Legal status, remittances and socio-economic impacts on rural household in Bangladesh: An empirical study of Bangladeshi migrants in Italy.

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Abstract

This paper presents an overview of legal framework of EU governing residence permits, employment pass and access to integration, describing the most frequent migration pathways employed by Bangladeshis in Italy. It discusses their migration trajectories, socio-demographic profile, the importance of remittances to Bangladesh, and the impact that Italian migration policy has had upon this group, as well as other non-EU nationals more generally. In this paper rural household micro quantitative data have been collected from Bangladesh to explore the relationship between legal status, remittance and socioeconomic impact at the left behind household members. Using univariate and multivariate model, investigate the factors determining of remittance inflows and their socioeconomic impact at their left behind rural household members. The empirical results suggest that there is economic variation between the documented and undocumented Bangladeshi migrants in Italy. While international migration is unlikely to provide a secure route out of positive socio-economic impact at their household for many Bangladeshis within a restrictive immigration environment, as they become trapped in more vulnerable and less sustainable migration processes. It concludes with a discussion of the sociocultural integration of the Bangladeshi migrants in Italy and their future integration opportunities to other EU nations.

Key words: Documented migrant, undocumented migrant, integration

Introduction

According to the International Organization for Migration (IOM), there are an accounted 191 million global migrants in 2005, up from 176 million in 2000. Migrants include 3.0 per cent of the worldwide population. For the period 2000-10, the world migrant stock increased double as fast than during the last decade. In 1990s, the global migrant stock increased at an average of about 2 million migrants per year. During the period 2000-10, the outgrowth in the migrant stock accelerated to about 4.6 million migrants annually. There are 232 million international migrants are staying in the world today[1]. Since 1990, the number of international migrants in the global North grew by about 53 million (65%), on the other hand the migrant population in the global South increased by about 24 million (34%). Nowadays, around six out of every ten international migrants stay in the developed nations (UN, 2013).

In 2006, remittance flows are accounted to have go beyond USD 276 billion globally, USD 206 billion of which sent to developing countries. According to World Bank database (2014)[2], the global remittance flow, which has touched $550 billion last year, is expected to grow by 8 per cent per annum in the next few of years. Of the total remittance fund, $414 billion were received by developing countries, especially Bangladesh, China, India, Mexico, the Philippines, and Pakistan[3].

There are approximately 30 to 40 million undocumented global migrants, comprising around 15 to 20 percent of the global migrant stock (UN, 2013). In 2006, there were 24.5 million internally displaced persons (IDPs) in at least 52 countries as a result of conflict compared to 23.7 million IDPs in 50 countries the year before (UNCHR, 2012). In 2006, the global number of refugees reached an accounted 9.9 million persons. At the end of 2012, the Office of the United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees (UNHCR), the United Nations' refugee agency, reported that there were 15.4 million refugees worldwide. By contrast there were 28.8 million (around double as many) IDPs at the end of 2012.

These facts and figures indicate that international migration is an intricate phenomenon, the dynamics of which are increasingly turning a drastic policy topic global economic, social, legal and cultural topic.

Regulatory framework in EU

The independent movement of workers forms part of the four freedoms upon which the European Community was founded in 1957. This authority, nevertheless broadly interpreted by the European Court of Justice, has basically focused on those who are nationals of the European Community and who are economically active, with special rules applying to their families (Steiner et al 2006). Nowadays, these rights apply to all EU citizens (EC Treaty[4], there is no requirement to show any economic action on the part of the individual seeking to move from one Member State to another. Third-country nationals in their own

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[1] http://www.un.org/en/events/migrantsday/background.shtml
[2] http://econ.worldbank.org/WBSITE/EXTERNAL/EXTDEC/EXTDEC PROSPECTS/0,,contentMDK:22759429~pagePK:64165401~piPK: 4165026~theSitePK:476883,00.html
[3] http://www.worldbank.org/en/news/press-release/2013/10/02/developing-countries-remittances-2013-world-bank

[4] Consolidated version of the Treaty Establishing the European Community, OJ 1997 C 340, 19 March 1997.

right did not fall under these primary regulations, nor do they fall under the regulations as regards free movement of EU citizens[5]. Migration and asylum affairs were handled by the Member States under the Justice and Home Affairs (JHA) pillar, which had been formed by the Treaty on the European Union[6] and operated on an intergovernmental basis. The motive was for Member States to organise their policies and adopt general spaces. Any such judgments were to be decided on a unanimous basis between the Member States, with the EC institutions occupying only a peripheral role (Steiner et al 2006).

Migration and borders are two expressions in relation to which States were reluctant to give up their national deftness in exchange for a common approach. This was only with the Treaty of Amsterdam in 1999 that visas, asylum, migration and other policies relating to the free movement of all persons, including third-country nationals, were shifted from the JHA pillar to Title IV of the EC Treaty (EC Treaty, Arts. 61-69), and therefore from an intergovernmental approach to policy-making to a common approach. The Treaty required the Council to adopt "measures aimed at ensuring the free movement in accordance with Article 14, in conjunction with directly related flanking measures with respect to external border controls, asylum and immigration" within a period of five years after its entry into force (EC Treaty, Art. 61(a)). Articles 61 to 63 of the EC Treaty contribute for measures concerning the immigration of third-country nationals. The United Kingdom (hereafter the UK), Ireland and Denmark do not participate in Title IV. Although, Ireland and the UK have the possibility of "opting in" to some of the measures adopted on an ad hoc basis. Denmark only participates in those measures that build on the former Schengen acquis, but cannot "opt in" to the other initiatives in the same way as Ireland and the UK.

The Tampere European Council of 15 and 16 October 1999 formulated a five-year programme for Justice and Home Affairs, including a common migration and asylum policy to assist the understanding of the goal of the Treaty of Amsterdam[7] to create an area of freedom, security and justice. The Tampere Conclusions organized immigration, borders and asylum into four policy categories: a) partnerships with countries of origin; b) a common European asylum system; c) fair treatment of third-country nationals[8]; and d) management of migration flows (Tampere Conclusions 1999). The main legislative achievements during the period of implementation of the Tampere programme as regards legal immigration of third-country nationals have been in the areas of family reunification and EU long-term resident. Regarding relations with third countries, as a result of the Tampere Conclusions, readmission agreements have been concluded with a number of countries[9] and negotiations with several others are ongoing. Furthermore, the European Parliament and Council adopted a Regulation establishing a programme for financial and technical assistance to third countries in the area of migration and asylum (AENEAS)[10]. However, the Tampere Conclusions were thought to be too ambitious and much work remained to be done upon their termination in 2004, which was addressed by Tampere's successor: The Hague Programme.

