



Original research article

Gender differentials in internal migration decisions: the case of Dilla Town, Southern Ethiopia

Million Yilma¹, Nigatu Regassa^{2*}¹ Hawassa University, College of Education, Ethiopia² University of Saskatchewan, School of Public Health, Saskatoon, Canada

Abstract

Introduction: Internal migration has become an increasingly important socioeconomic phenomenon in Ethiopia as the country has been passing through new economic and social order since the year 1991. This study was primarily aimed at examining the gender differentials in migration decisions based on data collected from a town in Southern Ethiopia.

Methods: The study used data collected from 216 randomly selected households from three sub-cities of Dilla Town. Both bivariate (chi-square) and multivariate analysis (logistic regression) were used to examine the gender differentials in migration decisions.

Results: The analysis showed the importance of gender differences in migration decisions; that migration is gender and age selective ($p < 0.05$). More females than males make planned migration decisions ($p < 0.001$). While males migrate mainly due to economic issues, females tend to migrate more due to familial issues ($p < 0.001$). More females opt to migrate for education while more males move for business. Female migrants appeared to have more positive impacts on their households at the place of origin through remittance. In the multivariate analysis, three factors appeared to have significant association with frequency of remittance ($p < 0.05$): regular communication, employment status and income.

Conclusions: The intention and decision of male and female migrants differs significantly; females tend to make a more planned migration involving household decision. The study suggests the need for in-depth investigation of the positive impacts of migration sex-age selective migration on the place of origin.

Keywords: Determinants; Differentials; Gender; Migration; Remittance

Introduction

Migration has become an important topic in the global arena requiring strategic as well as policy attention (Muru, 2008; Peri, 2016). Migration is a highly selective process and who is more likely to migrate depends upon a number of factors including individual characteristics and “push” and “pull” factors at the place of origin and the destination (Cattaneo, 2007). The current discourse on migration has failed to adequately address gender-specific migration experiences, even though women constitute an overwhelming majority of migrants. A gender perspective on migration is imperative, since women have significantly different migration motivations, patterns, options and obstacles from men (UNICEF, 2017).

In Africa, internal migration is far more significant for development in terms of the numbers of people moving and their poverty reduction potential and well-being outcomes (Awumbila, 2015). Today's migration can be empowering for men and women, allowing women to access employment and education, improve gender equality and norms, strengthen agency, and offer them the ability to make independent decisions to achieve desired outcomes (Awumbila, 2015; Cattaneo,

2007). The growing cities in Africa provide opportunities for migrants to create a livelihood, engage in entrepreneurship, and accumulate assets, thus contributing to human capital development (Awumbila, 2017). Conversely, migration may also exacerbate vulnerabilities, including abuse and trafficking, particularly when migrants are low skilled (IOM, 2013; O'Neil et al., 2016).

The tide of migration to urban areas is mainly triggered by “push” factors (IOM, 2013; Lattes, 1989; McBride, 1991; Tacoli et al., 2015; United Nations, 1984). It is generally believed that most decisions to migrate are made in response to a combination of economic, social and political pressures and incentives. Displacement disproportionately disadvantages women, because it results in reduced access to resources to cope with household responsibility and increased physical and emotional violence (El Jack 2003; UNICEF, 2017). In some instances, inequalities within and between localities create incentives to move (Jolly and Reeves, 2005). The ongoing gender relations and hierarchies within the household context also affect such decisions – the interests of women and men do not necessarily coincide and may affect decisions about who manages to migrate, for how long, and where to migrate (Boyd and Grieco, 2003; Deshingkar, 2005).

* **Author for correspondence:** Nigatu Regassa, University of Saskatchewan, School of Public Health, 104 Clinic Place, Saskatoon, SK, S7N 2Z4, Canada; e-mail: negyon@yahoo.com
<http://doi.org/10.32725/kont.2019.026>

Submitted: 2018-09-14 • Accepted: 2019-03-20 • Prepublished online: 2019-04-26

KONTAKT 21/3: 312–319 • EISSN 1804-7122 • ISSN 1212-4117

© 2019 The Authors. Published by University of South Bohemia in České Budějovice, Faculty of Health and Social Sciences.

This is an open access article under the CC BY-NC-ND license.

During the last three decades, the huge gender disparities in the migration process have been recognised, as have the opportunities and challenges (Camlin et al., 2013). There are significant differences between men and women in terms of motivations, risks, and norms governing and promoting their movement and assimilation, as well as differential consequences (O'Neil et al., 2016; Camlin et al., 2013; Curran and Saguy, 1997). A study in Thailand (De Jong et al., 1996) and in Mexico (Donato, 1993) suggested that most differences in migration experienced between men and women reflect their differences in socialization, and socio-cultural values. In line with this, Omelaniuk (2005) noted that gender as a social construction which organizes relations between males and females can greatly differentiate the causes, processes, characterizations and impacts (challenges and opportunities) of migration between the two sexes.

