



**ADDIS ABABA UNIVERSITY
COLLEGE OF DEVELOPMENT STUDIES
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**MIGRATION OF WOMEN TO MIDDLE EAST
COUNTRIES: ASSESSMENT OF SOCIOECONOMIC
IMPACTS ON SENDING FAMILIES IN JIMMA TOWN
OF OROMIA REGIONAL STATE**

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**BY
AWOL BESHIR**

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BY: AWOL BESHIR YESUF

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**(POPULATION, ENVIRONMENT AND DEVELOPMENT)
ADVISOR: TEFERI MAKONNEN (PhD)**

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ABSTRACT

Migration of Women to Middle East Countries: Assessment of Socioeconomic Impacts on Sending Families in Jimma Town of Oromia Regional State

Awol Beshir

Addis Ababa University, 2014

Like any other developing country, migration affects Ethiopia both economically and socially. In recent years the number of Ethiopian women migrating to Middle East countries has been increasing and this has impacts on migrants as well as their families. The overriding purpose of this study was to assess the socioeconomic impact of women migration to Middle East countries on sending households. It also tried to identify the main driving factors that fuel this migration in Jimma Town of the Oromiya Regional State. The results of the study were based principally on a survey that covered 403 migrant sending households that were selected using simple random sampling method. Relevant data were also collected through observation and FGDs. The results indicate that most of the migrants were young unemployed women, with low educational background. The main driving factor was their low economic situation as the majority of them departed from households that have low educational status engaged in petty trade. The migration had both positive and negative effects. Due to the remittance and items in kind received by sending households, their livelihoods have been relatively improved. On the contrary money is spent to process the migration by borrowing, sales of property and from household saving thereby affecting the migrant households and making migrants stressed out of it. In addition, households had worries about deportation and sexual abuse of their departed family members. A Logistic regression model was deployed and estimated based on primary data whereby the impact of a set of demographic and socio-economic variables on the probability of saving. In conclusion, even if there were positive impacts, it should be understood that migration is not a risk free endeavor both for the sending households and the migrants themselves. Therefore, concerned bodies should act to raise awareness on the pros and cons of migration of the migrant-sending households and local youth before migration to the Middle East countries.

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Acronyms and Abbreviations

CSA: Central Statistical Agency

ETB/Birr: Ethiopian Birr

FGD: Focus Group Discussion

HH: Household

MECs: Middle East Countries

IOM: International Organization for Migration

MOLSA: Ethiopian Ministry of Labour and Social Affairs

UAE: United Arab Emirates

VIF: Variance of Inflation Factor

CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

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1.1 Background of the Study

The history of migration is as long as the history of human being itself. Early ancestors have migrated from the Horn of Africa to the different parts of the world. The driving factors for migration are many. Therefore, it should not be seen as a one-off event, rather a dynamic process whose size and direction are mainly influenced by the dual forces of state regulation and development (National Geographic, 2005).

People are becoming increasingly mobile within and across borders to meet the social and economic challenges of globalization with the search for employment at the heart of most movement. In 2013, the number of international migrants worldwide reached 232 million, up from 175 million in 2000 and 154 million in 1990 (UN, 2013).

Migration happens all over the world from east to west, north to south and vice versa. People migrate from Latin American countries to the United State. There are mass migrations from the third world countries to Europe and the West mainly for economic reasons. Africa is perhaps, the most affected continent in the world out of migration. The number of people migrating from this continent to Europe and North America has been enormous. It is estimated that in 2010, 10.2 percent of global migrants were from Africa, almost 1.9 percent of Africa's population (UNDP, 2009).

The situation is not different when it comes to Ethiopia. Located in the Horn of Africa, Ethiopia is one of the poorest countries in the world and in 2010 had an emigration rate of 0.7 percent, which is low in comparison to Africa as a whole (World Bank, 2011).

Though the number of Ethiopians seeking refugees in other countries has recently decreased, the number of Ethiopian women who migrate to the Middle East Countries has increased significantly. In the past ten years Lebanon, Saudi Arabia and the Gulf States have become common destinations for Ethiopian women in search of a better future (Kebede, 2001). Even though it is difficult to get the exact figure, various sources indicate that migration to the

Middle East is on the rise, especially among women. Data from the Ethiopian Immigration Authority show that the number of people leaving for Lebanon, for example, has been significantly increasing since 1996 (Kebede, 2001). A study conducted by the support of Massachusetts University indicated that the number of Ethiopian migrants to the Middle East countries close to half a million (Gulchekhra, 2013).

Remittance is one of the pull factors for migration. Workers' remittances are an important source of income and poverty alleviation for migrants, their households and their communities of origin in many parts of the developing world (Siddiqui, 2005; Piotrowski, 2009). The "new economics of labour migration", views remittance transfers as part of a household decision-making strategy to reduce risk and increase investment opportunities in areas where credit, insurance and capital markets are absent or imperfect (Taylor, 1999). More recent research into the subject has also examined the phenomenon of migration as a means of mitigating risk after the occurrence of a shock, or as an ex-post risk management strategy (Halliday, 2006). According to International Organization for Migration (IOM), migration contributes to poverty reduction at both the individual and the community level by providing migrants with access to higher salaries at their destinations, and remittances sent by migrants to their families constitute an important driver of development (IOM, 2008).

The socioeconomic impacts of migrants have been documented by different studies. ILO found out that families may feel the negative impact directly or indirectly. Every aspect of the victim's adverse situation has an impact on the situation of sending family, including the very existence of the family unit. First family members support the migration of the women in the expectation that they will soon be reimbursed or otherwise benefit. This particular study for Middle East migration estimated the cost to range between ETB 2,300 (for migration through a Private Employment Agency) and ETB 11,000 (for migration through the use of brokers, which entails a total cost of between ETB 8,000 and ETB 11,000). This is likely to involve selling of assets and borrowing from other community members (ILO, 2011).

The household level consequences are inherently compounded for married couples, especially if they have left behind young children as is often the case in areas where a culture of migration has developed. Stories of mothers leaving their children to seek employment abroad seem to be the norm in some areas such as Dessie and Jimma. The possible consequences include disintegration of family and marriage, as well as increased vulnerability of young children left behind by their mothers (ILO, 2011).

As indicated in the profile of victims, young people with limited education are mostly vulnerable to trafficking and are more likely to migrate for employment abroad. Even if they return, they are bound to do so without improving their education and skills and would have lost the chance to get education and skills. Moreover, if current trends are to continue, it is more likely that more numbers of skilled youth would join the ranks of migrants and victims of trafficking. The rising number of educated and semi-educated migrants being recruited through private employment agencies leaves another clear warning about the nature and extent of the problems of trafficking and the huge loss of productive workforce to the country. Finally, there is also the risk that migration and trafficking become a vicious circle as some returnees turn to be role models and traffickers. In some rural communities such as around Jimma, the culture of migration has reached a stage where migration, even though traffickers, has become a viable option for the youth (ILO, 2011).

Migration of women to the Middle East is currently with serious consequences and the Ethiopian government temporarily banned migration to any Middle East countries as of October 2013 in order to safeguard the wellbeing of its citizens (ERTA, 2013). Accordingly, this study assesses the migration of women to the Middle East countries in the period 2003 to 2012 and its socioeconomic impacts on sending families in Jimma Town of Oromia Regional Stat.

1.2 Statement of the Problem

Even though, many Ethiopians have been migrating to different parts of the world, recently the number of migrant women flooding to Middle East countries has been massive. Ethiopian Ministry of Labour and Social Affairs (MoLSA, 2011) reported that the number of migrants

has been increasing rampantly in recent years. According to this report, 15,323 and 42,233 Ethiopians have travelled to countries like Saudi Arabia, United Arab Emirates and Lebanon in 2010 and 2011, respectively (MoLSA, 2011). Moreover, unpublished data for 2012 and 2013 of MoLSA indicate that the number of migrants increased in a very high rate (10,736 male & 187,931 female in 2012 and 7,269 male & 175,427 female in 2013), which means that the number of migrants in 2013 was increased by 333 percent compared with 2011 migrants. In fact, this figure does only indicate those who travelled through legal means. There are tens of thousands more who are believed to leave the country through illegal routes by traffickers.

The Ethiopian government has stated its concern over this mass migration and the reported abuses of its citizens in destination countries. We have seen about 150,000 individuals jamming the Bole Airport who were deported from Saudi Arabia after the country has expelled them in 2013. Studies by (MoLSA, 2011) indicated that most of the migrants are young women between 18 and 30 years. Their families are very low socioeconomic status and most of the migrants are secondary school incompletes. Among these, most of them are driven or motivated by the hope that they would find a relatively better economic outcome which will enable them to support themselves and their families.

Published studies on migrants show various outcomes on women migrating to Middle East countries. Some indicate positive outcomes in terms of remittances to families. However, others have reported rather negative consequences on the migrants themselves and their families left behind. The effect on the migrant is largely counterproductive due to various reasons including home sickness, differences in cultural background, language barriers, and low academic level. Most importantly, most of them do not usually fulfill the financial objective they were looking for that leads disappointment and hopelessness. The expectation of their family back home also increases the stress and pressure they face. The psychosocial impact is usually negative (Kebede, 2001).

Migration has consequences on the economic and psychosocial condition of the sending family, directly or indirectly. The economic implications on sending families could be

positive if they actually benefit from the remittances sent by the migrant. The quality of their lives and social status of family members could also improve as a result of the money received. The implications could also be the reverse. Various studies documented that, sending households do not get the support they expected and suffer from the departure of the family member and the uncertainty related to it (ILO, 2011).

The psychological and social impact of these kinds of migrations on sending family is believed to be significant. First, they will miss the migrant and that would likely bring stress and depression on parents and siblings. The effect on children left behind would particularly be devastating. In addition, the expectation of the immediate community to bring economic gain would make the negative effect much worse when the expectation doesn't meet (Carling, 2005).

These consequences could trigger further studies and urge for solutions to reduce the magnitude of impact or to improve the situation. Contrary to this reality, one can rarely find studies specifically conducted in Jimma town which indicate the impact of migration of the women to Middle East countries. Besides, available studies have focused on the implications on the migrant by excluding the sending family aside.

As a result of recent high flow of migration of women to Middle East countries, there were discussions with various community members about the effects. The local administrators, citing these discussions, reported that sending households indicated adverse effects of the migration of their family members to these countries. The researcher has had discussions prior to his engagement to the study to see the gap on the problems stated.

This study attempts to fill this gap and tried to reveal the socioeconomic impact of women migrants to Middle East countries on sending families by assessing the situation in Jimma Town of Oromia Regional State. Jimma is reported to be one of the most affected towns as a result of huge flow of migration to these countries.

1.3 Objective of the Study

1.3.1 General Objective

The overall objective of this study is to assess migration of Ethiopian women to the Middle East countries and to examine its socioeconomic impacts on sending families with special focus on Jimma Town.

1.3.2 Specific Objectives

The specific objectives of this study are:

- to examine the demographic and socioeconomic characteristics of the migrants and the migrant-sending households in Jimma Town;
- to identify and determine the major factors triggering women to migrate to Middle East countries in Jimma Town;
- to assess the socioeconomic impacts of the migration of women on the migrant-sending households in Jimma Town;
- to provide recommendations as to how to improve the impact of migrations to sending households in the future;

1.4 Basic Research Questions

In light of the problem stated and the objective formulated, the following research questions are put forth to guide the research:

1. What does the demographic and socioeconomic characteristics of the migrants look like in Jimma Town?
2. What does the demographic characteristics of migrant-sending households look like in Jimma Town?
3. What does the socioeconomic characteristics of migrant-sending households look like in Jimma Town?

4. What are the major factors drive migrant women to Middle East countries from Jimma Town?
5. What are the socioeconomic impacts of the migration of women on the migrant-sending households in Jimma Town?
6. What will be expected from local administrations and the society to minimize negative impacts and maximize benefits from migration of women on sending households in Jimma Town?

1.5 Scope of the Study

The study aims to assess the economic and social impacts of women migration on migrant-sending households. It is based on a survey of 403 households with at least one women family member working in Middle East countries. It was carried out in March 2014 and was restricted to the households of women migrants who went to Middle East countries from 2003 to 2012.

The study focused on assessing the socioeconomic impacts and causes of migration of women to the Middle East countries on migrant-sending households. To be more specific, the study focused on examining the social, economic and psychological impacts of the migration on the migrant-sending households. Geographically, the study was restricted to Jimma Town by selecting 5 Kebeles from a total of 13 Kebeles which was supposed to represent the entire town. The researcher is interested to conduct this study in Jimma Town as it is one of the towns with significant number of women migrant to Middle East.

1.6 Significance of the Study

Since, there has not been similar studies conducted in Jimma Town, the gap in the migration literature is evident. As such the researcher believes that this study will fill some of the information needed to see the situation in this specific area.

Exploration of the detail socioeconomic impacts and causes of migration and an investigation as to why this increasing trend happens is of paramount of importance in studying the migration-development nexus. It also enables us to see if the increasing trend has either positive or negative impact on the specific town in particular and the country in general. It is believed that such study will help to find the solution for negative impacts and maximize positive impacts. Finally the study will help concerned bodies to take appropriate actions.

1.7 Operational Definition of Basic Concepts

Emigration - The act of departing or exiting from one State with a view to settling in another.

Haj & Umrah - Are Muslim pilgrimage and visits to the holy cities in Saudi Arabia.

Household - A group of persons, irrespective of whether related or not, who often live in the same housing unit or in connected premises and have common arrangements for cooking and eating their food.

Household Head - A person who economically supports or manages the HH or for reasons of age or respect, is considered as head by members of the HH or declares him/herself as head. Head of household could be male or female.

Immigration - A process by which non-nationals move into a country for the purpose of settlement.

Informal Money Transfer - is a system of remitting money to Ethiopia from overseas through non-banking sources, primarily money changers. Under this system, the money (foreign currency) given to a dealer abroad.

Kebele - The lowest administrative unit/hierarchy in the urban dwellers areas of Ethiopia.

Labourer - A person who participate in income generating activates as a contract base like construction and coffee processing activities.

Middle East countries - refer the countries Bahrain, Cyprus, Egypt, Iran (Persia), Iraq, Israel, Jordan, Kuwait, Lebanon, Oman, Qatar, Saudi Arabia, Syria, the United Arab Emirates, Yemen, the West Bank and the Gaza Strip.

Migration - The movement of a person or a group of persons, either across an international border, or within a State. It is a population movement, encompassing any kind of movement

of people, whatever its length, composition and causes; it includes migration of refugees, displaced persons, economic migrants, and persons moving for other purposes.

Petty Trade – Trades in commodities produced by others, that is conducted on a small scale or small inexpensive items.

Remittances/ Monetary remittances – Money/commodities brought or sent by migrants to their households living in their country of origin/migrant sending households.

Socioeconomic Impact – Refers to both social and economic impacts of migration to sending households especially remittance and remittance utilization.

1.8 Organization of the Study

The study is organized into five chapters. The first chapter covered the introductory part, which

includes, background of the issue, problem of the statement, objectives, research questions, scope and significance of the study. The second chapter deals with a literature reviews that are considered as relevant to the study. The third chapter covers methodology which comprises description of the study area, source of data, method of data collection and data analysis. The forth chapter follows findings and discussions of the survey data that were collected through questionnaire and focus group discussion. Based on the analysis and findings of the study reasonable conclusions and recommendations were provided in chapter five. Finally, list of reference materials and appendixes are included at the end of this thesis.