The Hague Programme, formulated by the European Council in November 2004, set out the migration policy agenda for the years 2005 to 2010[11]. Its aims are more detailed, but arguably less hops than the Tampere Conclusions. The programme emphasizes the necessity for a comprehensive approach to all stages of immigration. In relation to legal migration, the Programme notes: 'Legal migration will play an important role in enhancing the knowledge-based economy in Europe, in advancing economic development, and thus contributing to the implementation of the Lisbon strategy. It could also play a vital role in partnerships with third countries. The European Council emphasizes that the determination of volumes of entry of labour migrants is a competence of the Member States' (The Hague Programme 2004, p. 10). Forasmuch as integration of third-country nationals is experienced as important to social stability and cohesion, the programme contemplates the establishment of common basic principles (The Hague Programme 2004). Inside The Hague Programme, the Directive for the facilitation of

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[5] The situation is, however, different for Turkish nationals who have been accorded certain rights because of the EEC-Turkey Association Agreements and related decisions of the EEC-Turkey Council of Association, in particular Decision 1/80.
[6] Treaty on the European Union, signed at Maastricht on 7 February 1992, entered into force on 1 November 1993, OJ 2002 C 191/1.
[7] The Treaty of Amsterdam, amending the Treaty on the European Union, the Treaties establishing the European Communities and certain related acts, signed on 2 October 1997, entered into force on 1 May 1999, OJ 1997 C 340/1.

[8] See Article 61(b) of the EC Treaty: "other measures in the fields of asylum, immigration and safeguarding the rights of nationals of third countries, in accordance with the provisions of Article 63"; Article 63(3)(a):
"conditions of entry and residence, and standards on procedures for the issue by Member States of long term visas and residence permits, including those for the purpose of family reunion"; and Article 63(4): "measures defining the rights and conditions under which nationals of third countries who are legally resident in a Member State may reside in other Member States".
[9] Negotiations have been successfully completed with Hong Kong (November 2001), Macao (October 2002), Sri Lanka (May 2002), Albania (November 2003) and Russia (October 2005).
[10] As of 2007, AENEAS has been replaced by the "Thematic programme of cooperation with third-countries in the areas of migration and asylum". The programme will run from 2007 to 2013 and has a budget of approximately 380 million Euros.
[11] Council of the European Union, The Hague Programme: strengthening freedom, security and justice in the European Union 16054/04, Brussels, 13 December 2004.

the admission of students and researchers into the EU was adopted. It is also worth mentioning that following a request in the Hague Programme, the Commission put forward a Communication on the Evaluation of EU Policies on Freedom, Security and Justice.

Migration and integration in Italy

After 1976 Italy started to receive a growing number of immigrants coming from developing countries and Eastern Europe. According to Rusconi (2010), the number of foreign residents increased from 143,800 in 1970 to about 300,000 higher in 1980. By 1985 it reached half a million. In 1990 the migrant increased to one million, in 2000 to two million and in 2005 to three million. According to the Italian National Institute of Statistics the number of migrants living in Italy in 2010 was 4,279,000 million, 7.1% of the total population, an increase of 10% to 2009.

The first attempt to design a comprehensive migration policy was the Act 943 of 1986. This act was accompanied by the first large-scale regularization scheme and was an attempt at addressing the legal status and rights of immigrants. It regulated the status of foreign workers according to the principle of equal work for equal pay and granted foreign salaried workers access to all social services and welfare provisions. Furthermore, it did not reform external control or security procedures. In its collective imagination, Italy was still an emigration country and had difficulties perceiving itself as a destination country. The uncertain status of immigrants was not seen as a challenge to state controls, but rather as an attack on foreign rights. However, the act was never implemented and the first (real) operative legislation dates back to 1990.

The first law on migration (1990)

The first act on migration was the so-called Legge Martelli, Act. 39 of 1990. This act introduced visa requirements for most sending countries, reformed the deportation procedures for irregular immigrants, and introduced sanctions for migrant smugglers and traffickers. For the first time some aspects of the Italian asylum seeking procedure was reformed, making it possible for non-Europeans to seek asylum in the country. At that time Italy was involved in the Schengen process and the above-mentioned law was, in part, an attempt to comply with membership requirements and assure other European members that it was able to prevent the entry of unwanted immigrants into the Schengen space.

Addressing new systematic and comprehensive policy reforms (1996 - 2001) in the second half of the 1990s new reforms took place and gave rise to the first systematic Italian migration law, the Turco-Napolitano law, Act. 40 of 1998, promoted by the centre-left coalition. During the first years of the 1990s, the collapse of the former Yugoslavia and Albania and the civil war in Somalia put Italy under even more pressure of irregular immigration and asylum-seekers. European member states considered Italian borders too "porous" and demanded Italy to adjust them in compliance with Schengen criteria, which required more border controls in order to protect the expanding "Fortress Europe" against uncontrolled immigration.

The law was also defined by solidrist and multiculturalist positions. The law guaranteed access to education and to the National Health System for all immigrants, included irregular immigrants. The act equated legal immigrants with Italians with regard to all social rights; it acknowledged the right to family reunifications and introduced the institution of a permanent residence permit (carta di soggiorno) that foreigners could apply for after five years of permanent residence. It also instituted a Found for Migration Policies to finance integration and multicultural initiatives with the support of NGOs and other philanthropic institutions.

The centre – right reforms (2001 - 2006)

In 2001 the centre – right coalition returned to power after an electoral campaign focused on migration. Right-winged parties, most of all the identitarian and xenophobic party Lega Nord, were able to exploit and fuel security worries that were widespread in the public. The new government modified the former migration law through the approval of the new Bossi – Fini law (n. 189/2002) in 2002.

In spite of the restrictive provisions of the law, the largest regularization ever granted in Europe occurred under it, and 634,728 Rusconi (2010) people were regularized during the right-wing government. It is worth mentioning that the entire apparatus of social and family rights of all immigrants (including undocumented ones) was left intact.

The second round of centre – right reforms (2008 – 2010)

During its short-lived legislature (2006-2008), the centre - left coalition did not succeed in putting any substantial innovation in migration matters into practice. In 2008 the centre – right coalition Popolo delle Libertá, lead by Silvio Berlusconi, came into power again. His return also implied the strengthening of the repressive components in immigration policy. On May 2008, the Italian Interior Minister Roberto Maroni launched the so-called "Security Package"

(Pacchetto Sicurezza), including legislation on migration in the wider area of public security measures.

The following two laws are the main laws contained in the 'Security Package':

Firstly, Law n. 125 of 2008, conversion of the former legislative bill 'Urgent Norms on Security Matters'.

Secondly, Law n. 94 of 2009, 'Regulations on Security Matters'.

On the whole, the new regulations imply such a substantial reduction of foreigner's rights that they clash with the fundamental rights guaranteed by the constitution. Once again, the efforts have concentrated on the (already) ineffective repression of irregular immigration through the control of spatial movements, without giving any attention to internal factors such as the widespread shadow economy that motivate and pull these flows. Furthermore, barely any consideration has been given to the integration of foreigners; on the contrary, it seems to promote a climate of inequality and differentiation. The prohibition of the health system, fortunately revoked, and the introduction of 'differentiated classes' for children of migrants are only two examples.

Background of Bangladeshi migrants in Italy

Bangladeshi migration to Italy developed, as a .form of migratory opportunism provoked by the basic push forces back home and by lax entry controls and regularisation drives in Italy' (King and Knights, 1994). Italy's first three sets of legislation for migration reform (the laws of 1986, 1990, and 1998) played a vital role in the emergence of permanent Bangladeshi migrant community in Italy. Of these legislations, the Martelli Law of 1990 provided a huge impetus for Bangladeshi migration to Italy. According to Knights (1996), the Martelli Law gave rise to three separate migration processes for Bangladeshis: (i) opportunistic migration – Bangladeshis from other countries came to Italy to seize the opportunity of becoming regular migrants and subsequently permanent or renewable-status residents in Italy; (ii) recruitment migration (formal and informal recruitment business); and finally, (iii) family or kinship migration (because of adoption of family reunion policy).

