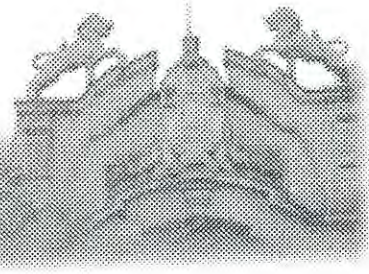
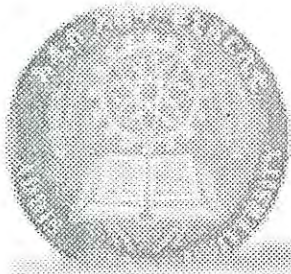


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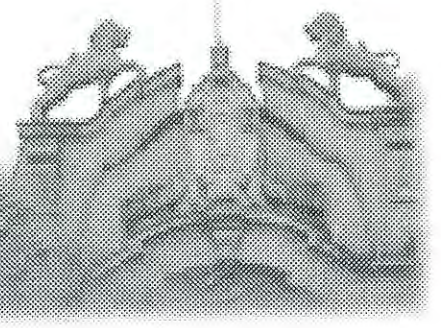
Tadesse Ansebo



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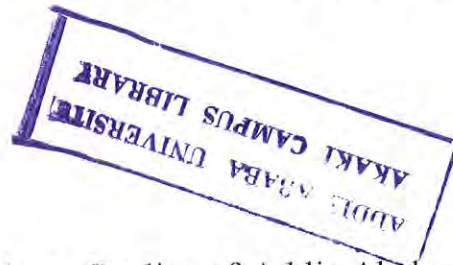


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A Thesis Submitted to the School of Graduate Studies of Addis Ababa University
in Partial Fulfillment of the Requirements of the Degree Masters of Art in College
of Development Studies, Department of RLDS

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APPROVED BY BOARD OF EXAMINERS

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Abstract

The objective of this study was to understand the economic and social effects of out-migration in the case of Soro woreda, Hadiya Zone, SNNPR (South Nation Nationalities and Peoples Regional) state. The study focused on the economic and social impact of out-migration to RSA and MECs from the Woreda selected kebeles. The out flow of migration was linked with the emerging socio-economic costs in the study area. The study substantiated evidence on the economic activities of migrant households and returnee migrants and tracked the impacts of remittance incomes on the local economic enterprising. The dynamics in remittance money is also linked to the social respect and the costs of travel to the destination. Diverse migration theories were considere

d to inform this analysis.

Primary and secondary data were collected from organizations, migrant and non-migrant households by using mixed research method. The organized evidence was analyzed and interpreted. The result of the analysis has shown that out-migration has both positive and negative impacts on the migrant and those members behind. The positive impacts of out-migration are improvement in household consumption, investment, employment generation, asset formation, transformation from rural to urban way of life. The negative impacts of migration are the productive labor shortage, family separation, work load on females, marriage unfaithfulness and dependency syndrome in the same community including stretched cost of travel.

The study concludes with the economic and social effects of out-migration in the study area. Improvement in consumption level of migrant households, Asset formation, enterprising in the local economy and to urban life is positive. The separation of households, workload on females and marriage unfaithfulness are negative consequences. The study recommends that there are policy concerns in chaneling these resources and enterprising at one hand and looking to social problems on the other hand.

Keywords: *Enterprising, Middle East Countries, Out-migration Remittances, Soro Woreda, South Africa*

Acknowledgements

First of all I would like to thank my God for his limitless fatherly love and care in all aspects. Next, my thankfulness also goes to all my relatives and friends those helped me by materials and advice during preparation of this thesis. I would like to thank my advisor Dr. Filmon Hadaro for his fatherly approach and regular follow up (advice) in preparing this thesis. I also wish to thank my examiners Dr. Tebark and Dr. Berhane for their constructive comments and genuine approaches during defense time. In the same way, I also wish to thank, the respondents, key-informants and FGD members in giving relevant information related to the study. I also wish to thank different sectors employees of Soro woreda, including department heads that provide me relevant information, and without them materialization of this study would have been impossible.

On the other hand, I wish to acknowledge the contribution of my brother Beyene Kobro for moral and material (especially Laptop) support from the beginning of the course to finalizing the paper, because without it the thesis work is difficult. Finally, I would like to thank my family especially my son Kebru Tadesse for his assistance in computer writing.

My first and for most thanks goes to my dear wife Tadelech Gebremariam for her regular household management by taking all household responsibility and advice in attending the program and Finally I would like to thank of my relatives and friends (Belachew Ansebo and Tamire Hesebo among others) for their financial and material supports in attending the program.

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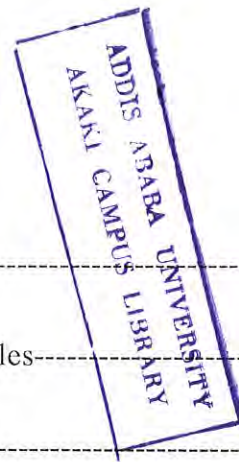
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Acronyms

Acronyms	Description
EEPCO	Ethiopian Electric Power Corporation Office
ETDs	Electronic Thesis and Dissertations
FDI	Foreign Direct Investment
GDP	Gross Domestic Product
GNP	Gross National Product
HHs	House Holds
HZFEDD	Hadiya Zone Finance and Economic Development Department
IMF	International Monetary Fund
IOM	International Organization for Migration
LDCs	Less Developed Countries
MECs	Middle East Countries
MHHs	Migrants House Holds
NMHHs	Non-Migrants House Holds
ODA	Official Development Assistance
RSA	Republic of South Africa
SNNPR	South Nation Nationalities and People's Region
SWAO	Soro Woreda Administrative Office
SWEO	Soro Woreda Education Office
SWFEDO	Soro Woreda Finance and Economic Development Office
SWHO	Soro Woreda Health Office
SWTIO	Soro Woreda Trade and Industry Office
SWWDO	Soro Woreda Water Development Office
UNDP	United Nation Development Program
UAE	United Arab Emirates
USD	United States Dollar

Definition of Terms

Circular – migration refers to a long-term movement between place of origin and destination.

External Migration is the movement of people to a new home in a different state, country, or continent.

Internal Migration refers to the movement of people to a new home within a state, country, or continent.

Step-to-step migration refers to a movement with destination after a series of short –term moves to other locations.

Permanent migration refers to the migrants who leave their origin without any intention of returning to it for different reasons.

Return- migration refers to the migrant who leaves the destination with the intention of returning to his or her area of origin counter stream – migration on its part refers to the movement in the opposite direction to the prevailing stream of migration

CHAPTER ONE: INTRODUCTION

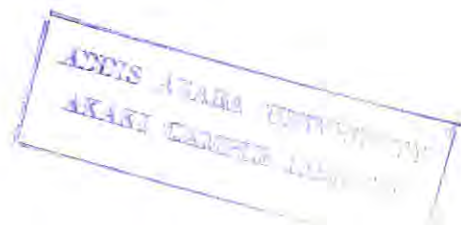
1.1. Background of the Study

Migration is a phenomenon as old as human kind and it is a natural phenomenon of human being rather than exclusion in human history. From the remote past, human beings have been in a constant state of movement over varying distances, and for different reasons (Ellis, 2003). Accordingly, all migration patterns are very complex and broadly grouped in to two as 'internal' and 'international'. The former refer to the movement of persons, and change of place of residence for different reasons with in a country. Both internal and international migration affects the marginal spending behavior of households on various consumption and investment goods through the flow of remittance. Adams (2006) in his part finds that households receiving remittances spend more on investments such as health, education and housing and less on consumption like food, consumer goods and durables than non-remitted.

During the period of 2000-2005, 2.6 million of people annually migrate from developing to developed world for reasons ranging from economical, social and political factors or a combination of them. The difference of the two worlds more pronounced in many of the Africa and south East Asia countries, as a result millions of African and Asians migrate each year to the developed world (De Haas, 2006).

One of the interesting aspects of international labour migration currently is the feminization of the labour migration, which refer to increased number of female labour migrants. International Organization for Migration (IOM) indicates that almost half of the international migrants today are women. Women unlike in the previous times migrate independently as breadwinners (IOM, 2007).The effect of remittance from female international migration could bring change in a given society. Reduction of unemployment, increased access to facilities such as education and health services, as well as in other community development activities (ibid).

According to World Bank (2009), migration and development pattern in Ethiopia have significant socio-economic consequence for the country. In the same way, the influences of environmental degradation with growing economically active population and population pressure has also increased labour and forced migration both within the country and across the borders.



There are different streams of migration: rural-rural, urban-urban, rural-urban and urban- rural. The movement of people may also either be seasonal or permanent. Seasonal migration as a livelihood strategy appears to be most important in rural areas as a coping and accumulation option for the poor and the non-poor alike. In view of these, people try to establish livelihood through different mechanisms like migration that span from rural and urban sector, and possibly beyond (Boakye, 2008). In the same way, Ellis (2003), argued that many rural residents migrate in the slack seasons to the neighboring cities and elsewhere to find jobs. However, migrants may be exposed to hazards circumstances, such as risk of injury, exploitation by intermediaries (brokers) and exclusion from social protection; vulnerability like HIV/AIDS and the like.

Migrants often send sizable portion of their increased earnings to families back to the home country. Migrants remittances, in fact have become major external development finance. The causes of migration vary among individuals from seeking decent work opportunities and higher quality of education, to escaping poverty and violence. However, one thing is that all migrants have in common is the goal of safeguarding a better future for themselves and their respective families by achieving human prosperity. This is evident through two things: One, the growing level of remittances that migrants send to their loved ones living in different parts of the world (Gracia, 2009). On the other way, other than remittance, where migrants try to make better future is through accumulating capital abroad and then returning to their home country to spend their assets on economic activities like consumption and investment. These returnees' activities may bring in the future their own impact on the household and local economy (Abinet, 2011).

In Ethiopia, different researches have conducted by different researchers in different issues, at different times that dealt with some of the multifaceted aspects of migration focusing on migration with in the country, to the Middle East, Europe and United States of America. However, there is no significant study, particularly conducted on the Ethiopia migrants to other African countries and its cause and socio-economic consequence on the place of origin was not assessed adequately.

Moreover, the Hadiya society is one of the least studied people, which are found in the region (SNNPR) in terms of the topic related to external migration effects and impacts at place of origin. According to Tesfaye (1987), one of the features of Hadiya community is its migration to different areas within the bound of Ethiopia in different times. Recently, they have been also migrating in a

significant number to the Republic of South Africa since 1990s (IOM, 2009), which has brought a profound and tangible consequences on the society left behind, but those changes induced on the families of the migrants remained unexplored (Ephrem, 2010).

However, some researchers in their Graduate thesis studies attempted to explore some issues related to the Hadiya migration and these gave the way for this study. However, the topic, the objectives, methods and scope of this study is different with some related relations and approaches.

Therefore, these facts triggered the research interest to deal with the topic. To this effect, the study aimed to assess, identify, explore and discuss the social and economic effects of migration at place of origin focusing on migration to some the Middle East Countries and the Republic of South Africa from Soro Woreda. Moreover, the study attempted to highlight the effect of internal migration in the study site.

1.2. Statement of the Problem

Ethiopia is one of the poorest countries in the world with traditional way of farming system (both crop and live stock production), high population growth rate, limited industrial expansion, low education and income level, small trade, high rate of migration and the like Alemante, et al., 2006) among others. Being of one of the poorest countries, Ethiopia also challenged by different types of migrations such as intellectuals' migration, females' migration and young peasant migrations (Abdu, 2009). The number of migrants is increasing from time to time. According to the UN's Population Division (2006), about 200 million people movement takes place from the developing countries to the developed countries (UN, 1998). From these three groups of migrants, young peasants, students and women from Hadiya Zones, Soro Woreda have been migrating to the Republic of South Africa and the Middle East Countries.

Moreover, people attempted different activities including temporary migration as a means, to improve their income level, household livelihood and to fight poverty as a whole. To this effect, most migration related researches in different times in Ethiopia focused on internal migration rather than external type (Belay, 2007; Tesfaye, 2007). On the other hand, (Kefyalew, 2001; Bisrate, 2006; Regt, 2007), focused on out ward migration to the Middle East, Europe and USA.

However, Ethiopian migration to other African countries is little studied, except different articles and reports in different times by IOM (2006; 2007; 2008 and 2009), which attempted to give limited explanation of border crossing in some East African countries, (cited in Ephrem, 2010). Thus, there continued to be a large gap in understanding the effects of international migration at the place of origin, challenges during preparation, economic benefits / costs of remittance and returned migration. Ellis(2003), indicated that migration has both positive and negative effects in the livelihood of rural people, but this important issue has been remained with little/or no adequate investigation to understand its effect at the origin.

According to Page and Plaza (2005), remittances have positive impacts on economic development in that remittances are often used for investment in the home country such as for housing and small business development. The pull-factors, economic opportunities, played a great role in attracting thousands of people from East African countries such as Ethiopia and Somalia in general and the people of the previously mentioned zones to South Africa in particular (IOM, 2010). The push-factor has also impact on the peasant migration to the country of destination. On the contrary, others argue that remittances negatively affect economic development because remittances can create inflationary pressures and decrease in labor supply. Those households from whom no one has migrated yet are trying to migrate, paying whatever cost it requires. Nair (1992) discusses that south and south-east Asians' migration to Arab world entailed both benefit/success and cost/failure. The author divides the cost of migration into two types: economic (opportunity cost and direct cost incurred in financing migrant) and non-economic (psychological costs of departure on household members and on the migrant himself). However, these important issues are necessary to be investigated and explored adequately in the study area.

For the purpose of this study, Gimbichu and Sibya kebeles were selected purposively from the Woreda. These are part of currently exposed areas of migration, in which many migrants frequently flowing out-ward to the Middle East countries and Republic of South Africa. Therefore, this research was conducted to assess the socio-economic effects of migration from Soro Woreda to South Africa Middle East Countries. However, this important issue has been remained with little/or no adequate investigation to understand its effect on local level. Therefore, analyzing the effects of remittance on migrant households and socio-economy of their place attracted the attention of the researcher to deal with the title and it is the focus area of this study.

1.3 Objective of the Study

The main objective of this study is to analyze the economic and social effects of remittance on remitted and return migrants and the socio-economy of their place in Soro Woreda of Hadiya Zone, SNNPR State.

The specific objectives of the study are to:

- ❖ Analyze the impacts of remittance on economic activities of remitted and return migrants in Soro Woreda;
- ❖ Analyze the impacts of remittance on the local economic enterprising of Soro Woreda and that of the return migrants;
- ❖ Identify the income differences between migrants and non-migrants families in Soro Woreda and
- ❖ Assess the challenges in the process of collecting transit fees on migrants and their parents in Soro Woreda.

1.4 Research Questions

The study mainly inquires the economic and social effects of remittance on remitted and return migrants and the socio-economy of their place of Soro Woreda of Hadiya Zone, SNNPR State. The specific research questions are:

- ❖ In what ways do remittances affects economic activities of return migrants in Soro Woreda?
- ❖ In what ways do the remittances affect the local economic enterprising the return migrants and their parents in Soro Woreda?
- ❖ Are there differences observed in income of migrants and non-migrants parents in Soro Woreda?
- ❖ What are the challenges in the process of collecting transit fees on migrants and their parents in Soro Woreda?
- ❖ What are the policy concerns of out-migration in Soro Woreda?

1.5 Significance of the Study

The study results will have social and empirical significance. It will improve the information on the migration situation and its effects on the livelihoods of the migrant and that of origin. It will thus enhance policy awareness with regard to the economy of the family and the country at large and the migrants. The study will generate evidence that is essential for the understanding of the migration process, its dynamics and destination as well as its effect on the local economy.

Specifically, the study has the following importance:

- It shows the direction for the concerned bodies so as to create awareness about social and economic costs of migration among community in the study area,
- It gives some information for further researchers on similar issues. In other words, the findings of the study will be expected to provide evidence for other fellow researchers those interested to conduct further study on different issues in relation with migration from the study area to the RSA, Middle East, and the like. To this end, it may contribute to formulating policies for checking migration that facilitate free movement of people across boundaries and across countries-which may reduce different challenges as well as it will give a base for the further investigation and for future researchers.

1.6. Scope and Limitations of the Study

The study focused on two Kebeles of Soro Woreda where the study sample population was selected. The study could have been broadened in geographical and thematic scope to link the crosscutting issues of migration dynamics but there were constraints of time and budget, the reluctance of some organizations to give recorded data or information and more specifically, the objective of the study was focused to answer questions in these constraint areas. A broadened scope would have produced results at regional and zonal levels and would have been inclusive and conclusive. However, this is micro-level study and is aimed at exploring practices at grassroots level. Such study has evaluation goal and the use of different methods and respondent diversity has triangulated the data sets and the findings. Thus, it serves the goal of informing grassroots level entry options and informing the broader policy environment. Moreover, it constraints the researcher

to see migration effects at macro-level in broad sense, due to the objectives of the study and for the mentioned limitations in the above.

1.7. Organization of the Paper

The study is organized in Five Chapters. The first chapter is introduction consisting, background of the study, statements of the problems, objectives of the study, relevance or significance of the study, scope and the limitation of the study including this part. Chapter two presents the relevant related literatures of the study. Chapter three presents the research site, methodology and analytical framework of the study. Chapter four presents data results and discussion. Chapter five finally, presents the conclusions and recommendations of the study findings.

CHAPTER TWO: REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

In this chapter, the main concepts related to the topic, theories and some related works on migration; especially, the relation of migration with social and economic effect focusing on migration and remittance, migration and return migrants as well as some initiatives of migration were presented. The explanations of these parts will help the study being meaningful and valuable with the supplement of finding.

2.1 Concepts of Migration

Considering the general concepts of migration help to assess and analyze the central features of migration and its characteristics in the study area. Some of the central concepts related to the study are emigration, immigration, types of migration, forms of migration, remittances and return migrants. Migration is broadly categorized in to two parts: internal and external migration (Parnwell, 1993). Also, the term 'migration' occurs frequently in different studies with two other related terms like 'mobility' and 'movement'. In many literatures, there is a contextual slight difference between these two terms and they can be used interchangeably. Hence, mobility is defined as; it is the ability to move from one area to another. It might be affected by physical constraints, cost, and psychological readiness (Ibid).

In relation with the above explanation, the concept of migration does not apply simply for any movements made by people without a fixed place of residence. For instance, nomads, tourists and transits are not considered as migrants because migration by its nature does not include a short-term tour with no place of change from the usual place of residence (Sharvastava, 1994). Accordingly, migration is a form of spatial mobility of human population that involves five key elements like movement, change of residences, change of physical environment, crossing a 'definite boundary' distance and time (at least six months).

Although there is no as such a set of criteria as to how any one of the above five elements constitute, migration can be defined as a form of population movement that takes place when an individual or group change its place of residence, either temporarily or permanently between clearly known area of origin and destiny (Kebede, 1994), cited in Ephrem,(2010). People who once out –

migrate from one own country to another are called an emigrants, and those who come –in because of migration are called immigrants. People who come to settle in their origin, depending on historical setting, circumstances and perspective called returnee (Parnwell, 1993). In order to avoid ambiguities Parnwell (1993), elaborated more clearly the five types of migration, such as permanent migration, step migration, circular migration, return migration and counter stream migration. According to Sowell (1996), all these migration types are whether it is 'voluntary 'or 'forced ', 'legal ' or 'illegal ', migration has grown in volume and become a major fact for social transformation in all regions of the world.

2.2 Theories of Migration

Several studies were carried-out by many researchers on migration through developing different theories, which directly or indirectly relate with different migration trends (Bisrate, 2006). Migrants are motivated by different causes and these factors encourage individuals or groups to decide to move from their place of origin. These differences made it difficult to produce a single theory and effective motivation policies. Therefore, some of these theories, which more or less have a relation to this, study.

2.2.1 Network Theory of Migration

The reasons for perpetuated migratory movement in space and time vary from those caused its initial explosion (Massey, 1993). For this theory, on the other hand, Lee (2001) argued that the search for improved income, the desire to reduce risks and market penetration might continue to push migrants abroad, new conditions emerge during the source of migration may enable it to sustain across time and space. Some of the migration operation theories such as network theory, institution theory and cumulative causation theories have been developed for different reasons related with migration. However, the most suitable theory that has a strong relation with this study is more or less network theory of migration. This theory works in relation with a set of interpersonal relation that links migrants with friend's relatives or neighborhoods at home to exchange information, provide financial assistance, facilitate employment and accommodations (Massey, 1993).

As the number of people involved in the process increased, networks further facilitate the flow of information and develop the possibility for international migration (Lee, 2001). The context of this

study exactly fits to this theory that the increasing number of migrants to RSA and Middle East countries since the beginning perpetuated until the contemporary time. This is due to the bond and network between the migrants and their households, friends and neighbors in the place of origin, which stretch a chain and induces mass migration.

2.2.2 The Neo-Classical Economic Approach

This is the next explanation of migration that will attempt to show the push-pull theory of migration. This theory emphasizes on individual behavior, and focus on positive aspect of migration (DeHaan, 2000). This approach assumes that migrants act individually according to a rationality of costs and benefits. The push factors explained in various studies are population pressure, low living standard, lack of economic opportunities and political discomfort. On the other hand pull factors, of migration indicate availability of job opportunities, health services and other modern facilities in town and political freedom (Castles and Miller, 2003).

2.3 Economic Impacts of Remittance at the Origin

Development economics has traditionally considered foreign savings as key to increase a country's capital output ratio. Factors such as foreign direct investment (FDI), official development assistance (ODA), foreign trade, the transfer of technology and, most recently obtaining remittances have entered in to these analyses. Scholarly debates concerning remittances and their impact on economic development have become increasingly widespread. Meaning, the effects of remittance on large economic level and on small economy of sending countries is confusing topics in both economy fields. Particularly, the literatures on the macroeconomic impact of migrants' remittances remains disjointed. Generally, it is recognized that the long-run impact of remittances on receiving economies depends on whether they are spent on consumption expenses or in different investment activities (Abinet, 2011).

2.3.1 Remittances

The impact of migration to development directly linked through the flow of remittances in countries of origin – the funds migrants send home. Remittances play a vital economic and social role in all aspects in the receiving countries and thus it helps to create economic dynamism. For example, the total value of official remittances flowing to developing countries in 2003 was estimated to be over

USD 90 billion, exceeding ODA to developing countries. Many estimate that remittances sent through informal channels would double the figure (IOM, 2007). Accordingly, remittances are an important source of foreign exchange earnings, provide valuable support to balance of payment accounts and help development through essential imports. At the household level, it is generally regarded that remittances help to reduce poverty and improve household living standards.