CHAPTER TWO

LITERATURE REVIEW AND CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK

2.1 Definition and Concepts of Migration

Migration is the movement of a person or a group of persons, either across an international border or within a state. It is a population movement, encompassing any kind of movement of people, whatever its length, composition and causes; it includes migration of refugees, displaced persons, economic migrants, and persons moving for other purposes, including family reunification (IOM, 2011).

In general, migration has literally been defined as the physical movement of people from one geographical area to another by changing residence usually not for less than a year (Aina, 1987). It has multidimensional aspects dealing with economic, social and political factors. It also involves localities, which are areas of origin and destination involving either change in residence for short or long periods of time.

The main characteristics of migration are a change of usual residence based on whether the movement is across administrative boundary (internal) or crossing a national boundary in which case it is identified as international migration: while internal migration refers to population movements within the boundaries of political administration of a country. There are four types of internal population movements occurring in a country in terms of place of origin and destination of migration pattern, which are rural to rural, rural to urban, urban to urban and urban to rural. Migration is a geographical or spatial movement involving a change of usual residence between two clearly separate geographical units and has been restricted to apply to relatively permanent changes in residence between specifically designated political or statistical areas or between types of residence (Shryock, 1973).

It is bare fact that we recognize while people sometimes get confused about the differences between human migration and mobility. Migration is not just a once or all move. The

movement of people can be broadly defined as temporary, semi-permanent or permanent change of location. From the definition, no restriction is made on the distance to move or its duration and no distinction is made between movements within a country and among countries. Whereas, mobility is a broad term covering all kinds of territorial movements including all kinds of territorial movements both temporary and permanent over various distances (Zelinsky, 1971).

2.2 Migration Theories and Approaches

In regard to human migration, numerous mini-theories or strong empirical generalizations have been formulated. Most have been verified by empirical research using good data and valid methodology. Hence, none can be rejected. That is why, many contemporary writers use them in some combination to guide their research and support their major analytical discourses. Yet, none of these mini-theories alone was able to yield adequate account of migration flows for the current and anticipated human mobility.

As a result, the chief migration theories of the day fall into four generic categories: neo-classical economic theory, economic development theory, globalization theory of migration and social network theory of migration. Presented below are the brief revisions of each theory.

2.2.1 The Neo-Classical Economic Theory

The neoclassical theory understands migration to be driven by differences in returns to labor across markets. The most basic model originally developed to explain migration in the process of economic development in the works of Hicks (1932), Lewis (1954) and Harris and Todaro (1970) highlights that migration results from actual wage differentials across markets or countries that emerge from heterogeneous degrees of labor market tightness. According to this theory, migration is driven by geographic differences in labor supply and demand and the resulting differentials in wages between labor-rich versus capital-rich countries. The central argument of the neoclassical approach thus concentrates on wages.

The classic exposition of this viewpoint is that of a push-pull perspective which emphasizes that the forces that stimulate migration are of two categories: positive and negative. Push-pull migration is seen not only as an escape from negative environmental conditions at home but as advancement to better living elsewhere. In this theory a migratory move is explained by a combination of both positive and negative factors. Mobility depends upon the net balance of pushes and pulls. A change of residence occurs only if the net positive attraction of other places is greater than the comforts of remaining in the same place. Whether or not mobility occurs is determined by the numbers and strengths of positive and negative forces.

2.2.2 Economic Development Theory

The second major theory assumes that population size and growth has been a major subject in determining the transition of developing countries to becoming modern developed economies. There are two major explanations in this theory. The first is the one developed by Fei and Ranis (1964). According to this explanation an underdeveloped economy requires two sectors, industry (urban) and agriculture (rural). The objective of development is to make both sectors more modern (efficient and productive). Development requires modernization of each. They argue that economic planners will give priority to the industrial sector over agricultural, because industry gives greater rate of return on development investments. This leads to urbanization and rural-to-urban migration.

The second explanation is the one given by Michael Todaro's "expectancy" concept. Accordingly, a modification of the Fei-Ranis urbanization model was developed as a rationalization for the phenomenon of dramatic urbanization in countries without commensurate industrial or commercial growth. "Urbanization without prosperity" was observed to occur almost everywhere in less developed nations. Urbanization simply transferred unemployment from rural to urban areas, in defiance of classical Fei-Ranis development theory. Most in developing nations have large expanses of shanty towns inhabited by bands of jobless or marginally employed squatters. According to Todaro, this occurs because it is not only the objective certainty of obtaining legal formal employment,

with better salary that attracts migrants from rural areas, but also the expectancy or possibility that eventually they will be able to do so.

2.2.3 Globalization Theory

Three major scholars (Castles 2009, Massey 1993 and Sassen 2000) are known to develop this theory. According to these writers, globalization is said to be a new force that emerged after World War II in which the growth of cross-border flows of trade, investment, products, ideas and people has accelerated dramatically and is creating transnational networks created by market forces, with nodes of control in multinational corporations with headquarters in some of the world's largest metropolitan centers. Technological advances in transportation and electronic communication have greatly abetted these international flows and networks. This results in rapidly increasing transnational behavior that simultaneously affects more than one nation but is under the full control of none (Massey *et al.*, 1998).

Movement of capital and commodities inevitably also creates the movement of people. In a transnational economy it is difficult to open borders for movement of information, commodities and capital and close them to the flow of people. Consequently, transnational migration has increased dramatically and today is one of the most important factors in global change. Globalization is decreasing the sovereign authority of all nations and curtailing their capacity for unilateral action. Multinational organizations including multinational corporations, World Trade Organization, International Monetary Fund and other supra-national institutions now are powerful influences in trade, banking, and government action. They establish rules and policies to which nations must conform (Sassen, 2000).

On the other hand, in Massey's version of global migration, all industrialized countries have been importing workers from developing countries in Africa, Asia, the Caribbean and the Middle East. The theoretical base for understanding this phenomenon remains mired in nineteenth-century concepts, models and assumptions. Theories of classical economics (both macroeconomic and microeconomic) are deficient in that they assume that migration is a decision taken by individuals rather than in consultation with family, that differentials in

wage rates and work availability are the only factors considered, and that all migration is a single permanent change of residence and excludes episodic or temporary extended residence abroad to support non-migrant relatives or to accumulate capital in order to invest back home (Massey *et al*, 1993).

2.2.4 Social Network Theory of Migration

Social network theory is well established in migration research. Following the initial migration moves of a country's pioneers, non-migrants in the origin areas become connected to migration destinations, where better employment opportunities as well as increased chances for socio-economic upgrading are thought to be found. Given the desirability of the destination and the access gained through social networks with previous migrants, the flow continues beyond the 'pioneers', as previous migrants mediate the migration of friends and family. Migrant networks facilitate the moves of newcomers by providing information about the new society and assistance, for example with housing and employment. The ways in which migrant networks contribute to reducing the costs of migration overtime, reduce selectivity and perpetuate migration has been well documented in migration research (Massey *et al*. 1993; Massey *et al*. 1998; Pellegrino 2004).

2.3 Causes of Migration

Many writers mention different factors as causes of migration. The causes may differ from individual to individual and from community to community. Such major factors as ecological pressure, economic incentives, psychological motivation, and political situations are considered to be the causes to migration.

2.3.1 Socioeconomic Causes

Social and economic causes are many and varied within countries that include defeat in war, a desire for material gain or food, and the search for political or religious freedom. Migration takes place when the benefits of migration are assessed by the migrants' in terms of comparative advantages. Departure by itself is not sufficient; there must also be something to attract the migrants in the destination like attraction of wages, conducive environment, agreeable job and more satisfactory way of life.

Migration in Africa has a long history of population movement aimed at different purposes and it is not a homogeneous phenomenon. Consequently, the pressure of poverty and unemployment increase in many cities of the world especially in developing countries as described as it mainly increased in Africa by the migration of many people from the severely deteriorating agricultural sector where most migrants lived in the rural areas. Many people of these countries are in absolute poverty and the prime cause of migration becomes difficult life in the rural areas. Individuals flee from their previous residences for survival and they decide to migrate in order to live or improve their living standards whether to urban or rural areas (Beaujeu, 1966).

The decision making entity expects to progress in economic and social benefits. Household decision-making is mostly common for predicting migration in less developed societies because they expect short-term migration, circulation and the common practice of remitting income home. Awareness on different ways in which migration and the flow of remittances bring or fail to achieve benefits of development programs and can provide a new perspective on development difficulties and lead to new options (Caldwell, 1969).

Rural to urban migration is not necessarily an area, from the more traditional to the less traditional, and from the largely subsistence to the largely cash economy. The interrelationship has been found even closer than this, for migrants have often stopped and sometimes worked in the towns in the course of a rural migration. There is a significant role of it in a society especially in linking largely subsistence agricultural areas in transferring cash and new knowledge and experiences that can promote development by influencing to communities of the country side. A lot of people migrate out of rural areas to urban places, others move from rural to rural or from urban to other urban areas based on the decision of individuals and their families in response to social and economic opportunities (Woods, 1982 and Caldwell, 1969).

2.3.2 Ecological Causes

Many researchers agreed that environmental factors are the main causes for migration (William, 1970). According to his investigation, soil degradation exposes the community to multi faceted problems like food shortage as a result of low productivity as the fertile soil is obviously washed away. Toppled by overgrazing and over cultivation, large number of the community will be accumulated in one place where there is relatively better fertile soil and abundance of related natural resources like water, forest and wildlife. When the unwise use of these natural resources happens, it exposes to food shortages, hunger, and malnutrition. Consequently, this accumulation of large number of human being results in conflict over natural resources. At the end, migration becomes one of the coping mechanisms from the effect of the ecological disturbances (William, 1970).

2.3.3 Political Causes

Political events that can occur during armed conflict also disrupt people's lives. Events of political instability will increase migration. People can migrate as a precautionary behavior, to avoid the possibility of future danger. They can also migrate as a reactionary behavior, in response to a worsening economy as results of these conflicts and increasing constraints on their livelihoods (Bundervoet and Philip, 2005).

One of the main issues today is the ever-increasing number of refugees and internally displaced people on the continent and its negative impact on the social, economic, political and human development. As Cohen and Deng (1998) put it, "large numbers of persons are regularly turned into 'refugees' and forced into a life of destitution and indignity". The figures produced by UNHCR in 2002 show that Africa produces and hosts 60% of the 17 million World's recognized refugees and internally displaced people. According to UNHCR (2005), the total population of concern to UNHCR, namely, refugees, asylum-seekers, stateless, and other people of concern, increased from 17 million persons at the end of 2003 to 19 million by the end of 2004.

Africa has the biggest share of this number with nearly three million refugees, often concentrated in regions with considerably inadequate capacities to host them. The current points of concentration of refugees in Africa are the great lakes region which is home to

nearly one and half million refugees, East and Horn of Africa which hosts an estimate of one million refugees and the West African block which hosts half a million refugees (UNHCR, 2005).

2.4 Impacts of Migration

It is clear that the impacts of migration are diverse. They include impact on population composition or size, economic productivity, income inequality, access to social services, family and kinship structure, social roles as well as values. There are different types of socioeconomic impacts caused by migration on sending-family and the community. Whether it is social or economic, the impacts of migration on the family are highly interrelated with remittances. And yet, remittances can positively and negatively impact on the living conditions of the sending households. Focusing the positive impacts of migration, in this study, I will particularly try to investigate two perspectives: the economic and social impacts of migration.

2.4.1 Remittances and Migration

Remittances are transfers of money by migrants to their country of origin. Despite the fact that its effect is a matter of great controversy, remittances constitutes one of the most central links between international labour migration and the consequence for countries of origin (Carling, 1996). Migrants influence the development of their home countries by the resources and assets they send or bring back with them (CDR, 2002). Remittances are an important resource for many households in developing countries, and because they move directly from person to person, they may have a more direct impact than other resource flows.

The benefits of remittances are selective. Often writers have implied that the effect remittance has on the livelihood of migrants depends on different factors and varies from situation to situation. The tendency of labour migrant to remit, the type of investment and saving; all tend to have effect on the use of remittance for livelihood security and the economic success of migration depends on the proper use of remittances. Migrants' remittances to their country of origin, which totaled US 401 billion in 2012 and are growing

fast, represents major vehicle for reducing the scale and severity of poverty in the developing world (Dilip, 2013).

According to Carling, there are different factors that affect the inclination of labour migrants to remit. Number of years since emigration, marital status, and household income level and income source, educational and occupational level is some of them (Carling, 1996). Taking the income level into consideration, for instance, most poor migrants, largely female, keep their savings in cash or invest in consumer items than migrants of relatively better economic background (Gamburd, 2002). High need to consume often leads to low capacity to save.

Migrants can be divided into three: pre-migration employment categories of principal earner, supplementary earner and non-contributor to the household finances. If the question of success is raised, most of the successful migrants are of the first category. But the majority of the total migrants are of the third category. Households that are used to subsistence-level income flows do not find it easy to manage the new household budgets or to think in terms of a well designed plan of consumption, savings, and future investments. And sustainable improvements result only through income earning investments (Gamburd, 2002).

Women working overseas are often expected to remit a considerable amount of their earnings to their families at home, and it is believed that women are sending higher proportion of their money back home than men (Piper, 2005). The success of a migrant depends more on the choices of her family than on her hard work. A successful migration seems to involve detailed planning supported in a combined effort of all members of the household (Gamburd, 2002). Success also requires that families continue to generate income in the country of origin in order to save foreign earnings.

Migrants remitting behavior is influenced by several factors, including, but not limited to, gender, age, education, marital status, and position in the family, as well as opportunities in the destination country. Though the importance of these factors is acknowledged in most studies, data are often not disaggregated by sex and other factors, and data from different countries sometimes show contradictory results (Orozco *et al.*, 2006).

At the global level, female migrants send approximately the same amount of remittances as male migrants. However, research suggests that women tend to send a higher proportion of their income, even though they generally earn less than men. They also usually send money more regularly and for longer periods of time (UN-INSTRAW, 2007). By sending smaller sums more often, women tend to spend more on transfer fees. Therefore, reducing transfer fees and making different transfer options accessible would benefit these women and maximize the positive impact of remittances on their families and communities.

In general, men mostly remit to their wives, while female migrants often send remittances to the person (often a woman) taking care of her children (UN-INSTRAW, 2007), to ensure that the money is spent for the benefit of the children and the household ((UN-INSTRAW, 2008a). Female migrants also tend to assume greater responsibility for money transfers to extended family members (Orozco *et al*, 2006). In patriarchal societies, when women marry, they frequently cease to send money to their own family, sending it instead to their husband's family (Piper, 2005).

For both men and women, being able to send money home is one of the decisive factors for migration. However, due to traditional gender roles, women migrants (especially single women) may be subject to particular pressure from their families to remit the largest part of their earnings to support their (extended) families back home. Due to this pressure and their feeling of responsibility towards their families, women migrants may accept very difficult living and working conditions (UN-INSTRAW, 2007).

2.4.2 Positive Impacts of Migration

Migration has generally many positive impacts on the sending family. In order to control the scope of this study, the economic and social impacts of migration which have direct relation with cost of migration and remittances will be thoroughly dealt with.