Therefore, changes in migration rules and regulations in Italy since the mid-1980s created an opportunity for both documented and undocumented Bangladeshi migration to Italy. The Bureau of Manpower, Employment and Training(BMET), monitoring outflow of authorised migration for work specially for plantation and agriculture, started recording the outflow of Bangladeshis migrant to Italy since 2002. As per the BMET source, 49,822 migrants went to Italy through authorised channels between 2002 and 2012. On the other hand, Bangladesh Bank, which is in charge of reporting inflow of remittances into Bangladesh started reporting annual inflow of remittances from Italy to Bangladesh in 2000. According to Bangladesh Bank database (2013), Bangladeshi migrants remitted nearly US$1277.11 million from Italy to Bangladesh between 2007 and 2013. However, before 2000, the inflow of remittances from Italy was predominantly through the informal channel called money laundering - a popular informal channel of remittances used by global Bangladeshis (Rahman and Yeoh, 2008).

Network to entry process of Bangladeshi migrants to Italy

There are three main channels of migration to Italy: Irregular migration, quota system, and family reunification. It is important to note that migrants who eventually ended up in Italy in the 1980s and even 1990s did not necessarily intend to do so when they first moved to Europe. Many Bangladeshis who were living in other parts of Europe and Gulf region on various status such as work permit, refugees, students, short-term trainees, and the last but not least irregular migrants chose to settle in Italy because of Italy's liberal migration policy and easy to periodic regularisation drives. Most Bangladeshi migrants entered Italy clandestinely in the 1980s and 1990s and a good number of new migrants still sneak into the country in an unauthorised way by the help of human trafficker through all three routes – air, land and sea (Kabir and Rahman, 2012).

Irregular migration to Italy through sea borders involves mainly three routes: The crossing of the Otranto Channel (Valona-Lecce coast), the Sicily Channel (the coast of North Africa to the Sicilian coast); the eastern Mediterranean channels (Eastern Mediterranean ports – Turkey, Egypt, Syria, Lebanon - to Apulia, Calabria and Sicily route) (Pastoreet et. al., 2006; King and Knights, 1994; UNODC, 2010; Knights, 1996; Monzini, 2007). In the 1980s and 1990s, most Bangladeshis reached Turkey and flew to Morocco first to go onto Italy. However, in the last decade the overwhelming majority of Bangladeshis who used sea routes departed mainly from North African countries, especially Libya. As UNODC report suggests, the importance of Libya as a country of transit corresponds to the decrease in the importance of routes originating in Albania, Tunisia, and Turkey, and to the reduction of flows from Morocco to Spain migration channel (UNODC, 2010).

After the opening-up of Italy's immigration policy in the second half of the 1990s, Bangladeshi migrants were allowed to enter Italy under the quota visa system. Since 2006, under the quota visa system, 3,000 Bangladeshis could annually enter Italy for work (IOM: 2006). In addition to quota visas, family reunification visas are the popular network for migration of spouses and children of migrants. Approximately 3,000 family reunification visas are issued from the Italy Embassy in Bangladesh in a year (Zeitlyn, 2006). It is important to note that potential migrants are offered 'Italy visa' to land in Italy but not 'Schengen visa' that would have offered the right to land at any European Union country. As a result, all migrants from Bangladesh need to land in Italy first and claim migration status as per visa offered in Dhaka.

Role of human trafficker in the migration process to Italy

Migration to Italy is considered highly desirable but often inaccessible and unaffordable for potential Bangladeshi migrants because of lack of access to networks of human trafficker and exorbitant fees that a potential migrant is required to pay in the migration process. The role of human trafficker or intermediaries is crucial to migration occurrence in the Bangladesh-Italy migration corridor.

The services of human trafficker are unavoidable in the migration process whether it is regular or irregular migration. A prospective regular migrant often requires the services of several human traffickers located at both ends of migration – Bangladesh and Italy. In Italy, they provide services to potential dependent visa or quota visa applicants. In Bangladesh, they also provide services to both groups of visa applicants in the area of passport application, air ticket booking, visa application, and so on. In addition to serving the formal visa applicants, they also serve irregular migrants by running transnational syndicates of irregular migration to Italy (Monzini, 2007; UNODC, 2010). More focussed research is needed to understand the transnational syndicate of irregular migration in the South Asia-Southern European migration corridor.

However, human trafficker usually emerges from the early migrants and their relatives and friends. The emergence of human trafficker from early migrants and their close-knit group makes migration almost a location-specific phenomenon. For instance, there are 64 districts in Bangladesh but migrants in Italy are predominantly from a few districts such as greater Faridpur, Comilla, Dhaka, and Noakhali. This overwhelming support from relatives and friends

suggests why migration to Italy is a location-specific phenomenon in Bangladesh.

The role of immigrant reception in Italy

Italy has passed several sets of immigration legislations since the mid-1980s to control migration flows, and regularise and integrate new immigrants (Chaloff, 2004; Cesareo, 2009; Blangiardo, 2009; Pastore et al, 2006). The first attempt was made in 1986 when Italy devised policy to control the entry of immigrants seeking employment and regularised immigrants who were already in Italy and could prove they were employed. This immigrationre form facilitated the regularisation of about 105,000 migrants (Cesareo, 2007). The second legislation, enacted in 1990 known as the „Martelli Law", was broad in scope; it introduced the annual planning of migratory flows (limited admissions of foreigners for work), and certain norms regarding the rights and obligations of foreigners in Italy, stay and work conditions, and other related matters such as family reunion and social integration. The Martelli Law offered immigrants the opportunity to regularise their presence irrespective of their employment status. A total of 217,000 immigrants regularised their status (Knights, 1996).

In 2002, Italy passed the immigration law known as the Bossi-Fini Law that paved the way for regularisation of more than 700,000 immigrants in the country (Cesareo, 2007; Chaloff, 2006). However, the Bossi-Fini law imposed restrictions on two domains: Entry and the conditions of stay. The quota system emerged as a key tool to meet the demand for labour in the country. The quota system was designed to serve both source and host countries, as sending countries would benefit from remittances and Italy from foreign labour. However, soon after the introduction of quota system, it became increasingly evident that the quota system was not producing the desired outcome. Two common causes are often cited for this failure: Limited number of visas allowed under this category (imbalance between demand for labour and supply of labour) and complicated bureaucratic procedures involved in the quota visa processing (Zanfrini, 2003; Chaloff, 2006).

