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ADDIS ABABA UNIVERSITY
SCHOOL OF GRADUATE STUDIES
COLLEGE OF SOCIAL SCIENCES AND HUMANITIES

**PUSH AND PULL FACTORS OF RURAL-URBAN MIGRATION AND ITS IMPLICATION ON THE PLACE
OF ORIGIN: THE CASE OF ANKESHA WEREDA MIGRANT STREET VENDORS AND DAILY
LABORERS IN ADDIS ABABA**

BY
BELAY ZELEKE

JUNE, 2011
ADDIS ABABA

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**A THESIS SUBMITTED TO THE SCHOOL OF GRADUATE STUDIES OF ADDIS ABABA UNIVERSITY
IN PARTIAL FULFILLMENT OF THE REQUIREMENT FOR THE DEGREE OF MASTER OF ARTS IN
GEOGRAPHY AND ENVIRONMENTAL STUDIES**

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ACKNOWLEDGEMENT

I am very thankful to my advisor, Prof. Bekure Woldesemait for his valuable suggestions, friendly approach, critical comments and assistance for conducting this research effectively.

In addition, I would like to extend my thanks to Mr. Berhanie Getnet who is a PhD candidate, for giving me his kind, support and counsel on my paper, goodwill and encouragement. I am grateful for that.

I would also like to thank my brother Asfaw Getnet for his closely support and encouragement in various stages of study. Appreciation also goes to Firew Getnet and Fentahun Kolech for their great assistance in data collection.

I extend my special aspiration to my parents who encouraged, inspired and brought me up to this academic level by their great effort in the hardship of rural familial economic background. The contribution of Banchalem Yirga is also gratefully acknowledged for her frequent moral encouragement, special support and motivation to prepare this thesis.

At last not least my special thanks goes to the participants of the study and to all who contribute for the completion of the paper.

Table of contents

Contents	page No.
Acknowledgement -----	I
Table of Contents-----	II
List of Tables-----	VI
List of Figures-----	VII
Acronyms-----	VIII
Definition of Terms-----	IX
Abstract-----	X
CHAPTER ONE	
1 INTRODUCTION-----	1
1.1 Background of the Study-----	2
1.2 Statement of the Problem-----	3
1.3 Objectives of the Study-----	5
1.3.1 General Objective -----	5
1.3.2 Specific Objectives-----	5
1.4 Research Questions-----	5
1.5 Significance of the Study-----	6
1.6 Scope of the Study-----	6
1.7 Research Methodology-----	7
1.7.1. Research Design-----	7
1.7.2. Sampling Techniques and Procedures-----	7
1.7.3. Data Source and Methods of Data Collection -----	8
1.7.4. Methods of Primary Data Collection-----	8
1.7.5. Secondary Data Sources-----	9
1.7.6. Method of Data Analysis-----	9
1.8 Limitation of the Study-----	10
1.9 Organization of the Paper-----	10

CHAPTER TWO

2. REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE-----	11
2.1. Definitions and Basic Concepts-----	11
2.2. Review of Selected Migration Theories and Models -----	12
2.2.1. Ravenstein’s Law of Migration-----	12
2.2.2. The Push and Pull Factors Approach of Rural-Urban Migration -----	12
2.2.3. Network Theory of Rural-Urban Migration-----	13
2.2.4. Dual Economy Models of Rural-Urban Migration-----	13
2.2.5. Todaro and Harris-Todaro Expected Model of Rural-Urban Migration-----	14
2.2.6. New Economics of Rural-Urban Migration-----	15
2.3. Factors Responsible for Rural-Urban Migration in Developing Countries-----	15
2.3.1. Economic Factors Causing Rural-Urban Migration-----	15
2.3.2. Socio-Cultural Factors and Perceptions of Urban Life as a Cause of Rural-Urban Migration-----	16
2.3.3. The presence of Friends and Relatives as a Factor of Rural-Urban Migration -----	17
2.3.4. The Urban Informal Sector as a Cause of Rural-Urban Migration-----	17
2.3.5. Environmental and Political Causes of Rural-Urban Migration-----	18
2.4. Implications of Migration-----	18
2.4.1. Positive Implication of Migration on the Place of Origin-----	18
2.4.2. Negative Implication of Migration on the Place of Origin-----	20
2.5. Empirical Studies of Migration in Ethiopia-----	21
2.6. Summary-----	24

CHAPTER THREE

3. BACKGROUND OF THE STUDY AREA-----	25
3.1. Location -----	25
3. 2. Relief and Drainage-----	27
3. 3. Climate and Vegetation-----	28
3.3.1. Climate -----	28
3. 3.2. Vegetation -----	28
3. 4. Population Size by Age- Sex and Settlement-----	29

3.5. Land Use Pattern -----	30
3.6. Farming System and Major Crops-----	31
3.7. Economic Activity/Income Generating Sources-----	32
3.8. Socio-Economic Condition of the Wereda-----	33
3.9. Social Conditions and Access to Social Services -----	33
3.10. Practice of Migration in the Study Areas-----	35

CHAPTER FOUR

4. RESULT AND DISCUSSION: Migrants Characteristics and Factors

Motivating Migration-----	36
4.1. Migrants Characteristics-----	36
4.1.1. Age and Sex Profile -----	36
4.1.2. Educational Status-----	38
4.1.3. Marital Status -----	39
4.1.4. Household Demographic Characteristics-----	39
4.1.5. Socio-Economic Status-----	39
4.1.6. Head of the Household Migrants Came from-----	40
4.1.7. Occupational Status-----	40
4.2. Factors Motivating Rural-Urban Migration and Significance of Push-Pull	
Factors Related to Ankesha Migrants-----	41
4.3. Source of Information, Decision to Migrate and Hosting at Destination-----	44
4.3.1. Source of Information-----	44
4.3.2. Hosting at Destination-----	46
4.4. Preferred Place of Work of Ankesha Migrants and Job Satisfaction-----	47
4.4.1. Preferred Place for Migration-----	47
4.4.2. Working in the Informal Sector -----	48
4.4.3. Job Satisfaction-----	50
4.5. Length of Residence in Addis Ababa and their Future Plan of Ankesha Migrants-----	51
4.5.1. Length of Residence in Addis Ababa-----	51
4.5.2. Future Plan of Ankesha Miggrants-----	52
4.6. Summary-----	53

CHAPTER FIVE

5. RESULT ASND DISCUSSION: Implication of Migration-----	54
5.1. Implication of Rural-Urban Migration on the Place of Origin-----	54
5.1.1 Economic Impact-----	54
5.1.2. Social Impact-----	61
5.1.3. Rural-Urban Migrations and Cultural Impact-----	63
5.2. Rural-Urban Migration and Impact on Migrants-----	64
5.2.1. The Working and Living Conditions of Migrants-----	64
5.2.2. Income of Migrants-----	65
5.2.3. Psychological Cost of Migrants-----	65
5.2.4. Skills Acquired by Migrants in the Capital City-----	66
5.2.5. Challenges Encountered by Migrants at Destination-----	66
5.3. Ankesha Population Conception on Rural-Urban Migration-----	70
5.4. Impacts of Migration on the Place of Destination-----	71
5.5. Summary-----	72