2.3.2 Remittance and Consumption

If the flow of remittance predominantly consumed in household level in different consumption expenses rather than invested, any growth effects through either higher or lower investment could be restrained. Even in this case, however, remittances cloud promotes investment in migrants' home country by refusing the explosive nature of consumption and contributing to a more stable economic activity of environment. Stahl and Arnold (1986), looked at consumption patterns among Asian economies Bangladesh, India, Pakistan, Philippines, Sirilanka and Thailand and conclude that recipients in these countries spend most of their remittances on basic needs such as food and clothing, home construction improvements, and debt repayment. Although Arnold agrees in the contribution of remittances to growth mainly via durable spending, they still raise concern in ceremonial and recreational activities over possible inflation from increased demand in the recipient country.

2.3.3 Remittance and Inequality

The demand for the benefits of remittance could create inequality among the society. Migration and later remittance may raise inequality, as only the relatively well off have the resources to send workers aboard and, therefore, receive remittance (Lipton, 1980). Income inequality among migrant and non-migrant groups, slowly drive to social respect differences. In the same way, Milanovic (1987) tested for the possibility of such a discriminating effect of remittance using panel data from 1973, 1978, and 1983 Yugoslavian household surveys. He found empirical support for this hypothesis, his results showed that remittances tend to raise inequality although their effects differed over the periods and social categories considered mainly for agricultural households that an inequality enhancing effect was found.

2.3.4 The Link of Remittances and Economic Development

To understand the amount of remittance received in different times, the official recorded remittances are much lower than the actual remittances that take place through official and unofficial channels. Remittances through informal channels could add at least 50 percent to the globally recorded flows (World Bank, 2006). Despite this underreporting, many studies have highlighted the important links between the international migration, remittances and development. Pant (2008), argues that whether remittances are utilized for household consumption or for other investments, they produce positive impact on the economy by stimulating demand for other goods and services. Migrants provide different forms of capital that have developmental impact on their countries of origin. These impacts may be in the form of financial, social, cultural, political and/or economic impacts. The impact can be examined at both micro level, like in case of households, and macro level.

This section summarizes the existing studies, which examine the context of developing countries. Overall, this part provides sufficient evidence to those remitted and benefited households and can significantly affect the economic development at place of origin. However, most of the studies are survey-based and very few empirical studies exist which are able to quantify the impact of remittances on poverty levels in the developing countries.

Several studies by different researchers have pointed out that, the more inflow of remittances from abroad, contributes more economic and social benefits for the recipient country. In times of economic suffering, remittances may actually be countercyclical to the amount that migrants are motivated by incomes and drive more money home (IMF, 2007). In similar view, Pant (2008), argues that whether remittances are expensed for consumption or purchasing houses, or other investments, they can produce positive results on the economy by motivating demand for other possessions and services. Accordingly, migrants provide different forms of capital like skills of migrants, modern technologies and materials in addition to money that have developmental impact on their countries of origin. These impacts may be in the form of financial, material, technological (skill), social, cultural, political and/or economic impacts. The impact can be examined at both micro level, like in case of households' improvement, and macro level like impact on GDP growth, poverty and development at national level.

2.3.5 Remittances and Household Improvement

Most of the existing studies, which focus on the impact of migration on household members left behind, have shown positive impact in both the short run and long run. Rapoport and Docquier (2006), show that remittances are mostly used to repay former loans that taken to finance migration or other related or not related purposes, and cover different costs and planned motives. It also directly contributes to household income as a livelihood strategy, allowing households to purchase more assets; enables higher investment in business; and facilitate buying more goods, including education and health inputs to well managing household. Yang (2004), suggests that at the household level, remittances can create entrepreneurial activity that in long run could transform the household to business works.

2.3.6 Remittances and Macro Level Economy

Studies examining the relationship between remittances and national level economic growth show mixed results. Faini (2003), finds a positive relationship between growth and remittances using cross-country data. Similarly, positive relationship between the two is also supported by several studies for world economy. Adelman and Taylor (1990), find that every dollar Mexican migrants send back home for their families or bring back with them increases Mexico's GNP from anywhere between \$2.69 and \$3.17, depending on which household income group received the remittances. However, this positive relationship is challenged in several studies. Spatafora (2005), argue that there is no direct link between real per capita output growth and remittances. On the other hand, Chami *et al.*, (2009), using panel data for 113 developing countries find that remittances have a negative effect on economic growth due to the reduction of productive labor forces.

2.3.7 Remittances, Poverty and Welfare

Remittances are expected to reduce poverty as remittance directly received by the poor. The impact of remittances on the reduction of poverty can be understood from both the micro and macro perspectives, even if there is no formula to capture it. However, it is reasonable to assume that the amount of transfer done by the migrants to the family members back home do have some impact in reducing the poverty. Adams and Page (2005), used household surveys of 71 developing countries to examine the impact of international migration on poverty Controlling for the level of income,

income inequality, and geographical region, they find that international remittances have a strong statistically significant reducing impact on poverty, that means it is an instrument to alleviate poverty. A 10% increase in the share of remittances in a country's GDP, lead to a reduction of 1.6% of people living in poverty. Adams (2004), finds that the squared poverty gap measure in Guatemala declined by 19.8 per cent when international remittances were included as a part of the total household income. Remittances have a statistically significant impact in reducing poverty in some literatures (Adams, 2006 and Ratha, 2003, among others).

2. 3.8 Remittances and Employment

Some studies have estimated that the macro economic impact of remittances on employment in the recipient country has a major role to play. At micro level, studies suggest mixed results. Frank (2001), argues that the families receiving international remittances severely limit their work efforts.

Rodriguez and Tiongson (2001), conclude that when migration occurs, non-migrant relatives receive remittances, which they perceive as additional non-labour income. An increase in non-labour income then reduces their participation in local labour markets. In contrast to these studies, Rodriguez (2006), find that remittances have no impact on the labour supply of household members in Mexico. However, at macro level, when the inflow of remittances is used for the investment activities of migrant households, the non-migrated families indirectly are benefited by seeking employment.

2.4 Return Migration and Investment

Different evidences suggest that return migration after a relatively short period abroad, especially among low skilled migrants and it caused by an inability to adopt to the foreign environment or due to unforeseen and adverse family circumstances, is unlikely to contribute to development. However, return following a longer stay abroad when the migrant has saved money to meet specific development purposes back home-such as building a house or investing in businesses related activities-has for better development prospects. Whether return migrants will benefit local development or not, will vary and is primarily determined by two factors first, the ability and preparation of the return migrants and second whether or not the country of origin provides a

favorable social, economic and institutional environment for the return migrant to use their economic and human capital productively (Ghosh, 2000).

2.5 Social Impacts of Migration

In positive aspect, migration can be a rewarding experience that is made in the interest of the household welfare, but in most cases moving to another country and being separated from one's immediate family takes place at considerable emotional cost. Especially, temporary circular migration increases the risk for family breakdown, fragmentation of social networks and psychosocial stress (Kahn *et al.*, 2003). The emotional impact is not just limited to the migrants themselves, but also to the family left behind. Particularly in poorer household where the whole family cannot afford to emigrate together, they emigrate one member at a time resulting in eroded family structures and relationship.

As described above, the longer the separation between the migrating parents and their children, the more children lose parents' love or the management of the household, their power and their role limited in providing of love and care. Other family members slowly replace parents, or the children take upon themselves the task of preventing. The feelings of rejection, abandonment and loss follow the children left behind, this big gap cannot be compensated by the material gift and remittances sent from aboard to families who are left behind at home. To some extent, the recent technological advances in terms of e-mail and affordable telephone calls might allow the transnational families to form and foster social ties even at a distance (UNDP, 2009).

2.6 Migration, Inequality and Social Change

Migration has not only deeply affected regional economies, but has also changed the social face of communities. Migration is not only an attempt to secure better livelihoods, but also a clear avenue of upward social mobility. Migration has accelerated the breakdown of ancient socio-ethnic hierarchies in migrant-sending communities by forming new social category. In fact, in most of rural areas, migration has contributed to the creation of a new social stratification.

De Haas (2006), revealed that international migrant households forming a new kind of "migration elite". In many respects, the new socio-economic dividing line in migrant-sending communities between households with and without international remittance income. One might easily conclude

based on such observations that migration and remittances cause increasing intra-community inequality. However, there is an obvious absence of formal, statistical tests pertaining to the effect of migration on income inequality in sending communities (Jones, 1998).

2.7 Migration Studies in Ethiopia

Different studies conducted on migration by different researchers in different time and places in Ethiopia, which focused on migration to Middle East, USA, and Europe. However, migration to other African countries yet not been adequately studied, except recently conducting in some graduation thesis.

On the other hand, few studies were explored on Ethiopian women migration. Ethiopian women migration to the Middle East explained that, in the past ten years (1991-2001), Lebanon, Saudi Arabia and Gulf states were the common destinations for most Ethiopian women in search of 'better future' (Regt, 2007). Accordingly, a 'poor' country such as Yemen attracts many female Ethiopian migrants who take up paid domestic works caused by some voluntary by friends, recruitment agents and smuggled by boat.

2.8 Migration Studies in Hadiya

As explained in different studies, population migration takes place due to different push factors at the origin and pull factors at the place of destination. Likewise, Hadiya community has experienced different push factors in pre 1960's (pre and post Menelik's Conquest of Hadiya) migration and pull factors in 1960-1990's (migration to Awash and Beles Valley) migration Beyene (1985), cited in Tamirat, 2011. Thus, accordingly, it may be concluded that, migration is a way to cope with sever conditions at the homeland and a strategy devised to sustain the society's life through the opportunity of better work.

Unlike internal migration, early international immigration of Hadiya people from foreign countries to Ethiopia was primarily based on story that many people believe and legends, Tamirat (2011). Early ancestors of Hadiya were said to have left Arabian Peninsula crossing the Red Sea in search of new home in the Hebesha land. Hadiya descendants, after staying in Raya and Wollo Province

for a period, migrated to the south to the territories of the Adal Kingdom and to the Southern Shoa (Ibid).

According to Braukamper (1980), writings based on oral traditions put that Hadiya's original home land was Asia. On the other hand, Lapiso (1982) reveal that there were Hadiya people in the land between Wabe River in the east and Gibe River in the west in the beginning of 15th century. In the same way, Braukamper (1980) also writes that Hadiya population was living in Gadab and Wabe Shabale vicinities. As the result, the internal as well as international migrations of people are increasing from time to time. The youngsters, peasant and women migration of the study areas is have been increasing due to the need of economic improvement.

In pre-1991, the trends of Hadiya migration were mainly within the countries (internal migration) rather than external (out-migration), but recently some studies attempted to explore internal migration features. For example, Ephrem (2010) conducted his study on out-migration, which focused on Intra-Continental Migration: Hadiya Migration to South Africa based on his work some graduate students attempted to assess about external migration in Hadiya people. Hadiya migration, specifically to the RSA, is pertained devastatingly due to network relationship between the previously migrated individuals and individuals at home country. Moreover, because of the nature of the migrants (economic migrants) and the socio-economic and political conditions of South Africa, the forms of Hadiya migrations are various like temporary, step and circular type. So that, there is no a uniform of migration that Hadiya migrants have been experiencing (Ephrem, 2010).

Post 1990's is marked as a new period in which the migration direction of Hadiya and its range shifts from local and regional level to the Intra-continental level, crossing boundaries of most East African countries that runs up to the RSA (Solomon, (2011).

Ephrem (2010) stated that this new migration direction might be easier due to the fall of the military government and the coming into power of the EPRDF in 1991. Hence, the freedom to move to any place at any time, which excluded during the military government, was lifted (Bisrat, 2006 cited in Ephrem, 2010). Therefore, this right to free movement and the search for better life made Hadiya people to grab every opportunity to migrate anywhere else. Similarly, according to (IOM, 2009) reports, Ethiopians used to migrate in a small numbers to the RSA during the military government, large number of Ethiopians began arriving to the RSA since 1990's.

The flow of Ethiopian to the RSA is not as such a new event before 1990's on, in recent years this flow has been increasing and the majority of them are from Hadiya, kembata and Some Guraghe communities (IOM, 2009 cited in Ephrem, 2010). According to some returned migrants oral saying, there were a few migrants who transited by Eritrean and Somalian brokers before and around 1994. The year 2002 is taken as a remarkable point for the information explosion and beginning of network migration to the RSA specifically from Hadiya and Kembata. This is because, in 2002 the Ethiopian government assigned, Ato Tesfaye Habiso, as an Ambassador of the RSA. Thus, his position was taken as a source of security and information.

From then on, the relatives and some friends of the Ambassador who visited him in the RSA and who went to visit the Ambassador laid the foundation in diffusing information to different people like families, friends and neighbourhoods. Later, this draws out into a large extent with the involvement of different actors. However, predominantly kinship ties, ethnic and friendship relation functioned more persuasively in pertaining an overwhelmed emigration (Ephrem, 2010). Like revealed by other researchers and personal view, this study also identified that, information from friends, families and relatives are initiated the people to migrate from the study area to the RSA.

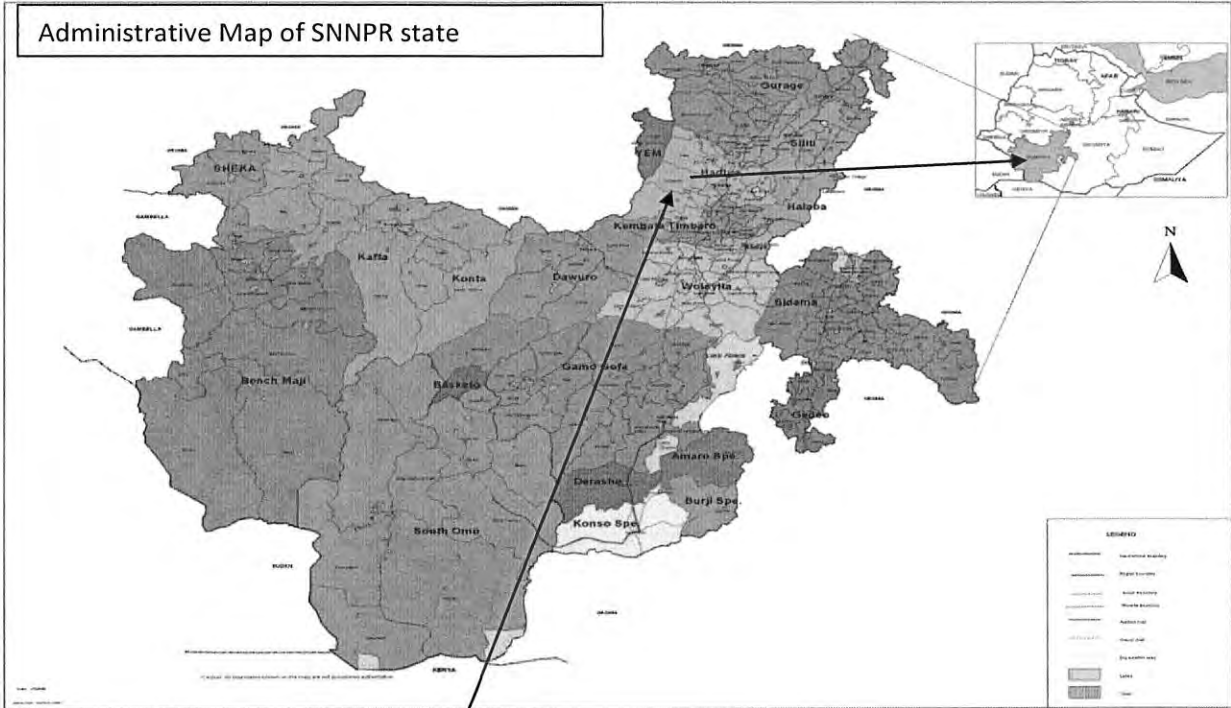
CHAPTER THREE: RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

3.1 Selection and Description of the Study Area

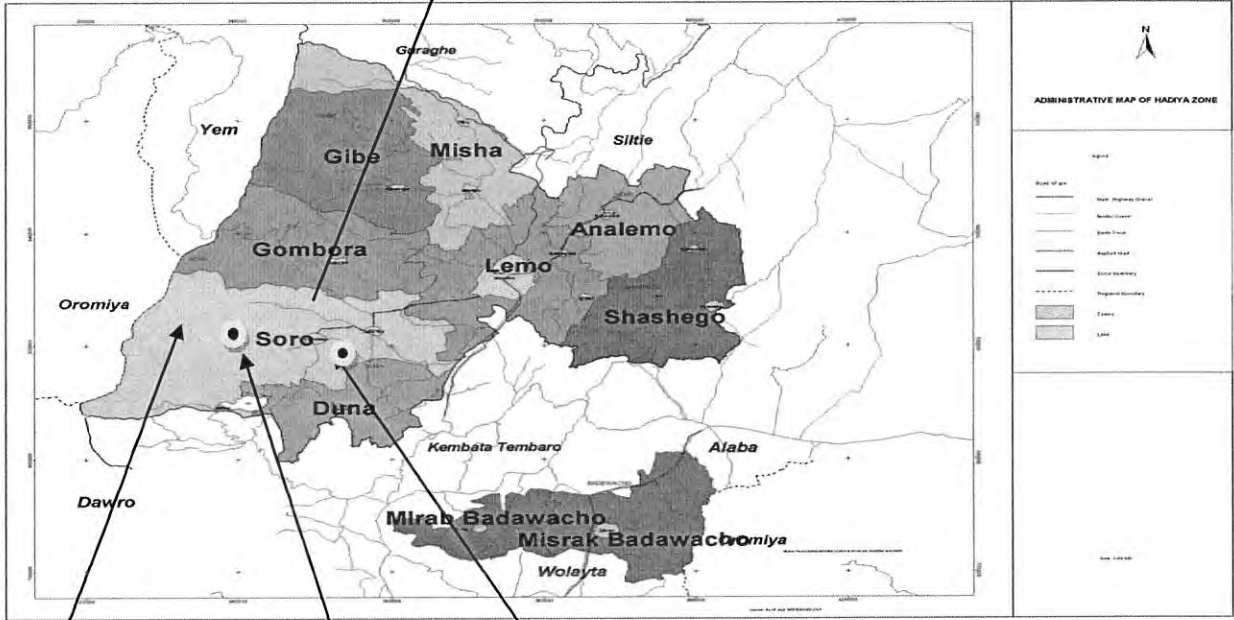
3.1.1. Geographic Location and Population

This study was conducted in Soro Woreda by selecting as samples Gimbichu and Sibya kebeles among 49 kebeles of Soro wored. The sections below present brief description of the study Woreda and the selected Kebeles. Soro Woreda is one of the ten rural Woredas in Hadiya Zone, SNNP Regional State. It is located at 264km South West of Addis Ababa. Soro Woreda was established in 1937 and Gimbichu has become the center of the woreda administration. There are 46 rural kebeles and 3 growing municipalities in the Wotreda. The total population of Soro woreda was 217,452 in 2007 (CSA, 2007). The current projection of the population is 250,865; out of which 124,931(49%) males and 125,934(51%) females. About 75% are settled at high land ('dega') and moderate climatic zone ('woina- dega') and the rest 25% are settled at low land area ('kola') (SWFEDO, 2011).

Location Map of the Study area



Administrative Map of the study area of Hadiya Zone



Soro woreda Gimbichu town Sibya kebele

Source: HZFEDD, 2009

Table 1: Population Category of Soro Woreda

Population category	Male in %	Female in %	Total	Remarks
1.productive labour(15-65 age)	56456(49)	58340(51)	114796	productive
2.non-productive labour	55391(50)	54784(50)	110175	
3.productive age boundary	52	48	100%	Total
4.non-productive age boundary	43	57	100%	Total
5. 0-4 age	20889(51)	20243(49)	41132	
6. 5-10 age	17092(50)	16878(49)	33970	
7. 11-14 age	13004(49)	13515(51)	26519	
8. 15-18 age	12138(41)	17788(59)	29926	

Source: SWFEDO, 2010 yearly plan

The average family size of the households in the woreda is 5. Above 88% of the total population of the woreda are the protestant religion followers. About 90% of the total population of the woreda belongs to Hadiya ethnic group. Almost all people of the woreda speak Hadiyigna language. But, Amharic language is spoken rarely by the local people. Therefore, the study was conducted at Gimbichu town from the center and at Sibya kebele from the rural areas.

3.2. Research Design and Approach

The type of research employed is both qualitative descriptive types for data collected from interview and FGDs, and a quantitative type was used to analyze the data collected from the questionnaire survey. This is because the intention of the study is in order to describe and analyze the economic and social effects of the current migration condition in Soro woreda in a case of Gimbichu and Sibya kebeles. The thematic focus of the study was on remittances and returnees investments.

3.3 Types and Sources of Data

In this study, both qualitative and quantitative data were gathered. Quantitative data were collected on facts like amount of income, number of migrants, amount of remittance and other socio-economic issues that indicate quantity. Qualitative information was collected from key-informants and FGDs on challenges of migration and attitudes of different groups of people on migration and the like, that needs qualitative or descriptive responses at the place of origin.

During the field survey, relevant data were obtained from primary and secondary sources. The primary sources included migrant households, non-migrant households and returned migrants. Secondary sources included office reports, journals, research works, different books which are written in the areas of the study and different documents. Data was gathered by using survey (by administering questionnaire), interview, focused group discussion and field observation (by using guides on themes) and secondary sources generally by using published and unpublished data sources were used to supplement the primary data.

3.4 Sample Size Determination, Sample Design and Sampling Techniques

We know that sampling is a process by which a relatively small number of individuals, object or events are selected to collect information. In drawing the sample, knowing population is mandatory. The population or the universe is defined as the total group, with which the research deals. The selected Woreda migrants, returned migrants and non-migrant households are targeted population for this study. The research was mainly qualitative and aimed at detailed understanding rather than generalization and the sample design was made to serve this. In this respect, the main subjects of the study are migrants' households and returned migrants.

However, multipurpose procedures were followed to enhance the reliability and validity of the data sets. In this, first, all the 49 kebeles of Soro woreda were stratified into high out-migration and low out-migration categories. In this, Gimbichu Kebele was selected from highly migrated group and Sibya Kebele was selected from low out-migrant group. In order to get the migrant and the non-migrant household heads those included in the study, the complete list of the household heads was founded from the woreda tax administration office. However, the complete list of the migrant

household heads was not founded in each of the two Kebeles and partial list of migrant households was founded in Woreda's administrative office. The migrant household heads were separated from the non-migrant households and registered in each of the selected Kebeles separately. Then, the sample migrant households were selected by the systematic randomly sampling method and few non-migrant household heads taken purposively from the prepared lists (Table 2).