Migration could be either an individual or family decision. The neoclassical microeconomic theory of migration decision-making associates migration with individual choice; whereby the rational actor is motivated to move to maximize one's own personal gains (Massey, 1998; Todaro, 1976). In contrast, the new household economic theory places migration decisions within the context of the household and contends that the family is at the center of migration decision-making. Knowing how these differences play-out at the interface of migration can be important from a variety of angles.

Ethiopia, as one of the most populous countries in Africa, is also subject to both internal and international migration in different forms. The number and composition of migration in the country has shown a lot of changes over the last three decades. In this regard, Fransen and Kushminder (2009) noted that Ethiopia has known many types of migration over the years due to a variety of reasons, including political instability,

war, famine, and economic hardship over the course of its history. It is noted in general that the development of Ethiopian towns exhibited the migration of various categories of people who came to resettle as trade migrants, civil servants, soldiers, construction workers and domestic workers (Fransen and Kushminder, 2009; Tadele et al., 2006). The country has been undergoing a major transformation from a centrally planned to a market-oriented economy since the current government came to power in 1991. Under such transformations, internal migration tends to play an increasing role both demographically and economically (Ezra and Kiros, 2001). In most parts of the country, migration is increasingly becoming a common phenomenon as a direct response to different problems faced or for the seeking of better opportunities at the new destination (Ezra and Kiros, 2001; Morrissey, 2007). In Ethiopia, both females and males migrate to small and big towns (Gurmu, 2005; Regassa and Yusufe, 2011; World Bank, 2011) due to various interwoven socio-economic and ecological factors.

The study area, Dilla town, is one of the growing urban centers receiving an influx of migrants from different parts of the country. It is the administrative center of the Gedeo Zone in the Southern Nations, Nationalities, and Peoples Region (SNNPR). It is located on the main road from Addis Ababa to Nairobi and is an important trade center (especially for coffee). Despite the increasing numbers of internal migrants in the region and their gendered implications, very few studies have focused on how gender differentials operate to influence the causes, processes and impacts of migration at the place of destination and origin. Understanding these dynamics has important implications since demographic selection in migration implies the redistribution of population both at the place of origin and destination.

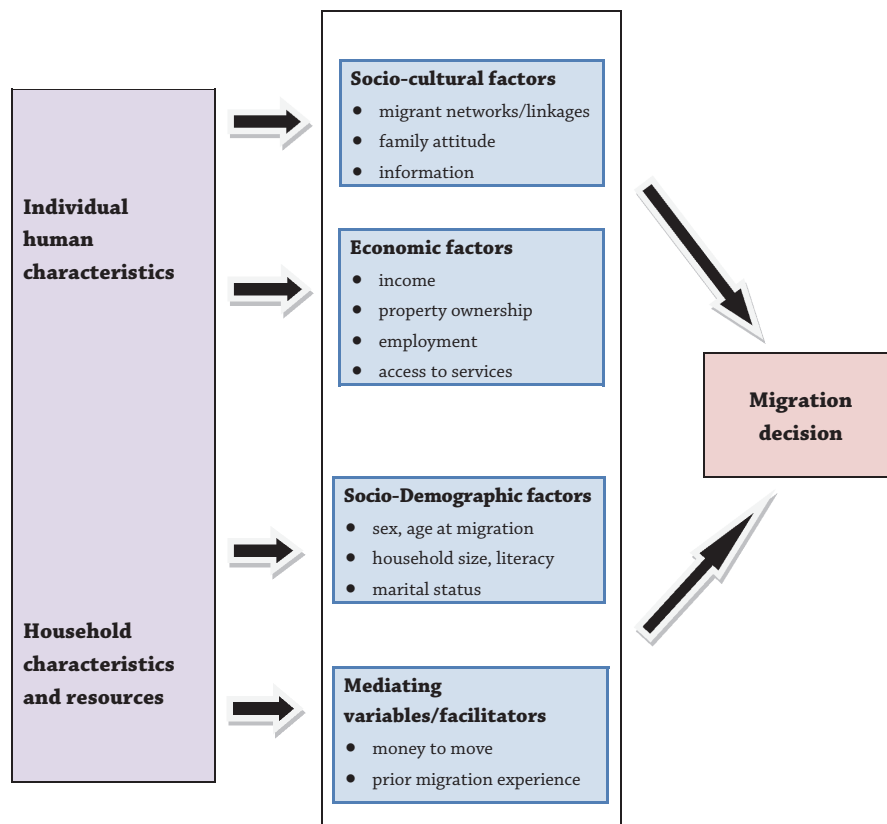


Fig. 1. Conceptual framework of the study (De Jong, 2000)

Conceptual framework

The conceptual framework in Fig. 1 was adapted from De Jong (2000). The framework depicts two groups of variables, i.e. the explanatory/independent and dependent variables. The independent variables are divided into four groups (socio-cultural factors, economic factors, socio-demographic factors & mediating variables/facilitators). The dependent variables, on the other hand, are migration decision and remittance.