CHAPTER SIX

6. CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS-----	73
6.1. Conclusion -----	73
6.2. Recommendations-----	75

References

Appendix

List of Tables

Table 3.1. The Agro-Climatic Characteristics of the Wereda-----	28
Table 3.2. The Urban and Rural Population Distribution of the Wereda by Age Group and Gender-----	29
Table 3.3. The Number of Health Institutions and Health Professionals of the Study Rural Kebeles-----	34
Table 3.4. The Number of Migrants in 2010 from Bekafta Kebele to Addis Ababa, Humera and Gilgebeles-----	35
Table 4.1. Some Characteristics of Migrants from the Sample Villages to Addis Ababa-----	38
Table 4.2. Paired Sample Statistics and T-test of the Significance of Push and Pull Factors-----	42
Table 4.3. Percentage Distribution of Respondents by Prior-Information about the Destination and Decision Making for Migration-----	45
Table 4.4. Assistance Provided to New Migrants from Earlier Migrants-----	46
Table 4.5. Percentage Distribution Migrants Satisfaction on their Current Job-----	50
Table 4.6. The Reason for Dissatisfaction of Migrants on their Current Occupation-----	51
Table 5.1. Frequency and Volume of Remittance Sent to the Families and Items Taken-----	56
Table 5.2. Recipients of Money Sent out by People from Addis Ababa and Purpose of Remittances-----	58
Table 5.3. Percentage Distribution of Income of Migrants' per Month-----	65
Table 5.4. Skills Acquired by Migrants in the Capital City-----	66
Table 5.5. Problems Encountered by Migrants at the Place of Destination-----	68

List of Figures

Figure 3.1. Location Map of the Study area, Ethiopia-----	26
Figure 3.2. Relief Types of the Study Wereda-----	27
Figure 3.3. Population Distribution by Sex in Bekafta (left) and Tulta (right)-----	30
Figure 3.4. Land Use Pattern of the Wereda-----	31
Figure 4.1. Age at Migration of Migrants and Percentage Distribution-----	37
Figure 4.2. Period of Arrival of Migrants to Addis Ababa and their Percentage Distribution----	52

ACRONYMS

AIDS: Acquired Immune Deficiency Syndrome

AWARDO: Anksha Wereda Agriculture and Rural Development Office

AU: African Union

CSA: Central Statistical Authority

FGD: Focus Group Discussion

GIS: Geographic Information System

HIV: Human immunodeficiency Virus

IDRC: International Development Research Center

IFAD: International Fund for Agricultural Development

IOM: International Organization for Migration

KOD: Kebele Office Document

MoFED: Ministry of Finance and Economic Development

NGOs: Non Governmental Organizations

SPSS: Statistical Package for Social Science

SSA: Sub-Saharan Africa

STDs: Sexually Transmitted Diseases

UNDP: United Nation Development Program

DEFINITIONS OF TERMS

Remittance: Money sent from destination (Addis Ababa in this case) to the origin of the migrants (Ankesha).

Chain Migration: Is process in which migration is carried out through the links of Friendship, relatives and family members.

Household: A group of people who lives together in one house and makes common provision for essentials of living.

Wereda: An administrative unit next to zonal administration in descending order.

Kebele: Is the smallest administrative unit next to wereda in rural or urban area.

Non- Migrant: Is a person who resides on the areas of origin (Ankesha).

Migrant: Is a person whose area of origin is Ankesha and currently residing in Addis Ababa at least six months during the survey.

Pull factor: Something that attracts a migrant to a new location (Addis Ababa in this case)

Push factor: Something in the home area that forces a migrant to move away (Rural kebeles in this case).

Returnee Migrant: Is a person who out-migrated from Ankesha and lived some period of time in Addis Ababa and currently living on the place of origin (Ankesha).

Rural-Urban Migration: Is the movement of people from rural areas of origin (Ankesha in this case) to the urban (Addis Ababa in this case).

ABSTRACT

The primary aim of this study was to examine the significance of push and pull factors contributing for rural-urban migration and its implication on the place of origin as well as the destination among the migrants of Ankesha wereda to Addis Ababa. The study further focused on the analysis of major factors for migration to Addis Ababa; the characteristics of migrants; challenges they face at the destination and positive and negative aspects of migration.

In order to carryout this study, both quantitative and qualitative methods were employed. Instruments like structured questionnaire, semi-structured interview, FGD and observation were widely employed. To this end, a total of 90 migrants were selected through purposive snow ball sampling technique for the questionnaire survey. Thus, the data obtained from the participants were analyzed through t-test and descriptive statistics. In addition, qualitative data were collected and analyzed to triangulate the quantitative data in descriptive forms.

The result of this study reveals that most of the migrants from Ankesha wereda to Addis Ababa were dominantly young aged 15-25, single male, at the level of primary education and they were from female headed households. The push factor is more causative factor as compared to the pull factor for rural-urban migration and the difference is statistically significant ($t=8.151$, $df=89$, $p<0.01$). The major push factors are identified as landlessness, land shortage and lack of social services like school. Besides, the social networks in Addis Ababa also exacerbate migration. The migrants are involved in street vending and daily labor work at the expense of psychological benefits due to drop-out of their schooling, culture of the society at origin and low success of their migration. They have collected meager amount of money which they invested in their rural origin. The expectation about employment and actual earning of migrants are unmatched. Many of the migrants encountered problems at the initial period of adjustment and during the course of stay. However, they don't have an interest to return to the rural place of origin.

As far as the implication of migration on both areas of origin and destination is concerned, it is found that as a whole migration is less efficient in changing the lives of the migrants' family at origin; rather, it creates labor burden for some households. Moreover, the findings indicate the existing trend of migration has forced young students to drop-out their study. In addition, it created some negative perception by the local inhabitants holding the view that migrants are perceived to become spoiled. Based on the results, recommendations are made.

CHAPTER ONE

1. INTRODUCTION

1.1. Background of the Study

Migration is considered as the movement of people from one geographic region to another, which may be on temporary or permanent basis. The reasons for it vary from one person to another depending on the situation that brought about the decision (Adewale, 2005). Generally, rural-urban migration dominates the domain of research as its role in changing the lives of migrants and families at the place of origin and destination (Hossain, 2001).

Rapid growth of rural-urban migration has been a common feature of developing countries which occurs in response to natural and human induced factors (Adepoju, 1985 cited in Woldie, 2007). For example, the general development trend in Nigeria influenced rural-urban migration to a greater extent (Lynch, 2005). The wide scale Sahelian drought of 1972-74 forced many northern Nigerians, and those living near by countries to flee to Nigerian cities in search of food and works. This is an example of a situation where economic growth focused in the cities failed to trickle down to the rural areas (Portter et al, 1999 cited in Lynch, 2005). This shows there is a high probability of income getting, education and other service facilities in urban areas than in rural, which in turn are significantly influencing rural-urban migration (Michael, 2005; Ullah, 2004).

Thus, rapid geographic shift of people from the rural to urban region in different countries has been the result of the combination of both rural push and urban pull factors (Farooq and Cheema, 2005; Hossain, 2001; Ullah, 2004).

This rural-urban migration in developing countries is accompanied by positive and negative consequences for the area of origin and destination. For the rural people, in the short run it may help to alleviate the poverty by creating new income and employment opportunity and it has helped in facilitating rural-urban economic and social integration and motivating the expansion of the urban sector. Later, this alarming migration process has led to congestion, unemployment, pollution and poverty in urban areas, gender and age imbalances and decrease in productivity in rural areas (Aliyev, 2008).

Coming to the Ethiopia, many factors have been responsible for the overwhelming rural-urban migration, especially from the Northern regions. Historically, documents witnessed that rural-urban migration from drought prone areas of the Northern regions to Addis Ababa has been experienced for many years (Feleke et al, 2006; Getahun, 2007; Kebede, 1994). Thus, migration in Ethiopia has been common as well, mainly in the form of rural-urban migration flows (Fransen and Kuschminder, 2009). As a result, rural-urban migration trend in Ethiopia can be explained by a number of so-called push and pull factors (Kunt, 1973 cited in Fransen and Kuschminder, 2009). Markos and Gebre-Egziabher (2001) summarize the main push factors in Ethiopia as being over population, famine, poverty, land scarcity and lack of agricultural resources. In addition to these push factors; many rural people are being pulled to Ethiopian urban areas as a result of the development of these areas into more important business centers (Betemariam and White, 1999). Due to these urban opportunities, some members of households migrate to urban centers while others stay at their original location and benefit from, for example, remittances. This has been the case of some Ethiopian households in drought prone areas (UNDP, 2009).