Out of the total migrant households in both Gimbichu and Sibya Kebeles, the sample size was taken into account: about 50% of 395 migrant household heads were selected by using systematic random sampling from the migrant household list. Totally, 198 sample respondents were selected in both kebeles. Among these, chancily 193 respondents participated and responded the questions. On the other hand, some key informants and FGD participants were selected from non-migrant households and all of the returned migrants. In summary, the determination of the sample size employed here, the following formula was use:

$$k = N / (10-50\%N) \text{ or } k=N/(50\%N-10)$$

$$S=N \times 50\% \text{ (N=total population and S= sample size, k=random number)}$$

In order to reach to the sample size, a random number, 'k', was selected and every kth was included in the sample until 50% of the population is selected.

For the qualitative data collection, 24 key- informants were selected for interview responses from both returned and NMHHs. The returned migrants and non-migrants totally 16 members also were used for the purpose of FGD and employed (See Table 2 in the next section). In each kebele 6 FGD members participated and discussed based on the prepared guidance. In both kebeles two FGDs were employed. Preliminary observation also was employed on economic changes and asset formation in some migrant households.

To collect relevant data from household survey, enumerators were assigned after given training on data registration and management. Totally 6 enumerators are assigned in both Kebele to assist the researcher in data collection. On the other hand, before administering questionnaire, pilot survey was carried out in 4 selected households in each kebeles to assess the relevance and clarity of

questions, the logical flow of the questions and to estimate the time needed to fill in a single respondent. The pilot sample was relevant to the study to collect adequate information.

Table 2: Sample size of household heads taken from both Kebeles

Kebele	Group of target population	Number of each group	Sampling %	Sample size	Types of data instrument		
					Questionnaire	FGD	Interview
Gimbichu	Migrant HHHs	N=292	50%	146	S=146	---	---
	Non-migrant HHs	N=754	---	2, purposively	---	S=2	---
	Returns	N=18	100%	18	---	S=6	S=12
Sibya	MHHHs	N=103	50%	52	N=52	---	---
	NHHHs	N=430	---	12	---	S= 4	S= 8
	Returns	N=8	100%	8	---	S= 4	S= 4
Total		1605		238	198	16	24

Source: Field survey, 2012

3.5 Methods and Instruments of Data Collection

For this study, household questionnaire survey, interview, FGDs and to some extent observation methods were used. Questionnaire survey method was used to collect quantitative data. Close-ended questionnaire mostly prepared and administered for respondents selected from migrant household heads. The interview and discussion guides were developed for FGD members and for key- informants. This was aimed at getting richer information by triangulating the responses to support the surveyed facts. Sem-structured questions on themes were used to allow the respondents to express their views in their own words and thinking without any interference or any restriction.

The focused group discussion method was used to improve the reliability of data. Two FGDs in both selected kebeles were delivered by the participation of returned migrants and purposively selected few non-migrant household heads. The FGD comprised, conventionally, eight participants in each of Gimbichu and Sibya kebeles. The FGD guides were developed to ease the discussion. The researcher in both kebeles facilitated it. The observation method helped in the collection of selected data. It was employed to crosscheck the data sets. The desk review method employed for unpublished Office materials that guides for document reports and office statistics or for secondary materials at some Offices and organizations.

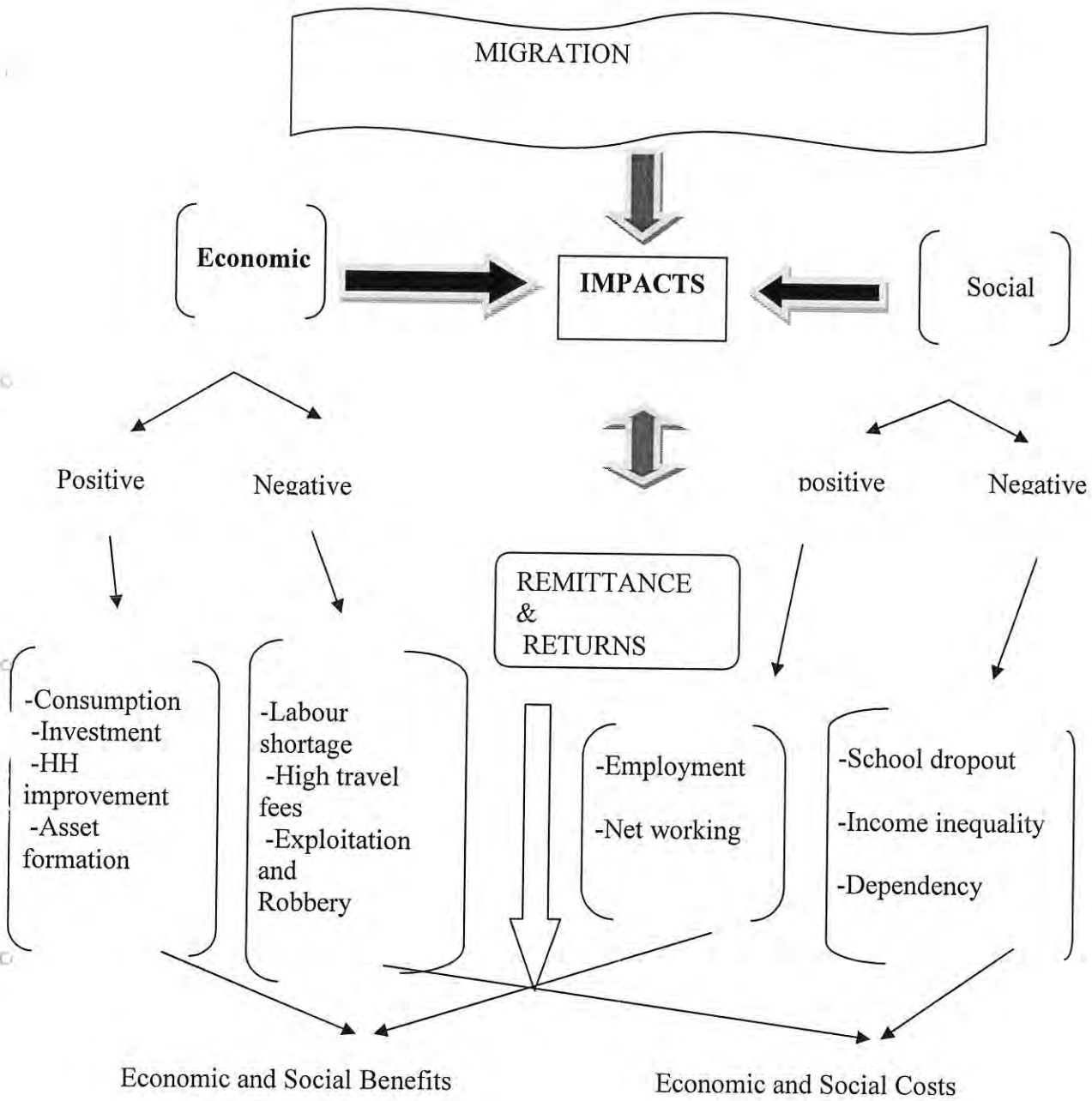
3.6 Data Analysis Techniques

This study employed both qualitative and quantitative analysis techniques. The qualitative data was analyzed by using explanatory / descriptive methods and summaries. The data source was the FGDs, key informants and observation. The quantitative data were analyzed and organized into simple statistics by using basic SPSS Software were used for frequency tables and figures. The analysis and results were interpreted and presented based on the objectives of the study.

3.7 The Analytical Frame Work of the Study

People migrate to different regions for different reasons of pushing or pulling factors. From the recent past, migration has been taking place within the country (internally) or out of the country (internationally). This study concerned in out-migration to RSA and MECs. Its objective is to assess the socio-economic effects of out-migration at the origin. To this end, the researcher visited different related literatures (books, journals, researches and others works) and observed some outstanding consequences of migration at the study area. The aim of this study was to identify the effects of remittances in economic and social situations. The effect of remittance and return migrants, economically or socially can affect positively or negatively or in both. Therefore, the following analytical framework shows some consequences of out-migration in the study area by the researcher adopted concepts from literature reviewing.

Figure 1: Analytical Framework of the Study



Source: Analytical framework developed adopting the concept from the literatures and

CHAPTER FOUR: RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

4.1. Situation of the Woreda

4.1.1. Socio-economy

The total land area of the Woreda estimated to be 268800 hectares (Soro woreda rural and agricultural sector office data, 2006). About 2746 (1.02) hectares for grazing, 1643 (0.6) hectares covered by the natural forest /woodland/ and 263292 (98) hectares area is cultivable land and about 1119 (0.42) hectares are non-cultivable land. Vegetation types and coverage was affected by natural and human factors. The climate, altitude and soils from the natural factors and the population pressure for cultivable lands affected the forest cover. However, the western part near to Gibe River of the woreda is covered by natural forest.

Out of the cultivable land, about 519 hectares near to some water projects, rivers and stream areas are under irrigation in 2009/10 and about 5122 households /HHs/ benefited from it. Since last five years, irrigation for crop production and vegetables has increased and become part of the agricultural activities (Soro Woreda Finance and Economy Development Office, 2011). Both crop and livestock are the basic economic activities in the Woreda; the rain fed agriculture is the main livelihood.

Table 3: Livestock data of the Soro Woreda in 2010/11

No	Type of live stocks	Number of live stocks
1	Cows and oxen	146,454
2	Sheep	27,121
3	Goats	26,564
4	Hens	117,321
5	Horses	1825
6	Mules	1400
7	Donkeys	5840
	Total	326,525

Source: SWARO yearly report 2011

Recently in the woreda, more than 95% of the population drive their livelihood from agricultural products /both crop and livestock production. On the other hand, small percentage of people

generate income by undertaking small and medium trade. Some people engaged in governmental, NGOs and private employment sectors as permanent and contractual workers.

The majority of peasants in the Woreda participated in livestock production especially in cattle production. In this area at low land (kola) zone, there is competition in cattle husbandry. Today some people, which have many cattle, send their family members without any problem by selling cows as a means of transit fee coverage. On the other hand, trade became a strategy of livelihood by using remittance from migrants and returns. Small scale trading and micro enterprising, service trading (hotels, cafeterias, transportation, motorized mills, retail trade, etc... become a means of livelihood for remitted and returnees especially in urban areas.

Education: Formal education started at Gimbichu town since 1943. However, later some schools started to give services in rural areas during this period. The coverage of education in the Woreda was about 50% in 2005. Before 1991, there were only 16 elementary schools and 1 high school while in the year 2005 the numbers of schools expanded to thirty-three elementary schools. Recently, in the study area, the flow of remittance and increasing the number of returnees has a great role in education. This fact can be expressed in different angles. First, increase the flow of remittance from migrants, support family income improvement. As the result, migrants' families initiated to send their children to better schools by paying school tuition fees. Secondly, by having better income, at each level parents want to send their school aged children to the town to get more facilitated or accessed education. School aged children at primary cycle II or at secondary schools want to drop their schooling to migrate RAS (males with small proportion of females) and MECs (females with small proportion of males). These facts were expressed in FGD and in some interviews in similar explanation. Similarly, Soro Woreda education office statistics in table 4 shows the level of dropout, enrolment and not promoted students' data. In this, the influence of out-migration is high (SWEQ, 2012).

Table 4: Soro Woreda schools statistics

No	Grades		2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012
1	1-4	enrolment	23808	27747	30435	29065	27399	29366	27397
		Dropout	5074	4876	3945	2498	4057	3901	—
		Failed	20	12	21	25	31	40	—
2	5-8	enrolment	12914	12823	13977	15191	15743	15028	15499
		Dropout	1349	1481	1612	1236	2342	1937	—
		Failed	98	2811	273	265	726	393	—
3	9-10	enrolment	4216	4563	4015	3069	3460	4663	3806
		Dropout	383	392	377	281	338	351	—
		Failed	30	230	654	122	24	7	—
4	11-12	enrolment	577	780	852	660	637	653	939
		Dropout	14	58	27	23	60	18	—
		Failed	—	—	8	—	—	—	—
5	Total								

Source: SWEQ, 2012

Health: The coverage of health service in Soro Woreda was 45% before 2004/5. However, today it reached to 100% in health service coverage. In the woreda, the total health institutions are 59 out of these 10 are health centres (9 governmental and 1 missionary at Jajura town). There are also 49 health extension centres (46 rural and 3 towns). The availability of human resource in the above health institutions including woreda health office, there are: 6 health officers, 6 BSC graduates, 64 clinical nurses, 17 public nurses, 13 delivery wives, 14 pharmacists, 3 sanitarians, 100 health extension workers (94 rural and 6 town), 3 community mobilizers employed to mobilize community for health issues and 64 support staff were employed to serve 250,866 population (SWHO data, 2011/12).

According to the study, some interviewees revealed that the health status of remitted and returnees with their close (either nuclear or extended) relatives are better than others are, due to their better living standards. For this reason, the increase of income created good way of living,

improved disease preventing condition and as well, it enables them to pay for better hospital with better treatment of sickness. The idea again supported by the FGD too.

4.1.2. Infrastructure and Energy

Road network: According to Soro woreda road and transport office data, Soro woreda has a total of 128km road network coverage from which there is no asphalt and cobble stone road. Gimbichu and Hosanna are connected by 32km gravel. All other roads connecting woreda center with all rural kebeles by locally designed and prepared earth roads. In addition, about 36km road connecting Gimbichu and Jacho, that is currently at work.

Water supply: The three municipal towns and some rural kebeles have got access to pure water supply since 1993 by constructing and distributing hand pump pipes. Gimbichu town pure water supply scheme started to function in Derge regime by the support of Mekane-Yesus church and by local community participation. After three years stay Jajura town drinking water developed through pipe from Shonkola Mountain. During the time 1998, Guwo spring distributed through Jacho line to Orcha kebele about 25km by benefiting the residences near the line of distribution. On the other hand, Sibya water project providing communal piped water lines for 17 kebeles of Soro woreda. Today pure water supply coverage in the woreda reached to 56% (SWWDO, 2011).

Energy: Gimbichu town has got access to electric power supply since 1994. The center of soro woreda during that period was receiving of power from Koka and Melka wokena hydroelectric source through Hosanna line. As information obtained from Gimbichu branch EEPCO, the substation has the capacity of delivering 5Megawatts in Hosanna of which about 2.2 Megawatts is consumed in Hosanna and the remaining 2.8 mega watt consumed in surrounding towns like Jajura, Fonko, Homecho, Morsito, Gimbichu, Doisha, Gibe, Duna, Jacho, etc. Among this Gimbichu, Jajura, and Jacho use their share consumption. In soro woreda, some rural kebeles ready to use electric power, but now not in use.

The actual electric power consumption of the three municipalities of the woreda, according to the Ethiopia Electric Power Corporation (EEPCO) Gimbichu Branch estimation, currently the estimated consumption to be more than 0.8MW. Gimbichu, Jajura and Jacho towns have more than

2000 clients (private houses, business enterprises and government offices) (EEPCO Gimbichu Branch, 2011).

Housing: Either the total household heads in the woreda in rural areas or in towns; they have at least one living house for each household. In this way, information obtained from Soro woreda administrative office, the 2007 population and housing census result show that, there are 103796 households in rural kebeles are built in a form of huts using different locally available materials like eucalyptus tree, bamboo tree, grass and some other products and there were 3754 urban private and government houses. The average ratio of house to family members is 1:5 in rural kebeles and 1: 3 in urban kebeles. Today, the number of urban houses increasing rapidly in number and quality, due to the remittance flow from abroad. As a result, rural house construction activity relatively decreasing than from urban house construction (SWFEDO, 2011).

Finance and Finance Institutions: As a centre of woreda, Gimbichu town attempted to provide some financial business institution and offices namely commercial bank of Ethiopia Gimbichu branch, two micro finance institutions (Omo micro-finance Soro sub-branch and wisdom micro-finance share company (S.C) Gimbichu branch) institutions were opened in different times. Commercial bank of Ethiopia Gimbichu branch opened and started to function in 2010/11. On the other hand, the two micro-finance institutions have started to serve clients before ten years.

4.2. Migration: Migrant Characteristics in Soro Woreda

There are different types of migrations identified in many empirical studies. Ellis (2003), categorizes two kinds of migration: internal and international migration. This study was focused on recent migration to RSA and MECs in Soro woreda. It is a type of international migration. However, Hadiya people have long time internal migration history.

Most peasants are migrating to Mareko, Libido and Bonosha, which are rural peasant areas in SNNPR state, for the purpose of seasonal agricultural works in farms. The income was aimed at financing “meskel” ceremony and school children’s learning materials and clothing costs. In a circular migration most rural school age children are migrating to Addis Ababa, Hawassa, Hosanna, Adama, Dire-dawa, etc...for shoe-shining works at streets. There may be today approximately more than 90% of shoe-polishers in Addis Ababa those come from Haidya. This type of migration can be

taken as step migration as expressed in the literature review. Some rural youngsters experienced by migrating to middle and upper Awash state farm areas. Resettlement programs of the region also attracted most peasants to migrate to Dawuro, Kefa and Sheka zones.

The international migration is to the Middle East (Saudi Arabia, Beirut, Dubai, Kuwait, and Qatar, etc) and the RSA. In works of Parnwell (1993), cited By Solomon (2011), in terms of duration, Parnwell explained that, migration could be in different forms like permanent, step, circular, return, and counter stream migrations.

The forms of migration, for Hadiya people to South Africa, is mainly temporary, step and circular (Ephrem, 2010). Similarly, this study also discovered that, the forms of migration in the study area is permanent, temporary, step, and return migration. During field observation and some interviews at origin, this study discovered that, people are migrated, migrating, and ready to migrate to the Republic of the South Africa (RSA) in 'voluntarily'.

4.3. Socio-demographic Characteristics of Migrants

In this section, the characteristics of migrants' household heads and migrants at time of migration were discussed in the tables side by side, to understand the general backgrounds of both migrants and migrant household heads. It is essential to know the demographic and other socio-economic characteristics of migrants (returnees that mean they are part of migrants) and their households (respondents). The collected information was included demographic (position in the family sex, age and marital status, religion) and socio-economic (occupation and education) of the house hold heads and their migrants or return migrants at migration.

4.3.1 Position of the Respondents and Migrants in the Family

In the study area, the positions of household heads in the family to the relation of the migrants who crossed the international boarder either to RSA or MECs were categorized into eight groups: father, mother, husband, wife, son, relative, daughter and other. Migrant brothers and sisters were collectively taken as relatives. The divided groups are listed in Table 5.

Table 5: Positions in the family

Headship	Respondents (MHHHs)		Migrants at migration	
	Frequency	Percent	Frequency	Percent
Fathers	56	29	9	5
Mothers	35	18	---	---
Husbands	13	7	78	40
Wives	78	40	13	7
Sons	3	2	76	39
Relatives	2	1	2	1
Daughters	6	3	15	8
Total	193	100	193	100

Source: Field survey, 2012

As shown in Table 5, the highest percentage of wives (40%) is the predominant households heads and these are wives of migrants those left behind at place of origin. As a result, they have more workload burden, to take care for the children; those are separated from their fathers by out-migration. The next high percentage (47%) migrants' parents (the sum of both fathers and mothers) indicate that the migrants who were migrated to RSA and Middle East Countries (MECs) are single and they were under the parents' responsibility. Similarly, Tamirat (2011), in his work show that "Young peasants, who are married, are more preferred for migration because they are more concerned with other family members left in the home country. The unmarried are believed to be less concerned about their parents."

On the other hand, migrants data shows that high percentages, husbands (40%) and Sons (39%) were majority of migrant groups; having younger aged husbands and single youngsters. However, small percentages of fathers (5%), daughters (8%), wives (7%) and relatives (1%) (including brothers and sisters) were migrated to both countries. None mothers were migrated to one of the two countries either RSA or Arab Countries as responded during data collection.

Among the returnees, (77%) are husbands, (15%) are single males and the remaining (8%) are housewives from MECs. Married migrants pulled to home country by children's and marriage

partners' love and pressure than single migrants. Regarding the sex of migrants, the highest percentages (85%) are males and only (15%) females were migrated in the area. From the above findings, it is possible to conclude that the highest migrant groups are single youngsters and adult married men and the percentage of females is relatively very low (See Table 5).

4.3.2 Age of Respondents and Migrants

Age is another demographic feature of respondents and migrants at migration origin. Age determines the decision to migrate, as it is the case for sex. This confirms the study done by Taylor (2005) in Asia. IOM (2007) also argued that the younger people in the world are the more dominant group than other age groups.

Table 6: Age of the Respondents and Migrants

Age group	House hold heads (Respondents)						Migrants at migration					
	Gimbichu		Sibya		Total		Gimbichu		Sibya		Total	
	Freq	%	Freq.	%	Freq.	%	Freq.	%	Freq.	%	Freq.	%
Under 18	--	--	--	--	--	--	12	8	6	12	18	9
19-30	7	5	3	6	10	5	61	43	17	34	78	40
31-40	72	50	11	22	83	43	66	46	22	44	88	46
41-60	56	39	31	62	87	45	4	3	5	10	9	5
Above 60	8	6	5	10	13	7	--	--	--	--	--	--
Total	143	100	50	100	193	100	143	100	50	100	193	100

Source: Field survey, 2012

The higher percentage of respondents, (43%) and (45%), are found between the age boundaries of 31-40 and 41-60 respectively. There are also lower percentages of respondents in age boundary 19-30 (5) and above 60 (7) (see Table 5). On the other hand, in migrants data, the higher percentages, 40% and 46%, are found in between the age ranges of 19-30 and 31-40 respectively. A 41-60 ages boundary (5%) is the lower percentage of migration in the study area. This indicates that there is a high peak of migration between the age boundary 19-40 for migration to either RAS or MECs. As shown from the given data, it is possible to conclude that as age increases more and more after adultery age, the percentage of migrant decreases to zero (See table 6).

4.3.3 Ethnicity and religion

It is another important factor of migration in the study area.

Table 7.1: Ethnicity

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Hadiya	175	91	91	91
Others	18	9	9	100
Total	193	100	100	

Source: Field survey, 2012

As data shows in Table 7.1, the largest ethnic group, Hadiya generates the highest percentage (91%) of migrants. The majority of this people mainly males move to RSA and to MECs by females on work related reasons. However, there are small percentage (9 %) of other ethnic groups (Kambata, Dubamo, Amhara) living together in the study area. From the finding, it is possible to conclude that the highest percentage of Hadiya ethnic group migration brought from the existence of highest proportion of this ethnic group in the area. Therefore, being any one of ethnic group member cannot be a factor for income desire (improvement interest) of migration with the hope of better income gains by willingly migrating, and it is the same for religious groups in the study area.

Table 7.2: Religion

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Protestant	169	87	87	87
Orthodox	19	10	10	97
Catholic	3	2	2	99
Islam and others	2	1	1	100
Total	193	100	100	

Source: Field survey, 2012

On the other hand, religion is another important determinant factor of migration. In this sub-section, the study includes the types of religion: Protestant; Orthodox; Catholic; Islam and others. Most of

the migrant households and migrants are faith protestant religion followers. However, few people following Orthodox and catholic. Although, none of them following Islamic religion in the area. In this regard, out of the total (193) respondents, (87%) Protestant, (10%) Orthodox, (2%) Catholic and (1%) Islamic religion followers. Similarly, the coverage of protestant (Mekane yesus, kale-Hewot, Full- Gospel and other related churches) confirmed by 2007 population and house census, about 88% is protestant religion followers. This figure is almost equivalent to the census figure.