2.4.2.1 Economic Impacts

When economic motivations of migration have long been recognized, not so much has been said about economic development effects of migration on countries of origin and destination

(Holdaway and DeWind, 2005). Taking the case of areas of origin into consideration, migration may result in both positive and negative effects on development. CDR divides the consequence into different levels:

At the family level, migration may improve household earnings, giving people better food, health, housing and educational standards. At the community level, home town associations may serve as platforms resulting in significant development, such as improvements in local health, education, sanitation, and infrastructure conditions, benefiting migrant and non migrant households alike. Positive effects might spread to wider communities and society (CDR, 2002).

As CDR explained above, remittances by the migrants give huge economic support to the sending families.

i. Improving Livelihoods

The relationship between migration and livelihoods has remained to be an important issue of discussion. Migration has taken livelihood as its central concept. According to Sorensen and Olwig (2002) people migrate with the aim of diversifying livelihoods carried out at the place of origin. In such cases, livelihoods can be considered as mobile because people happen to make a living while they are on the move. Migrants continue to carry out their livelihoods while in migration. In doing so, they develop socioeconomic relations and cultural values.

It has been reported that migration, especially labour, supported poverty reduction and increased purchasing power of sending families at home. Quoting a recent report by World Bank, (Khuseynova, 2013) stated that migration contributed in poverty reduction in Tajikistan, especially in post-war period of late 1990s and beginning 2000s. According to this study, it was estimated that poverty rate in Tajikistan was reduced from 72% in 2003 to 40% in 2012. This livelihood improvement is the result of the remittances that the sending families are receiving. In Sri Lanka, the livelihood improvement was registered due to the increase income sent from their migrants (Ukwatta, 2010).

Monetary remittances has positive impact on migrants' households income and make them less vulnerable to adverse risks and unforeseen contingencies, such as illness, death of a relative, crop failure or natural disaster (Olimova and Kuddusov, 2007). At the same time,

these remittances, most of the time, do not permit the households to improve their investment capacity. Indeed, as the new economic theory of labour migration implies, migration and remittances allow households to overcome two major obstacles they face: the credit constraint and lack of insurance to hold against unforeseen adverse shocks (Mughal, 2007).

A report by the World Bank shows that migrant's families spend most of their family budget (75%) on food (World Bank, 2005). However, if by any reason the migrants stop or reduce sending of money to their families, the households were reducing their total expenditures on food to 47% (Olimova and Kuddusov, 2007). The migrants' remittances also allowed their households to improve their living standards: the remittances gave possibility to households to provide their family members with adequate nutrition, buy good clothes, and spend for better medical services to their households (ILO, 2007).

Migration is also believed to change the housing conditions of sending families. A study sponsored by (Arif, 2009) has shown the interest of migrant workers and their families in improving their housing conditions by investing remittances. In Pakistan, remittances enabled households to upgrade their homes from its previously bad condition to better conditions.

ii. Promoting Investment and Saving

Researchers on the field of migration put negative and positive impacts of migration regarding investment. With respect to the impact of migration as one of the investment promoter, as (Arif, 2009) found out, the migrant households used the remittances to invest in real estate, agricultural machinery, agricultural inputs and businesses, and to acquire savings as in the case of Pakistan, for example. Households were able to direct more than fair amount of money to investments and savings. This amount increases compared to households with no member of the family migrated for better job.

On contrary, research outcomes like from the World Bank affirms the previous assumption of high dependency of migrants' households on remittances sent by their migrant family abroad,

as well as their vulnerability to adverse risks in absence of remittances. This means, dependency syndrome inevitably comes real in some countries (World Bank, 2005).

2.4.2.2 Social Impacts

i. Gender Empowerment

In very poor countries of the world, one of the problems women face regarding gender equality is the fact that property in a household is controlled by men. This consequently makes women dependents on men in relation to right based lifestyles. It is proved that migrant women's active role as senders and recipients of remittances can act as a catalyst for change in gendered power relations, by improving women's decision-making, economic status and inclusion in the labour market (UN-INSTRAW, 2007). The same report indicated that as senders of remittances, migrant women may acquire a new role as primary provider for the family, whereas women staying behind may assume more responsibility, thereby obtaining more autonomy in managing household resources and taking on traditionally male roles in the community.

The percentage of women from the migrants' households on decision making was increased in Sri Lanka. In addition, the percentage of women who make the decision alone has been significantly increased (Ukwatta, 2010).

In developing countries, remittance takes the second largest source of external funding for development. Money transfers by migrants to their relatives or other persons in countries of origin are recognized by governments and international organizations as important tools for reducing household poverty and enhancing local development. However, it is often implicitly assumed in research, policy and programs on the issue that patterns of sending and using remittances are gender-neutral. In reality though, gender not only influences who migrates, when, where, why and how, it also affects the amount and frequency of remittances which migrants send home, as well as how the money is used (IOM, 2010).

Generally, it may be assumed that women's active role as senders and recipients of remittances can act as a catalyst for change in gendered power relations, by improving

women's decision-making, economic status and inclusion in the labour market. As senders of remittances, migrant women may acquire a new role as primary provider for the family, whereas women staying behind may assume more responsibility, thereby obtaining more autonomy in managing household resources and taking on traditionally male roles in the community (UN, 2007).

Though remittances may be a factor leading to a renegotiation of women's position in the society, socio-cultural factors such as education, religion and women's political participation play a significant role in determining gender roles. Macroeconomic events, such as the decline in remittances during the economic and financial crisis of 2009, can threaten the sustainability of changes, as they can negatively impact not only household welfare, but also girl's enrolment in schools and overall gender equality (Buvinic, 2009).

ii. Health Condition Improvement

Migration has been observed to increase health knowledge in addition to the direct effect on wealth, which has led to lower rates of infant mortality and higher birth weights in Mexico (Dilip, 2013). Visiting and returning migrants may also bring back health-improving practices such as drinking safe water and better sanitation (UNDP, 2009). Infants in remittances receiving families in Mexico and Sri Lanka have found to have higher birth weights. Visiting and returning migrants may also bring back health-improving practices, such as drinking water and better sanitation to their communities of origin (Dilip, 2013).

An ILO survey in 2007 also revealed that 35% of interviewed household heads and 42.5% of migrants' wives confirmed that theirs and their family members' health status improved since their household had gone to work abroad (Khuseynova, 2013). This research outcome therefore, indicated that the result was due to improved nutrition and access to better health care systems that became available due to remittances.

iii. Education

A study conducted by World Bank declared that migration contributes to human capital formation in the sending country. Explaining further it says that income from remittances is disproportionately spent on education and health rather than everyday consumption especially in Eastern African countries (World Bank, 2011). Accordingly to the study, children of migrants, once in school, may be more likely to finish their education, as the increased income from remittances provide additional financial resources and better prospects associated with migration influence social norms and incentives towards gaining more education.

Another study conducted on remittances has shown that households that receive it invest more heavily in child education than non-receiving households, as has been seen in Ethiopia and Sri Lanka. In these countries, children of migrants are more likely to be enrolled in private education as opposed to their counterparts. A cross-country comparison of six sub-Saharan Africa nations showed a strong and positive correlation between the average number of household member with a secondary education and receipt of international remittances from outside the continent (Dilip, 2013).

2.4.3 Negative Impacts of Migration

As one of the impacts of migration, increasing the risk for family breakdown, fragmentation of social networks and psychosocial stress could be worth mentioned (World Bank, 2011). The emotional impact is not just limited to the migrants themselves, but also to the family left behind. Especially in poorer households where the whole family cannot afford to emigrate together, they send one member at a time resulting in eroded family structures and relationships. As described by the World Bank report, the longer the separation between the migrating parents and their children, the more children lose parents' reference in the management of the household, their authority and their role as providers of love and material care (World Bank, 2011 and UNDP, 2009).

Migration can be a rewarding experience that it 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 (D'Emilio *et al.*, 2007). Especially temporary circular migration increases the risk for family breakdown, fragmentation of social networks and psychosocial stress (World Bank, 2011). Parents are gradually replaced by other family members, or the children take upon themselves the task of parenting. The feelings of rejection, abandonment and loss follow the children left behind, and cannot be compensated by the material gifts and remittances sent from abroad. 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).

Sustainability issue has been found as another serious negative impact of women out migration. If for any reason the migrants stop or reduce sending of money to their families, the households were reducing their total expenditures on food to 47% (Olimova and Kuddusov, 2007). This study implied the direct relationship in the high dependency of migrants' households on remittances sent by their migrant family abroad, as well as their vulnerability to adverse risks in absence of remittances (Khuseynova, 2013).

Even though migration is usually a voluntary and planned choice of the individual, the reality might turn out to be very different from the original expectations. Too often the intended aspirations of the migrants do not materialize but many are trapped in trafficking. Young women are exploited as sex workers abroad, and in many cases they have been promised legitimate work at the destination but then forced into prostitution upon arrival (Kebede, 2001). Consequently, this brings another negative impact of migration on the households: stress and psychological trauma the sending families are experiencing about the condition of their respective migrants. Migrants in the Middle East are sometimes confronted with difficult working conditions including physical abuses like beatings, burns and even rape (Gamburd, 2002).

2.5 The Ethiopian Context

With a population of about 84 million people (CSA, 2013), Ethiopia is the second most populous country in Africa next to Nigeria. Despite the remarkable economic growth recorded recently, Ethiopia still remains to be one of the poorest countries in Africa. The proportion of the population living below USD 1.25 per day is 39% (World Bank, 2010). In urban areas, which accounts for less than 20% of the population, unemployment is the most serious problem while landlessness, overpopulation, drought hazards, floods and diseases have been recorded among the top problems in rural Ethiopia.

Consequently, many of these economic problems are directly and indirectly contributing to migration. Various research results have shown that both men and women communities in Ethiopia are using both intra-migration and out-migration as a viable coping mechanism to get out of poverty. To be specific, most of the economic factors contributing to out-migration in this country are those related to low employment opportunities at the local level, low wage rates, low income, impoverished life and limited access to basic means of production such as land and credit facilities (ILO, 2011 and Katie, 2014).

A very recent study by UNU – MERIT, as cited by (Andersson, 2014), migration highly impacts on the household asset and promoting investment in a country like Ethiopia. Ethiopia is one of the top 10 remittance receiving countries in Sub-Saharan Africa. The inflow of remittances to the country has increased dramatically in recent years, from 46 million USD in 2003 to an estimated 387 million USD in 2010.

However, international migration has been by far difficult compared to internal migration due to high cost of migration (transportation and administrative costs like visa processing) and the tough legal requirements. An estimated 0.6 million Ethiopians (0.7% of the total population) live almost in all continents of the world (World Bank, 2010).

According to a study by a UN agency, Ethiopian migrants reside in different parts of the world. The study reported that Saudi Arabia (24 percent), the USA (20 percent), Sudan and

the United Arab Emirates (12 percent) and South Africa (8 percent) are the common destinations. Other destinations include Israel, Qatar, Kuwait, Canada, the UK and Yemen (Andersson, 2014).

Due to geographic proximity and the nature of the labour market, the Middle East had been one of the common destinations for Ethiopian migrants till 2013, especially for young females who work as domestic workers (ERTA, 2013). While international labour migration was restricted under the former socialist regime, the current government made the right to free movement part of the constitution and everyone willing and able to go abroad is nowadays allowed to do so. Lebanon, Saudi Arabia, Kuwait, Yemen, Oman and the Gulf States (in particular Dubai and Bahrain) have become major destinations as well. Some women use the Umra and the Hajj as a pretext to leave for Saudi Arabia and transit to other Arab countries, even when they are not Muslims (Kebede, 2001). Unfortunately, reliable statistics are lacking because many women migrate via illegal channels and are not registered. Police reports about the illegal migration of Ethiopians to the Middle East, reports of NGOs and newspaper articles suggest increasing (Kebede, 2001).

The working environment in the Middle East is very hostile and the emigrant workers face different challenges including physical abuses by their employers who are most of the time private families. There are evidences that some of them get back home with serious mental and physical illness. The problem is more serious for those who migrate through illegal means. The salary is also low by international standard (Kebede, 2002). All the problems faced by the migrants notwithstanding, many young Ethiopians (especially those who come from low income households) still consider migration to the Middle East as a viable means to help themselves and their families.

A research supported by Massachusetts University disclosed the problems of the migrants as poor treatment of domestic workers and lack of protection of Ethiopian workers in the Middle East. According to this study, women in negative situations fled the house of the employer and went to the police. By leaving the house of their employer, they violate their work contract, and are then placed in jail by the police (Gulchekhra, 2013). It is a pity; the

research reported that when in prison, women who attempted to contact the Ethiopian consulate were not receiving any support.

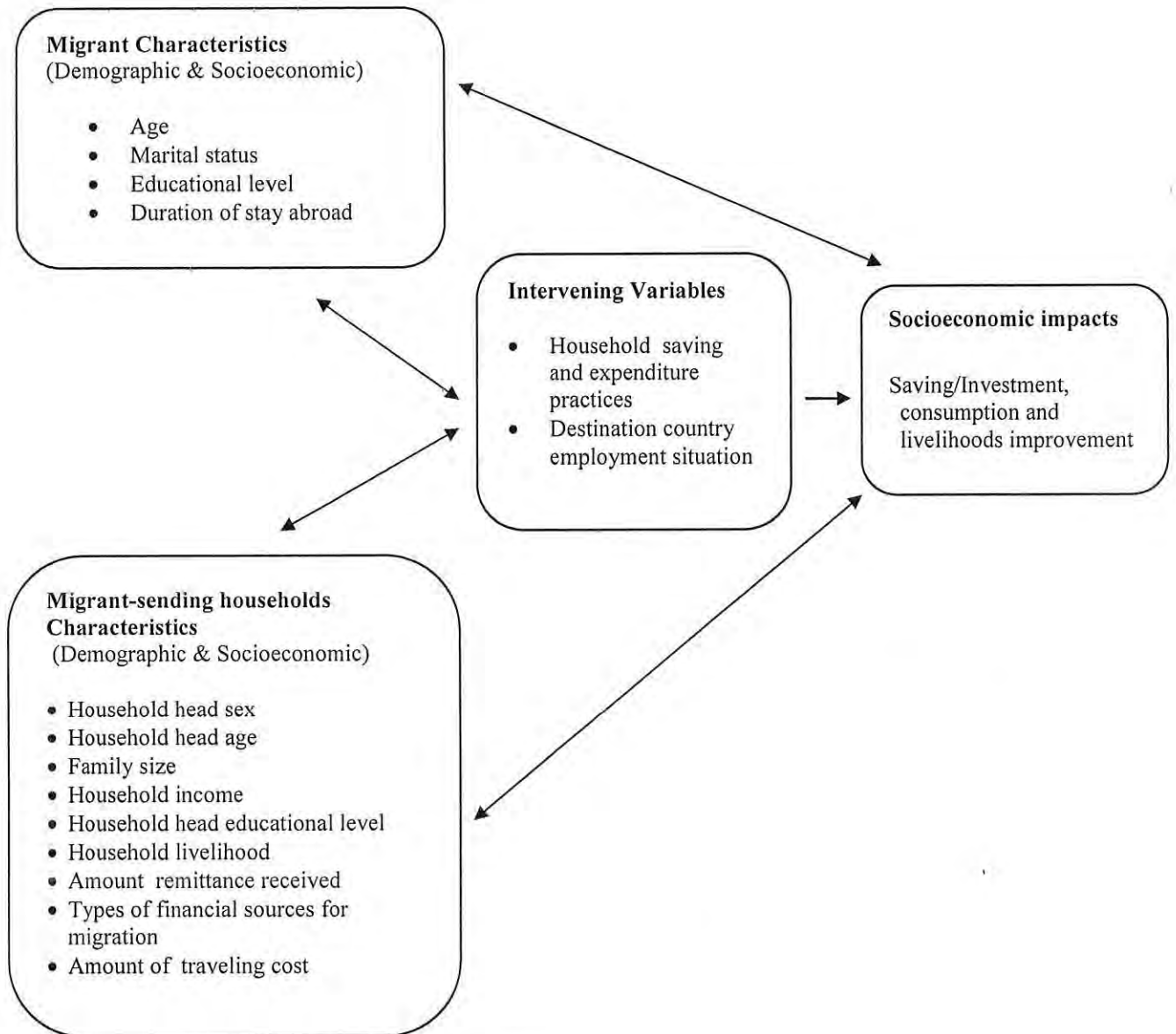
Cognizant of the severity of the problem, the Ethiopian government temporarily banned any form of labour migration to the Middle East countries in October 2013, following the ever increasing suffering of its citizens by their employers in those countries. In this study, therefore, I am limited to investigating the out migration of women from 2003 to 2012

2.6 The Conceptual Framework

The following conceptual framework was made from the reviewed literature to show migration/remittance effect on sending households saving practice.