The drawback inherent in quota system created a situation where many potential migrants found their own way to circumvent bureaucratic restrictions. They sneaked into Italy clandestinely and joined the labour market in order to establish a relationship with employers who might be willing to undertake the complicated bureaucratic procedure necessary for legal entry or to support their applications during regularisation drive. When clandestine entry into the country remains a challenge for potential migrants, the availability of work after entry and the possibility of

securing regular immigration status during the frequent regularisation drives remain open to them, providing adequate incentive for seeking irregular entry into the country. In addition to quota, another important channel for regular migration is the family reunion visa. Family reunion visa is allowed to dependents of immigrants, especially spouses and children. The current trend in Italy is the fall in employment visas and the rise in family reunion visas. For instance, between 2007 and 2008, the number of visas issued for family reunification rose 39 per cent from 89,000 to 123,000, while entries for employment fell sharply (SOPEMI, 2010: 214). This trend suggests that Italy has entered a new phase from single migration to family immigration and settlement.

Research Methodology

Selection of survey village and course of the survey

In line with the study focus, the selection of the study area in Bangladesh was based on the high incidence of household members migrating to Italy at the sub-district level (Upazila) and the prevalence of remittance-receiving households at the sub-sub-district level (Union Parisad). Shariatpur is located in the Dhaka division and in the greater Faridpur District. Among the households, a significant number of migrants are from Naria Upazila, Shariatpur District. Naria sub-district has 14 sub-sub-districts and Vogeshore union one of the sub-sub-districts, has been selected randomly for census data because there is no available published data on Bangladeshi migrant workers in Italy. Emigration from Bangladesh to Italy is predominantly a rural phenomenon. Therefore, the fieldwork undertaken for this research consists of an ethnographic village study in Bangladesh with particular reference to remittance sending migrant worker in Italy to bridge the micro and macro paradigms of migration and remittance, and offer analytical insights into the determinants and impacts of such remittance.

Study Design

The primary data was collected from households in the Naria Upazila of Shariatpur District in Bangladesh as the researcher is from this area and is familiar with its geography and people. In the second phase, first-hand knowledge was obtained through ask a single question (whether the household has members who have worked in Italy or not) to each of the 4013 households in the 10 study villages. Thereafter a structured questionnaire in which several open ended and closed ended questions were asked to exactly identify different factors playing a pivotal role for migrants' families. The responses were collected in a quantitative way, i.e. through an appropriate questionnaire, and through a qualitative method, through conducting direct interviews. The respondents were the heads of households or senior members of families which had a member. Their responses were analysed and summarised to derive conclusions about the migration impacts, by post-and pre migration data.

Census of households in the 10 survey villages

After ascertaining the names of household heads and addresses from the *Union Parisad* (the lowest administrative unit of local government), the four field workers were directed to only ask a single question (whether the household had members who have worked in Italy or not of each of the 4013 households in the 10 study villages. This enabled the identification of the census population from which the sample of households which had received remittances form household members working in Italy would be drawn.

Sample Size

In selecting a representative sample of the population, Krejcie and Morgan's (1970) recommendation was accepted in this study. After categorising the household migrant members in Italy a random sample of 300 households was selected, the share in each village corresponding to their proportion in the whole population (the remittance received household). Then, the remittance received households in each village were picked randomly. In the process, every household was coded during the first stage census survey and recorded pn a separate identical size of piece of paper. Thereafter, all folded papers were thoroughly mixed up to assure the same probability of selection of each household and to overcome systematic sampling error. One folded paper was picked up each time by the researcher himself. After each selection, the pile of folder papers was mixed up again and another person was chosen only to pick up another folded paper and the process continued until the sample remittance received household total was attained. Finally the interviews of selected households were administered with structured and semi-structured questionnaires.

Econometric model building and multivariate analysis

The econometric model has been developed in the Equation1.1 has been regressed to observe the association between household yearly remittances received and the exploratory determinant variables. To build up good fit model, variable reduction was undertaking through a process of 'backward elimination' which starts by including all potential variables and assessing their statistical significance one by one and discarding those which are highly non-significant. The backward process were undertaking three stages to build up best fit model and determine the key determinants of remittances of the study area.

Before starting the 'backward elimination' approach (Hocking 1976), it is essential to check whether the collected data satisfy some fundamental statistical assumptions to justify the selection of the best fit model. For the cross sectional data used in this study, the following three are considered important- normality, multicollinearity and autocorrelation because, as Gujarati (2003) states, not all assumptions are applicable for every type of data.

In constructing a complete model, twenty three variables for tentative model. The complete model as follows:

$$RmY = \alpha + \alpha_1 \text{AGEm} + \alpha_2 \text{EDUm} + \alpha_3 \text{MARSm} + \alpha_4 \text{YMIGm} + \alpha_5 \text{LEGSm} + \alpha_6 \text{NVISTm} +$$

$$\alpha_7 \text{AGEhh} + \alpha_8 \text{GENhh} + \alpha_9 \text{MARShh} + \alpha_{10} \text{EDUhh} + \alpha_{11} \text{RELhh} + \alpha_{12} \text{EMPShh} +$$

$$\alpha_{13} \text{RELMhh} + \alpha_{14} \text{HHsize} + \alpha_{15} \text{HLOWtitle} + \alpha_{16} \text{Invest\_Fin\_Sec} +$$

$$\alpha_{17} \text{Invest\_Hous\_Dev} + \alpha_{18} \text{Ln\_Live\_Exp} + \alpha_{19} \text{Ln\_HH\_Incom} + \alpha_{20} \text{Inest\_Busi} +$$

$$\alpha_{21} \text{Ln\_Welf} + \alpha_{23} \text{Loan\_Rep} + e^1 \text{----------------------------(1.1)}$$

Here, e_1 is error term.

The explanation of variables in the regression is explained in Table 1.

Ethical Considerations

The researcher maintained objectivity, presented the honest and true research findings and obtained the approval of the Human Research Ethics Committee of Southern Cross University (Approval Number ECN-13-141), before commencing the primary data collection activities. This research was conducted in compliance with the Australia National Statement on Ethical Conduct in Human Research (2007).

Findings and discussion

The empirical results show (table 2) that the documented migrants have been living in Italy for the period of 1to 24 years while undocumented 1 to 9 years. The results indicate that the period of migration not much relevant to the documentation process there might be some other variables influences to the legalisation process in the destination.

Table 2: Year of migration

Year of migration	Documented		Undocumented	
	Frequency	Percentage	Frequency	Percentage
1-4	9	3.6	42	82.4
5-9	159	63.9	9	17.6
10-14	69	27.7		
15-19	9	3.6		
20-24	3	1.2		
Total	249	100.0	51	100.0

The survey results presented in table 3 show 83% documented and 17% otherwise migrants were sent remittance at their left behind household member in rural Bangladesh. The remittance ranges were between BDT 1,00,001 to 15,00,000. The highest range of remittance BDT 14,00,001 to 15,00,000 only were sent by the documented migrants while the undocumented migrants highest range was BDT 5,00,001 to 6,00,000. In the context of lowest range of remittance were not differ between the legal status of the migrants in Italy. Therefore the results suggest the legal status affect remittances inflows. However, the following figure 2 shows that the documented migrants were sent remittance different ranges. Among the ranges, the highest percentage of migrants 24% sent yearly BDT 500,001-600,000. The highest level of remittances BDT 14,00,001-15,00,000 of 1% and lowest level of remittances BDT 1,00,001-2,00,000 of 7%. It assumed that the legal status of the migrant affect remittances flow at the origin in cash and kind.