4.3.4 Family size of the Respondents

Household size is another determinant factor of migration. To analyze the size of households the grouping is divided in to three categories: 1-3; 4-6 and above 6 members.

Table 8: Household size of the respondents

Family size	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
1-3	35	18	18	18
4-6	72	37	37	55
above 6	86	45	45	100
Total	193	100	100	

Source: Field survey, 2012

As we can see from Table 8, from the respondents family size, 1-3 household size (18%), 4-6 family size (37%), above 6, (45%) data obtained. The highest percentage (45%) shows that large family size is the major migrant group in this category; at least 6 family members can have in each household under this category. The family size consisting of 4-6 family members is the next migration dominant group. In this category 37% have at least one migrant and at least 4 dependent. However, small family size 1-3 (18%) is the least migrant family. The mean value which obtained from SPSS result shows that 2.2642 averagely each household can have at least two family members in the study area. Similarly, Tamirat (2011), in his thesis work, the result shows that when the family size increases, the pressure increasing tendency of household and the number of migrants is also correlated positively with the number of households.

This indicates that higher family size of the migrant households shows a pressure pushing to send their members for migration. Population pressure is one of the migration determinant factors or it can be the pushing factor of out-migration. Therefore, migration and large family size have direct relationship.

4.3.5 Educational Status

Education is one of the dominant determinant factors of migration. In the study, it is categorized into four groups, (see table 9 below).

Table 9: Educational status of respondents and their migrants at migration

Education level	Respondents		Migrants	
	Frequency	%	frequency	%
Do not read and write	34	18	4	2
Read and write	70	36	26	13
Primary level	57	29	57	30
Secondary level	29	15	98	51
Highest level completed	3	2	8	4
Total	193	100	193	100

Source: Field survey, 2012

As shown in table 9, majority (29%) of respondents among the MHHs are primary level and can read and write (36%). The percentage of secondary (15%) and higher level (2%) is much smaller than the group of primary level or read and write.

On the other hand, the above data shows the education level of migrants at migration is better than their respondents. A higher percentages of migrants (51%) are secondary level learners, while (30%) are primary level and (13%) can read and write, (4%) higher level completed and finally (2%) are do not read and write. This clearly shows, primary and secondary level educates (most of them are school dropouts and unemployed secondary level graduates) are more migrated group. We

can conclude from Table 9 that migration can be taken as an alternative to reduce unemployment. Therefore, it is possible to conclude that migrant households education has less impact on migration. Education level does not help to send their household members to abroad in the area.

In the case of migrants, most of out- migrants are secondary level educated persons. As shown in Table 9, the percentage of out migration increases as the grade level increases except higher-level education. This shows that the migrant households prefer to send their household members to RSA or MECs than schooling them at higher levels in the home country. The figure of migration is higher at primary and secondary levels. This again shows migration at this level highly influences youngsters than do not read and write. In this study, youths at this level think the future work condition or employment and salary, earning in Ethiopia by comparing income will have been generating from abroad. According to FGD, majority participants explained the trends and interests of school age youngsters. As they said” the youth in all family desire; Challenging and creating complex among households to migrate RSA and MECs”. From the above findings, it is possible to conclude that the desire to obtain better income at abroad pulls lower level educated persons.

4.3.6 Occupation

In this section, the field of occupation for respondents at place of origin and migrants at migration were presented and analyzed.

From table 10, we can understand that farming is a predominate occupation (50%) in the area and trading (35%) is followed it. A few numbers of respondents are engaged in other fields like private NGOs, government employees and the like (see Table 10). The reason is that, low production of agricultural products; petty trades; unemployment and low level of salary scale pushed migrant households to send their family members other economically better countries as a household livelihood strategy to fill the existing income gap at the place of origin.

However, focused group discussion members discussed that in after migration, the migrant households increased participation in trade; business and investment in urban areas and with less engagement in agricultural fields in rural areas through the flow of remittance that created a tendency of income difference between MHHs and NMHHs.

In the same way, migrants (47%) were students and non-employees and (40%) were engaged in farming. Only (9%) in trading and the remaining (2%) are government employees and (2%) are NGOs employees. From this group after returning 26 (100%) were engaged in different fields of trading like: services, retails, transportation, etc. even some of them have more than one business fields. From this, we can conclude that migration is in one way, the means of employment generation for migrant themselves and in other way, it is a means of transformation from farming to trading including their households.

According to the focus group discussion, comparisons of unemployment extent between MHHs and NMHHs, between before and after migration were discussed. After the discussion, they concluded that migration is one of the means to reduce unemployment at place of origin. It enabled migrant HHs and returned migrants to be engaged in different fields of investment by declining agricultural sector. Therefore, migration created big income gap between MHHs and NMHHs in the area. It similarly supported in Milanovic (1987), he showed that remittances tend to raise inequality although their effects differed over the periods and social categories considered.

Table 10: The main occupation of respondents and their migrants at migration

Occupation status	Migrant Household head (Respondents)		Migrants	
	Frequency	%	Frequency	%
Farming	97	50	77	40
Trading	68	35	18	9
Government employees	8	4	4	2
NGOs employees	14	7	3	2
Students and non employees	6	3	91	47
Others	--	--	--	--
Total	193	100	193	100

Source: Field survey, 2012

4.4. Challenges of Migration Process at Place of Origin

The main purpose of this section is not to analyze the whole process of migration from preparation to arriving at destination. However, it is necessary to describe some points, which related to the transit fee collection. The process of migration to the Republic of South Africa and Middle East Countries is different in many ways. In both cases, the whole process is complex and with the existence of some challenges especially in the case of money preparation. The amount of money needed for the journey to the Middle East countries is relatively less amount than that of RSAs. Because the nature of work, the benefit gained after migration, the distance of journey, the type of migrants, the type of brokers and the way of getting them is different for the two countries. However, in the study area, migration process starts from gathering information to reaching to the agreement with families, friends and relatives including money collection processes.

4.4.1 Process and Challenges of Transit Fee and Consequences

The principal purpose of this section is to present the challenges of preparing money for the travel and at the same time to assess some challenges in the process of migration, determining migrant from family members and the like were discussed in the following sections. Before sending migrants to RSA or MECs, many challenges facing migrant families.

Table 11: Some challenges of migration at place of origin

Challenges	Yes		No	
	count	%	count	%
Money shortage	155	80	38	20
Instability in the household members	76	39	117	61
Determining the migrant from family members and the way of journey	132	68	61	32
Identifying the contact person or the brokers	122	63	71	37
Identifying the recipient person at destination	146	76	47	24

Source: Field survey, 2012

As Table 11 shows, in both Gimbichu and Sibya kebeles more than 50% of respondents agreed that they were faced different challenges in the process of preparation to send their family members to either Republic of South Africa or Middle East Countries. According to the collected data, 80% of respondents show that money shortage was the primary challenge in the process of preparation. On the other hand, identifying the recipient person at destination was another challenge that shown by 76% of respondents in both kebeles. 68% of respondents agree that determining the migrant from family members who to migrate and choosing/ determining the way of journey either for trip on ground or to use air flight is another challenge in the migrants' family. Not only that, but also identifying the contact person or the brokers (63%) were other challenges that have an effect on migrant themselves and their families in the study area. From the obtained information in the above sub-questions, it is possible to conclude that many parents were faced challenges in the household level to related to migration. More than fifty percent of respondents agreed that all sub-questions are challenges of both migrants and their households (See Table 11).

4.4.2. Access to Information

Hadiya migration to RSA and MECs started from the past two decades. During the first decade (1994-2003) the information about the process, benefits and challenges of out- migration/migration to RSA and MECs was limited. However, information from different sources like friends, relatives, migrant families and other sources became wider from time to time. Having full information, starts to initiate large number of people to migrate especially males to RSA and females only to MECs from the study area. In his explanation, Lee (2001), shows that different people involved in the process of migration and the networks further facilitate the flow of information and develop the possibility for international migration. In the same way, one of my returned informants, Ato Abera Awono, he is from Sibya kebele and who returned from RSA said to:

The flows of information from RSA initiates people to think about migration. The flow of information is mainly through phone directly and from migrants' families indirectly. The overstated information for the benefits in abroad like: gain of better income and life condition at abroad pulls youngsters and adults (peasants) start to think the transit fee collections sources. I am one of them and at migration, first my friend call phone and mobilized me then I went by selling of the previous assets that was collected from farm land

and petty trade as well as the contribution of different sources and by gathering full information from different sources. After six-year stay, I returned here to start business works by gained money at abroad. Then now I constructed a building ground plus one in Gimbichu town. Today Commercial Bank of Ethiopia Gimbichu branch using it by the agreement of long period of rent prepaying.

In the process of preparation, some challenges happening at the place of origin in families and migrants. The challenges like lack of interest to learn that creates school dropout, competition among family members, means of money collection, identification of recipient at the destination, identification of brokers and determination of travelling ways. As a result, majority of NMHHs could not send their household members either RSA or MECs, even if they are interested to send and to gain remittance. Therefore, the context of this study exactly fits to the idea of Lee (2001) that the increasing number of migrants to RSA and Middle East countries since from the beginning perpetuated until to the current time. This is due to the bond and network between the migrants and their households, friends and neighbors in the place of origin, which stretch a chain and induces mass migration.

4.4.3. Family Agreement and Decision-Making

While the decision to migrate is another determining factor in power relations with in the households, it must be noted that households had relative authority to make decision to send one of the family member at particular time.

Discussion and decision-making are related components of the process of migration that both could influence either positively or negatively. Now a days, discussing for about migration is the recent concern in all Hadiya people at any place and any time especially, in peasants, petty traders, among youths/ students and in lower salary earners. The most migrating group are petty traders and youngsters under 40 years old including school age youngsters (men and women). To this end, better incomes families are the dominant group to send their family members to RSA and families with fewer incomes have only the alternative to send females to MECs due to the low tour costs. Most of the time, the agreement with in the household could be reached to send or not case of money collecting abilities or source of resources. If they have better income source, they

immediately would be reached in agreement and if it is difficult, they could not agree simply and it takes times or can be cancelled.

4.4.4. Process of Money Collection and Migration

From gathering of full information for the process of migration and reaching in an agreement in the family members after discussion, the process of money collection will start. The process of money collection is the main challenges for migrant themselves and for many migrants households in the study area. People in this process; first, they determine the way of trip and choice of passages depending on the cost, identification of smugglers and recipients at destination. The journey may be flight using airplane or trip on ground. Males with small number of females prefer to migrate RSA and only females migrated and migrating to MECs to get relatively better work and to improve their lives. To achieve this goal migrants and their families collect enough amount of transit money to pay for the smugglers / brokers.

Table 12: Amount of money needed to cover the cost of transportation

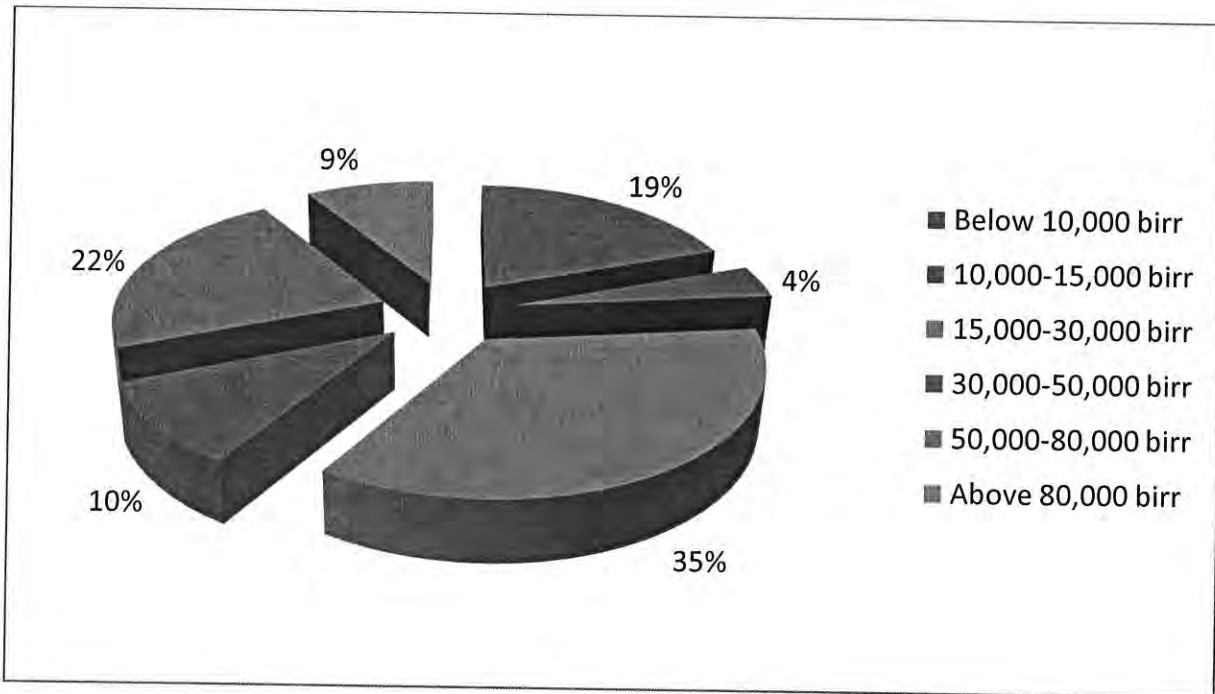
	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
below 10,000 birr	37	19	19	19
10,000-15,000 birr	8	4	4	23
15,000-30,000 birr	68	35	35	59
30,000-50,000 birr	20	10	10	69
50,000-80,000 birr	42	22	22	91
above 80,000 birr	18	9	9	100
Total	193	100	100	

Source: Field survey, 2012

The respondents in Figure 2, shows the paid money for their household members' migrants at different times for different traveling ways. The amount of money under 10,000 birr (19%) shows earlier migrants to RSA and for MECs migrants including current immediate value of trip. Amount of needed money between 10,000 and 30,000 birr shows before seven years migration to RSA using airline flight and trip on ground to RSA before this year. Moreover, amount of money 30,000-80,000 birr needed shows recent trip on ground and flight to RSA before last year and finally above

80,000 birr is the current immediate value needed to RSA for flight using airline. Compared to last five years, the number of Hadiya migrants to RSA by using trip on ground and MECs has been rising much more in the two last years.

Figure 2: Cost of Migration to Destinations (South African and Middle East)



Source: Field survey, 2012

Currently, Hadiya people have been migrating to RSA and MECs by their own decision voluntarily without any external influence. Migration to RSA needs more money than migration to MECs. The immediate amount of money needed to cover transit cost to migrate RAS is increasing form year to year. The current maximum immediate value of traveling by using air flight reached to 110,000 birr for RSA, 8,000 birr for some MECs and 36,000 birr to RSA trip on the ground for smugglers. The results in Figure 2 show that the recent travel fees (above 80,000 birr) is the highest amount and difficult to cover and as a result, a few percentage only (9%) of migrants migrated by using air line flight. But, majority (35%) of migrants chosen trip on ground due to its low money preparation.

4.4.5 Transit Money Collection Sources

Migration to RSA needs more money than migration to MECs as explained in previous section. The immediate amount of money needed to cover transit cost to migrate RAS have been increasing year to year. For all trip ways migrant families use different money collection sources.

Table13: Transit fee collection sources at the study area

No.	Money collection sources	For both Gimbichu and Sibya kebeles					
		Choices					
		Yes		No		Total	
		Freq.	%	Freq.	%	Freq.	%
1	Land leasing	55	29	138	71	193	100
2	Salary	6	3	187	97	193	100
3	Debt	65	34	128	66	193	100
4	Former migrants' sponsorship	106	55	87	45	193	100
5	Urban land and house sell	55	29	138	71	193	100
6	Relatives and friends	139	72	54	28	193	100
7	Other source	9	5	184	95	193	100

Source: Field survey, 2012

Briefly, in table 13 respondents show that different money collection sources were used to send their migrants to RSA and MECs. 72% respondents used relatives and friends contribution and 55% used former migrants' sponsors were the dominant sources of transit money coverage compared with other sources in both kebeles. Therefore, former migrants' sponsor is alone enough to cover the total cost of travel. Relatives and friends contribution here attracts the attention of respondents in its nature of involvement in sending migrants, but the amount of collected money could not cover the travel cost alone.

As information obtained from key informants during data collection time, many households have been sending additional migrants to RSA and MECs by using former family members/relatives sponsor as either support or loan. However, land leasing, loan from rich people or debt and other sources like cattle sales, previous own or household deposit and income from crop sales are again another source more in Sibya kebele as its rural nature (see Table 13). Few migrant households

today in dangers by leasing their farm land for at least seven or ten consecutive years. Due to this effect, the whole household members suffering by famine, because farm land is in hands of others and no cereal crops to feed many mouths. On the other hand, house and urban land sale is the predominant of transit fee collecting source, in Gimbichu kebele due to its urban nature. The focused groups raised the corruption issues, which related to migration. In this way, it used as other source, rarely in some areas migrants who have contacted with community, government and/or private or NGOs money and services, using corruption for journey fees. This group may be community leaders, government employees or NGO/private agency workers.

In addition, accompany program is another important means to cover transportation cost which used by migrant households in the study area. It is another way of filling remaining costs by using different techniques. For instance, prepare a pray ceremony with very small amount of cost, and then invite the respected people by using accompany letters. The invited people may be relatives, friends, church members, government workers and others. On the other hand, one of my key-informant Teketel Bezabhi from Gimbichu kebele explained as:

The trip money needed for different Middle East Countries like Kuwait, Saudi Arabia, Beirut, Dubai, Qatar and Sudan-Jubbah the trip fees differ in terms of its distance and way of travelling. However, it ranges from 4,000-8,000 birr without additional costs it is only for immediate value of money for smugglers/brokers. In this year, I sent my sister to Dubai by paying 8000 birr for brokers.

This shows that the amount of money needed to one of the Arab Countries is much smaller than it needed for RSA. According to the interviewed non-migrant households heads and returned migrants, the amount of transit money become increasingly from time to time due to the increasing number of migrants for both RSA and MECs. One of my NMHH interviewees, W/r. Belaynesh Lamoro, explained it as follows:

We have three sons and two daughters. Except two of them, all the rest are high school and preparatory graduates. Among them, the two boys very interested to migrate to RSA and at the same time, competition created among girls to migrate Arab countries. First, we have discussed to determine the migrant, emigration country, money source and the way of trip.

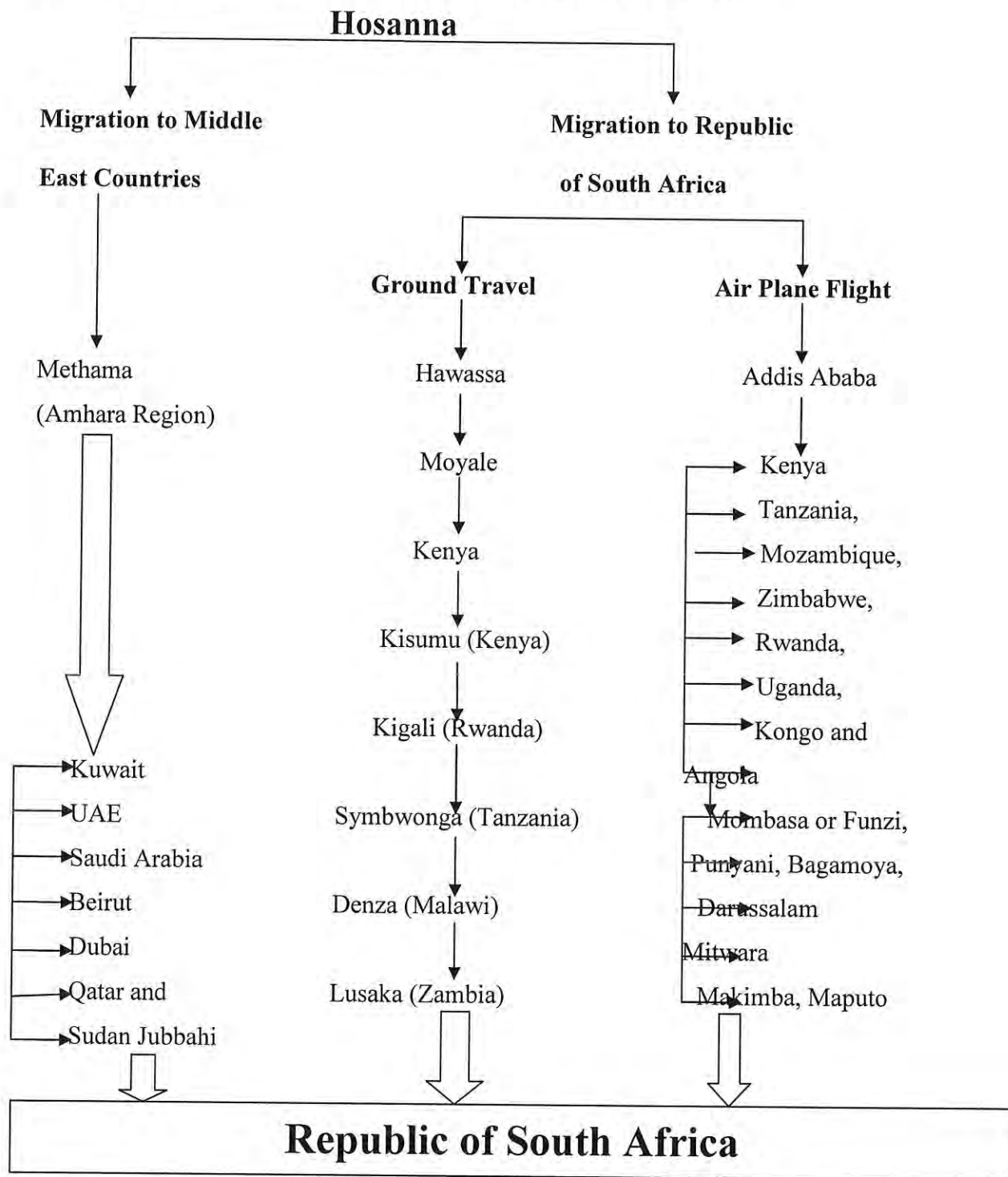
After long duration of discussion with argument, we arrived at consensus and agreement to send the elder boy to RSA. However, we do not have former deposit and recipient in RSA. To achieve this goal, the only solution is collecting money for transit fees. After agreement, we started collecting money from different sources like leasing farmland, sells of livestock, lending money from lenders and from family money contribution "idir" and finally we sent him to RSA by using trip on ground by paying 36,000 birr for immediate travel cost in 2011. However, he departed after 9 months stay in different African Countries and robbed the money. Today, we are suffering by paying the debit and we lost farmland. As a result, now my family members are under the famine. Therefore, migration itself has more side that is negative. Positively, it can bring remittance to improve life and to alleviate poverty and negatively, it can destroy the former family resources and creates selfishness with in family. Now I could not say any positive side of migration, because we did not see any income fruit from migrant.