But the bulk of migrants to Addis Ababa do not possess skills or formal education to enable them to find good paid, secure employment in the formal sector, and they have to settle for work in the informal sector. So that they earn money by being street vendors, daily laborers in the construction sector, loading and unloading of goods to urban vegetable growers, weavers, porters, petty traders, lottery ticket sellers, commercial sex workers, beggars and other jobs (Bethlehem et al, 2006; Feleke, et al, 2006).

The exodus of rural population has not been without very difficult challenges. The first problem encountered by both the migrants and the host community is accommodation or increase in slums. This problem breeds other problems like infectious diseases, sexual abuse/harassment and etc. If migration is continuous, after a long period of time it reduces the number of the young and able bodied people from the rural village. This may cause imbalance in the quality of human resources between rural and urban areas, which may eventually impede rural development (Bhuyan et al, 2001).

To have a better understanding about push and pull factors of rural-urban migration and its implication to the areas of origin and destination, the researcher found that it is important to investigate the economic, social, cultural and other implications of rural out-migration on the place of origin and impacts on the migrants themselves as well as on the place of destination.

Therefore, in the present study, the researcher tried to investigate the push and pull factors of migration, the migrants' ultimate involvement in the informal sector (street vending and daily work), problems that the migrants encounter and the perception of rural people on the place of origin about rural-urban migration to Addis Ababa. By so doing, based on the findings, attempts are made to provide recommendations in the context of migrants which enable to promote well designed development policies that could solve the problem.

1.2. Statement of the Problem

Rural-urban migration is attributed to have both negative and positive consequences at community, household and individual levels (Adepoju, 1982; Mendola, 2006; Regmi and Tisdell, 2010). It is important to remember that, migration activities have implications for those moving, those left behind and those at the destination. Thus, rural-urban migration has implications for both areas i.e. sending and receiving and on migrants themselves (De Haan, 1999).

Regarding to the causative factors of rural-urban migration, in Ethiopia, scholars identified several "push and pull" factors for rural-urban migration. Bekure (1984) and Kebede (1994) identified that the combined effects of "push and pull" factors are responsible for the tide of migration to urban areas of Ethiopia

However, some studies show that, more than urban pull factors, rural push factors have been strong forces for the movement of people from rural to urban areas of Ethiopia (Markos, 2001). Inline with this statement, Solomon and Mansberger (2003) state that, after all in Ethiopia, population is on the rise, land degradation has become common and the rural areas are being rocked by frequent drought and famine. In view of these, one would expect influx of the rural

people to the cities to happen. Then the tide of migration to urban areas of Ethiopia is consistently higher than the capacity of urban areas to accommodate the new demands posed by the migrants. Thus, there is wide spread of unemployment and migrants involve in the informal economic sector and other casual works (Feleke et al, 2006). Even not all migrants are lucky to get and fully make use of the informal employment.

Due to the varied factors of migration (push and pull), currently, there is excessive movement of people to Addis Ababa. It is migration from different parts of the country that account for over 54% of the yearly population growth of the city (Eshetu, 2005 cited in Feleke et al, 2006). Aneksha wereda is one of the places pervasive movement of people towards capital city has been observed. Thus, at the present time there is a continuous flow of people from Ankesha Wereda, Awi-Zone to Addis Ababa who have abandon their role in the farms, and have engaged themselves in the urban informal economic sector.

Thus, out migration of large numbers of people could have a major impact on the society and economy of the places of origin. Rural-urban migration is a form of labor migration and the people most likely to leave are those of working age. This trend of movement of rural people in to the city has militated agricultural development of the rural origin and causes other social influences. This must have an impact on family life. Although, these problems are of larger dimension, pervasive and are continuing unabated, research is scarce to monitor trend of movement of the people on a sustainable basis.

The fact that little or no empirical research has been carried out in the area on such a crucial issue encompassing all the above process makes the topic pertinent and timely. Thus, the motivation of the researcher is to fill this knowledge gap and to study the main factors behind the movement of the rural people and influence on their home communities. The study also meant to assess the problems encountered by migrants.

1.3. Objectives of the Study

The study has intended to specify both general and specific objectives.

1.3.1. General Objective

- The general objective of the study is to investigate the major push and pull factors of rural-urban migration among the migrant street vendors and daily laborers from Ankesha Wereda to Addis Ababa, the type of migration and some of its influences on the place of origin and common challenges they experience while living and working in Addis Ababa.

1.3.2. Specific Objectives

- To study the type of migration and compare the significance of push and pull factors that generate migration from Ankesha Wereda to Addis Ababa
- To explore the demographic, social, and economic characteristics of migrants.
- To investigate the economic, social, and cultural impacts of labor migration on the place of origin (source area).
- To determine the major reasons for the involvement of migrants in the urban informal economy (street vending and daily work) at the place of destination (Addis Ababa).
- To explore the living and working conditions of migrants and the common forms of challenges they experience in the urban setting.
- To assess the perception of non-migrants at the place of origin and urban people towards migration to Addis Ababa.

1.3. Research Questions

As part of the research inquiry, the following questions were formulated.

1. Is it the “push” or the “pull” factors which contribute more for rural-urban migration?
2. Who are the migrants in terms of age, sex, educational status, marital status and economic conditions?
3. What influences do migrations have on the out-migration areas?
4. What social net works are available for migrants to move to Addis Ababa? Why do they prefer such specific area?
5. Why are the migrants ultimately involving in the informal sector (street vending and daily work)?

6. How do migrants live and work in the recipient area and what challenges are experienced by them in Addis Ababa?
7. How are the migrants viewed by families of origin and the urban people?

1.5. Significance of the Study

The study is designed to investigate the push and pull factors affecting rural-urban migration and its implications on the migrants' origin in the context of migrant street vendors and daily laborers. The researches so far done related to rural-urban migration have given greatest weight to the migrants' impact at the destination areas without considering what has happened at migrants' origin. However, this study will contribute to fill the gap concerning migrant informal sector participants. Therefore, this research is significant in giving information related to rural-urban migrant informal sector workers which has a direct relation to planning and implementation agencies as well as institutions because rural-urban migration has a direct and indirect effect on the geographical as well as social, cultural and economic aspects. Hence, this study is important not only for geographers, but also for other population studies, sociologists, policy makers, planners, public administrators and other fields, because rural-urban migration in relation to informal sector is taken as a socio-economic and cultural phenomenon which is concerned with population issues.

Generally, the significance of the proposed study could be highlighted in the following statements.

- It helps to widen the knowledge base in relation to rural-urban migration
- It will serve as a secondary source of information for those intending to carry out further surveys on population issues of migration in relation to informal sector.
- Policy makers can use this study to strengthen policy issues related to rural-out migration.
- It will throw light on more burning issues affecting the poor residing in slum areas within our urban areas

1.6. Scope of the Study

This study was delimited to the push and pull factors of rural –urban migration to Addis Ababa within the domain of migrant street vendors and daily laborers who are migrated from Ankesha

Wereda, Awi-Zone, which is chosen for the reason that Addis Ababa is known as a place where there are many migrants arriving from the selected wereda. Besides, given the limited time that was available to do the field work, it was necessary to focus on only street vendor and daily laborer migrants. It was also concerned with some of its social, economic, and cultural implications to the origin of migrants and assesses challenges that the migrants face in the city of their destination (Addis Ababa).

1.7. Research Method

1.7.1. Research Design

In order to undertake this study, the researcher employed a mixed approach research design which involves both quantitative and qualitative. The intention was that the researcher felt that those which left from quantitative are triangulated with qualitative information. More specifically, descriptive survey design from the quantitative approach was employed. In addition, qualitative data was employed to substantiate the findings obtained via the quantitative survey.