Materials and methods

Data sources

The target populations in this study were male and female residents of Dilla town who were above the age of 15; a group commonly considered as economically active. They are especially the ones who came to the study area at a certain point in time for a variety of reasons from a different part of the country. The principal data for the study were generated from primary sources using a questionnaire.

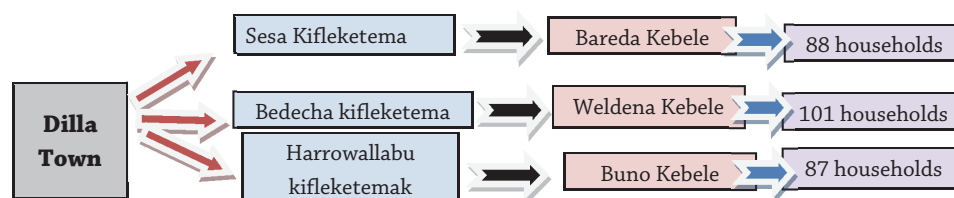


Fig. 2. Scheme for sampling design

Data collection

Data collection was done for 20 days using nine data collectors. A training session was arranged for data collectors and field supervisors. The data were edited, coded, entered into SPSS software, cleaned, processed, and made ready for analysis.

Data analysis

The data were analyzed using both bivariate and multivariate quantitative statistical tools. The gender differential in migration was analyzed using Pearson's Chi-square statistical techniques. Ordinary Least Square (OLS) regression was used to further examine the association between selected explanatory variables and remittance. Prior to building the models, the explanatory variables were vigilantly selected based on the review of literature and model building principle. Multicollinearity diagnosis was done in order to check correlations among the independent variables, and the result indicated that none of them have multicollinearity problem, which means that the VIF (variance inflation factor) value is found to be less than 4 or tolerance is found to be less than 1.

Results

Characteristics of respondents

Table 1 shows the distribution of the respondents by selected background characteristics. Close to 60% of the migrants were males, and a great majority (93.5%) of the participants were in the 15–64 years age group. 43.8% were Orthodox Christians, 27.2% Protestants and 23.9% Muslims.

The marital status prior to migration indicated that the majority (75.4%) were single, whereas this proportion reduced

Sampling design

Dilla town has three sub cities, and each has three villages locally called "kebeles". The sample size required for this study was determined by the objective of the study, the resources available, variability of the characteristics to be measured, the precision level required, and the required confidence that the accuracy/precision is valid. A total sample of 276 was estimated (see annex) based on a formula for survey sampling design (Cochran, 1977).

The 276 study participants were selected using both purposive and systematic random sampling techniques. The process of sampling started with the listing of all kebeles in each of the three sub cities. Following preliminary discussion with the town administrators, one village from each sub city was selected using purposive sampling. The 276 respondents were proportionately divided into the three kebeles and the eligible respondents (age 15+) were selected randomly based on the household list made available by local administrators (Fig. 2).

significantly to 30.8% in the reports of current marital status distribution. Similarly, the percentages reporting married status increased from 21.7 to 59.4 for time before and after migration respectively. The distribution of the migrants by education level indicated that about 10% had no education, 13.8% in grades 1–6, 11% were in grades 7–8, 30.1% were in grades 9–12, 21% had a college diploma, first degree and above (14.5%).

In terms of household size, 39.1% reported to have come from households with less than three members, which is a small family size. 37% were from households with 4–6 members (considered a medium size family), and the remaining 23.9% came from 6+ household size. In terms of the source of migration, 39.1% of them reported their origin as 'towns/cities', while a greater proportion (60.9%) of them had moved from rural areas of the country.

Gender differentials in migration decisions

Table 2 presents the association between the gender of the respondents and reported reasons for migration. Two reasons seem to constitute the largest portion of the responses: looking for a job, and looking for a better life and more opportunity. These accounted for 53.6% and 58.7% respectively. Also, a considerable number of respondents (37%) reported that they had moved to the destination because of other problems faced at the place of origin. On the other hand, 23.6% of the migrants reported to have come to the destination because of different influences at the place of origin.