The above explanation can happen in most migrant households at early stage of emigration. According to the focus group discussion, after the collection of enough money, the migrants start to create agreement with brokers to present and pay the immediate value of money by the contact of intermediaries and then after the process of journey will start as an agreement. The agreement may be either for direct flight using business visa or trip on ground by using journey on feet and sometimes by using vehicles and boats on lakes. The line of air flight runs from Addis Ababa to one East African countries, such as Kenya, Tanzania, or Zimbabwe, etc... After the arrangement for trip, most of the time the business visa is used migrants to enter without any problem to the Johannesburg, the capital of RSA. But sometimes it robbed at Kenya air port. Because of this, migrants stay at Kenyan prisons or deported to Ethiopia immediately.

On the other hand, focused group discussion members said that using trip on ground takes longer time to reach RSA. However, most people /migrants and their families/ prefer it due to its lower cost than air flight. It is done through border crossing in different ways across countries like Kenya, Tanzania, and Mozambique. Therefore, migrants use different alternatives, which their brokers choose based on the prevailing conditions, often passing through an additional option across the borders of Malawi, Zambia, Zimbabwe, Uganda, Rwanda, and Burundi (See Figure 3).

Nevertheless, ground trip has many challenges and risks for migrants during the travel at each cross-country and there is no legal right for migrants during travel at any cross country. Most migrants have experienced with different challenges during their trip and in their stays in the RSA or MECs. Returned migrants suggested that on ground trip, some migrants never reach their final destination, wherever it is RSA or MECs instead wait serving time in various known prisons or eventually deported to Ethiopia. But the ground trip case is seen more in migration to RSA than MECs. In the same way, due to malaria, hunger, diseases or a conflict with the smugglers and may sink in to lakes or, some of them lost their life. All these challenges are anxiety /worry for migrants themselves and their families, relatives and friends who expect migrants' future hope after reaching at destination.

Figure 3: OUT LET DIRECTIONS OF HADIYA MIGRATION



Source: Adopted from Solomon, (2011)

4.6. Channels of Remittance

The way of money flow from destination to place of origin or migrant sending country is different for many countries. Remittance flow channels of RSA are different from MECs. As explained in focused group discussions, one alternative remittance transferring system initially was pocket transfer by using return migrants and / or passengers from RSA to Ethiopia. Remittance channels as explained in interview of some return migrants, its flow from RSA is in illegal way by using private agencies that are organized and created network for this purpose. However, this system of sending money to place of origin is not only an illegal, but also it is a traditional and risky for the security of money. This doubtful transferring system beside its character has many risks in money security, exploitation in each step and sometimes may expose to dangers, cheated or robbed by some rent seeker agency workers.

Later the way of using networked agents from RSA to Ethiopia was became the prominent. Among the respondents, 68% said that they are receiving remittance from RSA in agency transferring channels. By using agency transferring system, initially senders contact and give money to private agency workers at RSA. After that, the agency workers exchange RSA's currency into US dollars and send to Addis Ababa organization representatives by using passengers or banking system. Representatives in Addis Ababa receive the sent money and exchange dollars to Eth. birr and then they transfer to Hosanna branch. Once the money reached Addis Ababa, here the agency representatives receive the cash in US dollar and then exchange in Eth. birr in black markets or banks. Subsequently once the birr in this informal transferring channel send to Hosanna, and then the agency representatives at Hosanna receive in the current accounts in different banks those opened at Hosanna town.

On the other hand, low percentages of females were migrated to MECs by private agencies and with the contact of smugglers from the study area. The data obtained from Soro woreda administration office shows that about 16.6% of migrants from the woreda migrated to United Arab Emirates (UAE), Kuwait, Syria, Qatar and other Middle East countries in general.

According to the FGD, the money transferring system from Middle East Countries is completely different from that of RSA. In this channel, money transfer from migrants to their families through officially permitted bank-transferring system. The Western Union plays a vital role and it is the

most predominant way of remittance flow from MECs. It is again strengthened by some respondents, who they have family member migrants at Middle East Countries.

4.7. Remittance Receiving Periods

The way and frequency of sending remittance is not fixed for different destinations, for each person and the way of transferring money from abroad to their home countries. In this study, the two focused group participants in both Gimibichu and Sibya kebeles, discussed and agreed that most of the period migrant households receive remittance in varying times; they do not have fixed times of receiving it. Remittance sent to migrant households is rarely depending on the aims of expense. The non-regular sending system was the predominant sending system in the area. The unfixed time transferring method has its own implication. Most of the time, the migrants want to send it during ceremonial times, for unexpected family problems like death and for different purposes as their wishes. However, for different family expenditures like consumption, school tuition fees, business purpose, some migrants send in regular bases, monthly, yearly, quarterly or once in a half year. Therefore, from the above information it is possible to conclude that the remittance, which sent from RSA and/or MECs, in either regular or rarely bases, expenses for three broad expenditures like family consumption, social life and investment.

4.7.1 Amount of Remittance Received/ year

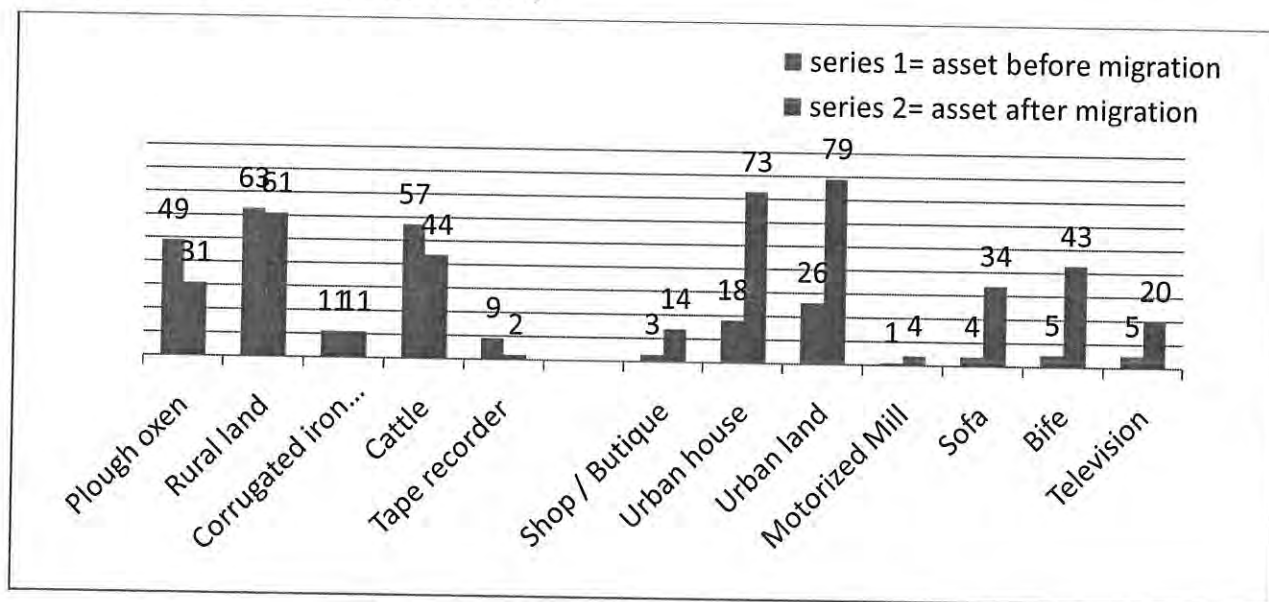
Migrant households receive different amount of remittances from their family migrant members for expected and unexpected purposes. The amounts of remittance sent from migrants determined by different factors. The money gaining and saving capacity of senders, the expense area of remittances, the willingness of senders and other different reasons can be considered as the determinant factors for amount of remittances. The respondents in table 16 explained that 14% of remitted group can receive under 10,000 birr per year for the purpose of consumption. However, some migrant households can earn 10,000-50,000 birr per year for the same consumption and for other purposes. It is the predominant amount of sent money per year, which is supported by 64% of respondents in this study. Moreover, 22% of respondents said that they have been earning above 50,000 birr / year for different purposes. From the above discussion and findings, it is possible to conclude that the less amount of money, especially less than 10,000 birr is used for consumption

purposes. The medium amount of money (in between 10,000-50,000 birr) on one side spent for consumption or household asset formation and on the other hand spent in the fields of medium business works including house construction. Finally, the amount of money from above 50,000 birr most of the time spent in better business works or deposited in legal banks by close relatives names, for the future business plan.

4.7.2 Migrant Household Asset Formation Before and After Migration

In order to assess the formation of migrant household assets before and after migration, a classification groups were developed based on five possession types for rural asset formation and on the other hand, seven possession types for urban assets in the study area. The respondents in both Gimbichu and Sibya kebeles they have rural and urban assets in rural and urban areas.

Figure 4: Rural and Urban asset formation in **Gimbichu kebele** MHHs before and after remittance (Multiple responses are possible, N=143)

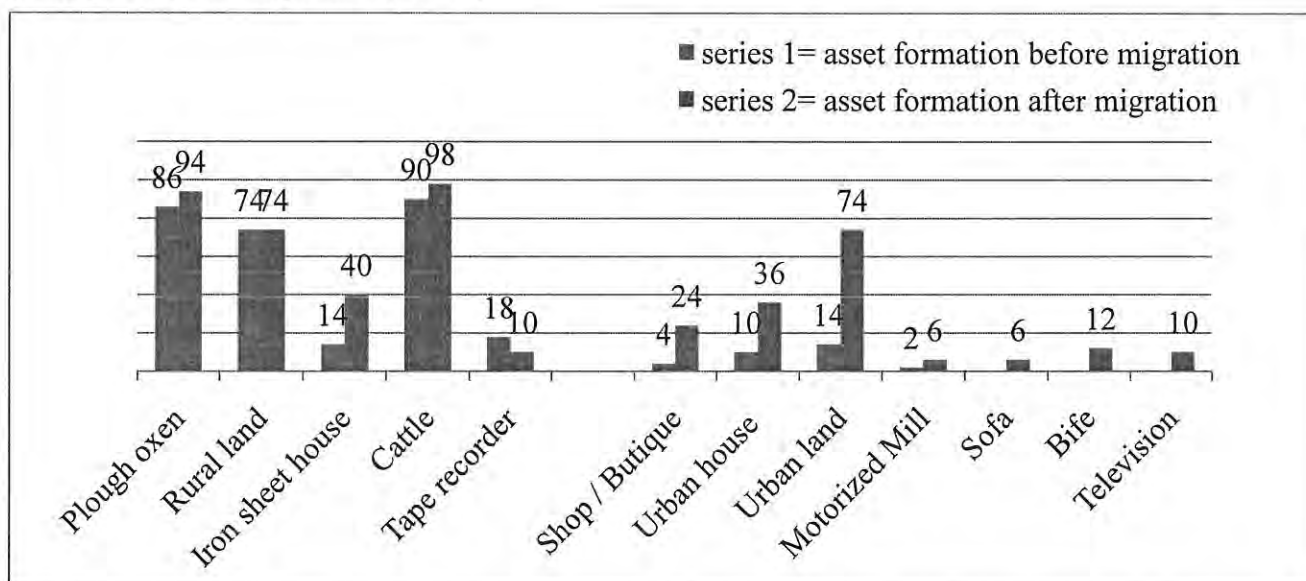


Source: Field survey, 2012

Figure 4 shows that there was declining trends occurred in rural asset formation in after migration in Gimbichu kebele residential. In this, the above Figure shows that all rural asset possession level except rural corrugated iron sheet declined in case of after migration. This occurred due to the transformation from rural area to urban areas by using remittance. Higher percentages decline

changes seen in plough oxen possession from 49% to 31% and cattle from 57% to 44%. This shows the upcoming of transformation from farming to business / trading in the kebele. As a result, the formation of urban assets increased by high percents (see graph 4). Higher percentage go up of urban land from 26% to 79%, urban house from 18% to 73%, “Bife” from 5% to 43% and sofa from 4% to 34% of possession again shows the effect of remittance on high peaked urban asset formation. Similarly, Figure 5 shows the possession of assets in Sibya kebele at before and after the gaining of the remittance. From the data, it is possible to conclude that Gimbichu town dwellers partially transforming to urban ways of life by changing rural assets in to urban assets.

Figure 5: Rural and urban assets formation in Sibya kebele MHHs before and after the remittances. (Multiple response is possible, N=50)



Source: Field survey, 2012

As we can see in Figure 5, in all asset types more or less there was created asset possession incremental changes/improvement on either in rural except tape recorder or urban assets at after migration in Sibya kebele. (See figure 5 above). The changes seen in rural assets at after remittance not overstated as an urban assets. However, the highest percentage change from (14% to 40%) is rural corrugated iron sheet house constructed for migrant parents those left behind at place of origin. In the case of, urban asset formation, majority of respondents show that each percentage of urban assets highly increased at after migration than before.

As Figure 5 shows, shop/boutiques increased from (4% to 24%), urban house (10% to 36%), urban land (14% to 74%), motorized mills (2% to 6%), sofa (0% to 6%), “bife” (0% to 12%) and television (0% to 10%). All assets increased at after migration by higher percentages. Even, sofa, “bife” and television are newly formed from zero level in Sibya migrant households and returns at urban areas to accumulate urban assets for the future life. The possession of urban land and house alarmingly increased by remittance in urban areas for the purpose of future life or profit.

In this section, the incremental changes in both rural and urban asset possession shows that Sibya kebele residential creating rural assets for the purpose of current consumption and at the same time they are forming urban assets for the future life by the name of the current use/benefit for their school children.

Common asset formation changes in both kebeles: As data show in table 14, there is a big difference in rural asset possession at before and after the migration in the study area (common results of both Gimbichu and Sibya kebeles). Majority of respondents believed that each percentage changes of rural assets possession except rural corrugated iron sheet houses declined from before in at after migration in the study area. As a result, the formation of urban assets increased by high percentages (See Table 14).

Similarly, the FGD in both kebeles agreed that migration to RSA and MECs created high accumulation of urban assets in most migrant families. International migration created internal movement from rural areas to urban areas. In addition, It is believed that migrant households have more urban assets compared to the non-migrant households do. Among the rural residential migrant household respondents, most of them show that they have better rural assets in quantity and quality than the non-migrant households do have (See Figure 5).

In addition, the non-migrant household members who participated in FGD consented to the idea that they have in quality and quantity less rural assets than the migrant households they do have. But the number of rural migrant households as obtained remittance, they are shifting from rural to urban life and as a result, the number of rural asset holders declining. However, some migrant households prefer to live in rural kebele than living in any towns. These group of people living in rural home area owing better assets in quantity and quality than others in after migration than before

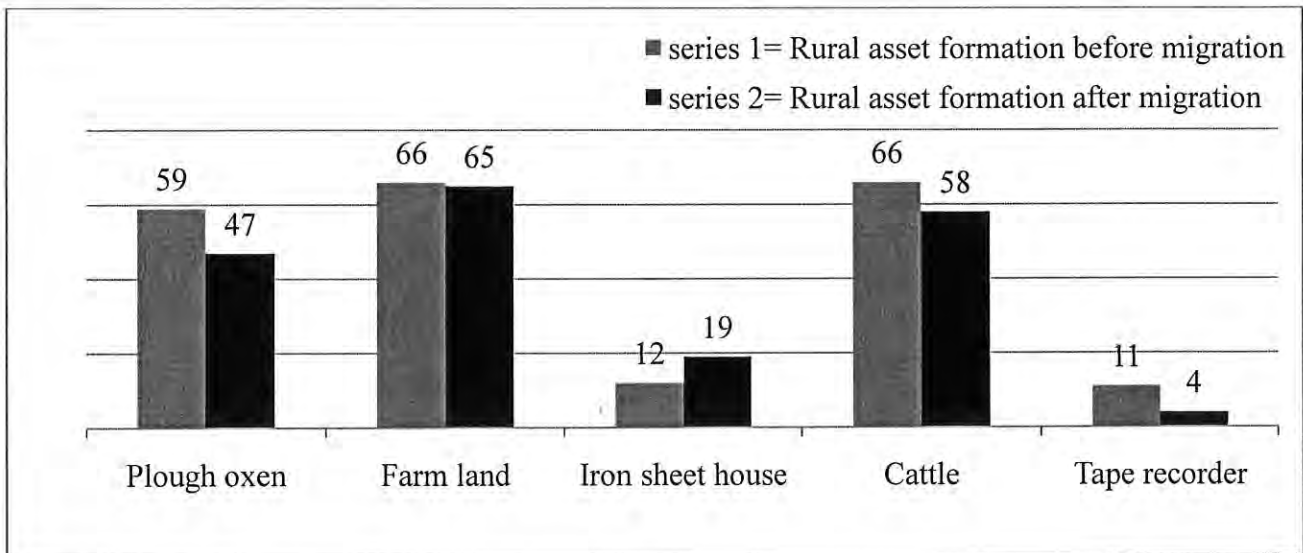
and non-migrant households have. Most of rural asset declining shows the number of owners shifted from rural way of living to urban way of living. As a result, they sell rural assets like oxen and any livestock to replace in to urban assets. Few numbers of respondents leased their farmland to send household members and still now, their farmland is in hands of others.

Table 14: Effects of migration on asset formation (the two kebeles)

Item	Before migration				After migration			
1. Which of the following facilities of rural assets do you have?	Responses				Responses			
	Yes		No		Yes		No	
	Freq.	%	Freq.	%	Freq.	%	Freq.	%
1.Plough oxen	113	59	80	41	91	47	102	53
2.Rural farm land	127	66	66	34	125	65	68	35
3.Rural corrugated iron sheet house rooms	23	12	170	88	36	19	157	81
4.Cattle	127	66	66	34	112	58	81	42
5.Tape recorder	22	11	171	89	8	4	185	96
Item								
2. Which of the following facilities of urban assets do you have?								
1.Shop/boutique	6	3	187	97	32	17	161	83
2.Urban house	30	16	163	84	122	63	71	37
3.Urban land	44	23	149	77	150	78	43	22
4.Motorized mill	2	1	191	99	9	5	184	95
5.Sofa	5	3	188	97	52	27	141	73
6.‘Bife’	7	4	186	96	68	35	125	65
7.Television	7	4	186	96	34	18	159	82

Source: Field survey, 2012

Figure 6: Changes in rural asset possession before and after migration



Source: Field survey, 2012

As we can see from Figure 6, before migration of the migrant household members to RSA or MECs, 59% of MHHs, they do have plough- oxen and it was greater percentage than 47% of after migration. This means in after migration, the percentage of the migrant households oxen possession declined to 47% from 59%. In other words, the number of households with oxen thus declined to 47% from 59%. Those migrant households, who had leaved plough-oxen in after migration, were estimated to be 11%. From the information, it is possible to understand that migrant households have been receiving additional income from remittance; they do not have interest to develop in rural areas in either traditional or modern farming system.

However, the oxen owner migrant households they have better oxen in quantity and quality than non-migrant households do. Most remitted households they have possessed better milk cows and at least two plough-oxen possession in each migrant household. This again created a big plough-oxen possession difference between migrant households and non-migrant households in the area. As a result, agricultural product quantity difference have been seen in most area community. Meaning, better plough-oxen owners they can have better production if they have enough labour force within the households to plough the farm. Majority of non-migrant households, they have enough productive force, but plough-oxen shortage would encounter them to produce better agricultural

yields. This indicates that migration in one hand could create remittance benefits, but on the other hand, it emerges human labour force shortage.

Figure 6 again shows a little (1%) changes in rural farmland holding and it declined from before migration 66% to 65% at after migration and cattle owners' number declined from 66% to 58% and in the same way tape recorder from 11% to 4%. However, corrugated iron sheet covered rural house owners' number rose from 12% to 19percentage.

This indicates that in most asset possession, migrant households did not have interest to develop rural assets rather than they develop urban assets. Few percentages of household heads in Gimbichu kebele loss their farmland that shows migrant families leased to send their house hold members. In the same way, one of my returnee informants Girma Kashamo who returned from RSA briefly explained it as saying that

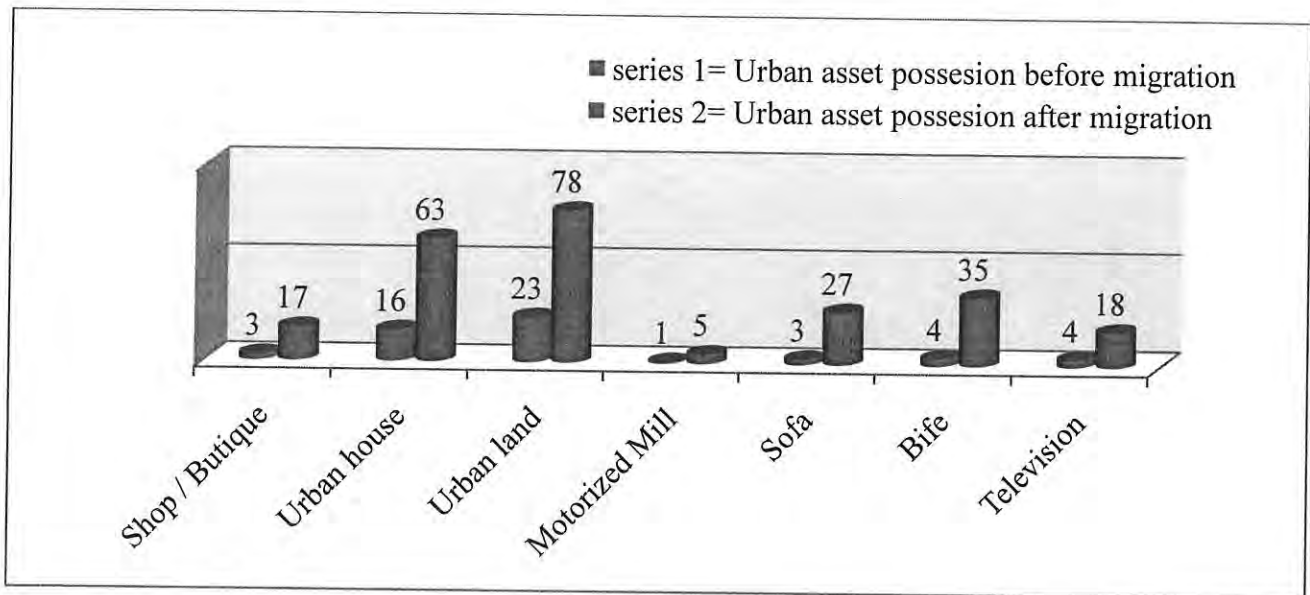
Some migrants and families have been leasing farmland to cover some fraction of the huge amount of migration to RSAs transit money. I was one of them and still my family's farm land didn't returned for them and as a result until now household members are under food shortage due to lack of farm land. I tried to pay all the remaining years agreement by compensating additional money, but the leaser is not polite to take money for the remaining three years benefit.