1.7.2. Sampling Technique and Procedures

Purposely, two rural kebeles of Ankesha Wereda that are affected by high magnitude of rural out-migration and in-migration to Addis Ababa were selected. Then, Purposive snowball sampling technique was applied to select sample migrant street vendors and daily laborers in Addis Ababa who belong to the two selected rural kebeles. Thus, the researcher has friends working in this sector and contacts some of those who came from the selected rural kebeles and currently involving in the street vending and daily labor work and told them about the aim of the research and collect the information from them as the first participants. Then, they agreed to collaborate and took the researcher to the place where many of the participants were accessed. Data from migrant street vendors were mostly collected on saint days as most of them were vending their goods near the Orthodox Church where a considerable numbers of people come to pray. It was also collected on important vending centers of places known as Piyasa, Legahar and Mexico areas in Addis Ababa. The left data collected through questionnaire was from daily laborers. The researcher was accessed them in their residential areas of Addis Ketema Sub City (Kebele 32) and Kolfe Sub city. Based on this process, questionnaire was administered for 90 migrants. In addition, purposive sampling technique was also used to interview the migrants'

family at the place of origin. In the data collection process, persons involved for data collection were fluent in local language in order to facilitate the elicitation of information from the respondents.

1.7.3. Data Sources and Methods of Collection

The relevant data sources for this study were including both primary and secondary data sources.

1.7.4. Methods of Primary Data Collection

Questionnaire: Based on the procedure, the questionnaire as a research instrument was developed and administered for 90 migrants. A structured questionnaire was constructed and employed to generate data from respondents. The questionnaire was first prepared in English and then it was translated into Amharic language by professionals. Then, there was back translation in to English. The questionnaire format for the migrants include socio-demographic characteristics of migrants, 24 self prepared statements measuring on five point Likert scale type (starting from 1-strongly disagree to 5-strongly agree i.e. 1-strongly disagree, 2-disagree, 3-undecided, 4-agree, 5-strongly agree) were used to determine the significance of push and pull factors contributing for rural-urban migration to Addis Ababa. In addition, the questionnaire include decision making for migration, working and living conditions including the challenges confronted by migrants in the city life and their links to the place of origin.

Semi-structured Interview: This is also the other method through which primary data were collected. The inclusion of semi-structured interview in the study enabled the researcher to crosscheck the data that were collected through questionnaire and used to elicit additional ideas from the respondents. Checklists were prepared to direct points of discussion and not to restrain the response of the interviewee on the researchers own. Accordingly, the data were collected through interview from 12 migrants. Data were also collected through semi-structured interview from 8 households at the place of origin who were the source of migrants to get their inputs in this research.

Focus Group Discussion (FGD): It is also essential in triangulating ideas of different informants. Thus, 6 participants from the returnees and 8 participants from the non-migrants at each study kebeles of origin were involved to participate in the FGD. Four FGD at the place of origin was held, one FGD with non-migrants and the other with returnee migrants at each Kebeles. The FGD with those of returnee migrants and non-migrants was held on Sunday. The

researcher chose this day because on this day, no body is going to school or to work and most of the youth at the place of origin spend their time with peers at the field on the aforementioned day. After some of the participants were contacted on Sunday, which was possible as it was convenient to find most of them and an appointment for FGD was given to be held on the next Sunday. Accordingly, those informants who gave their consent were involved in FGD on the appointment day. On the same day two FGD one with non-migrants and the other with returnee migrants was conducted. Expected potential migrants were selected by the researcher for the FGD discussion among the non-migrants at the place of origin.

Observation: As one of the tools of primary data collection, observation was carried for this study. The researcher has observed the working conditions of the migrants, their residential areas in Addis Ababa and observes the geographical set up of the migrants' origin.

1.7.5. Secondary Data Sources

In this study, the information derived from the secondary sources of data were collected from different published and unpublished materials which include research works, books, office documents, websites, journal articles written by different scholars on the issues of migration, and so on, which were helpful to the completion of the study. In addition, local map depicted the study site of the migrants' origin (wereda and kebele) was developed from the GIS data.

1.7.6. Method of Data Analysis

Available data of this research were analyzed through different ways. The quantitative data were analyzed using the descriptive statistics (frequency, percentage and mean) and using t-test with the help of SPSS. More specifically paired sample t-test was employed to see the significance of difference existing on whether push or pull factors contribute more for rural-urban migration. People's views and perceptions towards migration, influences of migration on social, economic and cultural aspects of the rural life were analyzed through qualitative way. Thus, the required qualitative data were collected through FGD, semi-structured interview and personal observation and then methodological triangulation of ideas was made under different issues to analyze data in descriptive forms.

1.8. Limitation of the Study

The central aim of the study is to investigate the push and pull factors of rural-urban migration and its implication on the place of origin. In doing so, attempts have been made to address the issues based primarily on perspectives of migrants and their families of origin. But, in addressing the issue, this study has the following limitation.

- ❖ Although taking a large number of sample size from diverse ethnic groups is important factor for increasing external validity (i.e. generalizing to rural-urban migration in Ethiopia), this study is likely to yield a result which may not be as equally generalizable to other ethnic rural-urban migrants of Ethiopia like the target ethnic rural-urban migrants in this study.

1.9. Organization of the paper

This research work is organized in to six chapters. Chapter one, include background of the study, problem statement, objectives, research questions, the research methodology, significance, scope and limitations of the study. Under chapter two, review of relevant related literatures which include theories and empirical studies of migration have been discussed. Chapter three includes site description of the geographical area of the rural origin of migrants. Chapter four reveals results and discussion of the findings in relation to the socio-demographic characteristics of migrants and significance of push and pull factors in causing rural-urban migration. Results and discussion regarding implication of migration is included under chapter five and concluding remarks and recommendations derived from the study as part of the research are placed under chapter six.

CHAPTER TWO

2. REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

Under this chapter, definitions and concepts of migration, review of selected vital theories on rural-urban migration, factors responsible for rural-urban migration, positive and negative implications of migration and additionally some empirical studies of migration in Ethiopia and other developing countries are going to be discussed. These theories and empirical findings are important to conceptualize the study and used as supportive ideas inline with the discussion of the findings in this study.

2.1. Definitions and Basic Concepts

Theoretically migration is defined simply as a process of personal movement from one area to another. It usually takes place at a variety of scale; intercontinental (between continents), intracontinental (between countries of a given continent), and interregional (with in countries) (National Geographic Society, 2005). However, the nature of migration and the cause for it are complex, and there is no general agreement among researchers on the cause of migration. Arguments about the difference on migration causing factors exist not only among researchers from different discipline, but also among researchers with in one discipline (Timalsina, 2007).

Thus, concepts and approaches of classifying migration are other important aspects of migration study. Any classification of migration is difficult to formulate and understand because it takes into consideration numerous criteria or stimulating factors of varying nature (Trewartha, 1969 and Vyanga, 1981 cited in Sinha, 2005).

Migration is usually categorized depending up on the type of political boundaries crossed (for internal and external/international) (Weeks, 1989). Depending upon length of time, it is said to be short-term and long-term migration as well as temporary and permanent migration (McDowell and De Haan, 1997). On the basis of distance, it may be classified as short distance and long distance migration, members involved (individual and mass migration), decision making (voluntary and forced migration), social organization (family, class and individual migration), causes (economic and non-economic) and aims (conservative and innovative) (Sinha,

2005). Depending up on rural-urban nature of the area, migration becomes, rural-rural, rural to urban, urban to rural and urban to urban (Clarke, 1987 cited in Sinha, 2005).

One of the most significant migration patterns has been rural to urban migration, i.e. the movement of people from the country side to cities in search of opportunities (National Geographic Society, 2005; Rwelamira, 2008). Moreover, the common types of rural-urban migration are circulating in the following forms including step migration (village-town-city), circulatory (village-city-village), seasonal (migration associated with periodic labor demand) and chain migration (where migrants follow their predecessors, and assisted by them in establishing an urban area) (Lynch, 2005; National Geographic Society, 2005).