Looking at the conceptual framework, lots of studies evidenced that some variables do influence migrant sending-households saving practice. From these variables migrant characteristics like age, marital status, education level at the time of departure and duration of stay are the most common. Similarly, sending-household characteristics like HH head sex, HH head age, family size, HH head education level, HH income, HH livelihood, amount of remittance received, amount of traveling cost, sources of finances for covering the traveling cost, have significantly affected the migrant sending-households saving practice.

Figure 1. Conceptual Framework



Source: Developed by the Researcher, 2014

CHAPTER THREE

DESCRIPTIONS OF THE STUDY AREA AND THE RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

3.1 Descriptions of the Study Area

3.1.1 Study Area

The geographic area of this study is Jimma Town which is the capital of Jimma Zone of the Oromia Regional State, located 350 kilo meter away from the country capital Addis Ababa in south west of Ethiopia. Based on the 2007 census, Jimma Town has a total population of 120,960 of whom 60,824 were men and 60,136 were women. With an area of 15,568.58 square kilometers, the town has 13 Kebeles (CSA, 2010).

CSA has projected Jimma Town population as 149,166 in 2012. The projection was based on the results of the 2007 national populations and Housing Census of the whole country. This latest figure shows an increase of 23.32 percent in five years time (CSA, 2013).

Table 1, show the distribution of population of the town by Kebele, number of households and sex disaggregation of them.

Table 1. Jimma Town Total Population (Kebele Household Size and Population)

No.	Kebele Names	Both Sexes	Male	Female	Number of Households
1	Aweytu Mendera	9,394	4,446	4,948	2,585
2	Becho Bore	19,459	10,002	9,457	5,391
3	Bosa Addis Ketema	7,601	3,787	3,814	1,981
4	Boso Kito Ketema	11,000	5,121	5,879	3,143
5	Ginjo Guduru	8,062	4,164	3,898	2,533
6	Ginjo Ketema	15,940	8,651	7,289	3,954
7	Hermata	6,337	3,132	3,205	1,698
8	Hermata Mentina	9,552	4,773	4,779	2,216
9	Hermata Merkato	6,160	3,118	3,042	1,522
10	Jiren	2,183	1,054	1,129	459
11	Mendera Qochi	10,168	5,385	4,783	2,830
12	Mentina	7,660	3,629	4,031	2,105
13	Sato Semero	7,444	3,562	3,882	1,774
Total		120,960	60,824	60,136	32,191

Source: CSA 2007 Census published in 2010

In the past, the number of people involved in income generating activities through micro and small scale entities were very few. But this reality has been gradually improved in the recent years.

According to the recent information from the town (Micro and Small Enterprises, 2014), there were 3,619 enterprises registered as Micro and Small Scale Businesses in the town. 16,307 young people (8,714 male and 7,593 female) trained and engaged in the above enterprises, in addition to these there are three microfinance and credit services providers. However, the rate of unemployment in the town is higher for female (27%) while it is 12.5% for male (CSA, 2010).

3.1.2 Population of the Study

The entire population of the study included those households in selected five Kebeles in Jimma Town who already have had one or more women family member migrated to one of the Middle East countries between 2003 and 2012. Therefore, individuals and families related to these events were considered eligible to participate in providing information for the study.

3.2 The Research Methodology

This study has employed cross sectional research design and used both qualitative and quantitative data collection methods. Mixed method was deliberately used to minimize inherent limitation of a single method as this is largely descriptive survey research. In this section sampling technique and data collection methods were described.

3.2.1 Sample Size Determination

Since it was impossible to include all population in this study, some criteria of selection was applied in determining a representative sample. Accordingly, the study used a simple random sampling technique to choose households from the list in the sample frame prepared ahead.

Out of the sample frame of 682 migrant sending households found by enumerators through home to home survey who qualify the selection criteria, appropriate size was used to determine households to be included. The study used the following common formula to determine the size (Kothari, 1990).

$$n = \frac{p * (1 - p) * Z^2}{e^2}$$

Where:

n = Sample size

P= Estimated proportion of respondents. As the proportion is not known, 0.5 is used as P-value to obtain maximum number of the respondents.

Z= The number of standard error corresponding to 95 percent confidence interval which is 1.96.

e = Margin of error that the researcher tolerates which is 0.05

The total number of sample included in the study

$$n = \frac{0.5 * (1 - 0.5) * 1.96^2}{0.05^2} = 384$$

With 5 percent contingency the total number of the respondents were= 384+19= 403

By using large sample size, we can get the clear image of the study population.

3.2.2 Sampling Procedures

Among 13 Kebeles in the town, five Kebeles were selected randomly using simple random sampling with the assumption that Middle East migrant sending households were evenly distributed, have relatively the same livelihood status and all are located within the urban area of the town. Since there was no readymade list of migrant households for selected five Kebeles, the researcher preferred to go ahead with identifying the migrant household with the help of Kebele administrators before conducting the survey. A total of five Kebele administrative staff members' enumerators were deployed and identified sending households in fifteen days.

The following selection criteria was applied

- The household should have at least one woman family member who migrated to one of the Middle East countries from 2003 to 2012.
- The migrant should have stayed at least two years in the destination country, since it was believed that two years used to see significant impacts of the migration.
- The household should have a head or a person who could provide adequate information about the migrant and the household.

The list of households who fulfilled the eligibility criteria set by the study were identified through house to house survey through trained enumerators and the numbers of households selected from each of the selected five Kebele was proportional to the total number of migrant sending-households of the Kebele as depicted in the table below. Individual households were identified from the selected Kebeles lists of migrant sending households by using simple random sampling method. Finally, the data were gathered from these households through trained data collectors.

Table 2. Distribution of Sample Migrant Households per Kebele

No	Name of Kebele	Total Number of Household	Number of Household with Migrant	Proportion per Kebele
1	Becho Bore	5,391	222	131
2	Mentina	2,105	103	61
3	Hermata Mentina	2,216	118	70
4	Mendera Qochi	2,830	137	81
5	Hermata Merkato	1,522	102	60
	Total	14,064	682	403

Source: Field survey data (2014)

3.2.3 Data Collection Methods

In the study, both quantitative and qualitative data were used to answering the research questions. These two approaches used to avoid the limitation of each approach. The sources of data include primary as well as secondary. The study employed the following instruments and procedures to gather the required information.

3.2.3.1 Data Collection Instruments

Two major data collection instruments namely structured questionnaire and Focus Group Discussion (FGD) were employed to collect the necessary data.

i. Questionnaire

The questionnaire was the main tool used to gather the necessary data from the target respondents. It was designed for collecting data for the target households from whom the data was obtained. The purpose of the questionnaire was to collect demographic and socioeconomic characteristics of migrants and sending households. It was also used to assess socioeconomic impact of migration to sending households. Even though it was initially prepared in English, it was also translated in to Amharic and Afaan Oromo languages to make the medium suitable for respondents' so that they can easily understand and answer them. The questionnaire includes both closed ended and open ended question items. The survey was conducted by seven trained data collectors. (See Annex III).

ii. Focus Group Discussion (FGD)

Two FGDs were conducted in two selected Kebeles which have relatively the highest and the lowest number of population. Each FGD was formed by a group of five participants from the sending family, local administration, return migrant, and religion elder members related to the issue. Data were gathered and discussed on the point mainly on how migration of women from each Kebele affects the socioeconomic status of sending families.

The aim of this focus group discussion was to probe and explore detail factors involved in the issue. In addition to this, the FGD was used to supplement more data on the primary data instruments.

The FGDs were conducted by the researcher who was also supported by experienced and trained data collectors. They have particularly provide support in interpretation of the local languages and writing the points discussed.

Furthermore, the questionnaire was piloted in ten households who have migrant women and relevant experts were consulted to validate it.

3.2.3.2 Data Collection Procedures

The study used the following procedures to undertake the data collection activities.

- a. The researcher recruited local enumerators who have experience in conducting similar survey and provide training as to how they collect the information needed and deploy them for the collection of data.
- b. The questionnaire and other data collection instruments were translated to Amharic and Afaan Oromo to easily communicate with all participants. It was also pretested for appropriateness and applicability of the instruments. Accordingly, identified weaknesses like ambiguity of sentences, were addressed before the questionnaire is actually administered to participants.
- c. The list of households for participation in the study was prepared for each Kebele.
- d. Through local administrators, participants of the FGD were approached and gathered.
- e. The data gathering was supervised closely to make sure that it was done in accordance with the ethical procedures.
- f. If there are more than one migrant in the family consider the pioneer woman migrant only.

3.2.4 Data Presentation and Analysis

After the data was collected, questionnaires were edited, coded and entered into SPSS software for the analysis. Descriptive statistics, such as frequency, percentages, ratios, means, standard deviations, and Chi-squares, were used for analysis and presentation. A bivariate analysis was used to describe the relationship between different independent and dependent variables. Further, binary logistic regression model was carried out to explore the net effects of all independent variables on the dependent variable, which is dichotomous, by controlling possible intervening variable. In addition qualitative data from FGD were presented through narration and discussion.

3.2.5 Model Specification

A Logistic regression model was employed so as to explore the correlates of sending household saving practice with the variables which are important in explaining it. The dependent variable has a dichotomous value: households participating in saving and not participating. The explanatory variables considered in the analysis are migrants and migrant sending households and demographic and socioeconomic characteristics. The logistic regression model, the natural logarithm of odds ratio is expressed as a linear function of various independent variables.

$$\ln (P/1-P) = B_0 + B_1X_1 + B_2X_2 + \dots + B_kX_k$$

Where P= probability of participating in saving activity

X_1, X_2, \dots, X_k = independent variables (predictors), and

$B_0, B_1, B_2, \dots, B_k$ = the regression coefficients, which have to be estimated from the data.

3.2.6 Discussion and Interpretation

Once the data were analyzed, appropriate discussion held and interpretations made to show what it means as per the research questions outlined earlier. Besides, the study findings compared and contrasted with other similar studies to examine the situation in perspective and come up with appropriate conclusion and recommendation for the future.

3.2.7 Variables Identification

Two main variables were explored in this study: the dependent (regressed) and independent (explanatory). The regressed variable is saving of remittance on migrant sending household and that of the regressors/explanatory variables were the determinants of saving; those variables which are thought to have significant role in determining dependent variable. In spite of the fact that a number of explanatory variables could influence the incidence of saving directly or indirectly, in the study, only few variables, which are believed to play dominant roles, were analyzed. It is also difficult to obtain the exact amount of remittance expenditure for every expenditure category like food, education and so on. The following summarizes the variables.

Table 3. Description of Dependent and Independent Variables

Variables Code	Measurement	Variable Type
Dependent Variable		
Increment in saving	Yes	Categorical
	No	
Independent Variable		
Migrant Demographic and Socioeconomic Variables		
Age	16-20	Continuous
	21-25	
	> 25	
Educational level	Primary (1-8)	Continuous
	Secondary (9-12)	
	Above secondary	
Marital status	Married	Dummy
	Others	
Duration of stay abroad	$\leq 4^a$	Continuous
	> 4	
Household Demographic and Socioeconomic Variables		
Sex of household head	Male	Dummy
	Female	
Age of the household head	$\leq 49^a$	Continuous
	> 49	
Educational status of household head	Illiterate	Dummy
	Literate	
Financing source of migration	Household Saving	Dummy
	Others	
Income level of the household (in Birr)	$\leq 1,080^a$	Continuous
	> 1,080	
Household size	1 - 3	Continuous
	4 - 6	
	7 - 12	
Average remittances received (in Birr)	$\leq 10,000^a$	Continuous
	> 10,000	
Household livelihoods	Petty trade	Categorical
	Others	
Traveling cost	$\leq 7,000^a$	Continuous
	> 7,000	

a. Limits are around mean values

Source: Developed by the author, (2014)

3.2.8 Ethical Consideration

Ethical issues was taken into account seriously in every step of the study process. First letter of support was secured from Addis Ababa University, College of Development Studies, Center for Population Studies. Then Jimma Town municipality wrote letters to five Kebeles of the town to assist the researcher process.

The researcher had recruited seven enumerators and one supervisor, who were trained for two days on the research procedures and ethical issues. The enumerators were told to inform the respondents that their response will be kept confidential and to be used only for academic purposes. Finally, the respondents' right not to respond for any specific question(s), to stop the interview at any time and stage, and the right not to involve in the research at all was ensured by the researcher as important ethical considerations.

All procedures were applied in study participants received their deserved human rights. Accordingly, the study will be planned and applied the three principles of ethics: human dignity, justice and benefit.

CHAPTER FOUR

MAJOR FINDINGS AND DISCUSSIONS OF THE FINDINGS

This chapter presents the results and discussion of major findings. It is based on the basic research questions set out at the beginning of the study and aims to provide answers to those key questions. In doing so, the section will discuss and reflect their implications as per the objective of the study.

A total of 403 migrant sending household respondents were interviewed obtain reliable information about the migrants and their families. In-depth information on the major socioeconomic and demographic attributes of the migrants and their families were collected on the basis of pre migration history.

4.1 Demographic and Socioeconomic Profiles of Sending Households And Migrants

In this section the basic demographic and socioeconomic characteristics of sending households and migrant women before departure is examined.

4.1.1 Demographic and Socioeconomic Characteristics of Sending Households

4.1.1.1 Age-Sex Distribution of the Sampled Household Head

The respondents were asked to report the age and sex of the household heads' in years at the time of the study. As can be seen from the below Table 4, the majority (68.7%) of the migrant-sending households were headed by male and the rest (31.3%) by female. From the total sampled, 258 (64.2%) have household head in the age group 36 -55, and 94 (23.3%) were in age group 56 and above. Among female heads of the sampled households, 90 households (71.4%) were found in the age group 36 -55 years.