The above response is not the major problem, but it challenges some migrant households in the area. The declining tendency of livestock or cattle is the result of lack of interest to live and develop rural livelihood at rural areas. In the same way, migrant households transformed from tape recorder possession to technologically accessible goods like television, etc.

Migration not only caused rural asset difference in before and after migration but also urban asset difference created in before and after migration among migrant households, return migrants and non-migrant households. The change is brighter on the urban asset formation rose than rural asset declining at after migration than that of from before. As a result, it enabled the migrant households and returned migrants to migrate urban areas in search of urban amenities, following their urban assets formed. As the issues rose in interviewees of key- informants and it conducted in discussions, as it responded that the migrant households and the returned migrants interested to form more urban

assets. That creates the gradual movement to towns in search of urban amenities like better education for their children, better health, clean water, electricity, road access, telecommunication and generally better living standards.

Figure 7: Changes in **urban asset** possession of migrant households (in both kebeles)



Source: Field survey, 2012

Figure 7 shows that the percentage change of shop/boutique owners' number rose from 3% to 17% and motorized mill from 1% to 5% at after migration. The augmentation of shop is about five times that of before migration and motorized mill increased about four times than that of before migration. This again shows the tendency of transformation from rural to urban areas to search urban amenities and business works due to the access to infrastructure and market opportunities.

The percentage change of urban house is from 16% to 63%, then its range is about 48% and that of urban land possession rose from 22% to 78%, again the percentage increased to 56% in after migration. This is a big change when we compare with other urban asset formation changes and highly peaked than other asset types.

According to FGD, high remittance flow and people's demand push up for urban amenities have been creating high price inflation in the area, especially in land and house price. Currently, the

urban house price rose from the intervals of 3,000-10,000 Eth. birr to 100,000-500,000 Eth. birr, in Woreda towns like: Gimbichu and Jajura. However, the house and land price is more expensive in Hosanna town compared to those rural towns. Now a days, non-migrant households and salary-employed workers could not attempt to buy /to build urban houses, due to the highest price inflation of the land and construction materials in the area. As a result, some non-migrant households departure central towns by selling previously possessed urban land and houses and they are settling at town edges. This also shows the influence of remittance in other community groups.

The presences of these assets are part of indicator of good quality life of a household. These are showing wealth level and better living status of a household in a community. These assets cost high sum of money when purchased and they could be selected as an urban assets. However, the asked FGD members of non-migrant household heads in Sibya kebeles responded that they never have sofa, “Bife” and television in their kebele, but previously, in Gimbichu kebele few households who engaged in government work and better business fields rarely they have these assets. Nevertheless, today it is as it was before or stagnated in non-migrant households, due to the inflated prices and less ability to purchase it.

The percentage change of Sofa, Bife and television in after migration shows the high incremental change in each asset type (see Figure 7). From this, we can conclude that the injected remittance form RSA and MECs to Soro Woreda, creating high urban assets among migrant households, especially in Gimbichu town. In addition, the growths of these assets indicate the positive influence of migration through remittances on the quality of life and wealth of the benefiting groups. In similar view, Pant (2008), explained that whether remittances are expensed for consumption or purchasing houses, or other investments, they can produce positive consequences on the economy by motivating demand for other possessions and services.

Generally, these findings show that both the number of migrant households and return migrants has created better quality urban assets. Before migration, their assets were few. Yet, due to remittance, the asset possession level has been growing. Except a few non-migrants in Gimbichu town, these assets could not access majority of non-migrant households.

4.7.3 Livestock Production and Ownership

It is another rural livestock engagement and possession assessment of MHHs in both kebeles. It is stated clearly in the following table 15.

Table 15: Livestock production and ownership in migrant households

Item	Number of each livestock					
	Below 10		10 and above		Don't know	
	Count	%	Count	%	Count	%
Do you/your family engaged in livestock production?						
Cow	96	50	22	11	75	39
Sheep	108	56	10	5	75	39
Goat	118	61	---	---	75	39
Horse/mare	118	61	---	---	75	39
Donkey	118	61	---	---	75	39
Mule	118	61	---	---	75	39
Hen/cock	98	51	20	10	75	39

Source: Field survey, 2012

In table 15, in column “do not know” 39% migrant households show the response that their non-involvement in any livestock production from Gimbichu town. The data under the column “below 10 and above 10” shows, the amount of possession in each livestock among migrant households. The high percentage of cow (50%) shows, migrant households who have possessed below 10 cows and low percentage of cow (11%) of migrant households have cows more than 10. Sheep owners percentage below 10 (56 %) and above 10 (5%), goat below 10 (61%), horse/mare below 10 (61%), donkey below 10 (61%), mule below 10 (61%) and finally hen/cock below 10 (51%) and above 10 (10%) shows high percentage of respondents have possessed below 10 of each livestock.

To conclude the findings that the amount of each livestock possession above 10 is very low and totally absent (goat, horse/mare, donkey and mule) among respondents. This shows that

engagement in livestock production is very low in the study area. Non-migrant households due to lack of additional income sources and migrant households due to non attendance of concentration to develop rural wealth, there could not obtained significant difference among them, except few improvements in some migrant households.

4.7.4 Migrant Households Incomes and Expenditures

In this section, the total income sources divided in to three: income from crops and livestock production, income from remittance and total income.

Table 16: Migrants' households Income and expenditure in money value

Items	Responses	Freq.	%
1. What is the annual average money value of the total crops, livestock production and other non-remittance sources in current price?	1) below 10,000	112	58
	2) 10,000-50,000 birr	81	42
	3) 50,000-100,000 birr	---	---
	4) above 100,000 birr	---	---
2. Estimation of income from remittance in Eth. Birr	1) below 10,000 birr and none	28	14
	2) 10,000-50,000 birr	124	64
	3) 50,000-100,000 birr	34	18
	4) above 100,000 birr	7	4
3. Average annual income estimate in Eth. Birr	1) below 10,000 birr	42	22
	2) 10,000-50,000 birr	97	50
	3) 50,000-100,000 birr	42	22
	4) above 100,000 birr	12	6
4. Estimation of average annual expenditure in Eth. Birr	1) below 10,000 birr	56	29
	2) 10,000-50,000 birr	129	67
	3) 50,000-100,000 birr	8	4
	4) above 100,000 birr	---	---

Source: Field survey, 2012

Table 16 shows, 58% of respondents can earn income in money value from cereal crop, livestock production and other non-remittance sources below 10,000 birr/year, the remaining 42% of respondents can obtain income of 10,000 - 50,000 birr/year from the same source. But, none of them can earn above 50,000 birr / year from crop livestock and other sources out of remittance. The majority (58%) of respondents found in between the interval of below 10.000 birr/year. This indicates that farmland holding or crop product (yield), livestock production and income from other non-remittance sources is not satisfactory to gain high income in the study area. This indicates that the engagement in farm related production is very low. The reason is that small farm land holding, low level of production due to traditional way of farming, lack of interest to invest in this fields and the petty trade work condition.

Therefore, there is no a considerable difference among migrant households and non-migrant households in this field of production. Most key informants agreed that low gain of income from cereal and livestock is one pushing factor of out-migration in the study area. In this income gaining level, there is no considerable saving rather than expending all yearly income in household consumption. However, in the interval of 10,000-50,000 birr income level most peasants can cover household consumption expenditures and they can save small amount of money for the future plan.

In Table 16, the highest percentage (64%) receives remittance from 10,000 birr- 50,000 birr/year in average, 14% receives below 10,000 birr/year and 18% receives 50,000 birr - 100,000 birr/year averagely. According to IMF (2007), remittances are part of a private welfare system that transfers purchasing power from relatively richer to relatively poorer members of a family or community. They reduce poverty, smooth consumption, affect labour supply, provide working capital, and have multiplier effects through increased household spending.

When we compare the receiving remittance from RSA and MECs, much better than the incomes received from other sources in household level. The flow of remittance, widely discussed on FGD in both kebeles, and they agreed that remittance injected to MHHs income, created a big income gap between migrants and non-migrant households at the study area. From the findings, it is possible to conclude that in the area better and less incomes groups were created. Better incomes group, they do have better social respect, high purchasing power, diverse income sources rather than depending in only agricultural subsistence products and ability to form up to date assets in

rural and urban areas. However, non-migrant households could not obtain enough money to be comparable with remitted group in the same area. Non-migrant households living together with remitted group and they belongs to unidirectional incomes group, with less purchasing power and dependency of agricultural subsistence life. Moreover, better incomes group, they are living with them in the same community in the same area, psychologically affects this group.

In similar way, Adams and Page (2005) used household surveys of 71 developing countries to examine the impact of international migration on poverty controlling for the level of income, income inequality, and geographical region, they find that international remittances have a strong statistically significant reducing impact on poverty, which means it is an instrument to alleviate poverty. A 10% increase in the share of remittances in a country's GDP, lead to a reduction of 1.6% of people living in poverty. Therefore, the findings in this section in similar way reflect more or less the same effect of remittance in household levels.

To conclude the findings in this section that the aggregated income sources in the study area are incomes from cereal crops, livestock production and other sources without remittance and from remittances. It is obvious that non-migrant households could not obtain income from remittance, which creates living standard difference among them and migrant households.

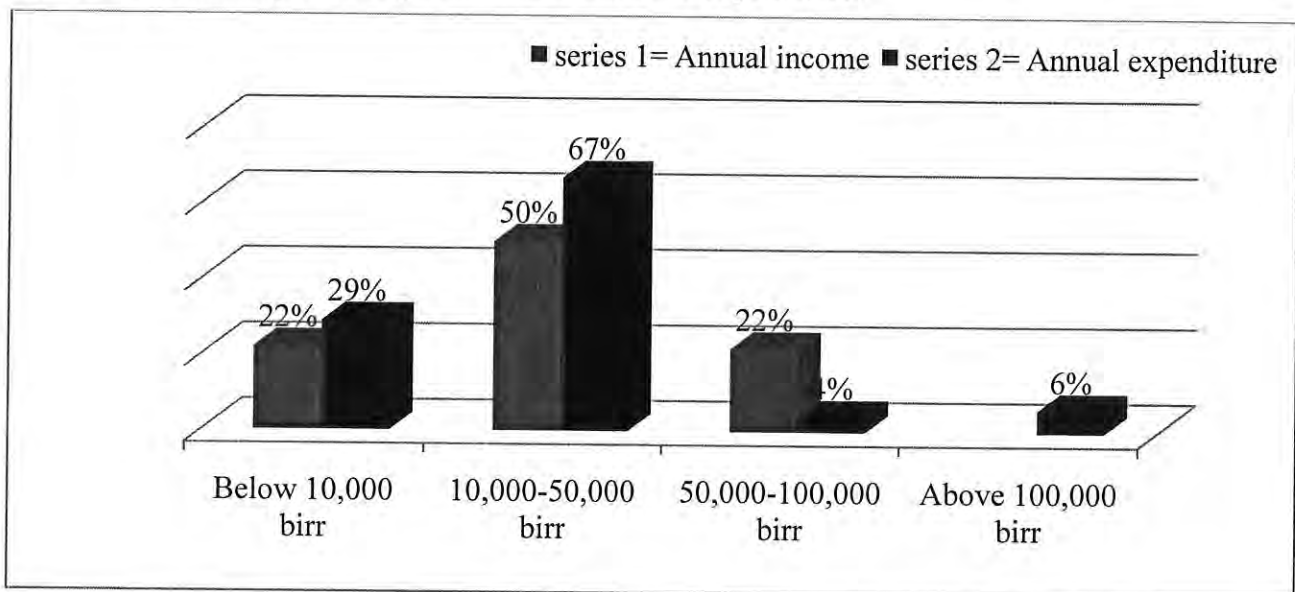
Data shows from table 16, average annual income estimate below 10,000 birr (22%), between 10,000 birr - 50,000 birr (50%), from 50,000 birr - 100,000 birr (22%) and above 100,000 birr (6%). This indicates that highest percentage (50%), earners of better income including remittance from 10,000-50,000 birr / year and. Some groups those earn less than 10,000 birr, including families of new migrants that they did not start sending remittance. Only 22% have been obtaining best income 50,000-100,000 birr/year and 6% earns above 100,000 birr / year in average. This group of people, relatively well incomes group and they have better living standards than others do. The level of saving is better for this highest remittance above 50,000-birr earners. However, during house construction or for other expensive household asset formation, migrants send more than 100,000 birr/year.

According to key informants (returns), almost all of them are categorizing under this group, due to the presence of multi-dimensional business fields. Again, this created a high-income difference

between migrants' family including returnees and non-migrant families in the study area. Better incomes groups have better purchasing power and they do have better living standards.

Finally, the amount of expenditure/year of migrants' family were analyzed from table 16, FGD and key- informants' response in the study. Data in table 16 shows that the level of expenditures below 10,000 birr/year (29%), from 10,000-50,000 birr (67%), from 50,000-100,000 birr (4%) and no above 100,000 birr expenditure. From the collected data, majority (67%) of respondents are set up in expenditure interval 10,000-50,000 birr/year. This shows that this interval is the predominant expenditure group due to the flow of higher remittance. However, small group (4%) can expense 50,000-100,000 birr /year for consumption, asset formation, small business works and the like. However, the income earners in this category have high saving power for the future household plan.

Figure 8: Relationship of average annual incomes and expenditures



Source: Field survey, 2012

As we can see from Figure 8, the percentages of income and expenditures shown in each of the category of income and expenditure levels. The highest income and expenditures are shown in 10,000-50,000 birr interval (See Figure 8). In the figure, in below 10.000-birr category, the expenditure figure is greater than the income figure due to the influence of the upper income earners level of expenditure. Meaning, from the income level of, 10,000-50,000 birr earners some of them can expense below 10,000-birr interval by saving some amount of income. Similarly, the

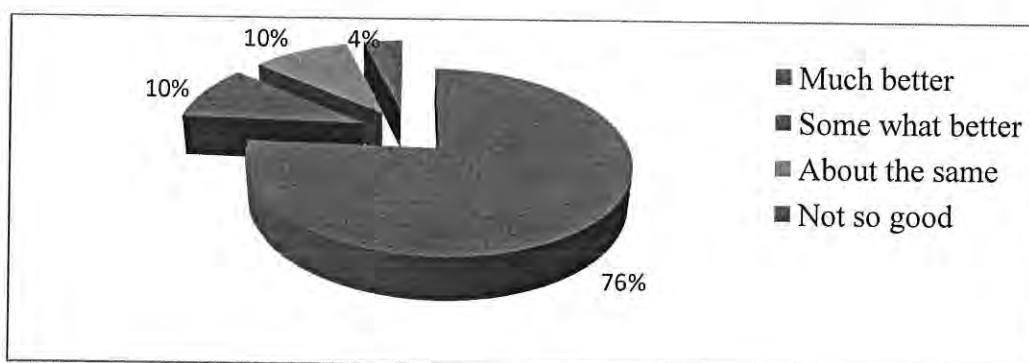
level of expenditure is greater than income in the category of 10,000-50,000 birr, in the same condition as seen in the case of the below 10,000 earners, due to the influence of the upper income level earners expenditure. However, the level of income is greater than expenditure in the category of 50,000-100,000 birr and totally no expenditure in level of above 100,000 birr.

From the above findings, we can conclude that in low level of income, saving is impossible and all income is finished in consumption. But, there is saving in higher income earners. That means, the flow of remittance helps people to save and generate business or investment in the study area.

Moreover, migrant households and returned migrants can be categorized in above of 10,000 birr expenditure including capital/asset formation expenditures and according to some informants, the majority of non-migrant household heads are found in the category of below 10,000 birr expenditure. That means high-incomes group have high expenditure and low-incomes group able to pay low expenditure. Therefore, when income increases, as the result expenditure also will increase. It is therefore, direct relationship of incomes and expenditures (See Figure 8).

On the other hand, regarding changes in income levels, respondents were asked whether their current income changed in after their household member migrated or the same as before. As collected data, in Figure 9, (76% said as much better), 10% responded as somewhat better, 10% said as about the same and 4% reported as not so good in their responses. From these, majority believed or responded that their income level has changed much better in after migration through the injected remittance to Soro Woreda economy (See Figure 9).

Figure 9: Household income improvement levels after the remittance received



Source: Field survey, 2012

As far as the change in the income level for the migrants' families is concerned, respondents emphasized that remittance from RSA and MECs is the main factor for the income change. Similarly, FGD members strengthened that the remittance first, helped migrants and returnees' families by covering consumption expenditures and second, it helped to local enterprising activities of return migrants and some migrant families at local area. The remittances send from migrants and that of returnees changing the local economy by creating diversified income sources through the small business fields. All returnees asked whether they have only one-business fields or many businesses in local areas. Majority of the returnees explained that they all have at least two business fields. For instance, one of my key informant Abera Sugebo who returned from RSA, explained as saying:

Now I am living in Gimbichu town with my households. We have licenses in three business lines: first, I bought a car for transportation, secondly my wife working in boutique and my brother working in crop selling store. In all business lines there are eight contractual employees to mobilize the work and all of them paid salary each month. In the same way, many returns did as I did in the area.

From this explanation, it is possible to conclude that, return migrants given the impression as an important agent of change, innovators and investors. The flow of remittance as well as the trading experience, skills and knowledge obtained from abroad before they were returned, are the general expectations that would greatly help local communities in their employment generations.

4.8 Reasons for Rural-urban Migration

They all have their own reasons to move urban areas from rural settlement; it is not just one single reason that initiates someone to move from his/her place of origin to towns. Many can leave in search of business market opportunities and search of better urban amenities. The desire for business work and for better living standard frequently plays a dominant role in majority of cases in pulling remitted and returns.

In this study, (Table 17), three categories of reasons are presented for response. The reason based on: 1) urban business, urban amenities and better social services in urban area attract migrant

households more than non-migrants do have. 2) High remittance flow from abroad and as a result, to search infrastructure access for business work. 3) High remittance flow from abroad and as a result, better urban- asset formation. For the first item, the collected data in table 17 shows that all (100%) respondents agreed that the primary reason for migrants families and returnees to move urban area is the desire of searching business, urban amenities and better social services obtaining access is more than rural areas.

Table 17: Reasons of movement to urban areas

Items	Responses	Frequency	Percent
1. Do you believe that migrants' households have been moving to urban areas in search of business, amenities and better social services more than rural areas?	1) Yes	193	100
	2) No	---	---
	3) Do not know	---	---
2. Do you think that the migrants' household movement to urban areas is the result of high remittance flow from abroad and as the result, for business work to search infrastructure?	1) Yes	163	85
	2) No	30	15
	3) Do not know	---	---
3. Do you think that the migrants' households' movement to urban areas is the result of high remittance flow from abroad and as the result, the urban- asset formation?	1) Yes	182	94
	2) No	11	6
	3) Do not know	---	---

Source: Field survey, 2012

For the second item, 85% respondents agreed that relatively high remittance flow from RSA and MECs and as a result, migrant households move to urban areas for business work to search infrastructures like electricity, telecommunication, water and road, and market opportunity in towns. In the same way, for the third item, 94% of respondents responded that high remittance flow from abroad and as a result, the urban- asset formation attracted to urban areas. Similarly, FGD teams again strengthen the reasons in the same way as migrant households responded.

From the result, it is possible to conclude that the flow of remittance from abroad, can be a cause for internal migration from rural to urban areas. In the study, all returns either fully or partially are the urban dwellers of Gimbichu or other towns in Hadiya zone. Their children learning in better schools by having access to better school tuition, feeding style already changed in to urban style, their households livelihood changed from farming to trading and involvement in urban amenities and urban infrastructure. Nevertheless, non-migrant households could not obtain all these accesses except few individuals; they have another income generating sources/ alternatives.

4.9. Economic and Social Impacts of Out- migration

Because of migration, economically and socially both positive and negative impacts can be created at place of origin and at destination. However, in this study the researcher gave more attention to analyze the impacts of migration at place of origin. To assess whether migration can negatively influence or not, the researcher prepared questionnaire; collected data and analyzed based on the following points. The presented questions are labour shortage; increased workload of women; decrease in agriculture/farm output; weak family ties; polygamous marriage created; unfaithfulness in marriage life and divorce.

Table 18: Negative impacts of out-migration at place of origin

Main items	Sub items	Responses	Freq.	%
Which of the following negative economic -consequence resulted in the place of origin because of migration?	labour shortage	Yes	182	94
		No	11	6
	increased work load of women	Yes	160	83
		No	33	17
	Decrease in agriculture/farm Output	Yes	89	46
			104	54
Which of the following negative social -consequence resulted in the place of origin because of migration?	Weak family ties	Yes	59	31
		No	134	69
	Polygamous marriage created	Yes	13	7
		No	180	93
	Unfaithfulness in marriage life	Yes	66	34
		No	127	66
	Divorce	Yes	12	6
		No	181	94

Source: Field survey, 2012

As data show in table 18, labour shortage (94%) and women workload at place of origin (83%), are the predominant negative effects of out-migration in the study area. Because of migration, many productive labour forces leaved/leaving the area and migrated to RSA (majority males) and MECs (females) due to this effect, the productive peasant force shortage were created especially in Sibya kebele as its rural nature. As a result, majority of migrant wives pay high amount of money each day for contract or daily wageworkers for farm work. A few migrant households employed regular servant by year pay agreements. However, 46% of respondents said that the absence of landowner peasant due to migration, product of farm output decreasingly became from time to time, even if enough fertilizer and other farm inputs added to it. The price of wage payment for contract/regular workers and daily payment for farmland workers' is relatively higher than that of before times. It can be taken as economic lost/crises. According to focus group discussion, it is again strengthen as, the main challenges today at rural area to produce agricultural products in farm land is the shortage of productive force and the higher wage payment for available on a daily based workers.

Similarly higher percentage (83%) of respondents show that by emerging labour shortage, workload becomes the burden of women. That means majority of migrants' household heads are wives and some mothers who lost their husbands either by death or by divorce. Women are carrying the responsibility of their household (farming, taking care for children, taking the responsibility of homemaking and they carry both husbands' and wives' responsibilities.