2.2. Review of Selected Important Migration Theories and Models

2.2.1. Ravenstein's Law of Migration

As early as 1885, Ernest Ravenstein presented to the Royal Statistical Society 'Laws of Migration' in an attempt to show regularities in the scale and direction of migration and to explain migration movements in relation to opportunities and constraints (Migration Studies of the open university, 1982 cited in Rwelamira, 2008). Ravenstein's laws stated that the primary cause for migration was better external economic opportunities; the volume of migration decrease as distance increases; migration occurs in stages instead of one long move; population movements are bilateral and migration differentials (gender, social class, age etc.) influences persons mobility (Rwelamira, 2008).

2.2.2. The Push and Pull Factors Approach of Rural-Urban Migration

Lee (1966 cited in Rwelamira, 2008) develops a general schema into which a variety of spatial movement can be placed, based on the arguments in which he divided the forces influencing migrants perception into push and pull factors (Ayman, 2002 cited in Acharya and Cervatus, 2009). The former are negative factors tending to force migrants to leave origin areas, while the later are positive factors attracting migrant to destination areas in the expectation of improving their standard of living.

Generally, Lee (1966 cited in Aliyev, 2008) considered all factors associated with migration to be included in the following categories.

1. Factors associated with the areas of origin (Push factors)
2. Factors associated with the areas of destination (Pull factors)
3. Personal factors.

According to Lee the push factors could be more important than pull factors. Although migration can be produced either by push or pull factors, according to Lee, migration mostly is a result of a combination of both push and pull factors that are associated with the areas of origin, destination and also governed by personal factors. Persons own individual emotions, knowledge and intelligence can affect the decision to migrate or not (Lee, 1966 cited in Aliyev, 2008).

2.2.3. Network Theory of Rural-Urban Migration

By network theory migrants' set up interpersonal ties that connect migrants, former migrants, and non-migrants in the place of origin through bonds of kinship, friendship, and shared community origin (Massay et al, 1993 cited in De Haas, 2008). An important concept around the importance of migration network, locally as well as internationally put simply, migrants move to place where friends, family members, neighbors or others from their village have moved before because it decreases their psychological and financial costs as well as increase social security. As a result, migrants in a particular destination tend to come from specific areas of origin; particularly when the migratory jobs are relatively attractive and have higher returns (De Haan and Yakub, 2009).

2.2.4. Dual Economy Models of Rural-Urban Migration

Lewis (1954 cited in Aliyev, 2008), formulated the best known theoretical work on development, primarily concerned with economic development in a dual economy, involving the capitalist and non-capitalist sector of the economy. In his model Lewis (1954 cited in Aliyev, 2008) divides the economy in to two sectors, a large subsistence sector and a small capitalist sector. By subsistence sector, Lewis (1954 cited in Aliyev, 2008) refers to the traditional agricultural sector which is characterized by underemployment and unemployment, with negligible zero or even negative marginal labor productivity. So, surplus labor which is defined as such in the Lewis model can be withdrawn from traditional subsistence sector with out any loss of output (Todaro and Smith

2003). By capitalist Sector, Lewis (1954 cited in Aliyev, 2008), refers to the modern urban industrial sector which is more developed than the traditional sector in terms of capital, income and wages per head, the proportion of income saved and the rate of technical progress (Aliyev, 2008).

Under these conditions, the surplus labour in rural areas supplements the labor shortage in urban areas, and in this way, rural-urban migration takes place (Timalsina, 2007) and rural-urban migration continues until labor in the subsistence sector is fully absorbed by the capitalist sector. Although Lewis two sector model provides the basic explanations for rural-urban migration, it is criticized because some of its key assumptions do not fit the institutional and economic realities of developing countries (Todaro and Smith, 2003).

2.2.5. Todaro and Harris-Todaro Expected Model of Rural-Urban Migration

The economic motive of migration is best articulated in the Todaro and Harries-Todaro model. Todaro and Smith (2003) postulate that, migration responds to urban-rural difference in expected income rather than actual earnings. Normally, people move from their place of origin for higher income and better job. The assumption in the Todaro and Harris-Todaro model is that, migration is primarily an economic phenomenon. Migrants are assumed to consider the various opportunities available in the urban sector (Todaro and Smith 2003). However, the theory also explains that, rural-urban migration can exist despite low opportunity in the major towns. Todaro (1997) and Todaro and Smith (2003) state most of the poor, uneducated and unskilled migrants will either seek casual and part-time employment as vendors, repair persons in the urban traditional or informal sector or become totally unemployed and languish in slums and shanty towns.

Although Todaro and Harris-Todaro model describe rural-urban migration and explain urban unemployment and underemployment it has been criticized in academic circles because of absence of key aspects of rural-urban migration. First, many rural-urban migrants are normally engaged in the urban informal economy instead of waiting for a permanent job. This fact has been ignored in this model (Timalsina, 2007). Second, migration is not a static or a one way process i.e. migrants facing higher risks in urban areas or improving livelihood in rural areas can

return to rural areas. Thus, the model does not explain dynamic nature of migration (Timalsina, 2007).

2.2.6. New Economics of Rural-Urban Migration

New Economics of rural-urban migration has challenged the Lewis model/the classical two sector model and the Todaro and Harris-Todaro models that treat migration as a result of an individual decision making process by considering migration as household decision (De Haas, 2008; Rwelamira, 2008; Lauby and Stark, 1988 cited in Markos and Gebre-Egziabher, 2001). The household for the New Economics of migration is both decision maker and an actor. Thus, it widens its focus beyond individuals cost benefit analysis (Rwelamira, 2008).

The model emphasized that, the migrant is insured by his/her family for migration costs and while looking for job at destination (Rwelamira, 2008; Timalsina, 2007). Later on, remittances are the cornerstones of New Economies of labour migration representing one of the most important mechanisms through which determinants and consequences of migration are linked (Stark and Bloom, 1985).

2.3. Factors Responsible for Rural-Urban Migration in the Developing Countries

Various studies show that, various factors such as economic, political, environmental, social and cultural factors have influenced the decision to migrate. Therefore, the factors influencing rural-urban migration in less developed countries have been grouped under the mentioned factors (Aliyev, 2008; Kainth, 2009). Some of these determinants are negative factors pushing people out of rural areas, while others are positive ones motivating people to move to the cities (Aliyev, 2008).

2.3.1. Economic Factors Causing Rural-Urban Migration

Despite the relevance of non-economic factors, most of the studies indicate that rural-urban migration is primarily motivated by economic factors (Faruk and Islam, 2010; Kainth, 2009). As rural economy in developing countries is characterized by low productivity, fragmentation of land, poor adoption of technology, poor resource management, ill government policy etc, then

rural people would prefer to migrate to urban areas wishing to secure a better life. In this case, we could have the push factors, where there are negative effects of the poor economy in the place of origin or pull factors, where the destination areas are found to be more important in terms of opportunities that could bring a better economy and life style (Aliyev, 2008; kebede, 1994; Bjerer, 1985). Yet from the economic point of view, most of the urban areas in developing countries are not promising (Bekure, 1984).

2.3.2. Socio-Cultural Factors and Perceptions of Urban Life as a Cause of Rural-Urban Migration

Apart from economic reasons, social and cultural factors play an important role in rural-urban migration. People with better-off in their income could migrate to urban centers to get a better social infrastructure (education, health) driven by urban amenities, urban culture and lifestyle. Besides this, family conflicts and the quest for independence also cause rural-urban migration especially, of those who are in the younger generation (Jamilah, 1981). Improved communication facilities, such as, transportation, influence of the media, the urban oriented education and resultant change in attitudes and values promote rural-urban migration (Jamilah, 1981). People could also migrate due to unfavorable social conditions and segregations and pressure that they receive from the society in their place of origin (Kainth, 2009; Ullah, 2004).

On the other hand, how the prospective migrants perceive living conditions in destination areas may have a decisive influence on migration. Migrants are attracted to towns by the favorable attitudes they have regarding city living (IDRC, 1977). Migrants to the urban areas in developing countries have been reinforced by oral and written accounts of conditions about urban areas. Returning migrants were more inclined to speak about their success and their gains than about the problems and obstacles they had to face. Besides these, it has been noted that books used in primary schools of developing countries often give a pleasant impression of the towns and cities. Such images may tend to exaggerate some aspects of reality, so that the potential migrant bases his/her decision to move to cities (IDRC, 1977).