Figure 2: Distribution of remittances of documented migrants in percentage
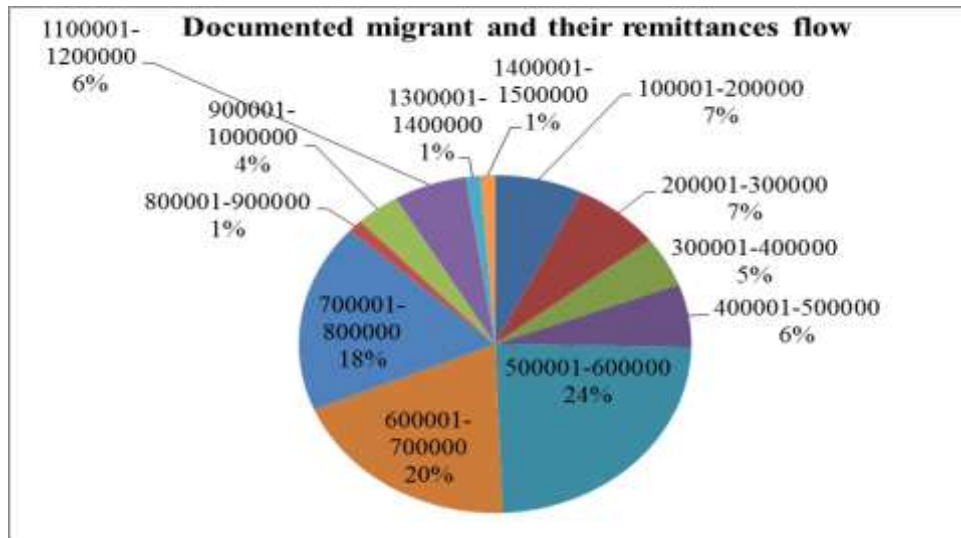
Source: Developed from the survey data

On the other hand, undocumented migrants remittance inflow shows in the figure 3 where the majority 70% migrants sent between BDT 1,00,001 to 3,00,000 yearly remittances to their left behind household members at the rural Bangladesh.

Figure 3: Distribution of remittances of undocumented migrants in percentage
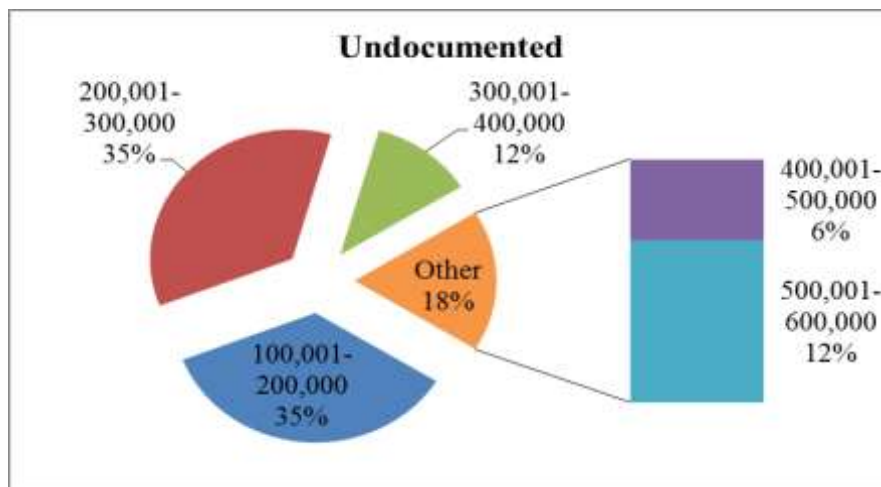
Source: Developed from the survey data

The regression results of the complete model (Equation 1.1) are given Table 4. The results postulate that all variable are not statistically significant. The obtained R^2 (.611) is high and highly significant because the calculated F statistic (13.294) as it is 'p' value is almost zero. These results indicate that all the explanatory variables jointly impact the household yearly remittance received (dependent variable). Multicolliearity represents a state of linear relationships existing among some or all the predictor variables in a regression model. It occurs when explanatory variables in the model are highly correlated to each other. Testing multicollinearity is important for model specification and is considered in this study.

The results in Table 4 would support the classical assumption of multicollinearity, for the high R^2 value (.611) and 10 variables (YMIGm, LEGSm, HLOWtitle, HHsize, EDUm, Ln_HH_Incom, RELhh, Ln_Welf_EDUhh and Loan_Rep) are statistically insignificant in the first model of 13 variables. Towards develop best fit model of regression, the final best fit model were build up only 11 variables for the remittance determinants. Among the determinants, there are significant difference between the legal status

(documented and undocumented) of migrants and remittance inflows variables. The documented migrants significant determinants show in the table are NVISTm AGEhh, GENhh, MARShh, EMPShh, RELMhh, Invest_Hous_Dev, Ln_Land and Ln_Live_Exp while undocumented AGEhh, MARShh, and RELMhh.

The table 6 summarised the four point Likert scale results which explores only greatly extended socioeconomic conditions to the left behind household members. The results indicate that the legal status of the migrant affect at the origin at their left behind household members at the rural Bangladesh. The undocumented migrants remittance inflow has a little bit impact to their household members while documented migrant has wide ranges of greatly extended impact at their socioeconomic conditions such as Improve children education improve housing condition, employment opportunity, increase living standards, financial stability, extend family networks, extend social networks and savings.

Table 5 explores the relationship between the legal status of migrant of migrant and the socioeconomic impacts from remittances. It indicates that 82.4% of the undocumented migrants' had acquired a strong score on the index variable "socioeconomic impact from remittances". They are less abundant than of the same category those had attained a low score on that index variable (2.0%). The table also express that 16.1% of the documented migrants had attained a low score on the index variable and their strong index indicates 7.2%. Therefore, the migrants' period of migration is significantly related with the socioeconomic impacts from remittance. Lower period of migration of the migrants had strong socioeconomic impacts at the left behind household while long period of migration of migrants had low impacts. This may be stated by the knowledge that short period of migration of migrant's leads them to send more money for the payback of migration costs and to develop their household members living standard. The chi-square value analysis $P < 0.005$ and the Gamma value confirmed the significant relationship between legal status of migrant and the socioeconomic impacts from remittance. Therefore, the study express that the undocumented of migrants, the stronger is the socioeconomic impacts from remittances.

Table (8-15) explores the compares results of degree of socioeconomic impact with their socio-demographic determinants such as age of migrant, migrant marital status, number of visit by the migrant, age of household head, marital status of household head, gender of household head, employment status of household head, and household relation to the migrant.

The Pearson correlation coefficient summaries, the direction and strength of the relationship between the socioeconomic impacts from remittances and the socio-demographic variables of the household members. The table 16 indicate the relationship of documented migrants while the table 17 undocumented. The documented migrant show the highly significant at the 1% level of confidence with number of visit by the migrants, this happen might be documented migrants visited at the origin frequently and they bring in kind remittances like jewellery, electronics, cloths, toiletries etc. while 5% level of confidence the age of migrant. In the case of undocumented migrants, 1% level of confidence, age of household head and the relation of household head to the migrant highly statistically correlated.