Table 4. Distribution of Household Head by Age and Sex

Age Group	Sex Composition				
	Female		Male		Total
	Frequency	Row %	Frequency	Row %	Frequency
<=35	13	25.5	38	74.5	51
36 – 55	90	34.9	168	65.1	258
56+	23	24.5	71	75.5	94
Total	126	31.3	277	68.7	403

* The minimum and maximum ages of migrant sending household head 25 and 75 years respectively

* Average age of migrant sending household = 48 years

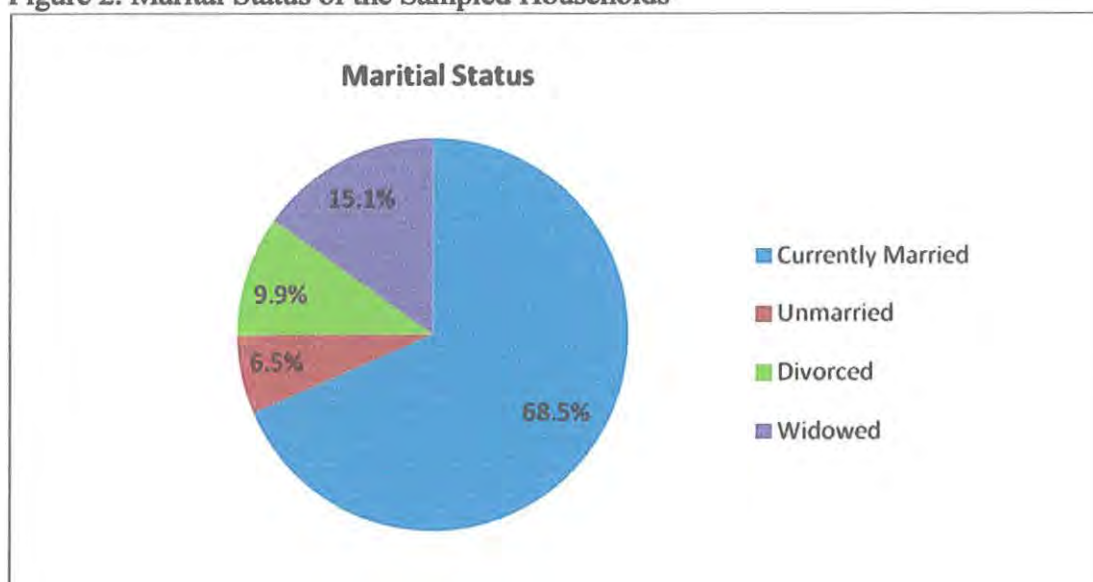
* Median age of migrant sending household = 49 years

Source: Field survey data, (2014)

4.1.1.2 Marital Status of the Sampled Household Head

Regarding marital status of the household heads as ascribed in Figure 2 below, one can easily recognize that most, 68.5%, of the sampled household heads were married, 15.1% widowed, 9.9% divorced and the rest 6.5% were unmarried (brother or sister of the departed). The data clearly showed that majority of the migrants were living with and supported by their parents prior to departure. Most of the migrants sending families were from the married households.

Figure 2. Marital Status of the Sampled Households



Source: Field survey data, (2014)

4.1.1.3 Households Size

The household size of the respondents ranged from 2 to 12 persons per household (these figure does not include the migrant). Out of the surveyed households, 20.6 percent have had three or below three family, 52.6 percent of them had from four to six, where as 26.8 percent had more than seven individuals. As indicated in Table 5, the average size of sending households were 5.3 persons, which is greater than the average size indicated in the census of 2007 (3.6) for the town of Jimma. This difference is probably due to the low level of education of household heads and the nature of the occupation (petty trading) of the households who participated in this survey. It is easy also to understand from the study that households with large family size compared with the town average (3.6 persons per family) participated in sending migrants.

Table 5. Distributions of the Household Size of Respondents

Family Size	Frequency	Percent
1 – 3	83	20.6
4 – 6	212	52.6
> 7	108	26.8
Total	403	100.0
Average	5.3	

Source: Field survey data, (2014)

4.1.1.4 Religion, Ethnicity and Educational Level of the Household Heads

Regarding the religion of respondents, the majority (68 percent) were Muslim. Christian religion followers constituted 28.5 percent and others were only 3.5 percent. On the other hand their ethnic distribution showed Oromo 56.1 percent, Guragae 14.4 percent, Amhara 14.6 percent and 14.9 percent belonged to “other” category. See the table below.

Table 6. Household Head Distributions by Religion and Ethnicity

Religion and Ethnicity of Head	Frequency	Percent
Religion		
Muslim	274	68
Orthodox	115	28.5
Other	14	3.5
Total	403	100
Ethnicity		
Oromo	226	56.1
Guragea	58	14.4
Amhara	59	14.6
Other	60	14.9
Total	403	100

Source: Field survey data, (2014)

From the above data, one can see that highest proportions of the sending households are Muslim religion followers from Oromo ethnicity. The reason behind this figure is, as also confirmed by the CSA (2010) and the random sample selected households in the study area; majority of the households in Jimma town are Muslim Oromos.

Table 7 revealed 210 (52.1%) heads responded that their educational status was from grade 1 to 8. 130 (32.3%) heads of households attended secondary education and more, whereas 63 (15.6%) household heads of the total 403 respondents never attended formal education. However, significant number of the respondents who had never attended formal education (55.6%) were able to read and/or write. The study indicated that low educational level of households' heads contributed in sending large number of migrants.

Table 7. Household Head Education Level

Education Level of Head	Frequency	Percent
No formal education	63	15.6
Grade 1 – 8	210	52.1
Above grade 8	130	32.3
Total	403	100

Source: Field survey data, (2014)

4.1.1.5 The Livelihood of Households

The main sources of income for migrant sending households in the study area included petty trading (44.9%), daily labour (24.6%), and regular salary from government or private institutions (21.3%). Other sources of income included house rent, farming and pension constituting 9.2% of the total. Even though the average monthly income of the sampled household was 1,080 Birr, the amount of individual household may range from 350 to 5,000 Birr per month. The average monthly income of the households was obtained from the respondents' annual average income report during the research. The implication of the data is that poor households send many migrants. The average monthly households' income (USD 56) was by far smaller than the minimum amount of money set by World Bank for existence (1 USD per day per individual). Table below indicates the details.

Table 8. Main Sources of Households Income with Out Remittances

Main Source of Living of the Household	Frequency	Percent
Petty Trade	181	44.9
Labour	99	24.6
Monthly salaried	86	21.3
Other sources	37	9.2
Total	403	100.0

* Currency rate between USD and Ethiopian Birr - 1 USD = 19.42 Birr

Source: Field survey data, (2014)

Generally, when we examine the demographic and socioeconomic characteristics of sending households, most of the households' heads were above 36 years old, married household heads with an average household size of 5.3 individuals. The main source of livelihood of the sampled household was petty trade and daily labour with an average monthly income of 1,080 Ethiopian Birr per household. Besides, most of these households were Muslims and ethnically Oromos. This characteristic is also true in the national census conducted in 2007 of Jimma town, where the majority were of a similar background in religion and ethnicity (CSA, 2010).

4.1.2 Pre-Migration Demographic and Socioeconomic Characteristics of Migrant Women

4.1.2.1 Age and Marital Status of Migrants

The migration of Ethiopian workers to the Middle East countries is selective, most of them are young girls or women. From the survey data presented in Table 9, 204 (50.6%) migrants were between 16 to 20 years of age, 134 (33.3%) were between 21 to 24, 61 (15.1%) were between 25 to 29 and the remaining 4 (1%) were aged above twenty nine at the time of migration. Similarly, the mean age of the migrants at the time of migration was 21.2 years. As indicated in Table 9, the majority of migrants were unmarried before departure (77.7%) while the remaining were either married, divorced, or widowed (22.3%). This study confirmed previous report compiled by MoLSA (2011) indicated the predominance of young women in migration.

Table 9. Age and Marital Status of Migrants Before Departure

Age Group	Marital Status								
	Unmarried		Married		Divorced		Widowed		Total
	Frequency	Row %	Frequency	Row %	Frequency	Row %	Frequency	Row %	Frequency
16 - 20	183	89.7	14	6.9	6	2.9	1	0.5	204
21 - 24	98	73.1	29	21.6	7	5.2	0	0	134
25 - 29	29	47.5	19	31.1	11	18.0	2	3.3	61
Age > 29	3	75	0	0	1	0.5	0	0	4
Total	313	77.7	62	15.4	25	6.2	3	0.7	403
Average Age	21.2								

Source: Field survey data, (2014)

4.1.2.2 Household Head and Migrant Relationship

The relationship of household head to the migrant was largely parental (mother or father) which constitutes 78.4 percent of the cases, this is followed by the brother or sister relationship with the migrant (14.6 percent) and 5 percent of the head were husband of migrant. Even if the number is too small (about 2 percent) some of the migrants had other relationships like uncle, aunt and grandparent. The majority of the migrants were young (21.2

average age) and they had been living with their mother and/or father prior of departure. On the other hand, some of the migrants (only 10.9 percent) were reported to have one or more children whom they left behind before departure.

Table 10. Household Head and Migrant Relationship

Household Head-Migrant Relationship	Migrant have Children				
	Yes		No		Total
	Frequency	Row %	Frequency	Row %	Frequency
Head is parent to migrant	25	7.9	291	92.1	316
Head is brother/sister to migrant	5	8.5	54	91.5	59
Head is husband to migrant	13	65.0	7	35.0	20
Other	1	12.5	7	87.5	8
Total	44	10.9	359	89.1	403

Source: Field survey data, (2014)

The data in the Table 10 above clearly revealed that workers engaged in the overseas labour market mostly before getting married and to some extent after they get married. In addition to these pre-migration characteristics of migrants, most of the migrants (77.2 percent) were born as first or second born in their family.

4.1.2.3 Migrant Education and Employment

Migrants' educational status before departure indicated that 40.9 percent of them had an educational status from grade 1 to 8, 47.6 percent (the majority) had an educational status from grade 9 to 10, and from the total of 403 migrants, only 11.4 percent completed grade 10 or above. Similarly, data compiled by MoLSA (2011) on Middle East migrant education level from June 2010 to June 2011 shows that 60.82 percent have completed grade 10 or less. Here, one can see the fact that migration is selective (age, sex, education, marital status), Ethiopian women migrants who were with low educational level leaved their home to engage in elementary occupations, mainly domestic works.

Table 11. Pre-Migration Education and Employment

Education/Employment	Frequency	Percent
Education		
Grade 1 – 8	165	41.0
Grade 9 – 10	192	47.6
Above Grade 10	46	11.4
Total	403	100.0
Employment Status		
Participate in any income generation activity directly	102	25.3
Didn't generate income	301	74.7
Average monthly income (for migrant who involved in income generating activities) in Birr	390	

Source: Field survey data, (2014)

A quarter of the migrants participated under income generating activities prior to migration and their average monthly income was 390 Birr. The remaining three-quarter of the migrants were not involved in any kind of direct income generating activities at all as they were either a student and/or participated in some domestic activities while in Ethiopia.

4.2 Reasons for Migration to Middle East Countries

Most of the respondents replied that their initial source of information about destination countries were either previous migrants or relatives and/or friends. The survey respondents were asked to tell about the main reasons of their family member/s for migration. Accordingly, multiple responses were obtained of which most of them have more than one push factor, 42.93 percent of the sampled households reacted that there were two reasons and 9.93 percent were mentioned three reasons, but economic problem (unemployment or underemployment) alone was found to be the most dominant reason for the migrants to the Middle East countries (38.96 percent).

It seems that the religion of household heads contributed as a source of information especially for those migrants going to Saudi Arabia. This is shown from the data in Table 6 that indicates 68 percent of sending households were reported to be Muslims and they used attachment of Haji and Umra to leave their home country and depart to Saudi Arabia.

The economic element of the issue is not surprise as many studies previously conducted have indicated it as the main factor in the past as well. According to the CSA 2010 the unemployment rate for Jimma Town was 27 percent for female and 12.5 percent for male. In addition, if we closely look at the educational status and income level of the migrants it is evident that a significant portion of them are forced out to engage in such kind of opportunistic departure. Most of them felt they are obligated to support not only themselves but also their family members by doing so.

The FGD participants strengthen the data collected from individual respondents regarding reasons for migration. The fact that majority of the migrants did not participate in any form of income generating activities, make them economically weak and dependents on their families which lead them to migration for better economic opportunity.

Table 12. Reasons for Migration

Reasons for migration	Frequency	Percent
Economic problems (Unemployment/Underemployment)	157	38.96
Peer pressure	11	2.73
Family pressure	7	1.74
Broker pressure	4	0.99
Presence of other family member in MECs	2	0.5
Family conflict	9	2.23
By a combinations of two reasons from the above	173	42.93
By a combinations of three reasons from the above	40	9.93
Total	403	100

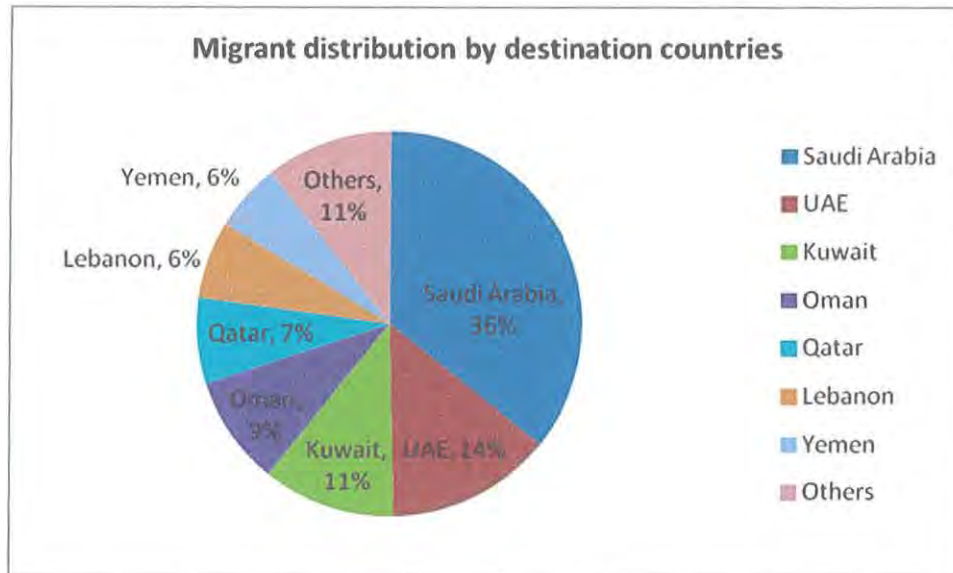
Source: Field survey data, (2014)

4.3 Migrants' Destinations and Duration of Stay Abroad

4.3.1 Destinations of Migrants

The following figure shows distribution of migrant women across different Middle East destination countries. Saudi Arabia takes the highest percentage among other destination countries, 36 percent of the migrant women moved to this country. Similarly, UAE take 14 percent and Kuwait 11 percent of the migrants among countries in the Middle East like Oman, Lebanon, Yemen, etc.

Figure 3. Migrant Distributions by Destination Countries



**From the total 403 households, 29 (7.2%) households have additional male migrant family members in Middle East.*

Source: Field survey data, (2014)

The Ethiopian government's legal agreement to work with Saudi Arabia, Kuwait and UAE increases the likely hood of migration to these countries. There were 176 legal travel agencies in Ethiopia which facilitate these migrations legally. Some of these have branch offices in Jimma Town even if they were banned at the time of the study. Moreover, participants of the FGDs reported that the religious similarity of destination countries contributed to driving factors to migrant women, especially to Saudi Arabia.