As indicated in Table 2, some reasons are more important for males to migrate than they are for females. For example, problems/challenges at the place of origin are more important reasons for the males than the females. In the same way, the

Table 1. Percentage distribution of migrants by selected socio-demographic characteristics, Geddo Zone (n = 276)

Characteristics	Number	Percent
Sex		
female	113	40.9
male	163	59.1
Age at migration		
0–15 years	18	6.5
15–64 years	258	93.5
above 64	0	0.0
Marital status prior to migration		
divorced/separated	8	2.9
single	208	75.4
married	60	21.7
Current marital status		
divorced/separated	11	4.0
single	85	30.8
widowed	16	5.8
married	164	59.4
Religion		
orthodox	121	43.8
catholic	10	3.6
protestant	75	27.2
islam	66	23.9
traditional	1	0.4
others	3	1.1
Level of education		
illiterate	27	9.8
elementary (1–6)	38	13.8
junior secondary (7 & 8)	30	10.9
secondary (9–12)	83	30.1
college diploma	58	21.0
first degree & above	40	14.5
Household size		
1–3	108	39.1
4–6	102	37.0
above 6	66	23.9
Place of birth		
town/city	108	39.1
countryside	168	60.9

search for a job appeared to be a more significant reason for the males than for the females. On the other hand, marriage seems to be a more important reason for females to migrate than for males. Also, more females than males migrate due to their desire for better income, job opportunity and related factors.

Table 3 presents the results of bivariate analysis (using chi square) on gender differentials in migration decision. It is noted that family decision in migration was important to an almost equal proportion of females and males (51.1% and 50.3% respectively). On the other hand, a considerable proportion of both females and males (66.4% and 73.0% respectively) reported they themselves made the decision to migrate. Migration decision due to other factors contributed only a small proportion for both sexes.

About 45% of females and 33% of males reported to have obtained the money they required to move from their family. An insignificant proportion of females (5.3%) and 24.5% of males reported that they received financial support from their relatives when they first moved to the place of destination. The results of Chi-square analysis confirmed the association between gender and source of money for the migrants' first move. More females than males were able to get the money from their spouse. On the other hand, more males than females claimed that relatives were their main source of funding when they first moved.

With respect to family attitude towards migration decision, an almost equal proportion of both females and males (57.5% and 58.3% respectively) reported that they had received encouragement from their families. A quarter of both female and male respondents indicated experiencing unfavorable attitudes from their families about their migration decision. Close to 17% reported that they had not been sure about the attitude their family members had about their migration decision.

An almost equal proportion of both females and males (20.4% and 19.6% respectively) reported that they initially intended to stay in Dilla as a temporary resident. On the other hand, 40.1% of the females and 50.4% of the males intended to stay permanently. A significant proportion of the respondents (about 35%) were not sure whether to stay temporarily or permanently.

Table 2. Results of Chi-square analysis for association between gender and reported reasons for migration, Geddo Zone (n = 276)

Reasons for migration	Category	Female (%)	Male (%)	Total (%)	Chi-square (χ^2)
problems/ challenges	yes	18.6	49.7	37.0	27.721
	no	81.4	50.3	63.0	($P = 0.000$) ^c
job search	yes	38.9	63.8	53.6	16.592
	no	61.1	36.2	46.4	($P = 0.000$) ^c
service problems	yes	14.2	21.5	18.5	2.369
	no	85.8	78.5	81.5	($P = 0.124$)
to be free from influences	yes	18.6	27.0	23.6	2.622
	no	81.4	73.0	76.4	($P = 0.105$)
for meeting a person in Dilla	yes	16.8	19.6	18.5	0.352
	no	83.2	80.4	81.5	($P = 0.553$)
for education/training	yes	24.8	15.3	19.2	3.834
	no	75.2	84.7	80.8	($P = 0.050$) ^a
for making use of services in town	yes	8.0	11.0	9.8	0.717
	no	92.0	89.0	90.2	($P = 0.397$)

Table 2. (Continued)

Reasons for migration	Category	Female (%)	Male (%)	Total (%)	Chi-square (χ^2)
job transfer	yes	11.5	16.0	14.1	1.087
	no	88.5	84.0	85.9	($P = 0.297$)
for starting/enlarging private business	yes	5.3	13.5	10.1	4.907
	no	94.7	86.5	89.9	($P = 0.027$) ^a
looking for comfortable climate	yes	5.3	7.4	6.5	0.461
	no	94.7	92.6	93.5	($P = 0.497$)
any kind(s) of harassment/abuse	yes	8.0	9.2	8.7	0.129
	no	92.0	90.8	91.3	($P = 0.720$)
previous experience in the town	yes	6.2	11.7	9.4	2.333
	no	93.8	88.3	90.6	($P = 0.127$)
marriage	yes	32.7	4.9	16.3	37.892
	no	67.3	95.1	83.7	($P = 0.000$) ^c
motive for better income, job opportunity, etc.	yes	74.3	47.9	58.7	19.307
	no	25.7	52.1	41.3	($P = 0.000$) ^c

^a Significant at 0.05; ^c Significant at 0.001.

