2-1 - 4.7.3-2, there are a lot more 'singles' migrating to Bangkok than they are in the rest of Thailand. Also, in the figures 4.2.5-1 – 4.2.5-8 we see the age group 14-19 in migrants to Bangkok is a lot larger compared to the rest of Thailand. People of that age who

are migrating have probably family back home and have (according to figure 4.8.4-2) less money available to remit. In my data I cannot link this on a case-by case-basis, but it could be at least part of the explanation.

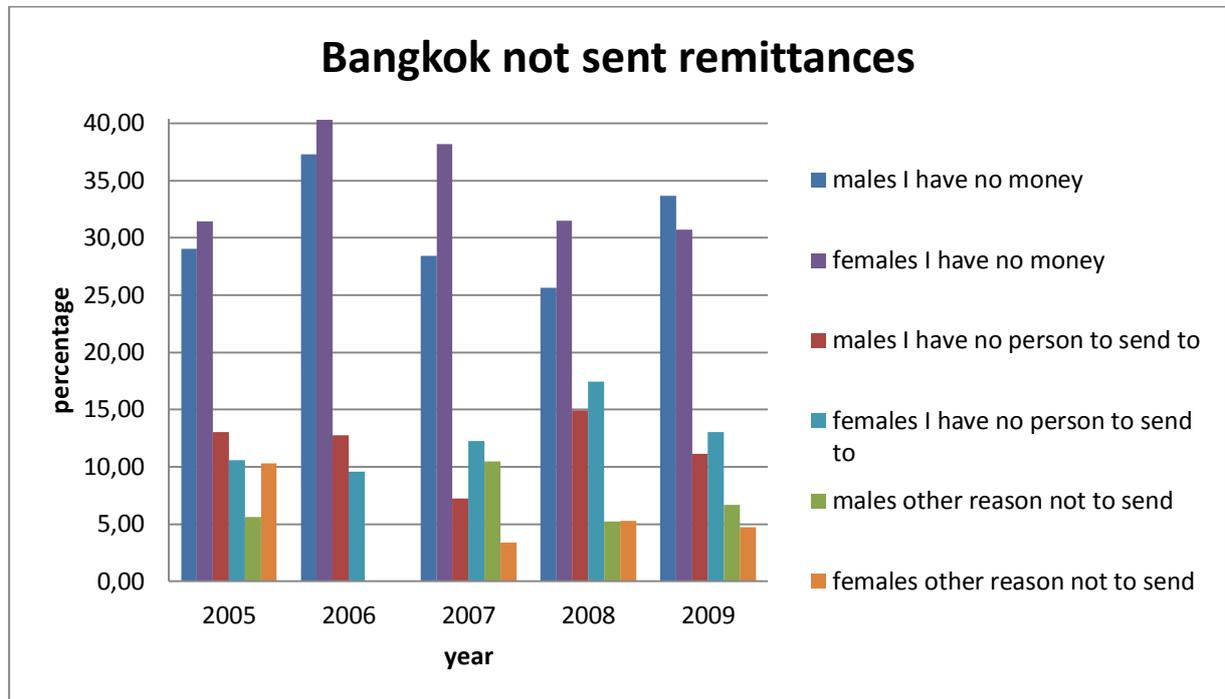


Figure 4.8.4-2 Bangkok reasons not to remit

4.8.5 Conclusion

Most migrants in Thailand do not remit. Only around 20% of all migrants do remit, which is a lot lower than migrants who live in Bangkok. Around 40% of the Bangkok migrants do remit. For the whole kingdom, not very much changed over the years, in Bangkok the trend of remitting is downwards. In the whole kingdom, far more males remit money than females, although females send a little bit more goods than males. For Bangkok, it is a slightly different situation, where female migrants remit more in several years than males. Thai remittances are mainly money for both the whole kingdom and Bangkok. Most people who do not remit (in the whole kingdom) state they either have no money, or they have no-one to send it to. In Bangkok, most people claim they do not have any money to remit.