2.3.3. The presence of Friends and Relatives as a Factor of Rural-Urban Migration

Many migrants are influenced by the presence of contacts such as friends and relatives or family members in urban areas and by the belief that these contacts can help the migrants move fairly easily into jobs after arrival (Caldwell, 1969 cited in IDRC, 1977; Adepoju, 1982). Caldwell (1969 cited in IDRC, 1977) on his study showed that there is a very strong statistical association among both males and females in Ghana between the presence of some rural household members in the town and the likelihood of other members visiting the town. The probability of becoming a rural-urban migrant appears to increase directly in response to the number of members of the household already in town.

2.3.4. The Urban Informal Sector as a Cause of Rural-Urban Migration

The urban informal sector, unlike its formal counterpart, includes all activities that are unregulated and small scale in nature. A majority of migrant workers find work in the urban informal sector which then leads to low productivity and limited prospects for exiting poverty (Hoselitz 1957 cited in Deshingkar and Grimm, 2004). However, there is also compelling evidence that migrants can escape poverty even when they have remained in the informal sector. The majority of the new workers in the urban labor force seemed to create their own employment and start their own businesses. Self-employment comprises a greater share of informal employment than wage employment and represents 70 per cent of informal employment in sub-Saharan Africa (SSA), 62 per cent in North Africa, 60 per cent in Latin America and 59 per cent in Asia (Deshigkar and Grimm, 2005). The self-employed were engaged in a variety of activities such as street vending, prostitution, selling different items. Other migrants found jobs as daily labourers, barbers, carpenters, mechanics, maids, personal servants and artisans (McCatty, 2004). The majority of the workers entering the urban informal sector are recent rural migrants who are unable to find jobs in the formal sector and the main reason for taking part in the informal sector is to use what little skills they have to earn enough income to sustain their daily lives (Acharya and cervatus, 2009). The informal sector is connected to the formal sector, since it provides opportunities for people who are unable to find employment in the formal sector. Thus, the informal sector is therefore seen as a cause of rural-urban migration, because it lowers the risk of the individual being unemployed once they move to the cities (McCatty, 2004).

2.3.5. Environmental and Political Causes of Rural-Urban Migration

According to International Organization for Migration (IOM, 2008) report, about 192 million people lived outside their place of origin. Overtime, people have chosen the option of migration as a means of coping with the effect of environmental change both a sudden and disastrous nature and those of slow onset environmental deterioration.

In Africa, multiple push factors provoke migration both within the continent and to other regions. Over the last couple of decades, deteriorating political, socio-economic and environmental conditions, as well as, armed conflicts, poverty and environmental degradation have resulted in a significant increase in mass migration and forced displacement in Africa (Au, 2006).

2.4. Implications of Migration

There is no consensus on the impact of migration on the place of origin and destination. There are two opposing views. The first one considers that the overall impact of rural out-migration on both departure and a destination area is positive. Arguing that migration to be a household strategy involving the maintenance of economic and social links between the migrant and his/her household. On the other hand, a second view considers that migration can have a negative impact on the development, at national, regional and local levels. Supporters of this view cite a number of negative impacts in the urban and rural areas.

So that regarding the implication of migration to the place of origin as well as destination, there are some studies which reveal both the negative and positive implications of migration.

2.4.1. Positive Implication of Migration on the Place of Origin

This type of implication is very important for the household that have sent the migrant and even to the whole community. Thus, the positive implications are the benefits arising from the transfer of resources to rural areas, such as financial or in kind remittances, skills and innovative ideas (Mendola, 2006).

Remittance: The central and primary question in much of thinking the implication of migration on sending regions is conceived in terms of remittances (De Haan and Yakub, 2009; Mendola,

2006). Remittances, or the transfer of cash or other resources from migrants to their kin at their rural place of origin, play an important role in the family-linked migration process (Mendola, 2006; Stark, 1991 cited in Regmi and Tisdell, 2010). The remittances are often the reasons for migration as well as important consequences of rural-urban migration. But the point of debate in this case is that whether the remittance could bring sustainable change in the livelihood of family at the place of origin or not (IFAD, 2007; Mendola, 2006). Thus, the impact of rural to urban migration on the development of rural areas depends to some extent on the level and flow of remittances from urban migrants to rural kin (Regmi and Tisdell, 2010).

Most of the literatures, for example, IFAD (2007) and Essang and Mabowonku (1974 cited in Oucho, 1996) indicate that, the remittance sent to the place of origin can solve some immediate problems like consumption and clearing of debts. This is not necessarily a negative aspect if there are positive spillovers on community well-being and multiplier effect in the economy as mentioned by (Deshingkar and Grimm, 2005). Some researchers also describe the positive implication of collective remittance for the diffusion of new and different social practices and transformations on the improvement of sending areas at community level. For example, Adepoju (1982) postulates the contribution of Nigerian migrants towards urban areas for the development of the rural sector. Such contributions have financed the building of schools, market stalls, hospitals, road construction, provision of electricity and piped water in the rural origin of migrants. In this way, migrants promote rural development for the benefit of the sedentary population and themselves during home visits (Adepoju, 1982)

Besides these positive effects, remittances do not automatically generate development (IFAD, 2007). Thus, remittance can not bring a sustainable improvement in the livelihood conditions of the migrants' family at the place of origin. Urban-rural remittances in Africa have been estimated to constitute between 10 and 13 per cent of migrant workers' income. Migrants in urban areas of Kenya remit between 13 and 22 per cent of average income earned (De Haan, 2000). Therefore, this amount of money is insignificant when you consider the low income that the migrants earn at their destination areas (Regmi and Tisdell, 2010; Samal, 2006).

Technological and Cultural Adaptations: In urban areas, there is a better access to information, modern technologies and modern way of thinking. The significant outflow of

workers and inflow of remittances, as well as the continuous exchange of goods, ideas and cultural values, have changed the rural landscape economically, socially and demographically (IFAD, 2007; Mendola, 2006).

2.4.2. Negative Implication of Migration on the Place of Origin

On the other hand, there are studies that reveal the negative influence of migration on sending areas. In rural areas, the negative impact of migration is explained in terms of labor loss and its disruptive effect on the local economy of sending households. Out-migration from rural areas has evident economic, demographic, social and cultural influence (Aliyev, 2008; Andersen, 2002; Mendola, 2006).

Shortage of Labour force: The economic activities of the rural area are mainly agricultural in nature, which are performed manually with application of traditional technology and labour intensive in nature. Since rural-urban migration is selective of certain characteristics, it affects the composition of the population in sending areas. Thus, out migration areas loss a disproportionate percentage of younger and better educated population. As a result, the proportion of the total population economically dependent increases as the relative share of economically active working labour force is reduced which consequently lead to decrease in rural productivity (Aliyev, 2008; Caldwell, 1969 cited in IDRC, 1977; Mendola, 2006) even though the consequence of out-migration on rural productivity and social progress is clearly not known.

On the other hand, in a situation where remittances are more substantial and compensate labor depletion, by allowing hired labor to replace the agricultural labor force, the effect of male out-migration do not appear to have a lasting negative impact on the economy of sending areas (Mandola, 2006). However, a study by Cleavald, (1991 cited in Dershingkar and Grimm, 2004) in Africa found that remittances are often too low to allow for hiring labour. In some cases out-migration can be seen as a means to reduce pressure on household consumption and the land. In regions of high population density, out migration of part of the population may be a way to alleviate underemployment in agriculture and protect the livelihood of those farmers who stay behind. The remaining rural population may thus obtain access to more land and other resources

which can make their farms economically viable (Potts and Mutambirwa, 1990 cited in IFAD, 2007; Farooq and Cheema, 2005).