Table 3. Results of Chi-square analysis for association between gender and selected variables, Gedeo Zone ($n = 276$)

Variables	Category	Female (%)	Male (%)	Total (%)	Chi-square (χ^2)
migration decision by family	yes	53.1	50.3	51.4	0.208
	no	46.9	49.7	48.6	($P = 0.648$)
migration decision by self	yes	66.4	73.0	70.3	1.407
	no	33.6	27.0	29.7	($P = 0.236$)
migration decision by employer	yes	6.2	9.8	8.3	1.146
	no	93.8	90.2	91.7	($P = 0.284$)
migration decision by relative	yes	10.6	12.9	12.0	0.325
	no	89.4	87.1	88.0	($P = 0.569$)
source of money required to move	family	45.1	32.5	37.7	63.323 ($P = 0.000$) ^c
	relative	5.3	24.5	16.7	
	friend	0.9	1.2	1.1	
	spouse	23.0	0.0	9.4	
	borrowed	1.8	9.8	6.5	
	self	23.9	31.9	28.6	
nature of migration decision	planned	65.5	54.6	59.1	3.270
	unplanned	34.5	45.4	40.9	($P = 0.071$)
family attitude towards migration decision	discouraging	25.7	25.2	25.4	0.016 ($P = 0.892$)
	encouraging	57.5	58.3	58.0	
	not sure	16.8	16.6	16.7	
nature of stay in place of destination	temporarily	20.4	19.6	19.9	0.022 ($P = 0.989$)
	permanently	45.1	45.4	45.3	
	not sure	34.5	35.0	34.8	

^c Significant at 0.001.

Determinants of remittance: multivariate analysis

Table 4 presents the effects of selected variables on remittance. It is seen that sex and current marital status of respondents affect frequency of remittance; where more females than males remit frequently. Moreover, employment is found to be

statistically significant ($p = 0.003$). Similarly, other variables like average monthly income & communication of migrants with their place of origin were also found to significantly affect frequency of remittance.

Table 4. Results of Linear regression for selected explanatory variables and frequency of remittance back to place of origin, Gedeo Zone ($n = 276$)

Variables	Coefficients			
(constant)	β 2.717	Std. Error 0.767	β	Sig. 0.000
sex of the respondent	-0.284	0.169	-0.103	0.094
current marital status	0.154	0.092	0.115	0.094
level of formal education attained	-0.041	0.055	-0.047	0.453
household size	-0.140	0.125	-0.081	0.264
average monthly income	-0.152	0.054	-0.180	0.006 ^b
communication with place of birth	0.566	0.265	0.133	0.034 ^a
length of stay in destination	0.093	0.094	0.075	0.324
employment	0.820	0.270	0.208	0.003 ^b

^a = Significant at 0.05; ^b = Significant at 0.01.

Discussion

This study was primarily aimed at assessing the gender differentials in migration based on 276 respondents from Dilla town in Southern Ethiopia. The result suggested that migration to the town is age selective; more than 90% of the migrants moved to the town at younger age. This is consistent with previous studies which reported that the vast majority of migrants in other populations are concentrated in the young adult age-group of 20–30 years (Caldwell, 1969; Clark, 1986; Goldstein, 1976; Jansen, 1970; O'Neil et al., 2016). Therefore, it is also not a surprise that many of them were single at the time of arrival.

The analysis also suggested the presence of a great deal of gender differences in several domains of migration, especially at the place of destination. With regard to the gender difference in reported reasons for migration decision, four factors became significantly associated with gender. These were challenges at the place of origin, job search, desire for better income and job opportunity, and marriage ($p < 0.001$). This is in line with O'Neil et al. (2016) who reported that people migrate to overcome poverty, escape conflict, or cope with economic and environmental shocks. They also indicated that gender norms affect when and why people migrate. More males than females reported problems/challenges at the place of origin and job seeking as the main reasons.