4.9 Remittances receivers

4.9.1 Introduction

In this part of the chapter, I will present my findings relating to remittance receivers. Who are the people the remittances are geared to, and how are the shares changing over the years? I start with a graph about remittances geared towards Bangkok, followed by a part on the remittance recipients in the whole of Thailand. Unfortunately I have only access to data from the whole kingdom, so it is impossible for me to investigate the remittances-flows from Bangkok specifically.

4.9.2 Remittance receivers specified by year

In this next figure, I present the data relating to the people who receive the remittances. I would like to start however by explaining the variables. Receivers are put in 6 different categories:

- Parents
- Husband (I use this term because my data uses this term, however, if I translate the options that the people in the survey could choose, I would definitely translate “สามี/ภรรยา” with ‘spouse’, or ‘husband or wife’. So when I speak of ‘husband’, you should read it as ‘spouse’.
- Children
- Other relatives
- Other persons who are not connected with family ties
- Unknown

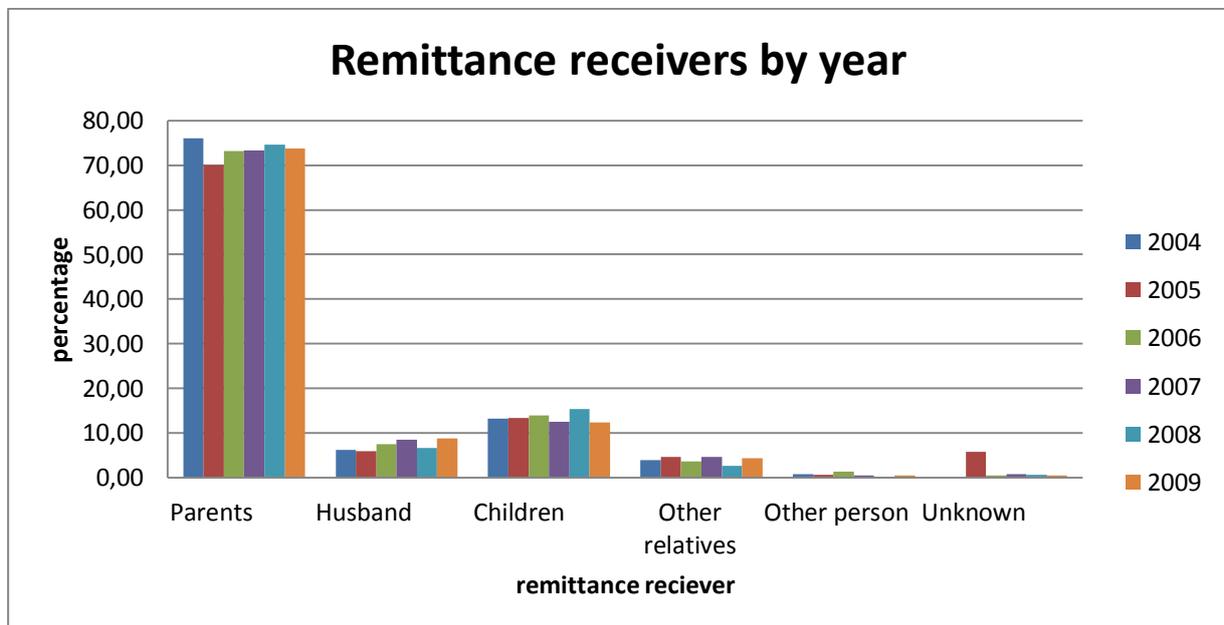


Figure 4.9.2-1 Remittance receivers by year

When we take a look at the results in figure 4.9.2-1, we see that over the years, not much changed in to whom the remittances are geared. The parents have been and are still the biggest receivers of remittances, with structurally 70% - 76% of all remittances geared towards them. Children are the second biggest group, followed by the husband.

The year 2005 was a very special year in the ‘unknown’ category. There is a possibility this is a result of the 26 December 2004 tsunami, after which a large amount of money and goods was sent to the affected areas in the southern provinces. I have personally been to Bangkok shortly after the tsunami and again after the floods in Thailand in 2011, and there were lots of efforts to incentivize people to help each other. Not only with money, but also with household goods, there were large boxes placed in front of shopping centers for example where people could drop of knives, buckets, pots and pans, and everything else that deserved a new life with someone affected by the tragedies. I am not sure if these kind of actions are counted as a remittance in the ‘unknown’ category, because of course everyone was welcome to donate whatever they could miss.