Conclusion

This paper has attempted to provide insights into the EU regulatory framework and also Italy and the Bangladeshi migration to Italy and its socioeconomic impacts of left behind household in Bangladesh and also migration integration process. This study revel that the EU regulatory framework and Italy are not similar, therefore illegal migration destination for the third world country still golden dream. This study has focused empirical studies on the routes of migration for both early and recent Bangladeshi migrants. Migration through irregular networks usually comprised of combination of air and land routes or air and sea and sometimes all of three. To put the routes in the order of use, in the early 1980s most migrants took air route and land route while in the 1990s and the 2000s, land and sea routes emerge as dominant channels for undocumented Bangladeshi migration to Italy. For authorised migration since the late 1990s, the predominant route of travel has been air route. In the migratory process, the key players who facilitate documented and undocumented migration are popularly called so called intermediate agents and human trafficker in Bangladesh. They cash in on their familiarity with the routes, access to Italy's labour market and their connections with the local bureaucracy.

A remittance inflow to migrant household represents the solidarity and loyalty with households left behind in rural Bangladesh. The average amount of yearly remittances range was BDT 500,001-600,000 and the frequency of remittances in a year was 6 times for both documented and undocumented. Migrant households used this disposable resource for uncountable purposes starting from basic consumption to religious, social and cultural ceremonies. This study reports some visible impacts of the use of remittances on food consumption, education, health care and local income generation. Presenting the wide spectrum of use of

remittances, this study argues that remittances increase the opportunities of migrant families and contribute to their wellbeing. However, there is significance difference in the remittances inflow of documented and undocumented migrants. As for the documented migrants significant determinants of remittance show number of visit by the migrant, age of household head, gender of household head, marital status of household head, employment status of household head, household head relation to migrant, investment in housing development, household land, and household living expenses while undocumented age of household head, marital status of household head and household relation to migrant. The documented migrants frequently travel to origin but undocumented never travel to Bangladesh.

This study should be seen as an early attempt to explain the Bangladeshi migration to Italy and its importance for migrant left behind household members. While this study offers valuable insights into Bangladeshi migration to Italy, more research is required adopting two-way surveys – Bangladesh and Italy - and ethnographic fieldwork for better understanding of the migration and integration process in Italy and their implications for the left-behind household in Bangladesh.

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Table 1: Specification of variables for multivariate analysis, Equation (1.1)

	Group of variables	Name of variables	Identification
Regression Equation		**Dependent Variable**	
	Household yearly remittance received	RmY	Natural log of yearly remittance, numeric (BDT)
		Independent variable	
	Individual characteristics (Migrant and Household head)	Age of migrant (**AGEm**)	Numeric (year)
		Education of Migrant (**EDUm**)	Numeric (coding)
		Marital Status of Migrant (**MARSm**)	Numeric (coding)
		Year of Migration (**YMIGm**)	Numeric (year)
		Legal Status of Migrant (**LEGSm**)	Numeric (coding)
		Number of Visit by Migrant (**NVISTm**)	Numeric
		Age of Household Head (**AGEhh**)	Numeric (year)
		Gender of Household Head (**GENhh**)	Numeric (coding)
		Marital Status of Household (**Head MARShh**)	Numeric (coding)
		Education Level of Household Head (**EDUhh**)	Numeric (coding)
		Religion of Household Head (**RELhh**)	Numeric (coding)
		Employment Status of Household Head (**EMPShh**)	Numeric (coding)
		Household Head Relation to Migrant (**RELMhh**)	Numeric (coding)
	Household Characteristics	Household Size (**HHsize**)	
		Household Land Ownership (**HLOWtitle**)	Numeric (coding)
		Investment in Financial Sectors (**Invest_Fin_Sec**)	Numeric (coding)
		Investment in House Development (**Invest_Hous_Dev**)	Numeric (coding)
		Log of Household Living Expenditure (**Ln_Live_Exp**)	Natural log of HH yearly living expenditure, numeric (BDT)
		Log of Household Yearly Income (**Ln_HH_Incom**)	Natural log of yearly income except remittance, numeric (BDT)
		Investment in Business (**Inest_Busi**)	Numeric
		Log of Household Welfare Expenses (**Ln_Welf**)	Natural log of yearly HH welfare expenses, numeric (BDT)
		Loan Repayment (**Loan_Rep**)	Numeric (coding)

Source: Author developed for this study

Table 3: Cross Tabulation Household yearly remittance received and legal status of migrants

Household yearly remittance received (BDT)	Legal Status of Migrant		Total
	Otherwise	Documented	
100,001-200,000	18	18	36
200,001-300,000	18	18	36
300,001-400,000	6	12	18
400,001-500,000	3	15	18
500,001-600,000	6	60	66
600,001-700,000	0	48	48
700,001-800,000	0	45	45
800,001-900,000	0	3	3
900,001-10,00,000	0	9	9
11,00,001-12,00,000	0	15	15
13,00,001-14,00,000	0	3	3
14,00,001-15,00,000	0	3	3
Total	51	249	300
% of Total	17.0%	83.0%	100.0%

Source: Developed from the survey data

Table 4: Full model regression results

Model	Dependent variable					
	Household yearly remittance received (RmY)				Collinearity Statistics	
	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t-value	p-value	Tolerance	VIF
AGEm	-.498	.149	-.300	-3.341	.001	.248	4.030
EDUm	.049	.166	.019	.297	.767	.506	1.976
MARSm	-.820	.339	-.160	-2.424	.016	.458	2.185
YMIGm	.035	.301	.010	.115	.909	.270	3.703
LEGSm	-.084	.547	-.012	-.153	.878	.328	3.051
NVISTm	.398	.094	.368	4.239	.000	.264	3.781
AGEhh	.417	.102	.445	4.113	.000	.170	5.867
GENhh	2.427	.812	.432	2.988	.003	.096	10.455
MARShh	3.798	.775	.416	4.899	.000	.277	3.611
EDUhh	.101	.130	.052	.779	.437	.445	2.247
RELhh	.502	.494	.095	1.016	.311	.229	4.375
EMPShh	-.299	.093	-.404	-3.222	.001	.127	7.861
RELMhh	.601	.218	.275	2.763	.006	.202	4.950
HHsize	.018	.089	.011	.205	.838	.689	1.451
HLOWNtitle	.044	.234	.013	.186	.853	.396	2.523
Invest_Fin_Sec	.266	.158	.110	1.683	.094	.471	2.124
Invest_Hous_Dev	2.021	.436	.365	4.632	.000	.322	3.108
Ln_Land	.342	.194	.152	1.757	.080	.266	3.764
Ln_Live_Exp	2.693	.767	.325	3.511	.001	.233	4.290
Ln_HH_Incom	-.193	.300	-.092	-.643	.521	.098	10.215
Invest_Busi	.243	.096	.151	2.535	.012	.563	1.775
Ln_WelF	.534	.644	.066	.829	.408	.318	3.146
Loan_Rep	-.810	.482	-.083	-1.680	.095	.809	1.235
Intercept						-46.141
R^2						.611
Adjusted R^2						.565
F-statistic						13.294
Sum squared residual						536.164
Durbin-Watson statistics (d)						1.891