On the other hand, more female migrants than men reported marriage and desire for a better life in urban areas as their prime reasons. The greater values associated with marriage among women in most societies of Ethiopia may explain why more women than men would report marriage as a major cause of migration (Djamba, 2003). In Ghana, for instance, earning money to buy the goods needed to make a good marriage is a key motivator of migration for both boys and girls migrating in their early to late teenage years. While boys have more opportunities for employment and migration, parents are also very accepting of girls' migration because girls traditionally move to their husband's family upon marriage

(Hashim, 2005). In some settings, older daughters will migrate to allow younger siblings to attend school. In countries such as the Philippines and Sri Lanka, migration may be considered more acceptable than divorce (Afsar, 2009). Women experiencing gender-based violence, domestic abuse, unhappy marriage, or a lack of appropriate employment opportunities may also be more inclined to migrate (Afsar, 2009; Petrozziello, 2013). It is also interesting to note that more females migrated for better education, while more males migrated for business. Similarly, other studies (Avellan, 2003; Cerrutti and Massey, 2001) noted that while adult men move for employment, adult women migrate for family reasons.

We noted significant bivariate association between gender and the source of money required to migrate. More females than males reported obtaining the money they required to move from their spouses and families. This strengthens the idea that women's migration is based more on a household decision than individual needs. The finding is consistent with previous studies (O'Neil et al., 2016) who reported that women usually have less control over the decision to migrate than men – a decision more likely to be taken by their family. Several studies of internal Filipino migrants show that families are more likely to send daughters to migrate because they perceive them to be more reliable in sending remittances (Piper, 2005; Jolly and Reeves, 2005). O'Neil et al. (2016) supported this idea; reporting that women remit a higher proportion of their incomes than male migrants. This further strengthens the idea that females are more dependable in terms of supporting their family members through remittance. In relation to this, studies conducted in other parts of the world confirmed that women are more likely than men to return home suddenly when they hear of a developing crisis in the family, e.g. husband's infidelity, neglect of children, children's drug abuse or family mismanagement of remittances (Villalba, 2002).

The OLS regression indicated a positive relationship between remittance and gender, where more females than males send money to their families more often. Migration may be the only option for women in the face of family poverty, or the best option for personal or family betterment. The desire

is often to send remittances – money earned or acquired by immigrants that is sent back home to their country of origin (Jolly and Reeves, 2005). A study in Nicaragua and Costa Rica reported that nine out of ten women send money home, while only six out of 10 men do.

Finally, this study is not without limitation. Since the research is a cross sectional retrospective, the probability of recall bias and misreporting of migration related events are likely to happen. Besides, the variables used in the analysis were collected at a specific point in time, making it difficult to link their effects with the outcome variable. However, this piece of work contributes to our understanding of how the migration of men and women is shaped by a combination of individual and household decisions.

Conclusions

On the basis of the information collected from the 276 migrants and taking into account the methodological pitfalls of studying migration, this study has concluded that there are significant gender differentials with respect to migration decisions and remittance. It is generally noted that women's migration is more of a household decision determined by a household livelihood strategy such as poverty reduction, better education for household members and marriage. It appeared that more females than males send remittance to their place of origin.

Given the fact that internal migration of this kind has both positive and negative repercussions at the place of origin, the findings of the study suggests the need for in-depth investigation of the positive roles of migration sex-age selective migration on the place of origin.

Annex

Sample size estimation (Cochrane, 1977):

$$n = \left(\frac{z}{d} \right)^2 p(1-p)$$

n = sample size;

z = values of standard variant at 95% confidence interval ($t = 1.96$);

p = the estimated value for the proportion of a sample that will choose a given answer to a survey question (in this case, $p = 0.15$);

d = acceptable margin of error for proportion being estimated ($d = 0.05$).

Therefore, the sample size was computed as:

$$n = \left(\frac{1.96}{.05} \right)^2 0.15(1-.15) + 10\% \text{ contingency} = 276$$

Conflict of interest

The authors have no conflict of interest to declare.

Genderové rozdíly ovlivňující rozhodnutí o vnitřní migraci ve městě Dilla v jižní Etiopii

Souhrn

Úvod: Vnitřní migrace se v Etiopii, v návaznosti na nové ekonomické a sociální uspořádání od roku 1991, stává stále důležitějším socioekonomickým fenoménem. Primárním cílem této studie bylo zjistit, jak gender ovlivňuje rozhodnutí o migraci, a to s pomocí dat získaných ve městě v jižní Etiopii.

Metody: Ve studii byla použita data získaná od 216 náhodně vybraných domácností ze tří městských částí ve městě Dilla. Pro zkoumání genderových rozdílů ovlivňujících rozhodnutí o migraci byl použit chí-kvadrátový test a multivariační analýza (logistická regrese).