We can also see this in the figure 4.9.3-1, where especially the south is the region with the most ‘unknown’ remittances were received.

Aheeyar and Deshingkar (2006) wrote about remittances after the tsunami in Sri Lanka, and concluded that they were a very important source of relief. More effective than most governmental support, especially in the early days after the disaster. Families that were very dependent on remittances were extra vulnerable though, because lots of migrants returned home for relief and psychological support, and this could result in lower remittances after they returned to their job/new home, because of travel expenses or less income due to the fact they could not work whilst being with their families. Mainly the middle class and poor benefitted from remittances after the disaster, the poorest people sent less migrants, and consequently received less remittances.

4.9.3 Remittance receivers specified by region

Finally, we take a look at the region and type of receivers of the sent remittances. Again, I only have the data available from the whole kingdom, but still I think it is very interesting to see where the flows of remittances end up. Figures 4.9.3-1 – 4.9.3-5 show us the results.

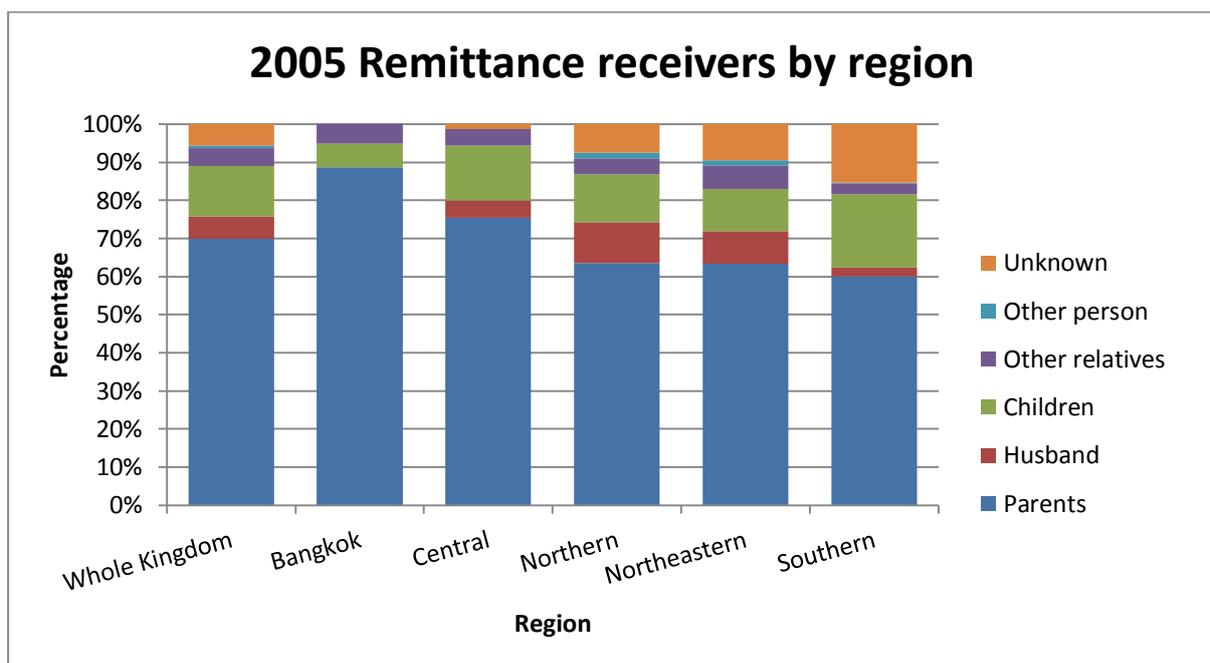


Figure 4.9.3-1 Remittance receivers by region, 2005

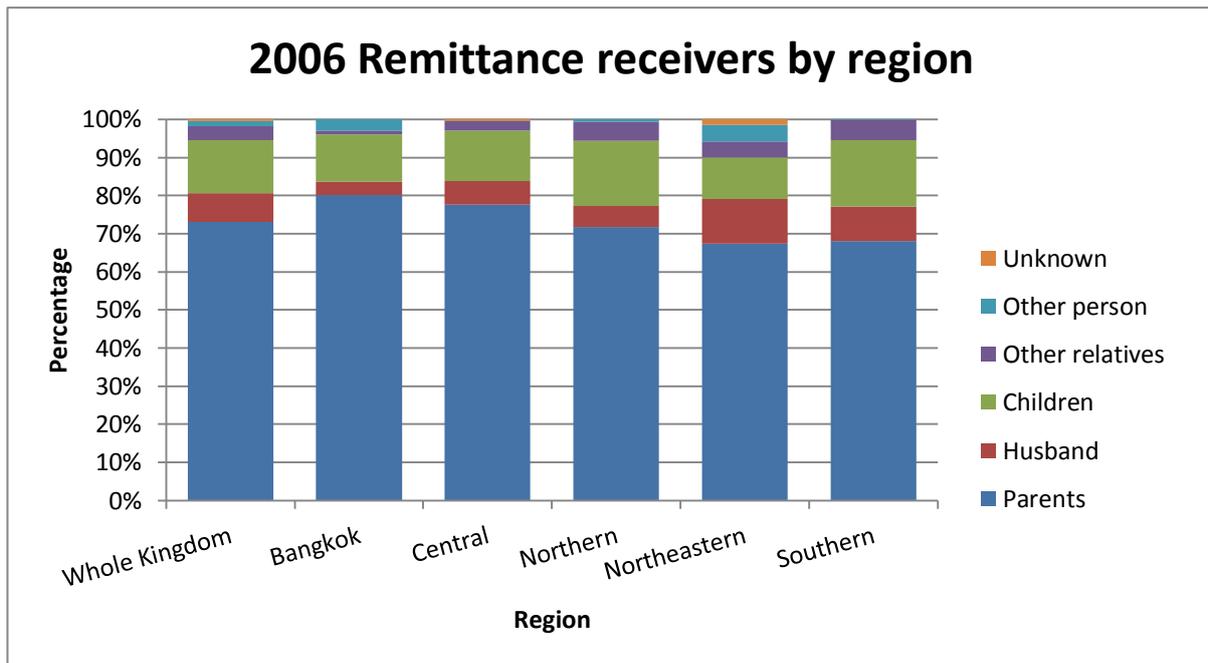


Figure 4.9.3-2 Remittance receivers by region, 2006

In figure 4.9.3-1, we see that in 2005, the 'parents' group as receivers is biggest in Bangkok, but in all other regions it is also the biggest group with at least 60% of all received remittances. In Bangkok, in 2005, 88,72% of all remittances went to the parents, where in the northern, northeastern and southern regions only around 60% of the received remittances ended up with parents. It is also interesting that the group 'husband' ('spouse') is non-existent in Bangkok in 2005.