Transmission of Communicable Disease (STDs): The temporary and circulatory nature of migration creates conducive environment for the transmission of STDs such as HIV/AIDS. Migration has been linked to STDs in many countries. For example, villagers in Thailand, Uganda, Nigeria and Ghana mentioned that migrants often return with HIV/AIDS (Deshingkar and Grimm 2005). Thus, migratory movements can not be blamed for the spread of STDs. Certain migratory movements may increase STDs infection rates, as can be argued in the case of male only migration in South Africa mining industry and its social consequence (example the creation of second families) (Deshingkar and Grimm 2005).

Cultural Change: The migration of rural youth in to urban area means, they are introducing themselves with new environment in terms of physical setup of the area, and the culture as well. Their interaction with the people in the urban area would lead to lose of their traditional culture where they grew (Andersen, 2002; Jamilah, 1981).

2.5. Empirical Studies of Migration in Ethiopia

Population movement in Ethiopia has been a phenomenon throughout its history since the remote past. Development of coffee and other plantations in particular ecological zones of the south west of the country led to seasonal labor flow specifically from the northern highlands of eastern Gojjam and south Gonder, and the Gurage areas. The reasons from these specific source areas are due to population densities, the need to supplement the income of the households through off-farm activities, patterns of information flows, and most parts of these areas produce only one times in a year (Wood, 1983 cited in Birru, 1997). Tesfaye (2009) also state that in rural Ethiopia, migration of labor is a common practice by the rural people during the slack farming season so as to supplement their income. This type of migration is undertaken even in normal times so as to diversify household livelihood portfolio and as a coping strategy in poor farming periods (Devereux et al, 2003).

Ethiopia has been identified as one of the countries in Africa with a relatively high level of internal migration and population redistribution (Gebre and White, 2004 cited in Mberu, 2005). This is associated with political instability, decline in agricultural sector and other related factors.

Thus in Ethiopia, since earlier periods permanent or temporary out migration of people to the South West for coffee picking period (Wood, 1983 cited in Birru, 19997), to the Methehara state farm of sugarcane and cotton picking (Beyene, 1985), to rural areas for different off-farm activities and urban areas for temporary or permanent jobs (Bjeren, 1985; Worku, 1995) have been experiencing by the rural people.

Different researchers have attributed different reasons of the push and pull factors of migration to urban areas of Ethiopia. Environmental degradation, lower agricultural productivity, inadequate social services, demographic pressure, land shortages in rural areas were identified as the major push factors of migration (Kebede, 1991; Sileshi, 1978; Befekadu, 1978). Similarly Markos and Gebre-Egziabher (2001) state that, population pressure, famine, poverty, land scarcity and lack of agricultural resources push the rural people to the urban areas of Ethiopia. Mesfine (1986) and Betemariam and White (1999) also witnessed that landlessness, agricultural policy, population pressure, recurrent drought and famine, war and political crisis were the major factors responsible for mobility and they also stated that the difficulty of locating all the various factors causing rural exodus, yet it is possible to show the dominance of the operation of “push” forces in the rural areas vis-à-vis the “pull” forces of the towns. Sileshi (1978) specify the “push” factors among the two forces that cause rural out-migration. The indication according to him is the accumulation of the capital city by poorly educated rural youth and untrained peasants that can not be absorbed by the formal labor market. Although “push” factors predominate, there are some significant “pull” factors that attract rural people to urban areas such as education, health services, security, better job, advancement opportunities and other urban amenities (Birru, 1997; Befekadu, 1978). Bjeren (1985) argues economic case is common for rural-urban migration. Adding to this idea what Sileshi (1978) found that in spite of the open unemployment in Addis Ababa, in migration continued from the rural areas because of the expected income differentials between the rural and urban areas.

On the other hand, Mberu (2005) states that although a number of factors are responsible for rural out-migration in the country, the roles played by environmental change are more pronounced in Ethiopia. About 84 percent of the population in Ethiopia lives in rural areas with low socio-economic holdings, bad weather conditions, massive land degradation, and lack of

basic infrastructure for intensive land use has undermined agricultural growth (CSA, 2007; Degefa, 2005) which leads to rural exodus.

The presence of relatives and friends as well as the flow of information between origin and destination has been also identified as among the most important factors and key influences on the pattern of migration (Beyene, 1985; Bjerer 1985; Worku, 1995). Worku (1995) in the case of Gurage migration states that migrants from some areas migrate not necessarily because they are among the poorest but groups can develop a tradition of migration, once certain patterns of migration exist. He argues that Gurage's engagement in self-employed occupation such as petty trade, and settlement on the permanent basis in urban areas provided a strong source of attraction for further Gurage urban migration.

Studies in Ethiopia regarding the implications of migration reveal both the positive and negative aspects. On the positive aspect, migration contributes in meeting the labor demands of receiving areas, bringing back skills, and playing a key role in the diversification and improvement of household income (Beyene, 1985; Devereux et al. 2003; Degefa, 2005; Feleke et al, 2006; Worku, 1995). Positive implication of collective remittance of Gurage urban ward migrants at the community level of their origin is described in terms of organizing social clubs, rebuilding schools and churches and beautifying common areas (Feleke et al, 2006; Worku, 1995), and also returned with the purchase of plough oxen and farm implements. A few Gojjam migrants who live in Addis Ababa also mentioned that they contributed cash towards church construction in Gojjam. (Feleke et al, 2006).

Worku (1995) also found that Gurage migrants are responsible for a domestic change in the attitudes, values and beliefs of both migrants and non-migrant households. Villagers realized that the value of education and modern health care because of influence of urban ward migration. Thus, rural-urban migration by Gurage is considered as an asset to the people. It has been also broadly observed that remittance sent back home by rural-urban migrants in Ethiopia are mainly used for such purposes as consumption, repayment of loans and paying annual land taxes, obtaining better medications and meeting other social obligations (Feleke et al, 2006; Worku, 1995).

On the negative side of rural-urban migration, different researchers state that migration leads in increasing population concentration in towns, creating unemployment and exerting pressure on urban social services in the host environment, as well as creating a shortage of farm labor, placing burden of responsibilities on the person who left behind, expose to the transmission of sexually transmitted diseases mainly HIV/AIDS, exposure to risks, and psychological frustration (Birru, 1997; Degefa, 2005; Worku, 1995).

2.6. Summary

In the above review of the relevant literature, concepts in relation to migration with particular emphasis of rural-urban migration are highlighted. Attempts have been also made to assess the different lines of thoughts of the relevant theories of migration, main factors of rural-urban migration in the developing countries and its implication on the place of origin and destination as well as empirical studies of migration in Ethiopia. Thus, the discussed literature is relevant in the context of this study to get a better understanding about the factors of migration (push and pull) and its implications on sending areas of the migrants, on migrants themselves as well as on the destination areas.

Therefore, the present study which makes different from earlier works is that it focuses studying the significance of push and pull factors in causing migration to Addis Ababa and its implication on the place of migrants' origin and it tries to fill the knowledge gap in this way.

CHAPTER THREE

3. BACKGRUOND OF THE STUDY AREA

Under this chapter, the different types of assets and resource potentials of the study area were discussed. Moreover, the distribution of social services especially in the two selected kebeles was also explored in detail. This background information of the study area was used to substantiate the arguments given by the respondents related to the factors for rural-urban migration.

3.1. Location

Ankesha wereda is located in Awi-Zone, Amhara Regional State. Ankesha is named for the Awi sub-group of the [Agaw](#) people, some of whom live in Awi- Zone. There is a legend that a long time ago, there was a man in Sekota named Adal. He was from the Agaw ethnic group and speaks Awigna language. He had seven boys and six of his boys were scattered in different parts of Western Gojam, now called Awi-Zone to make their living while the last boy remains there in Sekota. Thus, Ankesha is one of the Adal's son who was living in Awi-zone. Then the wereda name Ankesha is given from the name of the man (Awi-Zone Culture and Tourism Department Document, 2009, unpublished). The wereda town (Administrative center) is known as Agew-Gimjabet which is found approximately 480 km north-west of Addis Ababa, the capital city and 141 km south-west of Bahir Dar, capital of the region. The two study kebeles (Bekafta and Tulta) are located within the wereda at a distance of 15 and 35 km from the Wereda town respectively. Geographically Ankesha wereda's absolute location extends between the coordinates of 36°36'18'' and 36°59'33'' East longitude and 10°31'46'' and 10°41'32'' North latitude. The total area of the wereda is estimated to be 103,174.07 ha (nearly 986.37 square kilometers). Ankesha is bordered on the south by Mirab Gojjam Zone (Wonberma Wereda), on the west by Guangua Wereda, on the north by Banja shekudad Wereda and on the east by Guagusa Wereda of Awi-Zone (Ankesha wereda Agriculture and Rural Development Office/AWARD, 2010, Unpublished) (See Figure 3.1).