Výsledky: Analýza ukázala, jak důležité jsou genderové rozdíly ovlivňující rozhodnutí o migraci; rozhodnutí o migraci je určeno genderem a věkem ($p < 0,05$). Migraci plánují více ženy než muži ($p < 0,001$). Zatímco muži migrují převážně kvůli ekonomickým problémům, ženy migrují kvůli rodinným záležitostem ($p < 0,001$). Za možnosti vzdělání migrují více ženy, za možnosti práce muži. Zdá se, že migrace žen má pozitivnější vliv na místo jejich původní domácnosti, neboť jí zasílají část svých příjmů. Z multivariační analýzy vyplývají tři faktory, které mají významný vliv na zaslání zdrojů do domácnosti ($p < 0,05$): pravidelná komunikace, zaměstnání a výše příjmu.

Závěr: Záměry a důvody ovlivňující rozhodnutí o migraci se mezi muži a ženami velmi liší; ženy se o migraci rozhodují déle a více ji plánují. Studie implikuje potřebu dalšího hlubšího zkoumání vnitřní migrace ovlivněné genderem a věkem.

Klíčová slova: determinanty rozhodování; rozdílnosti; gender; migrace; zaslání příjmů

References

- Afsar R (2009). Unravelling the vicious cycle of recruitment: Labor migration from Bangladesh to the Gulf states. Working paper 63. Geneva: International Labor Office.
- Avellan H (2003). Cuanto gané, cuanto perdí? – Hombres y Hogares en tiempos de migración [You win some, you lose some – Men and the home in times of migration]. Managua: Impresiones Helios, S.A.
- Awumbila M (2015). Women moving within borders: gender and internal migration dynamics in Ghana. Ghana Journal of Geography 7(2): 132–145.
- Awumbila M (2017). Drivers of migration and urbanization in Africa: key trends and issues. [online] [cit. 2018-05-13]. Available from: <https://www.un.org/en/development/desa/population/events/pdf/expert/27/papers/III/paper-Awumbila-final.pdf>
- Boyd M, Grieco E (2003). Women and migration: incorporating gender into international migration theory. [online] [cit. 2018-05-13]. Available from: <http://www.migrationinformation.org/Feature/print.cfm?ID=106>
- Caldwell JC (1969). African rural-urban migration: the movement to Ghana's towns. New York: Columbia Univ. Press.
- Camlin CS, Snow RC, Hosegood V (2013). Gendered patterns of migration in rural South Africa. Population, Space and Place 20(6): 528–551. DOI: 10.1002/psp.1794.