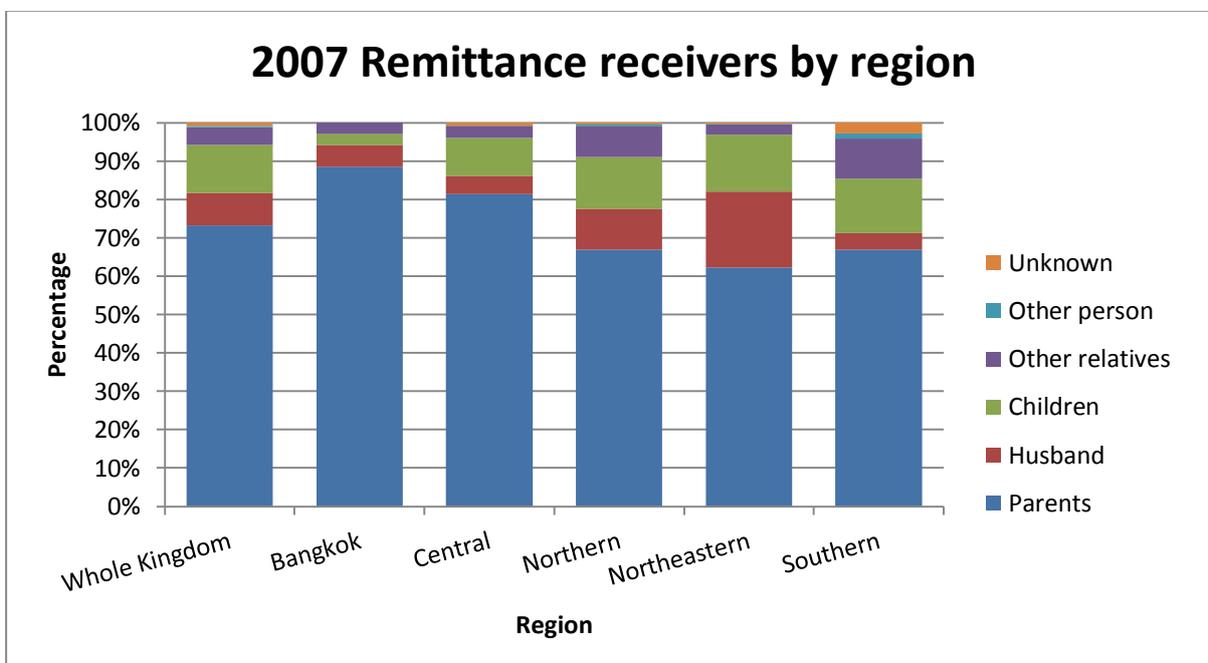


Figure 4.9.3-3 Remittance receivers by region, 2007

In 2005 we see in the northern, the northeastern and especially the southern part of Thailand a substantial amount of 'unknown' receivers of remittances. In all other years, the

number of remittance receivers who are in the 'unknown' category is very small. I am not sure why this is the case, but as I noted in chapter 4.9.2, there could be a link with the tsunami in the end of 2004.