On the other hand, out-migration creates not only economic effects, but also it can bring social consequences either positively or negatively. In the above table 19, Weak family ties (31%), Polygamous marriage created (7%), Unfaithfulness in marriage life (34%) and Divorce (6%) were responded as negative consequence of out-migration by respondents. We can understand from the given data, in all social ties there is also a negative social consequences of migration occurring in the area. However, weak family ties is relatively the highest negative social consequence in the area. Meaning, out-migration creates family separation for longer times, at least for six or seven years. As a result, migrants' children decrease education interest and want to relax because of the absence of fathers love and control to follow their schooling program, and sometimes disagreement creating among families in sharing of remittance and rarely migrant wives prefer to live in urban areas due to the fear of lonesomeness and thief in rural areas. Therefore, it is possible to conclude that all the above consequences of out-migration can be taken as the some challenges that tempting most

married partners. Most migrants are married and leaving behind their marriage partners (wives) at place of origin and at the same time, wives living alone with children or family (nuclear or extended) by taking full family responsibility.

Most migrant wives are under the adult ages and they expose to unexpected pregnancy and child bearing illegally with non-marriage partners (husbands). On the other hand, wives themselves could hear tangible or intangible and true or untrue news about their husbands' faithfulness at RSA. Most of the time, all these could be challenging both partners and, as a result creating unfaithfulness among marriage partners and their families. Nevertheless, the other remaining problems are occurring rarely and these challenges also can create marriage divorce or an necessary family separation.

4.10. Expense Areas of Remittances by Migrant Households at Origin

Remittances affect the general appearance of the community, but money from abroad contributes to a very small extent to the communal development like local infrastructure. However, remittances contribute significantly to improving the financial situation of the household. In similar issue, Abinet (2011), in his work explained that the long-run impact of remittances on receiving economies depends on whether they are spent on consumption expenses or in different investment activities. In this study, however, Higher percentage of families with family members at abroad, their financial situation was better or much better that covers more consumption expenses (See Figure 9). Adams (2006), in his part finds that households receiving remittances spend more on investments such as health, education and housing and less on consumption like food, consumer goods and durables than do households receiving no remittances. Similarly,

Arnold (1986), in his work agreed in the contribution of remittances to growth mainly via durable spending, they still raise concern in ceremonial and recreational activities over possible inflation from increased demand in the recipient country. In the same way, in this study, remittance mostly used for current consumption expenses like food and clothing in most migrant households than other big investment works. They also used to improve housing and to repay a previous debt that taken to send migrants. Usually, migrants send money to those who left behind at place of origin, but the funds not always used for meeting their needs. However, there are migrant family members,

including close relatives and sometimes neighbors, who take the advantage of the money to enjoy in ceremonial dates and to cover funeral/burying costs.

Most remittances spent on food, clothing, better education and improving housing. Amount of money spent on ceremonies, asset formation, and enterprising local economy. Health condition of migrant households is not similar or comparable to those families that they do not receive remittances. Both families those receive remittances and those do not receive provide unequal opportunities to be welfare and to obtain better life.

As we can see from table 19, more than 60% of respondents believed that the purpose of remittance as a means to cover different household costs. That means, households consumption expenditures, for former debt payment that taken to send migrant, to buy cattle and to start new business or to enterprising local economy and to buy or construct urban houses are areas of huge amount of expenses from the remittance. However, to help other poor relatives and families, for enjoyment in ceremonies and related expenditures, to covering education ,health and family death funeral/burying costs, to purchase food related costs, to form asset like Radio, TV, Sofa, 'Bife' and the like are the small fraction of expense areas of the remittance (See Table 19). However, the percentages not indicate the amount of expenses but it shows the amount of remittance beneficiary.

Table 19: Expense of Remittance Money by Households at Origin

Main item	Sub-items	Responses	Freq.	%
Write the purpose or expense areas for which you have used the remittance.	1-for HH consumption	Yes	165	86
		No	28	14
	2-to pay the former debt that is taken to send migrant	Yes	123	64
		No	70	36
	3-to help other poor relatives and families	Yes	148	77
		No	45	23
	4-for house construction or to buy constructed house	Yes	69	36
		No	124	64
	5-to enjoy in ceremonies and related expenditures	Yes	165	86
		No	28	14
	6-to cover education ,health and family death funeral/interment processes	Yes	139	72
		No	54	28
	7-to purchase goods/inputs related to farming	Yes	72	37
		No	121	63
	8-to send another family member again abroad	Yes	62	32
		No	131	68
	9-to enterprise local economy	Yes	61	32
		No	132	68
10-to asset formation like Radio, TV, Sofa, 'Bife' and the like.	Yes	122	63	
	No	71	37	
11-to buy cattle, to start new business, etc.	Yes	146	76	
	No	47	24	

Source: Field survey, 2012

According to the focused group discussion and some key informants, similarly the expense areas of remittance explained as, it used for the purpose of consumption, to support family and other relatives in ceremonial seasons and in other social problems like death funeral/burying processes of family. However, some migrants sent remittances for the purpose of investment, to create home assets and to save by opening new deposit account by relatives' name. Therefore, the use of

remittance is multidirectional as its fluidity nature and it can be used for many purposes. However, the degree of utility in each expense field is relatively different. From the above finding, it is possible to conclude that majority of the remittance receivers interested to spent more money in different households consumptions and in ceremonial activities (See Table 19)

4.11 Reasons for Migration

Migration stems from a search for self or family improvement and is usually a place where better opportunities perceived. In this respect, Soro Woreda seen as the most densely populated part of Hadiya zone. The motivations for migration as explained by respondents that socio-economic conditions driving people to leave their homes includes: Poverty, Increase in population pressure creates farm land shortage, Unemployment, Family pressure, Peer pressure, Poor school result, Low profit on trade and Interest for better income are some reasons of migration.

Poor living conditions generate most people to migrate. Many leave their homes because there are not enough and attractive food, water, work or other fundamental requirements. The consequences of environmental challenges, such as drought or floods, can also force thousands to leave their native countries. The growing gap between rich and poor is the most significant driving force for global migration. On the other hand, the population pressure stagnates the economic development in highly populated areas.

As data shows in Table 20, except local conflict, all other sub-items are more or less pushing factors of migration in the study are.. Highest percentage of respondents agreed that poverty (98%) and high interest for better income (97%) are the predominant pushing factors in the area. These factors have a power of pushing all categories of people (males to South Africa and Females to Middle East Countries). However, all the remaining pushing factors as shown, they have un- denial power to push migrants. In less developed regions, agricultural products used for subsistence life. In expressing it, most Sibya kebele migrant families said that traditional farming system is a survival livelihood and it could not help for better household improvement in less productive areas.

Table 20: Pushing factors of out-migration

Main item	Sub-items	Responses	Freq.	%
Which one is the main socio-economic cause that pushed your household member to migrate to South Africa--- or Middle East countries---?	1-Poverty	Yes	189	98
		No	4	2
	2-Increase in population pressure creates farm land shortage	Yes	126	65
		No	67	35
	3-Unemployment	Yes	80	42
		No	113	58
	4-Family pressure	Yes	81	42
		No	112	58
	5-Peer pressure	Yes	112	58
		No	81	42
	6-Poor school result	Yes	48	25
		No	145	75
	7-Local conflict	Yes	4	2
		No	189	98
	8- low profit on trade	Yes	71	37
		No	121	63
	9-interest for better income	Yes	187	97
		No	6	3
	10- Others	Yes	15	8
		No	178	92

Source: Field survey, 2012

4.11.1 Farm related factors as pushing factor of migration

In less developed regions, agricultural products used for subsistence life. A traditional farming system is a survival livelihood and it could not help to much extent for better household improvement in less productive areas. In this section (Table 21), each sub-items show low percentages of pushing factors of migration for Gimbichu kebele/town. In this respect, Landlessness for farm (22%), Less productivity of farmland (30%), Small farmland holding less than 0.5 hectare (18%) and Lack of rural credit facilities for agriculture (4%). Therefore, farm work related problems cannot be the predominant pushing factor of migration for urban dwellers but for some Gimbichu residents to some extent it can be a pushing factor. Because some of them have rural

farmland at different rural areas that shows the same conditions of agricultural backwardness as pushing factor the same to Sibya kebele respondents.

On the other hand, these factors in Sibya kebele play a great role in pushing migrants. The percentages (44%) show that Small farmland holding less than 0.5 hectare is the predominant pushing factor of peasants due to lack of better access at their local area to produce more agricultural products.

Lacks of rural credit facilities for agricultural work and crop failure are never the factors for pushing peasants. Government facilitated rural agricultural input credit access for peasants, relative to their land size like fertilizer, pesticides, selected seeds and rural credit access. Therefore, credit access and crop failure could not create any influence on rural migrants. Less productivity again pushes peasants for migration. However, as explained in previous section the main pushing factor is the desire of high income and better living standard achievement within short times from RSA (males) or MECs (females).

Table 21: Farm Related push factor of out-migration

Main item	Sub-items	Responses	Gimbichu		Sibya	
			Freq.	%	Freq.	%
Which one of the following agricultural backwardness pushed your household member to migrate to South Africa or Middle East countries?	1-Landlessness for farm	Yes	32	22	13	26
		No	111	78	37	74
	2-Less productivity of farmland	Yes	43	30	50	100
		No	100	70	---	---
	3-Small farmland holding less than 0.5 hectare	Yes	35	18	22	44
		No	108	82	28	56
	4- Crop failure	Yes	---	---	---	---
		No	143	100	50	100
	5- Lack of rural credit facilities for agriculture	Yes	6	4	---	---
		No	137	96	50	100
	6-other, explain	Yes	12	6	8	16
		No	131	94	42	84

Source: Field survey, 2012

4.12 Causes of females out-migration

The causes of females' out-migration from the study area to MECs reflected many reasons from different informants. It is therefore, expected that the motivations for migration decision were stated as to obtain both economic and social opportunities. In economic opportunity, the search for work and the desire to get better payment in informal work to lead their lives independently and the desire to support their families pushing them to some MECs. That means, clothing, covering different household expenditure (house goods, school tuition fees for family children and collecting money to send another family member to RSA or to start business works for themselves and families, were issues of highest priority for most women. The economic push factor were evident in the study area, in that the economic disparities between Ethiopia and MECs stimulated movement from this limited place of opportunity to a place were higher level of opportunity pulls them. Moreover, the reasons by FGD stated as: to cover different household expenditures, to buy household home goods, to collect Middle East currency and exchange in Eth. Birr to get better income most of the time pulling them.

During field observation, a 28-years-old unmarried woman, named Bezabish Gebreyohannes, she returned to visit her families in Gimbichu town responded as saying that;

I completed grade12 in Ethiopia, in 2002 and I stayed for six years without any job/I could not find a job. At the end of 6th year, I went to Dubai and I could make better living. Now I am supporting my families by covering different households' consumption expenditure and currently I am collecting money to send my friend to RSA and I planned to cover some fraction of the travel cost until for the coming three years. Then now I am preparing myself to return to Dubai after this month.

The response given above not surprises anyone who can understand the difficulties in less developed regions. Most women become economically, independent and able to contribute financially towards their families' survival were fulfilling.

In social opportunities, while economic opportunities are the reflection of social motives were important in the migration of women. Social factors such as helping their families left behind in home country, take care for elderly parents by sending money, helping schoolchildren of household by paying tuition fees, and covering other family costs are major areas of social support.

The effect of remittance from females' international migration could bring change in a given society, employment creation, education and health service improvement, household expenditure support. However, IOM (2006) report, explained that the remittance obtained from the female migrants thus is not substantial to Ethiopians economy when compared to countries like Bangladesh and Sri Lanka. For instance, Bangladesh in 2000 obtained remittance from the female migrants made up 63% of the total revenue of the country. Similarly, in the study area, female's migration is benefiting to cover small proportion of family and migrants expenditures like covering family consumption expenses, to create small businesses, etc. it is possible to conclude that the main pushing factors of females international migration is economic problems. Thus, highest numbers of migrants go to some Middle East Countries for domestic works. Majority of them are paid minimum wages, which would not relax and hope them in covering different costs which challenging them and their families.

According to FGD in Sibya kebele, families with better ability to pay transit fees sent their family members to RSA but in opposite way, some families they do not have ability to collect a huge amount of transit money use as an alternative to send their family member females to one of the Arab countries. Some migrants from Arab countries collect money and then send another family member to RSA, as explained by Bezabish in this section. In this case, migration to Arab countries can be taken as another way of obtaining travel money to migrate RSA.

4.13. Effects of Migration on Local Economic Enterprising

Investment: More than 90% of the returnees, who came from RSA and few returned women from MECs made investment activities in Gimbichu town and in other towns of the Woreda. But few of them invested in Hosanna, capital of Hadiya zone. On the other hand, some MHHs or migrants' representative relatives investing in these towns and other places by remittance or money, which sent from migrants for the purpose of business work.

According to Soro Woreda trade and industry Office 2011 statistics, the registered and implementing investors' number is very few in the area. However, the numbers of traders in small business fields are relatively better in current condition. Up until March 2012, the Office has licensed 155 trade mobilizes in the Woreda. Out of which currently, 91 engaged in retail trading, 24

in services, 21 in small industrial activities like welding and maintenances, 17 in building and construction, 2 in animal husbandry but other 8 took urban land from municipality for unspecified investment purposes.

Soro Woreda trade and industry Office business department head Ato Desalegn Dashore as explained, except few business fields, more than 90% of licensed businesspersons are migrants' families and return migrants. The survey resulted (table 19) in section 4.10 of uses (expenses) of remittance show, 31.6% of respondents agreed that the share of remittance for enterprising local economic activities as the highest share. From the total share, service sector received 70% is the highest, trade 29% share of the investment spending while others took the remaining 1% of total investment shares (See Table 22). In the same way, Yang (2004) in his work suggested that, at the household level, remittances can create entrepreneurial activity that in long run could transform the household to business works. This suggestion reflects the condition of entrepreneurial activities of the study site, in that the number of businesspersons increasingly became form time to time in the Woreda.

About 90% of business men in Soro Woreda are migrant households and returnees. On the other hand, most of the FGD participants argued that remittance and return migrants' money have highly mobilized the entrepreneurial activities in the Woreda. This idea is strongly raised in interviews made with returnees suggested that remittance and returnees have showing a great role in establishing a number of commercial projects. However, the contribution of returns in big investments is limited due to the shortage of accumulated capital and technology acquiring skills inadequacy. To a certain extent, they usually tend to invest in transport sector, trading, retails and in hotels and restaurants. Return migrants more frequently participated in urban land related businesses. In this respect, most return migrants buy urban land and constructed houses to either for business service or for residential purpose and some of them construct and exchange for the purpose of profit

Table 22: Identity of investors in Soro Woreda

Fields of Business	Frequency	%
Transport service	7	5
Hotel service	6	4
House construction for bank and other services	9	6
Trading: shop/boutique sells	32	21
Store of crop trading sells	13	8
Motorized mills service	17	11
Animal husbandry/fattening	2	1
Education/kindergarten service	2	1
Industrial activities and maintenance service	21	14
Other retail trades and services	46	30
Total	155	100

Source: SWTIO statistics, 2011

Housing; House is another essential basic need for human being and it is an essential life condition indicator of a person within a particular society. Having better houses is the implication of betterment in a given society. Similarly, FGD and returnees interview participants suggested that, housing is the most valuable activity of remitted and returned migrants in the study area. Recently, the number and quality of houses is increasing in urban areas in an unpredictable way. Gimbichu town is one of the remittance-injected towns and it is one of the competent growing municipalities in Hadiya zone. Once money is remitted, migrant families start to build new houses or to buy formerly constructed houses for living or commercial purposes. Most of the construction is taking place with stone and cement for the ground part and by using mud and wood for wall components. The constructed or bought houses would be used for residential/living purposes or for business work.

Nowadays, the price of an ordinary house in Gimbichu and near towns, due to the rise of demand, has been reached around 500,000 birr.

Ato Mesfin Jatgeno strengthened it; and he is one of my key informants quoted as saying:

Before migration, I was living in Gimbichu town in my own house, which constructed at 375 square metres of land and it was better quality living house. Before seven years, I planned to sell it and I want to migrate to RSA. However, the price of any living house in Gimbichu at that time was not more than 7,000 birr. At the end, I sold it for 7,500 birr and I went to RSA. After five years stay, I returned back to visit my families and to buy another living house. The price of houses with the same quality was reached to 300,000 birr within five years stay. Finally, I bought it by 300,000 birr. However, it is unexpectedly expensive compared to the previous price.

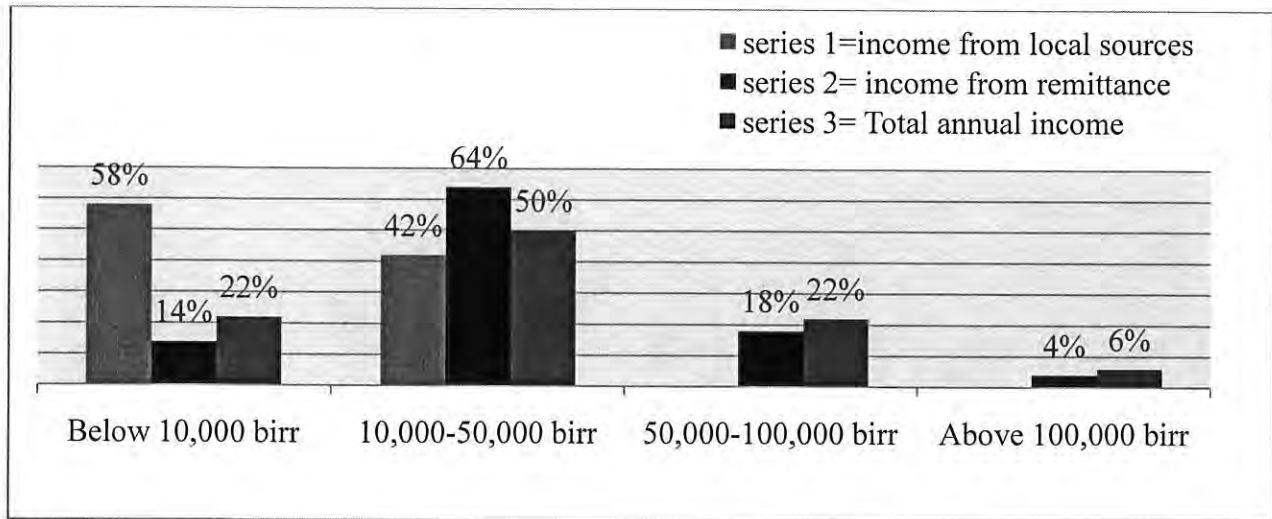
The above response does not surprise anyone. The injected remittances in to the existing economy could accelerate the economy more than this effect. Being of these, the rise of house price is economically helping other community groups those they have their own houses previously in towns. As a result, migration in one direction negatively affecting migrant households and on the other hand, it creates good market opportunity to sell in better prices their existing resources for remitted and highly demanded groups. From the above findings, it is possible to conclude the living standards and living differences of the society. Remitted group could enjoy from the fruits of their household members at abroad. Nevertheless, non-remitted group are in dangers of inflation, which is created due to the flow of additional income for limited groups. Income difference could create social category (higher and lower incomes groups).

Differentiation: The income inequality is unavoidable in any society, at any times and in any country. However, the existence of remittance and returnees in the study area widened the existing income gap among the remitted and non-remitted households in the study area. The following Figure 10 shows some respondents data of income conditions without remittance and with remittance. An income without remittance indirectly shows the income level of non-migrant households. Meaning, migrant household income from other sources with excluding remittance is equivalent or the same to that of non-migrant households' total income obtained per year with in the same community and area.

In the following Figure 10, migrant households annual income or income without remittance founded in only two intervals (about 58%) are earners of below 10,000 birr and 42% are in between

10,000-50,000 birr obtainers in the area). Majority (58%) are the predominant group those founded in the category of in under 10,000-birr interval.

Figure 10: comparison of Annual incomes from local sources, remittance and total annual incomes



Source: Field survey, 2012

However, as we can see from Figure 10, the income groups are divided in to four categories after receiving remittances (below 10,000-birr earners, 10,000-50,000 birr earners, 50,000-100,000 and above 100,000-birr earner groups). The percentages of 10,000-50,000 birr remittance earners are the highest (64%) and the percentage (4%) of above 100,000-birr earners is the least percentage group.

In addition, remittance created another two new incomes groups (50,000-10,000 and above 100,000 birr earners per year) that was not seen in incomes without remittance. These groups created completely income difference between migrant and non-migrant households or they can be categorized under the higher socially respected groups and they can save some fraction of their incomes. In similar way, Jones (1998), in his work reviled that migration and remittances cause increasing intra-community inequality. However, there is an apparent absence of formal, statistical tests pertaining to the effect of migration on income inequality in sending communities. Moreover, Figure 10 shows the percentage of below 10,000-birr incomes group after receiving remittance improved from 58% to 22% by transferring in to 10,000-50,000 birr categories and 10,000-50,000

birr obtainers increased from 42% to 50%. As a result, other incomes groups 22% of respondents transformed from lower or medium income level to 50,000-100,000 birr/year and in the same way, 4% of above 100,000 birr gainer highest income achiever group were created.

In similar explanation, the FGD members in their discussions that implemented among returnees and non-migrants families said that there is a wide income gap among those remitted and non-remitted groups. All participants in both kebeles again explained the same idea by raising the following inequality implications.

- All remitted families do have better purchasing power than non-remitted families do.
- Most of the remitted families and returns have better house quality, home assets (furniture), and better education for their children, better family health, better clothing and other better ceremonial and related activities.
- Most returnees and remitted families engaged in business fields and as a result, they can earn better profit than non-migrant families.
- Most of the remitted families and returns have better social respect than that of non-migrant families. Even death funeral/ burying process is good respected for remitted families than that of non-remitted families.

Therefore, majority of community members tend to consider, migration as a negative impact on equality, due to the existence of the remitted and non-remitted groups within the same society. The existence of income inequality, highly discourage the youngsters from going to school, and reduce school participation by bearing in mind migrant households clothing, mobile phones, pocket money and the likes. It is the serious problem for non-migrant households that create disagreement between parents and their school age children. The children's mind set up anxious with migration to RSA or MECs to be rich in a short time rather than spending their times in schooling. Moreover, they think that even they attaining some educational level, they could not get hold of better income from education comparative to migration. Consequently, migrants in abroad accumulates high capital and get richer within few years stay, which is impossible or it takes more time in Ethiopia, due to the existence of great challenges in initial capital and income earnings (FGD).

Social respect: as mentioned in previous section, the created income gap between the families with members working at abroad and those families do not have household members at abroad have widened. The attitudes and behavior of the two groups also differ in most conditions and directly affect their relations. The remittances received from RSA and MECs for migrant households, not only created the economic difference but also, the social difference would create in between the two households. Both focused group discussion and some key- informants, tell that the social respect differences became wider after the happening of migration to South Africa and Middle East Countries.