4.3.2 Duration of Stay

As stated in sampling procedures under chapter three, only those migrants who had been abroad for a minimum of 2 years and a maximum of 12 years were included in the survey. Table 13 reveals that the mean duration of stay for currently non returned migrant workers is 3.6 years. For this survey, the migrants were classified into two categories according to their duration of stay abroad, those who were in Middle East countries at the time of the survey for four or less years in one category and the over four years duration in other category. In addition, 80 migrants were returned to their households during the time of survey. The

duration has been used in terms of the analyses of salaries, remittances and the utilization of remittances.

Table 13. Duration of Stay Abroad for Non Return Migrants

Duration of Stay Abroad	Frequency	Percent
Four years and less	251	62.3
Above four years	72	17.9
Returned migrants	80	19.9
Total	403	100
Mean duration of stay abroad (years)	3.6	

Source: Field survey data, (2014)

4.3.3 Return Migrants

Reponses from the families of the migrants indicated that migrants were returned home even though they liked to stay there. Table 14 witnessed that from the total of 80 returnees' households 35 percent mentioned contract termination, 30 percent deportation and 18.75 percent declared health problems for the return.

Table 14. Cause of Return and Future Plan for Migration

Causes of Return and Future Plan	Frequency	Percent
Cause for returned		
Contract termination	28	35
Deportation	24	30
Health problem	15	18.75
Investment	5	6.25
Other Causes	8	10
Total currently returned migrant	80	100
Returned Migrant Future Plan		
No plan for migration	52	65
Migrate to other country	18	22.5
Migrate to previous country	10	12.5
Total	80	100

Source: Field survey data, (2014)

Asked about the future plans of returnees, 65 percent of the households heads reported that they have no plan of migration in the future, 22.5 percent have plan to migrate to other countries, and still 12.5 percent have plan to migrate to Middle East counties. Most of the returned migrants did not have interest to migrate again.

As reported from returned migrates due to different reasons (deportation, contract termination, health problem & others), they experienced migration stress. They indicated that they were not happy to migrate back to the same destinations as it had trauma in their lives so far. The FGD participants agreed with this idea in that, the money generated through stressful situation is not worth improving their lives. This situation showed an association with recent deportation of illegal migrants from Saudi Arabia. Sources obtained from Jimma Town Labour and Social Affairs office indicated that 160 women and 77 men migrants were deported from Saudi Arabia due to the government's actions on illegal migrant on 2013/14.

4.4 Economic Impacts of Migration on Sending Households

This sub category aims at discussing on traveling cost, sources of money, amount of remittances, methods of transferring remittances and impacts of remittances on receiving households.

4.4.1 Travel Cost and Sources of Money to Cover It

In the survey, an attempt was made to obtain information on the total cost of migration by asking the sampled households to report the money they paid for an agent and to purchase a visa, air ticket, medical examination, identity card, local transportation and passport. The average total cost of migration for the migrant as computed from the survey was approximately 6,977 Birr per individual with no major difference between using legal travel agencies and illegal ways (Table 15).

As indicated in the following table, there is no major difference in migration cost to reach destination countries using legal or illegal channels. The average cost of migration was 6,977 Birr. Even though the average traveling cost was 6,977 Birr, there was a huge difference in

individual cost of migration; it ranges from 2,000 to 20,000 Birr. From the total migrant families response one can understand that 72.95 percent of the migrants used legal travelling agencies as means of travelling.

Table 15. Cost of Migration, Destination Countries and Travelling Means

Average Total Cost of Migration /Destination Country	Travelling Means						Total Sample	Average Travelling Cost
	Legal Agencies		Illegal Trafficking		Haj & Umrah			
	No of Migrants	Average Travelling Cos	No of Migrants	Average Travelling Cost	No of Migrants	Average Traveling Cost		
Destination country								
Saudi Arabia	103	6,714	31	5,567	10	9,800	144	6,695
UAE	46	6,956	10	7,900			56	7,125
Kuwait	33	7,547	12	7,316			45	7,384
Oman	30	7,116	7	7,571			37	7,202
Qatar	23	7,588	6	8,166			29	7,706
Lebanon	23	6,326	3	7,333			26	6,442
Yemen	11	5,863	12	6,733			23	6,317
Beirut	11	7,390	9	6,833			20	7,140
Bahrain	7	6,214	4	6,375			11	6,272
Other countries	7	7,571	5	9,800			12	8,500
Total	294	6,917	99	6,870	10	9,800	403	6,977

Source: Field survey data, (2014)

MoLSA publicized that migrants are expected to pay for a total travel cost including passport, visa, medical examination, document authentication; 1,460 Birr for Saudi Arabia, 3,297 Birr for Kuwait and 922 Birr for UAE through legal travel agents (excluding transportation cost). These costs did not include payments for agents and air tickets since they are not legally expected to receive payment from migrants in advance. However, during FGD discussion, the participants reported that the agents needed large amount of money amounting up to 15,000 Birr to facilitate the process informally through brokers.

The survey found various ways of finance sources the migrants arranged for going abroad. From these sources of finance, 30.27 percent were obtained by borrowing from other persons, 16.63 percent from the household saving, 6.54 percent from support covered by others, 5.96 percent from sales of property, 2.73 percent from personal saving of the migrants before departure. The percentage of personal saving was very small because about 75 percent

of the migrants did not engage in any income generating activities before departure, 37.97 percent of the migrants covered the required travel cost by using more than one means from the above. These indicated that most migrant sending families were among weak economic conditions (Table 16).

Table 16. Travel Cost and Sources of Money

Source s of Financing the Cost of Migration	No of Households	Percent
Borrowing/loan	122	30.27
Household saving	67	16.63
As a support covered by others	26	6.45
Sale of property	24	5.96
Personal savings of migrants	11	2.73
More than one sources from the above	153	37.97
Total	403	100

Source: Field survey data, (2014)

Since most of the migrants were unemployed prior to migration, they were unable to cover their costs by themselves. Consequently the cost was largely covered from other sources such as household saving, barrowing, and supports by other individuals, and sales of household properties. However, the significant numbers of migration costs were covered by loan as sending households are very poor to do it by themselves. Most also use more than one combination of sources to cover this cost indicating their low economic status and the difficulty to cover the cost.

4.4.2 Remittances and Methods of Transfer

When we analyze income, the income of migrants and that of the households are the most critical factors in determining the amount of remittances. That means, low-income family's livelihood depends mainly on remittances, so it is likely that the migrants of these families will remit regularly to assist their families.

4.4.2.1 Remittances Received by Migrant-Sending Households

In this survey, the migrant households were asked about the estimated total remittances they received from the time their family member went to one of the Middle East countries, particularly the remittances they received in the last two years preceding the survey (2012 and 2013). The amount as well as destination countries are indicated in Table 17 below.

Table 17. Recent Remittances from Migrant Workers in Middle East Countries

Destination Country	No of Migrants	Remittance Received per Household			
		in 2013	in 2012	Total in 2013 & 2012	Average per Year
Saudi Arabia	134	11,654	9,168	20,822	10,411
UAE	52	12,423	10,750	23,173	11,587
Kuwait	44	14,807	13,352	28,159	14,080
Oman	34	10,676	8,662	19,338	9,669
Qatar	29	14,965	14,310	29,275	14,637
Lebanon	26	12,769	10,923	23,692	11,846
Yemen	22	12,568	12,864	25,432	12,716
Beirut	19	12,632	8,000	20,632	10,316
Bahrain	11	9,454	8,545	18,000	9,000
Other countries	9	8,556	8,500	17,056	8,528
Total	380	4,685,600	3,974,000	8,659,600	4,329,800
Average per household	380	12,331	10,458	22,788	11,394

Source: Field survey data, (2014)

As shown in Table 17 above, the average amount of remittances received per household during the last two years preceding the survey was 22,788 Birr. There were differences from destination country to country in terms of the amount of remittances received. Households who sent their family members to Qatar received the highest remittances than other destination countries. This can most likely be attributed to the higher monthly earning of the migrants than those working in other Middle East countries. On the other hand, 23 households (5.71 percent) out of the sampled 403 households did not receive any remittance in the last two years; the average duration of stay for most of the migrant was below four years.

In addition to money remittance, some of the migrants had been sending different equipment for their households. Table 18 shows the number of households who received different kinds equipment from the destination countries. 157 households received at least one type of

equipment sent by migrants and consequently, most of the households receive clothes. When we examine items received across destination countries, Saudi Arabia and United Arab Emirates take the lion's share.

Table 18. Households Items/Equipment Sent by Migrant Workers

Items Sent by Migrant	Items (Multiple Responses are Possible)					Household Numbers		
	TV/Camera /Tape/Mobile	Cloths	Cosmetics	Kitchen Equipments	Others	Received Items	Not Received Items	Total
Destination country								
Saudi Arabia	14	54	41	19	3	59	85	144
UAE	5	19	11	8	1	22	34	56
Kuwait	4	11	7	1		11	34	45
Oman	3	11	3	4	1	13	24	37
Qatar	2	13	9	4	2	16	13	29
Lebanon	4	13	7	3		16	10	26
Yemen	1	8	4	4		10	13	23
Beirut	2	2	1	2	1	2	18	20
Bahrain	1	4	1	1		4	7	11
Other countries	1	2		3	2	4	8	12
Total	37	137	84	49	10	157	246	403

Source: Field survey data, (2014)

4.4.2.2 Methods of Transferring Remittances

The channels used for sending money home have always been at the centre of policy debate. In this survey, this issue was explored quite extensively by asking respondents about the main transfer channels used to receive remittances. Table 19 indicates data on the total number of migrants by the methods of the use to transfer remittances and frequency of receiving remittance during two years preceding the survey. Regarding the total sample, 93.16 percent of the households received the remittances from Middle East migrants through formal banking transfers and 6.84 percent of the total were transferred through the informal money transfer and visiting relatives/friends.

Looking at frequency or pattern of sending remittance, from the total migrants, 94.29 percent of them send money to their households. From these migrants, 46.32 percent sent on quarterly base and 30 percent semi-annually.

Table 19. Methods Used to Transfer Remittances

Pattern of Remitting	Methods			
	Bank	Informal Money Transfer	Total	Percent
Monthly	30	2	32	8.42
Quarterly	167	9	176	46.32
Semi-annually	103	11	114	30
Annually	38	2	40	10.5
More than a year	16	2	18	4.7
Sub-Total	354	26	380	100
Average	93.16	6.84	100	
No remittance at all			23	
Total			403	

Source: Field survey data, (2014)

Even though many of the households reported to receive remittances through banks, FGD participants indicated that significant amount is received largely through informal money transfer system, out of conventional banks. This is particularly true for migrants living in Saudi Arabia.

4.4.2.3 Remittances and Household Income

Figures in the table below point out the importance of remittances as household income. Compared to the average annual income of sending households (12,960 Birr per year), the average amount of received in remittance (11,394 Birr per year) seems to be significant. This additional income obtained through remittance increases household income by 87.9 percent.

Table 20. Main Sources of Household Income after Migration

Main source of income for sending Household after migration (Household No)	Frequency	Percent
Locally generated income as the same as before migration	161	39.95
Remittance	74	18.36
Other income generating activities locally opened by the migrant (business, vehicle ...)	22	5.46
More than one sources from the above	146	36.23
Total	403	100
Average yearly income of the household (in Birr)	12,960	
Average yearly remittance (in 2013 and 2012) per household (in Birr)	10,743	

Source: Field survey data, (2014)

From Table 20 above we can understand that for 18.36 percent of the migrant sending households remittance were the main sources of income of living after migration, 5.46 percent of the households were dependent by locally opened income generating activities by migrant, 36.23 percent of the households use remittance as a supplementary income source. Contrary to this, 39.95 percent of the households did not use remittance as their main means of income source.

4.4.2.4 Use of Remittances

Before discussing about utilization of remittance, it is crucial to note that 62.8 percent of the households received remittance on an irregular pattern. According to information collected during the survey, households used remittances for different purposes like food, health services, education, loan payment, saving and improving the condition of their houses. However, it was difficult to obtain the exact expenditure numerically allocated for each of the above lists as most of the households used the remittance for more than one purposes. Table 21 presents data on the number of migrant sending households and the utilization of the received remittances. Though remittance receiving households have been utilizing parts of the remittances for different purposes, three priorities have found during data collection period. The three most common uses of remittances from the 403 sample households, 248 used parts of the remittance for food, 228 for saving/investment and 222 were for loan repayment, 371 migrants paid back their traveling cost.

Table 21. Uses of Remittances Received

Receiving pattern and Uses of Remittances	Frequency	Average
When do you receive the remittance		
When I appeal for assistance	48	11.9
At regular monthly or yearly amount	79	19.6
Whenever the migrant is pleased sending money	253	62.8
No remittance	23	5.7
Total	403	100
Number of HHs used part of the remittance (Multiple responses are possible)		
Food	248	61.5
Saving	228	56.6
Loan payment	222	55.1
Health services	110	27.3
Education	54	13.4
Improve the condition of the house	3	0.7

Source: Field survey data, (2014)

In the study, it was tried to associate remittances and food expenditure among the sending families. In line with this, remittance expenditure on food values has shown an inverse relationship with the monthly income of the household. Table 22 below tells households with low monthly income (less than or equal to 1,000 Birr per month) most of the time used remittances for food (67.18 percent).

Table 22. Household Monthly Income and Remittances Expenditure for Food

Monthly Household Income Before Migration (in Birr)	Remittance Used for Food		Total	Row % for Yes
	No	Yes		
Less than or equal to 1,000	85	174	259	67.18
1,001 - 2,000	60	68	128	53.13
Greater or equal to 2,001	10	6	16	37.50
Total	155	248	403	
Percentage	38.46	61.54	100	

Source: Field survey data, (2014)

This finding indicated that remittance have a positive impact in the livelihood of sending households as their nutritional and other social needs are met through its use. In fact, 74 households (18 percent) reported that remittance is the main source of their livelihood. Most

of these households are women headed widowed families as the FGD discussion found out. Saving and investment covers large amount even though the investment is of small scale in terms of expanding their petty trade and saving some amount for the migrate to be used when she will be back in the future.

4.5 Social Impacts of Migration on Sending Households

To examine the social impact of migration and remittances on the sending households, some questions were presented to the households. The focus was on education and utilization of health services. The social impact of the money received is also considerable as households cover their education and health services from this source. Several studies indicated that women migration and child education are highly correlated and children are supported by it. However, since most of the migrants in this study did not have children left behind due to migration, the impact has not seen significantly on their children.

4.5.1 Education

From the total sample, 54 households used the remittance for household members' education expenses but among these households there was a significant variation in respect to migrant and household head relationship. Accordingly, in households where the head is husband to migrant, the remittance expenditure for education was high (6 HHs out of 20 HHs or 30%). This percentage was lower if the household head was brother/sister and parent to the migrant.