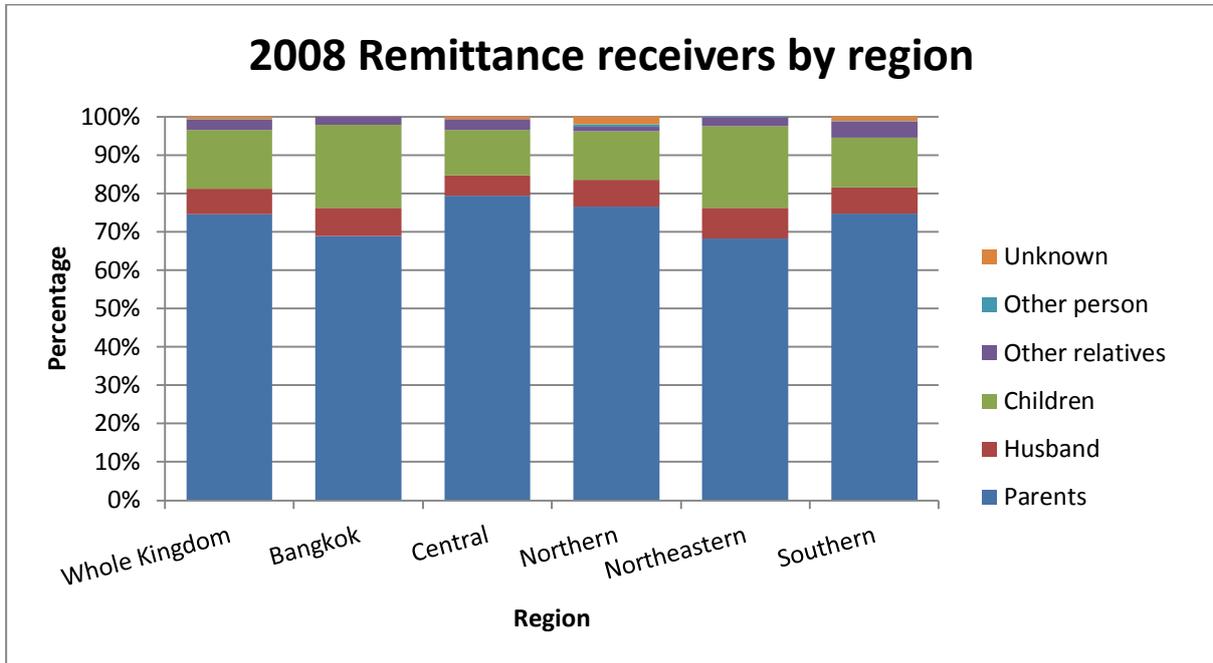


Figure 4.9.3-4 Remittance receivers by region, 2008

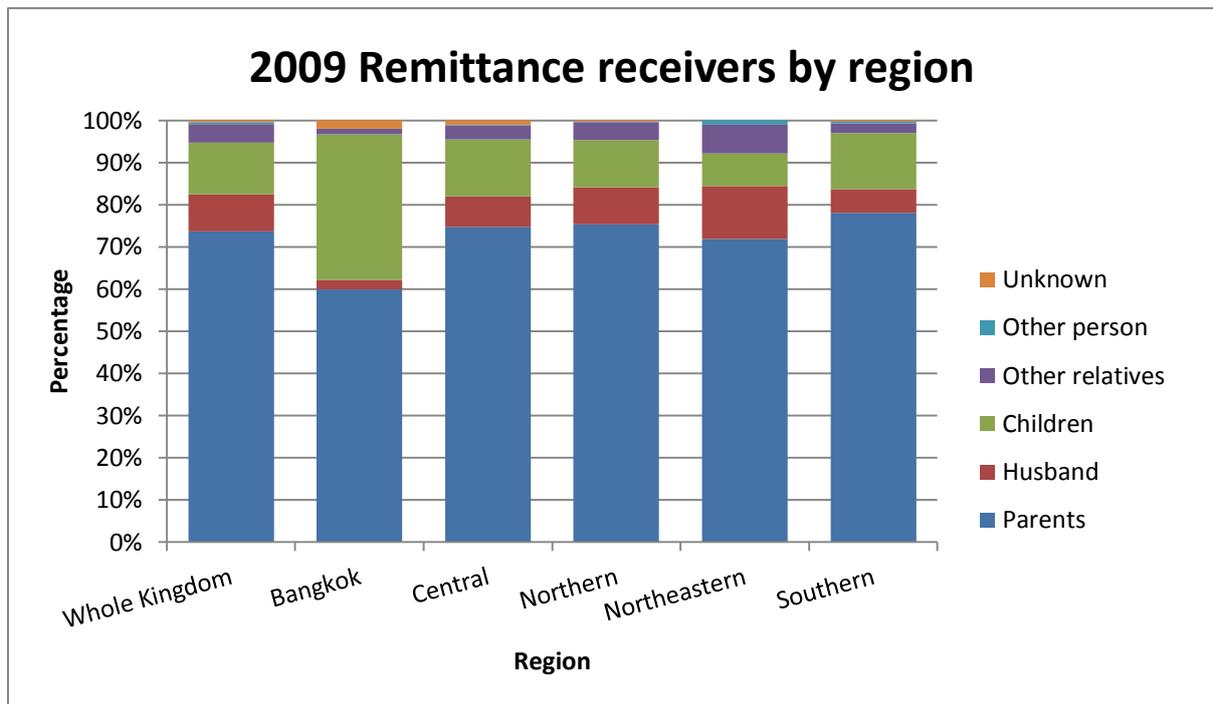


Figure 4.9.3-5 Remittance receivers by region, 2009

The most striking thing I notice in these figures is the fact that in Bangkok in 2009 there was a huge increase in children who received remittances. In 2007, only 2.84% of all remittances in Bangkok were received by children. In 2009, this has risen to a staggering 35.64% of all received remittances. The reason for this is not clear from the literature unfortunately, so it would be nice to find out in additional research.

4.9.4 Conclusion

Most remittances are sent to the parents of the sender. For the past 6 years every year $\geq 70\%$ of all remittances were in this category. Children are the second biggest receivers, followed by the spouse of the sender. In 2005 there were relatively big remittances sent to the south of Thailand, possibly due to the Tsunami-victims of December 2004. In Bangkok, even more receivers of remittances are parents when compared to the rest of Thailand. In 2009, a staggering 35,64% of all remittances towards Bangkok were sent to children.

5. Discussion and Conclusion

5.1 Introduction

In this part of the research I will present my discussion part, where I will compare the theory with my results, and see which linkages and differences there are. Next is the conclusion, and I will repeat my research questions in order to see if I was able to find an answer to these questions with the results I presented in chapter 4.