Source: Developed from the survey data

Table 5: Significance of documented and undocumented migrant's remittance

Model	Dependent variable							
	Household yearly remittance received (RmY)							
	Documented Migrants				Undocumented Migrants			
	Unstand. Coefficients		Stand. Coefficients	t-value	p-value	Unstand. Coefficients		Stand. Coefficients	t-value	p-value
AGEm	-.202	.106	-.123	-1.901	.059	-.185	.333	-.155	-.555	.582
MARSm	-.570	.346	-.093	-1.647	.101	.944	1.482	.361	.637	.527
NVISTm	.125	.053	.115	2.361	.019	------	------	------	------	------
AGEhh	.243	.092	.267	2.644	.009	.841	.277	1.754	3.037	.004
GENhh	3.123	.762	.580	4.100	.000	1.405	2.399	.529	.586	.561
MARShh	2.499	.590	.290	4.236	.000	3.988	1.793	1.390	2.225	.032
EMPShh	-.192	.088	-.248	-2.196	.029	-.160	.103	-.307	-1.554	.128
RELMhh	.455	.183	.186	2.482	.014	.973	.457	.697	2.130	.039
Invest_Hous_Dev	2.727	.347	.392	7.858	.000	------	------	------	------	------
Ln_Land	.279	.134	.114	2.082	.038	.190	.272	.156	.698	.489
Ln_Live_Exp	4.072	.469	.467	8.684	.000	-.814	.793	-.224	-1.026	.311
Intercept	-59.061					-.065				
R^2	.530					.487				
Adjusted R^2	.508					.374				
F-statistic	24.266					4.318				
Sum squared residual	839.727					44.754				
Durbin-Watson statistics (d)	2.018					2.343				
Observation	249					51				

Source: Developed from the survey data

Table 6: Socioeconomic greatly extended

Socioeconomic condition	Documented		Undocumented	
	To great extent		To great extent	
	Frequency	Percentage	Frequency	Percentage
Improve children education	114	45.8	9	17.6
Improve housing condition	168	67.5	------	-------
Employment opportunity	18	7.2	------	-------
Increase living standards	27	10.8	------	-------
Financial stability	6	2.4	------	-------
Extend family networks	45	18.1	3	5.9
Extend social networks	63	25.3	3	5.9
Savings	12	4.8		

Table 7: Legal Status of Migrant and Socioeconomic impact from remittances

Legal Status of Migrant		Socioeconomic impact from remittances			
		Low	Medium	Strong	Total
Otherwise	F	1	8	42	51
	%	2.0%	15.7%	82.4%	100.0%
Documented	F	18	191	40	249
	%	7.2%	76.7%	16.1%	100.0%
Total	F	19	199	82	300
	%	6.3%	66.3%	27.3%	100.0%
Pearson Chi-Square					93.667
Gamma					-.884

Source: Developed from the survey data

Table 8: Age of migrant

Age of migrant		Socioeconomic impact from remittances							
		Documented				Undocumented			
		Low	Medium	Strong	Total	Low	Medium	Strong	Total
21-25	F	3	3	3	9	0		3	3
	%	1.2%	1.2%	1.2%	3.6%	.0%		5.9%	5.9%
26-30	F	3	42	12	57		3	15	18
	%	1.2%	16.9%	4.8%	22.9%		5.9%	29.4%	35.3%
31-35	F	12	42	15	69		3	18	21
	%	4.8%	16.9%	6.0%	27.7%		5.9%	35.3%	41.2%
36-40	F	3	33	3	39		3	3	6
	%	1.2%	13.3%	1.2%	15.7%		5.9%	5.9%	11.8%
41-45	F	3	30	6	39	0		3	3
	%	1.2%	12.0%	2.4%	15.7%	.0%		5.9%	5.9%
46-50	F	3	9	3	15				
	%	1.2%	3.6%	1.2%	6.0%				
51-55	F	6	12	0	18				
	%	2.4%	4.8%	.0%	7.2%				
56-60	F	0	3	0	3				
	%	.0%	1.2%	.0%	1.2%				
Total	F	33	174	42	249	9		42	51
	%	13.3%	69.9%	16.9%	100.0%	17.6%		82.4%	100.0%

Source: Developed from the survey data

Table 9: Marital status of migrant

Marital status of migrant		Socioeconomic impact from remittances							
		Female				Male			
		Low	Medium	Strong	Total	Low	Medium	Strong	Total
Unmarried	F	9	42	12	63		6	18	24
	%	3.6%	16.9%	4.8%	25.3%		11.8%	35.3%	47.1%
Married	F	24	132	30	186		3	24	27
	%	9.6%	53.0%	12.0%	74.7%		5.9%	47.1%	52.9%
Total	F	33	174	42	249		9	42	51
	%	13.3%	69.9%	16.9%	100.0%		17.6%	82.4%	100.0%

Source: Developed from the survey data

Table 10: Number of Visit by Migrant

Number of visit		Socioeconomic impact from remittances							
		Documented				Undocumented			
		Low	Medium	Strong	Total	Low	Medium	Strong	Total
0	F	0	0	3	3		9	42	51
	%	.0%	.0%	1.2%	1.2%		17.6%	82.4%	100.0%
1	F	6	3	6	15				
	%	2.4%	1.2%	2.4%	6.0%				
2	F	3	36	9	48				
	%	1.2%	14.5%	3.6%	19.3%				
3	F	9	27	12	48				
	%	3.6%	10.8%	4.8%	19.3%				
4	F	6	45	12	63				
	%	2.4%	18.1%	4.8%	25.3%				
5	F	0	24	0	24				
	%	.0%	9.6%	.0%	9.6%				
6	F	0	9	0	9				
	%	.0%	3.6%	.0%	3.6%				
7	F	0	15	0	15				
	%	.0%	6.0%	.0%	6.0%				
8	F	0	9	0	9				
	%	.0%	3.6%	.0%	3.6%				
10	F	6	6	0	12				
	%	2.4%	2.4%	.0%	4.8%				
14	F	3	0	0	3				
	%	1.2%	.0%	.0%	1.2%				
Total	F	33	174	42	249		9	42	51
	%	13.3%	69.9%	16.9%	100.0%		17.6%	82.4%	100.0%

Source: Developed from the survey data

Table 11: Age of household head

Age of household head		Socioeconomic impact from remittances							
		Documented				Undocumented			
		Low	Medium	Strong	Total	Low	Medium	Strong	Total
21-25	F	0	0	3	3		0	3	3
	%	.0%	.0%	1.2%	1.2%		.0%	5.9%	5.9%
26-30	F	0	18	0	18		0	6	6
	%	.0%	7.2%	.0%	7.2%		.0%	11.8%	11.8%
31-35	F	6	21	6	33		0	3	3
	%	2.4%	8.4%	2.4%	13.3%		.0%	5.9%	5.9%
36-40	F	3	27	3	33		0	3	3
	%	1.2%	10.8%	1.2%	13.3%		.0%	5.9%	5.9%
41-45	F	0	12	0	12		0	3	3
	%	.0%	4.8%	.0%	4.8%		.0%	5.9%	5.9%
46-50	F	0	9	0	9		0	3	3
	%	.0%	3.6%	.0%	3.6%		.0%	5.9%	5.9%
51-55	F	3	6	6	15		0	6	6
	%	1.2%	2.4%	2.4%	6.0%		.0%	11.8%	11.8%
56-60	F	9	30	15	54		3	12	15
	%	3.6%	12.0%	6.0%	21.7%		5.9%	23.5%	29.4%
61-65	F	0	12	3	15		3	3	6
	%	.0%	4.8%	1.2%	6.0%		5.9%	5.9%	11.8%
66-70	F	9	24	6	39		3	0	3
	%	3.6%	9.6%	2.4%	15.7%		5.9%	.0%	5.9%
71-75		3	15	0	18				
		1.2%	6.0%	.0%	7.2%				
Total	F	33	174	42	249		9	42	51
	%	13.3%	69.9%	16.9%	100.0%		17.6%	82.4%	100.0%