8. Cattaneo C (2007). The self-selection in the migration process: what can we learn? *Liuc Papers in Economics* 199(52).
9. Cerutti M, Massey DS (2001). On the auspices of femal migration from Mexico to the United States. *Demography* 38(2): 187–200. DOI: 10.1353/dem.2001.0013.
10. Clark AV (1986). *Human migration*. Beverly Hills: SAGE Publications.
11. Cochran WG (1977). *Sampling techniques*, 3rd ed. New York: John Wiley & Sons.
12. Curran SR, Saguy AC (1997). Migration and cultural change: a role for gender and social networks? *Journal of International Women's Studies* 2(3): 54–77.
13. De Jong GF (2000). Expectations, gender, and norms in migration decision-making. *Popul Stud* 54(3): 307–319. DOI: 10.1080/713779089.
14. De Jong GF, Richter K, Isarabhakdi P (1996). Gender, values, and intentions to move in rural Thailand. *Int Migr Rev* 30(3): 641–664. DOI: 10.2307/2547635.
15. Deshingkar P (2005). Maximizing the benefits of internal migration for development. Background paper prepared for the Regional Conference on Migration and Development in Asia. Lanzhou, China, 14–16 March 2005. [online] [cit. 2018-05-13]. Available from: <https://www.odi.org/sites/odi.org.uk/files/odi-assets/publications-opinion-files/2358.pdf>
16. Djamba YK (2003). Gender differences in motivations and intentions for move: Ethiopia and South Africa compared. *Genus* 59(2): 93–111.
17. Donato KM (1993). Current trends and patterns of female migration: Evidence from Mexico. *Int Migr Rev* 27(4): 748–771. DOI: 10.2307/2546911.
18. El Jack A (2003). *Gender and armed conflict. Overview Report*. Brighton: BRIDGE/Institute of Development Studies.
19. Ezra M, Kiros GE (2001). Rural out-migration in the drought-prone areas of Ethiopia: a multi-level analysis. *Int Migr Rev* 35(3): 749–771.
20. Fransen S, Kuschminder K (2009). Migration in Ethiopia: history, current trends and future prospects. Paper Series: migration and development country profiles. [online] [cit. 2018-05-13]. Available from: mgsog.merit.unu.edu/ISademie/docs/CR_ethiopia.pdf
21. Goldstein S (1976). Migration and urban growth in Thailand. In: Kubat D (Ed.). *Internal migration: the new world and the third world*. Beverly Hills: SAGE Publications.
22. Gurmu E (2005). *Fertility Transition Driven by Poverty: The Case of Addis Ababa (Ethiopia)*. A PhD Thesis, University of London, England.
23. Hashim IM (2005). Research Report on Children's Independent Migration from Northeastern to Central Ghana. [online] [cit. 2018-05-13]. Available from: https://childhub.org/fr/system/tdf/library/attachments/hashim_05_child_mig_north_0408.pdf?file=1&type=node&id=18160
24. International Organization for Migration (IOM) (2013). Taking action against violence and discrimination affecting migrant women and girls. [online] [cit. 2018-05-13]. Available from: https://publications.iom.int/system/files/pdf/violence_against_women_infosheet2013.pdf
25. Jansen CJ (1970). *Readings in the sociology of migration*. Oxford: Pergman Press.
26. Jolly S, Reeves H (2005). *Gender and migration*. Brighton: Institute of Development Studies.
27. Lattes AE (1989). Emerging pattern of territorial mobility in Latin – America: challenges for research and action. *International Population Conference, Vol. 1*. New Delhi: International Union for Scientific Study of Population.
28. Massey DS (1998). *Worlds in motion: Understanding international migration at the end of the millennium*. Oxford: Clarendon Press.
29. McBride PJ (1991). *Human geography: systems, patterns and change*. 3rd ed. London: Blackie and Son Ltd.
30. Morrissey J (2007). Rural-urban migration in Ethiopia. [online] [cit. 2018-05-13]. Available from: <https://www.fmreview.org/sites/fmr/files/FMRdownloads/en/climatechange/morrissey.pdf>
31. Muru M (2008). Globalization, migration and brain drain: a reality check. *Globalization, migration and brain drain: a reality check* 6(3): 153–163.
32. O'Neil T, Fleury A, Foresti M (2016). Women on the move: migration, gender equality and the 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development. [online] [cit. 2018-05-13]. Available from: <https://www.odi.org/publications/10476-women-move-migration-gender-equality-and-2030-agenda-sustainable-development>
33. Omelaniuk I (2005). *Gender, poverty reduction and migration*. Washington DC: World Bank.
34. Peri G (2016). Immigrants, productivity, and labor markets. *J Econ Perspect* 30(4): 3–30. DOI: 10.1257/jep.30.4.3.
35. Petrozziello AJ (2013). *Gender on the move: working on the migration-development nexus from a gender perspective*. Santo Domingo: UN Women.
36. Piper N (2005). *Gender and migration. Background paper for Global Commission on International Migration (GCIM) and appendix to the GCIM Global Report on Migration, Recommendations to the Secretary General*.
37. Regassa N, Yusufe A (2011). Gender differentials in migration impacts in Southern Ethiopia. *The Antropologist* 11(2): 129–137. DOI: 10.1080/09720073.2009.11891092.
38. Tacoli C, McGranahan G, Satterthwaite D (2015). *Urbanization, rural-urban migration and urban poverty*. Working paper. London: IIED.
39. Tadele F, Pankhurst A, Bevan P, Lavers T (2006). Migration and rural-urban linkages in Ethiopia: case studies of five rural and two urban sites in Addis Ababa, Amhara, Oromia and SNNP Regions and Implications for Policy and Development Practice. Paper prepared for Irish Aid-Ethiopia. ESRC WeD Research Program. United Kingdom: University of Bath.
40. Todaro M P (1976). *Internal migration in developing countries: a review of theory evidence, methodology and research priorities*. Geneva: International Labour Office.
41. UNICEF (2017). Internal migration and gender. [online] [cit. 2018-04-21]. Available from: https://www.unescogym.org/wp-content/uploads/2015/06/5_Internal-Migration-and-Gender_Artwork.pdf
42. United Nations (1984). *Concise Report on the world population situation in 1983 – conditions, trends, prospects, policies*. New York: United Nations.
43. Villalba MA (2002). Philippines: good practices for the protection of Filipino women migrant workers in vulnerable jobs. GENPROM Working Paper 8. Geneva: International Labour Office. Gender Promotion Programme.
44. World Bank (2011). *International migration and development brief*. [online] [cit. 2018-05-13]. Available from: <https://siteresources.worldbank.org/INTPROSPECTS/Resources/334934-1288990760745/MigrationandDevelopmentBrief22.pdf>