Table 23. Use of Remittance in the Households for Education Purposes

Head Relationship with Migrant	Use for Education		Total
	No	Yes	
Head is husband to migrant	14	6	20
Head is brother/sister to migrant	51	8	59
Head is parent to migrant	276	40	316
Other	8	0	8
Total	349	54	403

Source: Field survey data, (2014)

4.5.2 Health Services

Household monthly income and remittance used for health service have also indirect relationship. From the survey, we can simply recognize relationship between utilization of remittance for health services and household average monthly income. From the total 403 household, only 112 households (27.8 percent) used the remittance for health services. Table 24 below shows 28.96 percent of households with average monthly income of less than or equal to 1,000 Birr used the remittance for health services but 12.5 percent of households with average monthly income of greater than or equal to 2,000 Birr used it for health services.

Table 24. Household Monthly Income and Remittances Expenditure for Health Services

Monthly Household Income (in Birr)	Remittance Used for Health		Total	Percentage for Yes
	No	Yes		
Less than or equal to 1,000	184	75	259	28.96
1,001 - 2,000	93	35	128	27.34
Greater or equal to 2,001	14	2	16	12.5
Total	291	112	403	
Percentage	72.2	27.8	100	

Source: Field survey data, (2014)

4.6 Negative Impacts of Migration on Sending Households

In order to identify negative impacts of migration on sending families, respondents were asked to forward their opinions focusing on what they missed at home as a result and if they ever worried for the migrant.

As ascribed in Table 25, households were identified that migration of their family member to Middle East countries created negative impacts. The gap migrants created among their family especially on domestic works takes the highest rate. 34.49 percent households from the total 403 responded they missed migrants' contribution. Similarly, while 13.15 percent of the households declared that they were victims of economic dependency, 15.38 percent suffered from family separation problems. There are also reports forwarded (13.15 percent) as

combinations of the above problems. Yet, 21.59 percent of the households said that there were no negative impacts.

Furthermore, it is possible to conclude that the highest gap observed regarding domestic work (75%) was because most migrants were staying at home and had never been engaged in income generating activities before departure.

Table 25. Negative Impacts and Sources of Worries on Sending Households

Negative Impacts and Sources of Worries	Frequency	Percentage
Negative Impact of Migration in the sending HH (Multiple responses are possible)		
Create HH dependency on remittances	53	13.15
Family separation/dissolution	62	15.38
Loss of migrant support in domestic activities	139	34.49
Loss of pre-departure income/employment	6	1.49
Other	3	0.74
More than one responses from the above	53	13.15
No negative impact perceived	87	21.59
Feelings of Worry when the Migrant was Away (Multiple responses are possible)		
She may encounter disease/health problems	354	87.84
She may encounter abuses like sexual	218	54.09
Anxious that whether she achieves economic success/failure	142	35.24
Anxious that she may face deportation/contract termination	128	31.76
Pull effect of migrants departure on other family members		
Other family member motivated for migration	170	42.18
Household head interest for other family member to migrate	118	29.28

Source: Field survey data, (2014)

In addition to the above mentioned negative consequences, households felt worried about migrants the situations they might be in. Some of the common sources of worry include health condition, sexual abuse, economic success and deportation. Whatever the worries, about 42 percent of the household heads reported that migration of women to Middle East countries motivated other family members to migrate and 29.28 percent of the household heads also supported other family members for migration will be good.

4.7 Saving Behavior of Remittance-Receiving Households

4.7.1 Bivariate Analysis

Migrant sending households use the remittance for different purposes. There is a need to explore the saving behavior of the migrant households in order to understand what factors lead to significant difference in saving. As described earlier, migrant sending-households use the remittances for, food, education, health cost, loan payment as well as saving.

Different socioeconomic and demographic variables of the migrants and sending-households were used to determining saving behavior of households. From these variables, age of the migrant, educational level of the migrant, marital status of the migrant, duration of stay abroad, sex of HH head, age of HH head, educational level of HH head, sources of finance for the cost of migration, non remittance income level of the household, household size, amount of remittance received, household livelihood, and amount of traveling cost were used. To examine whether significant association exists between the dependent and a set of predictor variables Chi-square test was used, as shown in the Table 26 below.

Migrant marital status before departure has been found to be the variable which exhibited a significant degree of association with increment in saving. From those households who showed an increment in the household saving, higher proportion of migrants marital status (59.5 percent) were not married and was more than that of married (41.5 percent) at the time of departure ($\chi^2=7.133$, $p<0.01$).

Educational status of household head was the variable which has association with saving. The proportion of literate heads (58.2 percent) showed an increment in saving and was more than that of the illiterate heads (33.3 percent) but their number in the sample was very low. The Chi-square test value indicate $\chi^2 = 6.363$, level of significant $p=0.01$ and degree of freedom 1.

With regard to financing cost of migration and household saving behavior, financing the cost of migration from sending-household previous saving had influenced the household saving.

Out of the total respondents financed the cost of migration from household saving, 74.2 percent of them participated in saving as a result of remittance, but 54.1 percent for other sources like loan and sales of property. The Pearson Chi-Square test indicated that there is statistically significant association between source of finance for the cost of migration and household saving ($\chi^2 = 33.26, P < 0.01$).

Non remittance household income categorized in the second group in the Table 26 below (average monthly income greater than 1,080 Birr), was of the highest proportion of 66 percent being participated in saving activity. The other group with average monthly income of less than 1,080 Birr was found relatively small (51.4 percent). This indicated that there is statistically significant association between income of the household and saving ($\chi^2 = 8.05, p < 0.01$).

The other variable which influenced the household saving activity was the amount of remittance received. Out of households receiving more than 10,000 Birr per year as remittance, 76.7 percent showed an increment in their saving capacity. In contrast, only 41 percent of the households who earned remittances of less than 10,000 Birr per year were able to participate in saving ($\chi^2 = 51.53, p < 0.01$).

The proportion of households with livelihood other than petty trading 60.8 percent were increased their saving and were more than that of petty trading livelihoods (51.4 percent). This indicated that there is statistically significant association between households livelihood and saving ($\chi^2 = 3.609, p < 0.036$).

Household saving capacity and ability was also found to be influenced by the amount of expenditure the sending households utilized for migration. From those households who allotted more than 7,000 Birr for sending purposes, 66.1 percent were able to participate in saving. On the other hand, from those who relatively paid less than the aforementioned money 49.6 percent were found to be participated in saving capacity ($\chi^2 = 10.926, p < 0.001$). The other variables that were identified at the starting of the study were not significant factors in determining household saving behavior even if they show percentage of differences.

Table 26. Chi-Square Test Result of Association of Some Selected Factors with Saving

Variables		Increment in Saving		χ^2	Df	P-value
		Yes	No			
Migrant grouped age at Migration	16-20	117 (57.4)	87 (42.6)	0.659	2	.719
	21-25	94 (57.0)	71 (43.0)			
	Age >25	17 (50.0)	17 (50.0)			
Migrant educational level at migration	Primary (1-8)	86 (52.1)	79 (47.9)	2.325	2	.313
	Secondary (9-12)	123 (60.0)	82 (40.0)			
	Above secondary	19 (57.6)	14 (42.4)			
Migrant marital status at departure	Others	201 (59.5)	137 (40.5)	7.133	1	.006**
	Married	27 (41.5)	38 (58.5)			
Migrant duration of stay abroad (Year)	Year \leq 4	172 (55.8)	136 (44.2)	0.285	1	.340
	Year > 4	56 (58.9)	39 (41.1)			
Sex of HH head	Male	154 (55.6)	123 (44.4)	0.346	1	.316
	Female	74 (58.7)	52 (41.3)			
Age of HH head	Age \leq 49	114 (56.4)	88 (43.6)	0.003	1	.517
	Age > 50	114 (56.7)	87 (43.3)			
Educational status of HH head	Illiterate	9 (33.3)	18 (66.7)	6.363	1	.010*
	Literate	219 (58.2)	157 (41.8)			
Financing cost of migration	Household Saving	118 (74.2)	41 (25.8)	33.255	1	.000**
	Other Sources	110 (54.1)	134 (54.9)			
Household income	\leq 1,080	133 (51.4)	126 (48.6)	8.053	1	.003**
	>1,080	95 (66.0)	49 (34.0)			
Household size	1-3	46 (55.4)	37 (44.6)	1.247	2	.536
	4-6	116 (54.7)	96 (45.3)			
	7-12	66 (61.1)	42 (38.9)			
Remittance received	\leq 10,000	93 (41.0)	134 (59.0)	51.531	1	.000**
	>10,000	135 (76.7)	41 (23.3)			
Household livelihood	Petty trade	93 (51.4)	88 (48.6)	3.609	1	.036*
	Others	153 (60.8)	87 (39.2)			
Traveling cost	\leq 7,000	115 (49.6)	117 (50.4)	10.926	1	.001**
	>7,000	113 (66.1)	58 (33.9)			

a. Figures in parenthesis are percentages

*. Significant at the 0.05 level

**. Significant at the 0.01 level

Source: Computed from Field Survey, 2014

4.7.2 Multivariate Analysis

The bivariate analyses used in this study could only show the association between the dependent and independent variables using the Chi-Square statistics. However this cross tabulated result cannot show the independent variables exact influence over the dependent variable as the influence of the other variables was not controlled. To see this net effect, logistic regression was applied to those variables that had shown significant association in the bivariate analyses.

Multicollinearity Effect

The most crucial assumption in the logistic regression analysis which is more often violated is that the independent variables should be uncorrelated or at least weakly correlated among themselves. To assess multicollinearity effect in linear regression analysis Variance Inflation Factor (VIF) and Tolerance are two measures that can guide a researcher in identifying multicollinearity.

In the linear regression analysis, for all variables the value of Variance-Inflation Factor (VIF) were found to be less than 2 and the tolerance was more than 0.8; meaning that there is no multicollinearity effect. (See annex I, Table A.1)

Goodness of Fit Test

The goodness of fit of a model measures how well the model describes the response variable. The Hosmer and Lemeshow test table shows that the significance is 0.8 which is greater than 0.05. This implies that we failed to reject the null hypothesis that there is no difference between observed and predicted model value, implying that the model well fitted the data. (See annex I, Table A.2)

We can also assess the utility of logistic regression model used using classification accuracy table, depicted below, which compares predicted group membership based on the logistic model to the actual, known group membership, which is the value for the dependent variable. The diagonal entries of the table show that 175 out of 228 (76.8 percent) households who involved in saving activity were correctly predicted. Similarly, the model correctly predicted

111 out of 175 (63.4 percent) households did not show an increment in saving. Generally, 71.0 percent of the 403 valid cases were correctly predicted. Therefore, the model is appropriate for the data.

Table 27 Classification Table

Observed		Predicted		
		Increment in Saving		Percentage Correct
		Yes	No	
Increment in Saving	Yes	175	53	76.8
	No	64	111	63.4
Overall Percentage				71.0

Source: Computed from field Survey, 2014

Table 28 below indicates among the seven variables, which have associations with household saving activity discussed under bivariate analysis above included in logistic regression analyses migrant marital status before departure, financial sources to cover traveling cost, the amount of remittance received and the amount of traveling cost for both legal and illegal travelers were found to be significant in determining households saving increment at 95% confidence level.

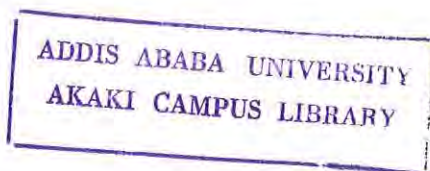


Table 28. Result of Logistic Regression

Variables	Category	B	S.E.	Wald	df	Sig.	Exp(B)	95% C.I. for EXP(B)	
								Lower	Upper
Migrant Marital Status	Others (RC)								
	Married	-0.617	0.312	3.901	1	0.048*	0.54	0.293	0.995
HH Head Education	Illiterate (RC)								
	Literate	0.525	0.484	1.181	1	0.277	1.691	0.656	4.363
Financial Source	Others Sources (RC)								
	Household Saving	1.086	0.248	19.249	1	0.000**	2.962	1.824	4.812
HH Income	<= 1,080 (RC)								
	> 1,080	0.347	0.243	2.037	1	0.154	1.415	0.878	2.28
Remittance	<= 10,000 (RC)								
	> 10,000	1.363	0.237	33.077	1	0.000**	3.909	2.456	6.221
HH Livelihood	Others (RC)								
	Petty Trade	-0.412	0.236	3.055	1	0.080	0.662	0.417	1.051
Traveling Cost	<= 7,000 (RC)								
	> 7,000	0.528	0.235	5.041	1	0.025*	1.696	1.069	2.69
	Constant	-1.238	0.498	6.166	1	0.130	0.29	-	-

*significant at 0.05 levels, **significant at 0.01 level (RC): Reference category
Source: Computed from field Survey, 2014

Amount of remittance

With regard to amount of remittance received by the households, the logistic regression analyses revealed that the likelihood of households indicated an increment in saving as amount of the remittance increased. From the above table, it is easy to understand that *ceteris paribus* for households with remittance greater than 10,000 Birr, the likelihood of the increment in saving was 3.909 times higher than those who received less than or equal to 10,000 Birr.

Financial source for traveling

Sources of financing to cover migrant traveling costs had significant influence on households' saving. After keeping other variables constant, for those households who covered the cost of migration from previous household saving sources, the likelihood of the increment in saving was 2.962 times higher than those who covered cost of migration from other sources like loan and sales of property.

Migrant marital status before departure

The impact of pre migration marital status of migrant had significant influence on households' saving. This could be due to the fact that remittance receiving households with married migrant utilize the remittance for day to day expenditure. After keeping other variable constant, for those migrants who were married before departure, the likelihood of households' increment in saving was 0.54 times lower compared to the reference category.

Amount of traveling costs

As regards to amount of expenditure for traveling, the logistic regression analyses revealed that the likelihood of households for an increment in saving increased as the amount of the traveling cost increased. We can observe that, *ceteris paribus*, for traveling cost greater than 7,000 Birr, the likelihood of an increment in saving was 1.696 times more likely than that for the reference category, less than or equal to 7,000 Birr expenditure.

4.7.3 Discussion on Regression Results

The first step in conducting the regression analysis was to identify the major variables that could affect the saving capacity of remittances receiving households. Accordingly, it was found out that some of the socioeconomic and demographic variables have had effects on sending households while others do not. More specifically, amount of remittance received, migrant marital status before departure, sources of finance for the cost of migration and amount of traveling cost in the study area have had significant impacts on saving.

Looking at the effect of migrant marital status before departure, when departed family member is married, it is relatively less likely that the receiving households will use remittance for saving purpose compared to families of those unmarried. This is probably due to the fact that most of households with married migrant families have been using the remittance received for day to day expenditures. This is also true from other studies where remittance from female migrants often sent to her children and wants to ensure that the money is spent for the benefit of the children and the household (UN-INSTRAW, 2007). As a result the remittance is rarely used for saving in contrast to migrants who were unmarried before departure.

The second variable analyzed through regression was the relationship between the amount remittance received and the saving migrant sending households. There have been arguments on the influence of the amount received on families saving. A study conducted by Pham and Harrod have indicated that many migrant families who receive smaller amount of remittance usually use the remittance for household consumption rather than for savings and investments (Pham and Harrod 2008). Similarly the regression result of this study also showed that the amount of remittances received is positively correlated with the likelihood of saving. The greater the amount of remittances received, the more likely the household is to direct remittances to saving.