5.2 Discussion

In Thailand, most people migrate because they want to return home. Towards Bangkok however, most people migrate because they are looking for work or because they are sent there for a current job. Also educational reasons play a significant role in the decision to migrate to Bangkok. Returning home is only a small factor for Bangkok-bound migrants, although for women this is a more important reason than for men. These factors could very well be linked to the push and pull factor theory. However, In this theory, Bogue (1969) stated also as an example that a pull factor can be because of a 'preferable environment or general living conditions', but that reason almost never was given by migrants who migrated towards Bangkok. Some people did however migrate in the rest of Thailand because of that reason. Still, of course it is possible that someone's first reason for migration is 'education', but because Bangkok is a vibrant city, it still can play a role in the decision-making-process, just not as the first reason.

According to Castles and Miller (2009) people tend to leave overpopulated areas and move to areas that are sparsely populated. This is not in line with my results for Thailand. We saw that for almost all years, and for almost every region the opposite is true. People tend to leave sparsely populated areas like non-municipal areas, and move to municipal areas. This is especially true for the Northern, Northeastern and Southern regions.

Lee (1966) stated that people migrate less often when similarities between people are higher. We saw in chapter 4 that especially from the south migration figures were low. Hauser (2000) stated that most Thai Muslims were living in the south, which indicates that the dissimilarities between people who migrate from the south could be a reason to stay in the south, contrary from what we might expect according to Lee (1966).

Especially for females, we see a big category of migrants going towards Bangkok in order to obtain education. The investment in your own education is one with big consequences if it means you need to migrate to a city hundreds of kilometers away. The fact that a lot of women are willing to do that proves that the investment in your human capital can motivate someone to migrate, which speaks for the human capital theory.

However, the new economics of labor migration theory states that people are migrating not just for themselves, but that a whole group is behind that decision. We saw that almost half of the migrants to Bangkok remit money and or goods, and mostly to their parents, which indicates that the migrants feel the need to support their family that stayed behind. But we also see that almost half of the migrants do not remit at all, so the new economics of labor

migration theory isn't true for everyone. Most people who didn't send remittances however said they didn't remit because they didn't have the money to do so, so these people still might feel the obligation to remit. The fact that most people remit, and mainly to the parents provides a link with this theory on another level. Milne (1991) stated people remit to avoid risks, and use them as some sort of insurance to be able to return home someday when the migration wasn't as successful as hoped. Towards Bangkok most people migrate in order to find work, but towards the rest of Thailand most people (>50%) migrate in order to return home. The idea that people remitted because in the future they might return home again makes sense in this light.

Stark and Bloom (1985) stated that people send more remittances when a spouse or children are left at home. I can see in the data most remittances are geared towards the parents of the migrant. The spouses receive around 8% of all remittances and children receive around 11% of all remittances. Unfortunately I cannot see in this dataset if parents use the remittances to take care of spouses left behind or their grandchildren, but this is of course possible. Further research would be necessary to validate this claim.

5.3 Conclusion

I will present the conclusion based on my original research questions, in the form of conclusions regarding the theme of the research question.

- What are the reasons and differences in internal migration to Bangkok in terms of gender, numbers of internal migrants and remittances?

In Thailand, most people (between 50% and 60%) migrate in order to return to their home place, or for other family related business. The groups of migrants who migrate internally in Thailand in order to find work, to change jobs/workplace or migrate for residence purposes are all around 7% – 10%. In Bangkok the story is different, with more than 50% (up to 70%) of all males who migrate in order to find work and another 10% - 15% of all males to change jobs. A little more women migrate to Bangkok in order to return home or other family related reasons, but also women mainly migrate in order to find work (around 40%). A lot more women than men migrate to Bangkok for education purposes.

In the whole of Thailand we see that more males than females migrate, but in Bangkok it is the other way around.

Most migrants in Thailand do not remit. Only around 20% of all migrants do remit, which is a lot lower than migrants who live in Bangkok. Around 40% of the Bangkok migrants do remit.

- What is the size and source of the flows of internal migration to Bangkok?