Source: Developed from the survey data

Table 12: Marital status of household head

Marital status of household head		Socioeconomic impact from remittances							
		Documented				Undocumented			
		Low	Medium	Strong	Total	Low	Medium	Strong	Total
Otherwise	F	3	18	6	27		3	12	15
	%	1.2%	7.2%	2.4%	10.8%		5.9%	23.5%	29.4%
Married	F	30	156	36	222		6	30	36
	%	12.0%	62.7%	14.5%	89.2%		11.8%	58.8%	70.6%
Total	F	33	174	42	249		9	42	51
	%	13.3%	69.9%	16.9%	100.0%		17.6%	82.4%	100.0%

Source: Developed from the survey data

Table 13: Gender of household head

Gender of household head		Socioeconomic impact from remittances							
		Documented				Undocumented			
		Low	Medium	Strong	Total	Low	Medium	Strong	Total
Male	F	21	90	27	138		6	15	21
	%	8.4%	36.1%	10.8%	55.4%		11.8%	29.4%	41.2%
Female	F	12	84	15	111		3	27	30
	%	4.8%	33.7%	6.0%	44.6%		5.9%	52.9%	58.8%
Total	F	33	174	42	249		9	42	51
	%	13.3%	69.9%	16.9%	100.0%		17.6%	82.4%	100.0%

Source: Developed from the survey data

Table 14: Employment status of household head

Employment status of household head		Socioeconomic impact from remittances							
		Documented				Undocumented			
		Low	Medium	Strong	Total	Low	Medium	Strong	Total
Housewife	F	12	84	15	111		3	27	30
	%	4.8%	33.7%	6.0%	44.6%		5.9%	52.9%	58.8%
Retired	F	0	3	3	6		3	3	6
	%	.0%	1.2%	1.2%	2.4%		5.9%	5.9%	11.8%
Farmer	F	3	12	0	15		3	0	3
	%	1.2%	4.8%	.0%	6.0%		5.9%	.0%	5.9%
Private Service	F	3	0	0	3		0	6	6
	%	1.2%	.0%	.0%	1.2%		.0%	11.8%	11.8%
Businessman	F	15	75	24	114		0	6	6
	%	6.0%	30.1%	9.6%	45.8%		.0%	11.8%	11.8%
Total	F	33	174	42	249		9	42	51
	%	13.3%	69.9%	16.9%	100.0%		17.6%	82.4%	100.0%

Source: Developed from the survey data

Table 15: Household head relation to migrant

Household head relation to migrant		Socioeconomic impact from remittances							
		Documented				Undocumented			
		Low	Medium	Strong	Total	Low	Medium	Strong	Total
Mother	F	3	21	6	30		3	12	15
	%	1.2%	8.4%	2.4%	12.0%		5.9%	23.5%	29.4%
Wife	F	9	63	9	81		0	15	15
	%	3.6%	25.3%	3.6%	32.5%		.0%	29.4%	29.4%
Father	F	21	69	21	111		6	12	18
	%	8.4%	27.7%	8.4%	44.6%		11.8%	23.5%	35.3%
Brother	F	0	21	6	27		0	3	3
	%	.0%	8.4%	2.4%	10.8%		.0%	5.9%	5.9%
Total	F	33	174	42	249		9	42	51
	%	13.3%	69.9%	16.9%	100.0%		17.6%	82.4%	100.0%

Source: Developed from the survey data

Table 16: Pearson Correlation table for documented migrant (N-249)

	Age of migrants	Marital Status of Migrant	Number of Visit by Migrant	Age of Household Head	Gender of household head	Marital Status of Household Head	Employment Status of Household Head	Household Head Relation to Migrant	Socioeconomic Impact from remittances
Age of migrants	1	.520[**]	.541[**]	-.348[**]	.551[**]	-.017	-.474[**]	.455[**]	-.149[*]
Marital Status of Migrant	.520[**]	1	.272[**]	-.248[**]	.355[**]	.064	-.345[**]	.355[**]	-.012
Number of Visit by Migrant	.541[**]	.272[**]	1	-.336[**]	.410[**]	-.002	-.306[**]	.222[**]	-.281[**]
Age of Household Head	-.348[**]	-.248[**]	-.336[**]	1	-.645[**]	-.153[*]	.456[**]	-.737[**]	-.058
Gender of household head	.551[**]	.355[**]	.410[**]	-.645[**]	1	-.389[**]	-.855[**]	.519[**]	-.015
Marital Status of household head	-.017	.064	-.002	-.153[*]	-.389[**]	1	.333[**]	.031	-.048
Employment status of household head	-.474[**]	-.345[**]	-.306[**]	.456[**]	-.855[**]	.333[**]	1	-.352[**]	.033
Household Head relation to migrant	.455[**]	.355[**]	.222[**]	-.737[**]	.519[**]	.031	-.352[**]	1	.075
Socioeconomic impact from remittances	-.149[*]	-.012	-.281[**]	-.058	-.015	-.048	.033	.075	1

Source: Developed from the survey data

Table 17: Pearson Correlation table for undocumented (N-51)

	Age of migrants	Marital Status of Migrant	Number of Visit by Migrant	Age of Household Head	Gender of household head	Marital Status of Household Head	Employment Status of Household Head	Household Head Relation to Migrant	Socioeconomic Impact from remittances
Age of migrants	1	.493**	.496**	-.304*	.519**	.014	-.562**	.410**	-.074
Marital Status of Migrant	.493**	1	.436**	-.544**	.887**	-.350*	-.522**	.562**	.182
Number of Visit by Migrant	.496**	.436**	1	-.596**	.387**	.299*	-.228	.465**	.214
Age of Household Head	-.304*	-.544**	-.596**	1	-.472**	-.384**	.114	-.763**	-.479**
Gender of household head	.519**	.887**	.387**	-.472**	1	-.540**	-.588**	.562**	.240
Marital Status of household head	.014	-.350*	.299*	-.384**	-.540**	1	.318*	.041	.040
Employment status of household head	-.562**	-.522**	-.228	.114	-.588**	.318*	1	-.031	.228
Household Head relation to migrant	.410**	.562**	.465**	-.763**	.562**	.041	-.031	1	.358**
Socioeconomic impact from remittances	-.074	.182	.214	-.479**	.240	.040	.228	.358**	1

Source: Developed from the survey data