The caused differences among the community have been tending to create social association difference between the migrant and the non-migrant households. The migrant households economically and socially are more respected than the non-migrant households are. For instance, public Holly days like 'Meskel' ceremony in the area have been respecting by creating groups to buy oxen for ceremony celebration, migrant households with migrant households and non-migrant with non-migrant households make groups. The main reason for the category is the income level difference to cover ceremonial expenditures in both groups. Recently, migrant households have the ability to buy oxen meat in cash but non-migrant households cannot come up with the money to purchase in cash as migrant households do. They have only an alternative to purchase in credit by custom of the society. The credit is usually taken by the hope of crop sells at future to pay the debt. However, migrant households would cover the costs in cash by using the remittance. Thus, non-migrant group loses some fraction of crop yields for the ceremony debit pay and they cannot have other income sources rather than using farm products.

Chapter Five: Conclusion and Recommendation

5.1. Conclusion

This study seeks to analyze the socio-economic effects of migration, especially migration to RSA and MECs of Soro Woreda, Hadiya zone. From the findings of the study, focusing on objectives, the following conclusions were drawn.

5.1.1. Fund-raising and Transit

Regarding the objective of challenges in the process of collecting transit fees on migrants and their parents in Soro woreda, it was founded that journey money collection is the primary challenge in the study area. The process of migration to both countries, RSA or MECs is not identical in amount of transit money fees and the whole process until reaching to the destination. The amount of money needed to reach any one of MECs is relatively much smaller than the amount needed for RSA. Recently, the total immediate travel cost for MECs is about 8,000 birr. However, the travel money for RSA, journey on ground needed 36,000-44,000 birr and for air flight journey, the immediate value reached to 110,000 birr (See Table 12).

The major challenges of out-migration is money shortage (predominant one), lack of recipient at destination and identifying legal broker (See Table 11). To solve the money shortage, most migrant households use different money sources like urban house, previous deposit, loan, rural land leasing, relatives support, migrants' sponsor and send-off ceremonies to fill the shortage gap (Table 13).

5.1.2. Remittance and Changes in Household Income

Based on the objective of impacts of remittance on economic activities of migrant households and returned migrants, the analysis shows that very large amount of remittance is being injected in the economy of the study area. Besides discussing the channels of money sending, the way of transferring remittance from RSA is by using informal network from South Africa to Ethiopia. Moreover, the remittance from RSA sometimes reaches the beneficiaries in Ethiopia informally through pocket or sometimes through bank transfers. Once it reached Addis Ababa and then sends through Banks for another agent in Hosanna to deliver for the end user. In a process, the highest percentage (64%) respondents receive 10,000-50,000 birr per year in averagely. (See section 4.7.1).

This inflow remittance has been increasing as more and more people migrated to RSA and MECs. As field survey data, migrant households most of the time receive remittances rarely for different purposes like consumption, for business work, house construction or buy, ceremonial activities and funeral processes, different assets formation etc. (See table 19). The rarely flow of remittances created more urban asset formation than rural asset formation. The number of rural assets have been increasing slightly and urban assets highly rose in after migration. (See Figure 6 and Figure 7). Moreover, urban asset formation well increased in majority of migrant households in after migration and due to this effect majority of migrant households have been moving to urban areas in search of urban amenities and better urban life.

In general, the income level of migrant households increased in after migration by injected remittance (Figure 10). Thus, inflation had blown up in the area in all capital asset formation and purchasing consumption good relatively more than other similar areas. On the other hand, migration economically and socially affects migrant households and local community by creating economic and social costs like productive labour shortage; work load of women; declining agricultural/farm outputs; weak family ties creates marriage unfaithfulness and rarely divorce among migrant and back left marriage partner (Table 18). Moreover, farm related problem, poverty, population pressure increases land shortage, unemployment, family/peer pressure, poor school result, low profit on trade and interest of better income or living standard pushes migrants to move other economically better regions (Table 19). As shown in this section, more than 80% of respondents responded that poverty and interest of income gains as predominant pushing factors of migration than the other causes.

5.1.3. Impacts of remittance of Households at Origin

To meet the objective of the impacts of remittance on the local economic enterprising of Soro Woreda and that of the returned migrants, the findings in (Table 19) show that remittance positively contributed to increase both investment and consumption in the area. Specifically the impact on trade, different business works, housing construction and transportation sector are positively have been affecting through remittance and returns activities. However, the impact on prices of products (inflated prices) and inequality tendency among the remitted and non-remitted social groups are the main negative effects of introduction of remittance and returnee migrants in to the economy.

Yet, all returned migrants in the study area have been engaged in different investment areas, especially in towns, regardless of the size and type of the business fields. More than 90% of the returns, those came from RSA and few women returns from MECs made investments in different towns of Soro woreda and few of them in Hosanna town (section 4.13). None of them invested in rural kebeles for business purpose, because of the absence of different infrastructures and due to the attraction of urban amenities. However, remitted and returned migrants have been mobilizing the entrepreneurial activities (established a number of commercial projects) in the Woreda.

Now a days, Soro woreda trade and industry Office has licensed 155 trades mobilizes in the Woreda. Out of them, more than 90% are migrants' families and returned migrants. The number of businesspersons increasingly became form time to time in the Woreda. However, the contribution of returns in big investment areas is limited due to the shortage of capital and technology/skill. To a certain extent, they usually tend to invest in transport sector, trade, retails, in service and in construction.

Returned migrants more frequently participated in urban land related businesses. In this respect, most returned migrants buy urban land and constructed houses for either business work or for residential purposes and some of them construct and exchange for the purpose of profit. They are also motivated to spend their money on trade, different services and urban house construction rather than engaged in undeveloped rural land farm activities. Because, they often prefer to invest in towns for obvious reasons like easy access to transport, market opportunity and access to other infrastructure in towns.

5.1.4 Income difference and inequality

The last objective of the study is concerned on analysis of the income differences between migrants and non-migrants families in Soro woreda. Remittances from migrants highly improve the living standards of migrant families, but they play an insignificant role in the development of local infrastructure. Individual and family prosperity does not have an impact on the prosperity of non-migrant families in the community.

There is a growing gap between the incomes of households that receive remittances and those do not receive. The majority of participants (76%) said that the financial situation of the family had improved much better in after one of their members migrated to abroad for work (See Figure 9). Remittance used primarily for current consumption, i.e., food and clothing, and for improved housing. In addition, the existence of remittance and returnees today in the study area widened the existing income gap among the remitted and non-remitted groups. Remitted families do have better purchasing power than non-remitted families do. Most of the remitted families and returns have better house quality, home assets (furniture), and better education for their children, family health, clothing, ceremonial and related activities. Similarly, most of the remitted families and returns have better social respect than that of non-migrant families. As a result, majority of community members tend to consider migration as negative impact on equality, with the existence of the remitted and non-remitted groups in the same community. The existence of income inequality, highly discourage the youngsters from going to school, and reduce school participation by bearing in mind migrant households clothing, mobile phones, pocket money and the likes. This is the serious problem for non-migrant families that creating disagreement between parents and their school age children, by raising the benefits of migration. The children's mind set up worried with migration to RSA or MECs to be rich within a short period rather than spending their time in schooling. Moreover, they think that even they attaining some educational level, they could not get hold of better income from education comparative to migration. Thus, in a particular village, one can detect the presence of migrants simply by observing the changes like housing, house assets, clothing and purchasing powers of some persons. However, there is the problem of efficient utilization and effective management of the received remittances among the remitted group.

5.2 Recommendations

Human migration has been occurring from the past until now for different reasons. The reasons may be economic, social, political, psychological and religious depending in each country and society. However, recently the Hadiya people migrating to RSA and MECs for the purpose of economic benefit by obtaining better income and to invest in home country through the remittance. Its aim is to improve household income, local economy's efficiency and output, to create a diversified economy and to improve the quality of life. As a result, migration in the study areas has helped the migrant households to accumulate urban assets, enterprising local economy at urban areas and

helped to transform from rural to urban way of life. However, the process of migration from the beginning to end has many challenges in each step. The question of how to solve the problems of youngsters migration to RSA and MECs is however to be the responsive issue of the local government, other concerned bodies, the researchers and the whole society of the study areas. Therefore, the following recommendations are forwarded as policy options for the local government and other concerned bodies:

- Majority of youngsters are migrated, migrating and ready to migrate from the study area to South Africa (males) and MECs (females) in an illegal way and become to not as good as consideration of the challenges that they are facing in all processes of migration at origin, journey and destination. The benefits of migration mainly for migrant households were identified, so the local government and any responsible bodies should involve during preparation period to save migrant life and to create awareness about exploitation by smugglers and the confronting challenges during and after journey.
- The major challenges of out-migration is transit money shortage (predominant one), lack of recipient at destination and identifying legal broker. To solve money shortage, most migrant households use urban land and house sells, the previous deposit, agricultural product sells, loan from individuals, rural land leasing and relatives support. Sometimes migrants exposed to robbing money on travel by smugglers, lose their life and migrants most of the time stay at different African countries prisons.

Therefore, the benefit obtained from migration could not compensate the economic and social costs such as loss of productive labour by death or leaving the country, loss of former assets if migration fails, unfaithfulness between marriage partners, family separation and other related costs. Thus, to alleviate these problems local government and any responsible body should intervene to create awareness among society through community conversation about the cost (crises) of illegal travel and consequences of migration.

- The remittance-transferring channel from RSA to Ethiopia is informally by using private agencies. Moreover, the remittance from RSA reaches the beneficiaries informally through pocket transfers. In all processes, rarely, some corrupted agency workers rob or deny the sent money. To avoid such

crises, efforts should be made to divert the money transferring system from the informal channels to the formal ones from which the government and the society can benefit.

- The inflow remittance has been increasing as more and more people migrated to RSA and MECs. Migrant households most of the time receive remittances rarely for different purposes like consumption, for business work, house construction or buy, ceremonial activities, funeral processes and different asset formations, etc. The number of rural asset owners' number declining in after migration. As a result, urban asset possession well increased in majority of migrant households after migration and due to this effect majority of migrant households moved to urban areas in search of urban amenities and better urban life. To develop, rural and urban areas equally by remittance, government and society should fulfill infrastructure in rural areas to attract the attention of remitted individuals and return migrants to invest at rural areas.
- Remittance positively contributed for increase in both investment and consumption. If the injected remittance to Soro's economy utilized and managed properly, it could bring economic growth in the local area in short time. However, if this potential left to exploitation, then the result could be economic and social cost. Therefore, to use the remittance properly, the kebele and municipality administrative should facilitate investment land or business area and encourage them by providing essential support to enable them in local enterprising activities.
- In the study, the economists' word that "there is no free lunch without cost" is rose in FGD. Bearing in mind this, migrants faced many problems such as death, imprisonment, loss of property, and psychological depress in travel and in the destination to achieve the goal after all these challenges. The immediate travel money paid to smugglers is highly affecting the households' economy, which could not compensate if migration suddenly fails. Moreover, the agricultural output which declined due to loss of labor, the unexpected death of youngsters in the journey to and in the destination, the school drop outs by the youngsters in the hope of migration and the missed image developed in minds of youth should rather be seriously looked by any responsible body and future researchers in the same issues.
- The government may try to work for legal move of its people and institutionalized migration in both sender and receiver countries if there is a need for foreign labor force in South Africa and Middle East Countries.

Community in the study area are spending high amount of money for traveling process. However, sometimes migrants deported and the money is exploited in each step by smugglers. Considering the high amount of paid money for smugglers, communities should be advised to use alternative business activities and income generating opportunities in their home country.

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APPENDIXES

Appendix One

ADDIS ABABA UNIVERSITY SCHOOL OF GRADUATE STUDIES

Department of Regional and Local Development Study

The purpose of this questionnaire is to gather information in order to analyze the Economic and social impacts of migration to Republic of South Africa and Middle East Countries at Place of Origin: The Case Soro Woreda of Hadiya Zone, SNNPR State. This questionnaire will be filled by the migrant household heads. It is believed that the data that you will give certainly have a far-reaching importance to explore the socio-economic impacts of out-migration in Soro Woreda. The data collected through this questionnaire is confidential and will only be used for the academic purpose. The information you will give is crucial for the research undertaken. The researcher really thanks you in advance for your cooperation.

Appendix One: Questionnaire for Migrants' Household heads

A. Personal Information: (Chose only the appropriate choice

1. Position in the household: 1) Father 2) Mother 3) Husband 4) Wife 5) Son 6) Relative & 7) Daughter 8) Other
2. Sex: 1) Male 2) Female
3. Marital status: 1) Single 2) Married 3) Divorce 4) Widow(ed)
4. Ethnicity: 1) Hadiya 2) Amhara 3) Kambata 4) Dubamo 5) Other
5. Religion: 1) Protestant 2) Orthodox 3) Catholic 4) Islam 5) Other
6. Family size: 1) 1-3 2) 4-6 3) Above 6
7. Age 1) under 18 2) 19 – 30 3) 31-40 4) 41-60 5) Above 60
8. Migration destination: 1) RSA 2) MECs 3) Both 4) Other
9. Frequency of migration: 1) Once 2) Twice 3) More
10. Frequency of return: 1) Once 2) Twice 3) More 4) None
11. Education: 1) Do not read and write 2) Read and write 3) Primary level 4) Secondary level 5) Higher level completed

18	Which of the following facilities of urban assets did you have before your household member migrated to South Africa or Middle East Countries? specify----- -----	18.1. shop/Boutique			
		18.2. Urban house			
		18.3. Urban land			
		18.4. Motorized mill			
		18.5. Sofa			
		18.6. 'Bife'			
		18.7. Television			
19	20. Which of the following facilities of urban assets do you have after your household member migrated to South Africa or Middle East Countries? specify---	19.1. shop/Boutique			
		19.2. Urban house			
		19.3. Urban land			
		19.4. Motorized mill			
		19.5. Sofa			
		19.6. 'Bife'			
		19.7. Television			

D) Other Incomes Sources of Migrant Households

Choose the best alternatives for questions 20- 28 and write quantities you estimate for chosen alternatives. Multiple responses are possible.

20. How many quintals of cereal crops do you / your household produce on average annually? -----
quintal

- | | | |
|--------------------|----------|-----------------|
| 1) Below 2 quintal | 3) 11-20 | 5) Above 40 |
| 2) 3-10quintal | 4) 21-40 | 6) Do not known |

21. What is the average money value of the total quintals per year (in question 20 above) in current price? -----birr

- | | |
|-----------------------|----------------------|
| 1. Below 10,000 birr | 3. Above 50,000 birr |
| 2. 10,000-50,000 birr | 4. None |

22. Have you/your family been engaged in livestock production? 1) Yes 2) No 3) Do not know

No.	Item (Multiple response is possible)	Sub-items	Choices	
			Below 10	Above 10
23	If Yes to question 22, estimate the number of each livestock that you have in rural areas?	23.1.Cow		
		23.2.Sheep		
		23.3.Goats		
		23.4.Horse/mare		
		23.5.Donkey		
		23.6.Mule		
		23.7.Hen/cock		

24. What is your average annual income received in cash from your livestock in Eth.birr?

1) Below 10,000 birr 2) From 10,000-50,000 birr 3) Above 50,000 birr

25. Do you get credit services for your agricultural inputs like fertilizers? 1) Yes 2) No 3) Do not know

26. If Yes to the question 25, choose its source 1) Government 2) NGOs 3) Rural exorbitant lenders

27. If Yes to the question 25, is the credit given enough to purchase required agricultural inputs? 1) Yes 2) No

28. If No to question 25 above, do you think that availability of enough agricultural inputs minimizes peasant migration to South Africa? 1) Yes 2) No

E) Migrant households' Reasons for urban movement

Choose by circling the choices containing "Yes" "No" and "Do not known", for the following questions.

29. Do you believe that migrants' households have been moving to urban areas in search of business, amenities and better social services more than non-migrants have?

1) Yes 2) No 3) Do not know

30. If yes to question 29 above, do you think that the migrants' household movement to urban areas is the result of high remittance flow from abroad and as the result, for business to search infrastructure?

1) Yes 2) No 3) Do not know

31. If yes to question 29 above, do you think that the migrants' household movement to urban areas is the result of high remittance flow from abroad and as the result, the urban- asset formation.

1) Yes 2) No 3) Do not know

F) Answer the Following Sub-Items Based on the Main Item. (Multiple Responses is possible)

No.	Items	Sub-items	Choices		
			1.yes	2.no	3.do not know
32	Which of the following negative economic- consequence resulted in the place of origin because of migration?	32.1.labour shortage			
		32.2.increased work load of women			
		32.3.decrease in farm output			
		32.4. exposed to malnutrition-----			
		32.5. others, specify-----			
33	Which of the following negative social- consequence resulted in the place of origin because of migration?	33.1.Weak family ties			
		33.2. Polygamous marriage created			
		33.3.Unfaithfulness in marriage life			
		33.4.Divorce			
		33.5. Other, specify			

G) Attitudes on Migration Destination and Reasons for Choosing

Choose the best alternative you feel from migration destinations and then specify the country

40.6-to cover education ,health and family death costs			
40.7-to purchase good related costs			
40.8-to send another family member again abroad			
40.9-to enterprising local economy			
40.10-to asset formation like Radio, TV, Sofa, 'Bife' and the like.			
40.11-to buy cattle, to start new business, etc..			

I) Impacts of remittance on local economic enterprising at origin. (Multiple Response is Possible). Choose and tick Yes or No for the following questions under each column and fill the blank spaces

No	Questions	Choices		
		Yes	No	Do not known
41	Did you observe that migrants' remittance created more new business enterprises than non-migrant households did? What ----			
42	Do you see that migrants' remittance enterprising directly rural economy, at place of origin? What-----			
43	Did you observe those migrants' and returns remittances enterprising urban areas than rural places? How -----			
44	Are returns or remittance senders interested to develop agricultural sector at rural areas? Why? -----			

J) Differences in Income between migrant and non-migrant Households

Put tick marks under the best alternatives

No.	Questions	Yes	No	Do not known
45	Did local economic enterprising formed through remittances create a tendency of social respect difference between migrants' and non-migrant households?			

46	Do you believe that migrants' households have better urban/ rural-asset formed than that of non-migrant households do?			
47	Did rural income difference through remittance create a tendency of social respect difference between migrants' households and non-migrant households?			

K) Challenges of migrant and non-migrant Households

Put tick marks under the best alternatives

48. What challenges faced you before sending your family member to abroad? Multiple responses is possible.

No.	Sub-items	Yes	No	Do not known
48.1	money shortage			
48.2	conflict or disagreement among family (competition)			
48.3	instability in the household			
48.4	determining the migrant and way of journey			
48.5	identification of the contact person and brokers			
48.6	identification of the recipient person at destination			

L) Amount of money and Sources of Income for transfer fees

49. What are the resources you used to cover transit costs? Multiple responses are possible.

Sub-items	Yes	No	Do not known
49.1. land leasing contribution			
49.2. Salary			
49.3. loan from rich people			
49.4. sponsors from former migrants			
49.5. Urban house and land sells			
49.6. relatives'			
49.7. Others, specify----			

50. How much birr was needed to cover the cost of travel to send your family member to RSA--- --- Middle East countries----- In addition, why the cost is low or high? Use tick mark for the country in blank space.

1. Below 10,000 birr

2. 10,000-15,000 birr

3. 16,000-30,000 birr

4. 31,000-50,000 birr

5. 51,000-80,000 birr

6. Above 80,000 birr

M) General Questions to be filled by Migrant Households

For questions 51– 52, put tick mark under suitable column from the given alternatives.

51. Which one is the main socio-economic cause that pushed your household member to migrate to South Africa---- or Middle East countries---? Multiple responses are possible and put tick marks in blanks for the country.

Sub-items	Yes	No	Do not known
51.1-Poverty			
51.2-Increase in population pressure creates farm land shortage			
51.3-Unemployment			
51.4-Family pressure			
51.5-Peer pressure			
51.6-Poor school result			
51.7-Local conflict			
51.8- low profit on trade			
51.9-interest for better income			
51.10- Other, specify			

52. Which one of the following agricultural backwardness pushed your household member to migrate to South Africa or Middle East countries?

Sub-questions	Yes	No	Do not known
52.1-Landlessness for farm			
52.2-Less productivity of farmland			
52.3-Small farmland holding less than 0.5 hectare			
52.4- Crop failure			
52.5- Lack of rural credit facilities for agriculture			
52.6-other, explain			

53. How do you get the remittance?

Sub-questions	Yes	No	Do not known
53.1 by post			
53.2 by bank			
53-3 by direct contact with migrants or their friends, relatives etc			
53-4 by carry of private banking system/private agencies			
53-5 by using different alternatives			

54. Your general attitude or feeling towards migration? 1) Positive 2) Negative 3) Both positive and negative

55. If your answer is 'positive' for question 54, why positive? Multiple responses are possible. It is a

Sub-questions	Yes	No	Do not known
55.1-means to assist food consumption			
55.2- additional income means, which could lead to the growth			
55.3-means of poverty alleviation			
55.4-means of social transformation (rural-urban)			
55.5-means of economic transformation (agriculture to industry)			
55.6-means of employment creation by enterprising local economy			
55.7-means of overcoming land shortage			
55.8-means to acquire new experience, skills etc...			
55.9-means of reducing dependency			
55.10-means of improving living and social life			
55.11-means of livelihood and to become wealthy			

60. If it is negative for Q. 61, why? Multiple responses are possible.

Sub-questions	Yes	No	Do not known
60.1-high cost			

60.2-illness			
60.3-robbery, absence of legal rights			
60.4-exploitation by smugglers			
60.5-socialiy isolation			
60.6-reduce productive labor force			
60.7-work burden for women at origin			
60.8-reduce education interest			
60.9-create social conflict among families, relatives, friends and others			
60.10-create economic dependency at origin			
60.11-cultural effect			
60.12-political effect and the others-----			

Appendix Two: Interview and FGD Guides

This part questions were used for all key informants and FGD in both kebeles, depending on the appropriateness of the questions (returns and non-migrants).


1. What are the impacts of migration at the origin? (Economic and social)
2. What are the impacts of remittances on rural and urban growth at origin? (economic and social)
3. What are the challenges related to migration at the origin and at destination? (Fees, information, labour, etc)
4. What is and should be done to solve the challenges related to migration in the Woreda? (Negative impact on education, farms, illegal activities, fees, etc)
5. How is migration impacting on livelihoods at origin (employment creation, income source diversification, improves living condition, improve agricultural productivity, etc)

Thank you

Declaration

I, the under signed, hereby declare that this thesis is my original work and that it has not been presented for a degree in any other person for an award of a degree in any other university.

Declared by Tadesse Ansebo

Signature:  Date 12/06/12

Confirmed by Filmon Hadaro (Ph.D)

Advisor

Signature  Date 12/06/12

Date of Submission _____