In 2009, there were 66.903.283 people living in Thailand, and 6.866.004 people in Bangkok.

Between almost 0% and almost 3% of all migrants in Thailand are people who are coming from abroad, and between 0 and over 6% of all migrants to Bangkok are international

migrants. These. For Bangkok, in 2004 and 2005 relatively much migrants were coming from abroad, which declined greatly thereafter. More men than women are migrating for abroad to Thailand, but for Bangkok this is again the other way around (with 5 times more female than male migrants). Most migrants to Bangkok are from non-municipal area, with the northeastern region as the biggest sender. From the municipal area's, the central region is the region which sends the largest number of migrants. From the south there are substantially less migrants to Bangkok, especially for females. Religion could play a role here. From 2004 to 2007 there is a huge (84%) decline in Bangkok-bound migrants from the north (-eastern) regions. This could possibly be attributed to the growing importance of regional cities.

- Are there differences in internal migration to Bangkok and remittances from Bangkok during the last 15 years?

Over the last 15 years, the population of Thailand grew stronger than the population in Bangkok. In 2004-2005 Bangkok saw a big decrease in population numbers, which could possibly be contributed to the return of Tsunami refugees to the south in 2005. The total number of migrants has declined a lot since 1997 in Thailand, and in Bangkok we saw a huge increase in 2004, and relatively low numbers of migration since then.

For the whole kingdom, not very much changed over the years, in Bangkok the trend of remitting is downwards. In the whole kingdom, far more males remit money than females, although females send a little bit more goods than males. For Bangkok, it is a slightly different situation, where female migrants remit more in several years than males. Thai remittances are mainly money for both the whole kingdom and Bangkok. Most people who do not remit (in the whole kingdom) state they either have no money, or they have no-one to send it to. In Bangkok, most people claim they do not have any money to remit.

Most remittances are sent to the parents of the sender. For the past 6 years every year $\geq 70\%$ of all remittances were in this category. Children are the second biggest receivers, followed by the spouse of the sender. In 2005 there were relatively big remittances sent to the south of Thailand, possibly due to the Tsunami-victims of December 2004. In Bangkok, even more receivers of remittances are parents when compared to the rest of Thailand. In 2009, a staggering 35,64% of all remittances towards Bangkok were sent to children.

- What are the differences in human capital between male and female internal migrants to Bangkok?

The largest cohorts of migrants fall in the 15-19 and 20-24 years old category, and the 60+ category is a very small cohort in terms of migration.

The majority of migrants in Thailand is working as their main daily activity. Male migrants are the biggest contributors to this group, with over 70% of all male migrants actually working. More or less than 50% of all female migrants actually work. In Bangkok the differences are bigger per year than in the rest of Thailand. In Bangkok 70% - 90% of all men are working, which is even a higher number than for the whole kingdom. And (except for 2006 when an unusual big number of females came to Bangkok for educational purposes or to return

home) female migrants also work more often (55% - 70%) than female migrants in the whole kingdom. In Thailand not many people are looking for a job, but in Bangkok a little more than in the rest of Thailand. Only few migrant males are household workers in both Bangkok and the whole kingdom. Female migrants are more often household workers, especially in the whole kingdom. There is a declining trend in the number of migrants that are studying, but more migrant-people tend to study in Bangkok than in the whole kingdom.

Regarding the whole kingdom, the educational level of migrants has improved over the years greatly. For women even more than for men. In recent years we still see an increase in education for women, who are higher educated than men now. The males are since 2004 roughly on the same level until 2009, so there is no more improvement in recent years. Bangkok attracts more elementary schooled migrants than the whole of Thailand, but especially in the females category, the share of university schooled migrants is rapidly rising for the last 4 years now. Still, educational levels of non-migrants in Bangkok are a lot higher compared to the migrants.

For the whole kingdom, not very much has changed in marital status for migrants over the last 15 years, but there is a trend that more married females are migrating over these years, and there are substantially more single male migrants than single female migrants. In recent years there is a sharp decrease in the number of single male migrants coming to Bangkok, and an increase in married male migrants. The female migrants who come to Bangkok are relatively large in the widowed, divorced and separated categories. Less single females compared to males migrate to Bangkok.

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