In the other hand the study indicated that household savings, sales of property and loans from friends and relatives were the major sources for financing the overseas migration. When sending households used previous household saving to cover the cost migration, the possibility of remittance to be used for saving is higher. This is either because they are economically well to do in the first place and/or they were less likely to be forced to utilize the remittance received for consumption or to pay back their loan.

Finally, the regression analysis showed that there were a linear relationship between the amount of cost of migration and the likelihood of saving practice. That means those households who expend much more money for their family member travel is more likely to save than for those who expend less for the migration. It could be very difficult to speculate

the reason behind this relationship. But this could be a result of the fact that those who paid more could give more attention or concern for the utilization of their remittances as they have scarified much more than those who paid less.

In the regression analysis variables like household size, migrant's duration of stay abroad and non-remittance sending household income didn't affect significantly remittance usage on saving, therefore the researcher would like to suggest further study to be conducted to identify the reason for insignificant relationship of these variables with the dependent variable or saving.

CHAPTER FIVE

CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

5.1 Conclusion

Migrant sending families are influenced by economic and social factors to send their children to Middle East countries. The overwhelming evidence from the study is that migrant families gain a significant economic benefit from migration since there is an increase in the household income, improvement in living conditions and daily consumption, an increase in the ability to invest in productive and non-productive items, and an increase in saving. While the transfer remittances have changed the lifestyles of migrants and their families and the gendered roles of migrants and their family members, the separation of migrant women for longer periods has created several problems in migrant families.

This study was intended to assess the socioeconomic impacts of women migration to the Middle East countries to their families also determine some of the driving factors for such kind of migration. In doing so, the socioeconomic and demographic characteristics of migrants and sending families, the process and cost of their migration and the resulting outcomes of migration in terms of changing the livelihood of sending households in Jima Town have been analyzed.

Generally, it is found that there was a relatively considerable flow of migrates from the study area (Jimma) to Middle East countries particularly Saudi Arabia, United Arab Emirate and Kuwait. However, it was not entirely clear why this town is largely affected by the out flex as the reasons found in the study were similar to other areas. The study clearly indicated that the migrants were pretty much young with an average age of about 21 years old. This probably indicates that most of the migrants were not as such prepared to handle the expectations, duties and responsibilities that come with the migration. On the other hand, they have to adapt to the culture and perform in their job while meeting the expectations of their families back home in terms of sending back some money to support them.

Looking in to the socioeconomic status of their sending households, it is possible to see why most aspire to leave for migration as they were largely from poor families who earn about 1,100 Birr per month an average. It shows how frustrated they are in meeting expectation both their own life and the life of their family members.

This is also seen as a lack of adequate income they get since most of these migrants were unemployed young women who were engaged in domestic activities. They have low educational status to hope that they will find a better job as well.

Another interesting finding was the fact that these migrants were supposed to pay high amount of money, in their standards, to travel to destination countries. They have covered these costs through various sources like borrowing and selling properties. This is also another indication of the wrong perception of migrants in assuming that they will earn a large amount of money not only to cover the incurred cost but also to dramatically improve their own and their families' livelihood. Moreover, this in turn shows that there are people in the middle who catalyze migration and make benefit out of it by charging migrants or sending households. In order to augment all these unnecessary expenses and related problems both by the migrants and their sending families, the research outcome stresses on the crucial solutions to be sought.

In light of the findings related to socioeconomic impact of migration to sending households, it is not as easy task to generalize as positive or negative. Of course, there were instances that proved positive effects to sending households as they have utilized the money from remittances. Nonetheless, they also had suffered some negative consequences as a result. It is clear that due to the remittances, sending households were able to cover and show improvements regarding their nutritional, education and health services needs.

The result of the regression analysis, independent variables including amount of remittance received, migrant marital status before departure, sources of finance for the cost of migration and amount of traveling cost were found to have statistically significant effect on migrant sending households saving as a result of remittance. In light of this, it was concluded that

amount of remittance received, use of household saving to cover traveling cost and higher amount of traveling cost have had positive relationship with saving culture. On the other hand, if the migrant was married before departure, it showed negative relationship on saving of remittance.

As such it is nearly impossible to claim that such migration has adverse impact only. However, the impact was generally judgmental with the initial expectations and the opportunity costs incurred as a result of the migration. Sending households were found to be victims of both missing their family members' contributions to domestic work and psychological suffering from thoughts of the possible home sickness of the migrants.

5.2 Recommendations

In line with the findings, the following recommendations are put forth suggesting some major points for migrants, households, local administrations and the community at large.

- Migrants should be well aware of the real situation in the destination countries form recruiting agents and valiantly analyze the impact of peer influence. This needs due collaboration for action among government line departments, agents and the community.
- Sending households should clearly understand the negative consequences at destination countries and advise and support their children/family members either to have the needed skill before departure or focus on working at home.
- Once migration happened, the sending households should make sure that remittances sent by the migrant is used properly and make sure that the migrant would have adequate amount of money saved to be used for future purpose once she is returned home.

- The local administration should work out to raise the awareness of the target community on opportunities available against the real situation of the destination countries for an informed decision.
- City administration should have efforts placed to create employment opportunities for the youth, in terms of employment creation associated with labour intensive small scale enterprises and services to minimize the current flow of migration this is basically a result of unemployment.
- The demographic and socio- economic factors were identified to be some of determinant factors that affect saving in the study area. In spite of the fact that several variables could affect saving, some of the identified variables in regression model were insignificant. Therefore, to further strengthen this result, regional level study, this is beyond the scope and capacity of this study need to be conducted by other researchers.

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Annex I: Tolerance and VIF values, Hosmer and Lemeshow goodness of fit test

Table A.1 Tolerance and VIF values

Variables	Tolerance	VIF
Migrant Marital Status	.985	1.015
Household Head Education	.957	1.044
Financing the Cost	.892	1.121
Household Income	.958	1.044
Remittance Received	.930	1.075
Household Livelihood	.945	1.059
Traveling Cost	.955	1.047

Table A.2 Hosmer and Lemeshow goodness of fit test

Hosmer and Lemeshow Test			
Step	Chi-square	df	Sig.
1	4.592	8	.8

Annex II: Socioeconomic and Demographic characteristics of the focus group discussants Town: Jimma Kebele: Hermata Merkato Date: March, 2014

Table A. 3: FGD one discussants

Discussants	Age	Marital Status	Sex	Literacy Status	Current labour force status
1	32	Married	Female	Literate	Government employee (Kebele)
2	44	Married	Female	Literate	Petty Trader (Sending Household)
3	50	Married	Male	Literate	Petty Trader (Sending Household)
4	24	Single	Female	Literate	Return migrant
5	53	Married	Male	Literate	Religion Elder

Town: Jimma Kebele: Bocho Borea Date: March, 2014

Table A. 4: FGD two discussants

Discussants	Age	Marital Status	Sex	Literacy Status	Current labour force status
1	37	Married	Male	Literate	Government employee (Kebele)
2	18	Single	Female	Literate	Student
3	41	Married	Female	Literate	Labourer (Sending Household)
4	47	Married	Female	Literate	Petty Trader (Sending Household)
5	45	Married	Male	Literate	Social Worker (Edire Leader)

Annex III: Household Survey Questionnaire

**Addis Ababa University
College of Developmental Studies
Department of population Studies**

Introduction

This questionnaire was prepared to conduct a study for Master's Degree on Population Study.

The main objective of the study is to identify and examine the socioeconomic impact of women migration to the Middle East on sending families in Jimma Town.

I, hereby, certify that the findings will only be used for educational purposes and all information provided will be kept confidential. If you agree, please continue to respond to the questionnaires and filled by the enumerator.

General Directions:

Screening criteria

- The selected household should have at least one women family member who migrated to Middle East countries from 2003 to 2012.
- The migrant should stay at least two years in Middle East countries.
- The respondent of this questionnaire should be head of household who can provide adequate information about the migrant & sending household.

1. You are kindly requested to give genuine responses.
2. Circle the corresponding number of the choices from the given alternatives (for some of the questions multiple responses are possible)
3. Put the numbers or describe briefly you agree with to those questions which are not multiple choices.
4. Feel free to respond.

Thank you in advance!

A. Household Characteristics (Sending household)

1. Sex of household head

1. Male 0. Female

2. Age of household head _____

3. Marital Status

1. Married 2. Single 3. Divorced 4. Widowed

4. Religion

1. Muslim 2. Orthodox Christian 3. Protestant 4. Others, Specify _____

5. Ethnicity

1. Oromo 2. Gurage 3. Amhara 4. Others, Specify _____

6. Current family size : _____

7. Household head educational level (highest level of schooling completed)

1. Grade completed _____ 2. Only able to read and write
3. Unable to read and write

8. What was the main source of living of the household before migration?

1. Salaried (government or private) 2. Merchant 3. Daily labourer
4. Others, Specify _____

9. What was the estimated average monthly income of the household before the migration of your family member? _____ Birr

10. How many member(s) of this household have migrated and live in the Middle East currently?

1. Male _____ 2. Female _____

B. Migrant Characteristics (if there are more than one migrants in the family consider the pioneer migrant only)

11. Marital Status of the migrant before migration

1. Married 2. Single 3. Divorced 4. Widowed

12. Birth order of the migrant among siblings in the family: _____

13. Age of the migrant during departure: _____ year

14. Does the migrant have children before migration? 1. Yes 0. No

15. Migrant educational level (highest level of schooling completed)

1. Grade completed _____ 2. Only able to read and write 3. Unable to read and write

16. What is your relationship with the migrant?

1. Mother/Father 2. Brother/Sister 3. Husband 4. Son/Daughter
5. Others, Specify _____

17. What was migrant's previous employment status?

1. Student 2. Salaried (government or private) 3. Merchant
4. Daily labourer 5. Housewives 6. Serve the household in domestic activities
7. No job 8. Others, Specify _____

18. If she was engaged in income generating employments activity in the above question, how much did she earn monthly? _____ Birr

19. What are the reason(s) for the emigration of your family member or relative? (multiple responses are possible)

1. Economic Problem (Unemployment or wage difference) 2. Political Problem
3. Peer Pressure 4. Broker Pressure 5. Family Pressure 6. Neighbors Push 7.
Presence of family member in a destination 8. Family conflict 9. For marriage 10.
Parental indebtedness and the need to pay back debates 11. Others, Specify _____

C. During Migration

20. Where did she migrate? (Country of destination) _____

21. When did she migrate? (Date of migration, Month and Year in Ethiopian Calander)

22. How did she travel to destination country?

1. Using legal travel agencies 2. Illegal trafficking 3. Tourist visas
4. Haj and Umrah visas to Saudi Arabia 5. Others, Specify _____

23. How much was the estimated total amount in Birr spent for migration? _____ Birr

24. How did the migrant get the money to cover the cost of migration?

1. Household savings 2. Personal saving of migrant 3. Sales of property
4. Borrowing 5. As a support/gift covered by others 6. Others, Specify _____

25. From where did she initially get information about working in the Middle East?

1. Pioneer migrants 2. Mass Media 3. Relatives/Friends
4. Brokers 5. Others, Specify _____

D. After Migration

26. After how long did she report her arrival?

1. *Within 2 weeks* 2. *Within 1 month* 3. *Within 2 month* 4. *More than 2 months*

27. How frequently did she communicate with the family?

1. *Monthly* 2. *Quarterly* 3. *Semi-annually* 4. *Annually*
5. *More than a year* 6. *No communication at all*

28. How did she describe her status up on her stay?

1. *Excellent* 2. *Good* 3. *Medium* 4. *Bad* 5. *Very bad*

29. Has she ever visited you after departure (not for permanently returned or deported migrant)?

1. *Yes* 0. *No*

30. Have you ever received money from the migrant?

1. *Yes* 0. *No*

31. If yes for the above, how long did it take your departed member to send you the first remittance or goods/items? _____ months

32. How frequently did she send remittance or goods/items to the family?

1. *Monthly* 2. *Quarterly* 3. *Semi-annually* 4. *Annually* 5. *More than a year*

33. How much was the estimated average amount money (in cash) does she sent to the family in a year for the last two years?

1. *In 2013 _____ Birr* 2. *In 2012 _____ Birr*

34. What are the types of items (in kind) she sent to the family?

1. *TV/Radio/Camera/Mobile* 2. *Referegilator* 3. *Cloths* 4. *Cosmetics*
5. *Kitchen equipments* 6. *Vehicles* 7. *Others, Specify _____* 8. *No items*

35. From where did you often receive the money sent to you?

1. *From bank* 2. *From post office* 3. *From visiting relatives/friends*
4. *Others, Specify _____*

36. When do you receive the money?

1. *When I appeal for assistance* 2. *At regular monthly or yearly amount*
3. *Whenever the migrant is pleased sending money* 4. *Others, Specify _____*

37. What is the main source of income of the household after migration?

1. Remittance 2. Other income generating activities locally opened by the migrant
(business, vehicle ...) 3. Locally generated income as the same as before migration 4.
Others, Specify _____

38. For what purposes do your family members use the money she sent?

1. Day to day expenses 2. Food 3. Health 4. Education 5. Loan payment 6.
Saving 7. Investments 8. Improve the condition of the house 9. Others, Specify _____

39. Does the migrant replace her cost of migration?

1. Yes 0. No

40. In your opinion, what are the negative impacts this migration on your household?

1. Create dependency 2. Family dissolution 3. Missing of migrant support in domestic
activities 4. Missing of her previous local employment/income
5. Others, Specify _____

41. As a result of remittance the household saving and investment increased?

1. Yes 0. No

42. Has the migrant returned back home currently?

1. Yes 0. No

43. If yes what are the causes for her return?

1. Contract termination 2. Health problem 3. For investment 4. For marriage
5. Deportation (for illegal cases) 6. Others, Specify _____

44. What is her future plan about migration?

1. To migrate to the former country 2. To migrate to new country 3. No plan for migration

45. Does the migration of the family members motivate other members to migrate?

1. Yes 0. No

46. Do you want other family members to migrate from this household?

1. Yes 0. No

47. What were the sources of your worry when the migrant was away?

1. Economic success 2. Disease 3. Sexual abuse 4. Deportation/termination
5. Others, Specify _____

48. Any other comment regarding the impact of migration in this household?

THANK YOU FOR YOUR GENIUNE RESPONSE TO MY QUESTIONS!

Focus Group Discussion Guide

Introduction

ADDIS ABABA UNIVERSITY
AKAKI CAMPUS LIBRARY

This questionnaire is prepared to conduct a study for Master's Degree on Population Study. The main objective of the study is to identify and examine the socioeconomic impact of women migration to the Middle East on sending families in Jimma Town.

I, hereby, certify that the findings will only be used for educational purposes and all information provided will be kept confidential. If you agree, please continue to respond to the questionnaires.

Key Questions for FGD Sessions

1. How do you describe the migration of women to Middle East countries from this town?
2. What are the major factors that drive women to migrate to Middle East countries from Jimma Town?
3. How do you explain the role of the family, individual brokers and the community in contributing to the situation?
4. Do you think these kinds of migration have positive impact on the sending family? Why?
5. Do you think these kinds of migration have negative impact on the sending family? Why?
6. What are the economic impacts on sending households and the community?
7. What are the psychosocial impacts? (Health/Education)
8. What measures should be taken to benefit from migration?
9. I would like to thank you for your participation. I want to give you the chance if you have any questions that you would like to be raised.

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