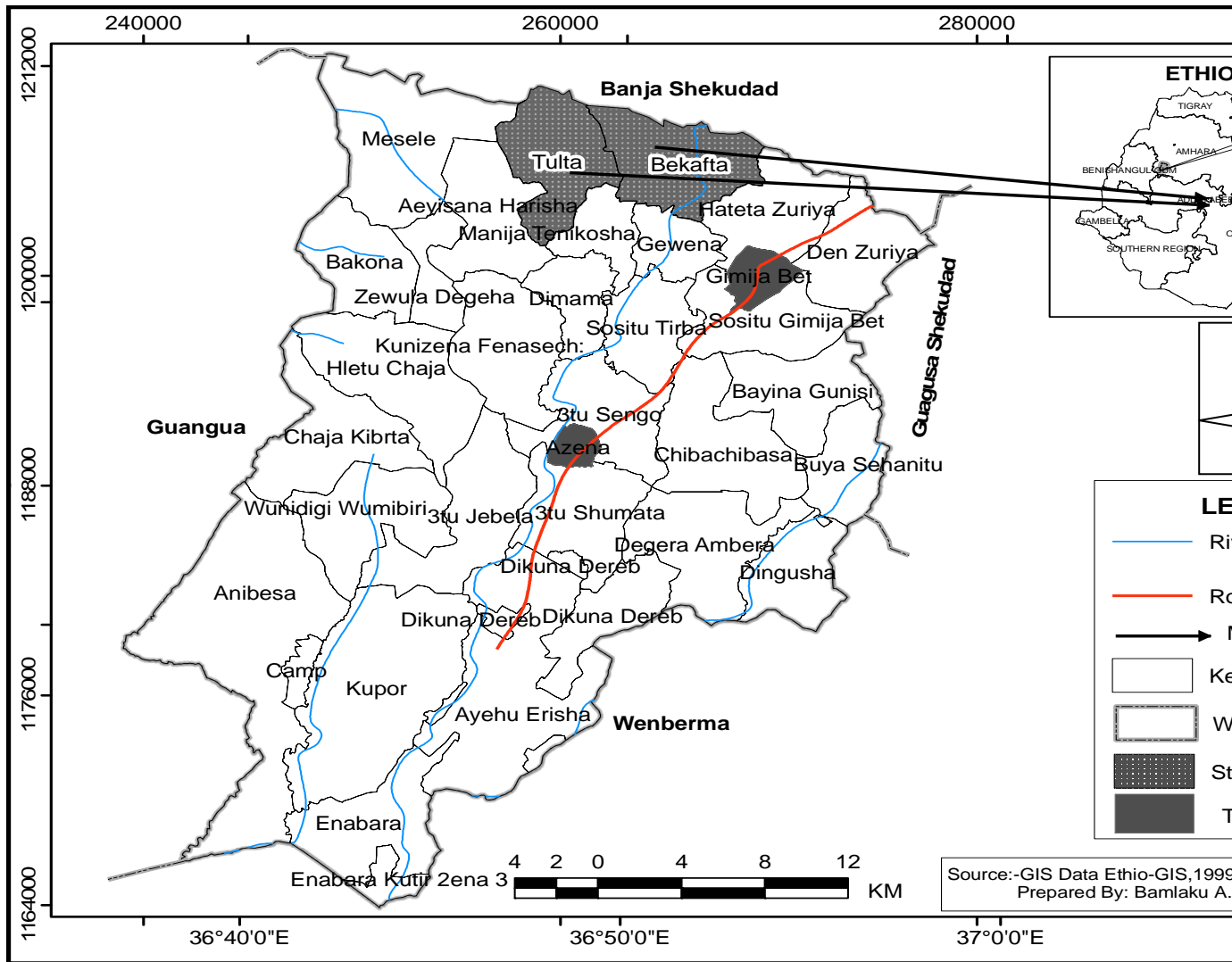
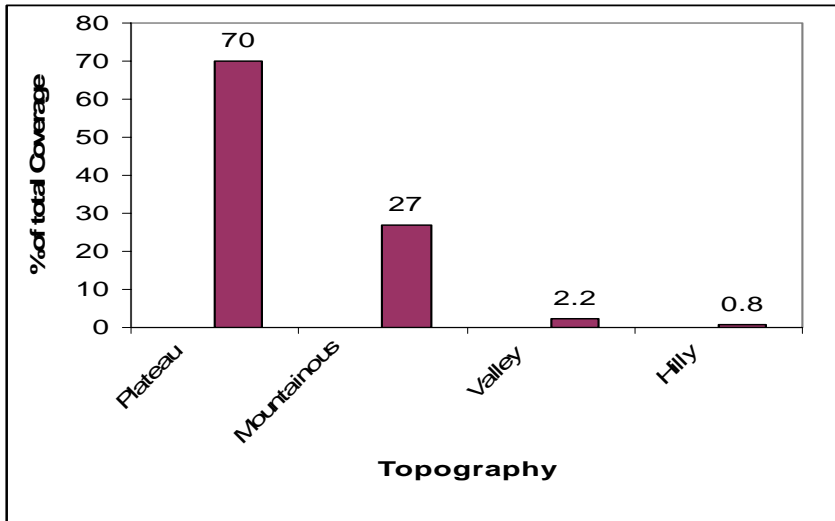


Figure 3.1. Location map of the study area, Ethiopia

3. 2. Relief and Drainage

Ankesha has an elevation varying from 1500 to 2800 meter above sea level. The average elevation is 2300 meter above sea level. Topographically the wereda has the following relief features: 70% of plateau, 27% of mountainous, 2.2% of valley and 0.8% of hilly (AWRDO, 2010).

Figure 3.2. Relief Types of the Study Wereda



Source: AWARDO (2010, unpublished).

While that of study area kebele of Bekafta have land feature of plateau (61.2%), mountainous (37%), and valley land forms (1.3%) and Tulta kebele has a land feature of mountainous (57.6%), plateau (29%) and the remaining land form is valley (13.5%) (KOD, 2010, unpublished).

The wereda is surrounded by a chain of mountains which ranges from 1500 to 2500 meters above sea level. The mountains and hills are very important as source of different rivers. Thus mountains are considered as an important source of irrigation by diverting rivers and streams from the upper courses (AWARDO, 2008, unpublished).

3. 3. Climate and Vegetation

3.3.1. Climate

The climatic condition of the wereda is favorable. The climatic zones of the wereda are also found throughout much of the neighboring areas. These zones are categorized by the Agew people using definitions and criteria to that of their neighbors. The people in Ankesha wereda are settled in three climatic zones as classification is understood by experts. But, according to traditional classification, the Agew people have used only two terms, “*Dereh*” for Dega and “*Kul*” for kola. They don’t have the term for the intermediary climatic zone known as Woina dega.

Table 3.1. The Agro-Climatic Characteristics of the Wereda

Characteristics	Agro climatic zones		
	Kola	Woina dega	Dega
Altitude (meter)	1000-1500	1500-2300	2300-2700
Area coverage (%)	10	80	10
Mean annual temp. (°C)	21-24	16-21	11-16
Rainfall (mm/year)	1250	1900	2352
Main crops*	M, S	T, M, W , Mt	B, W,T

* T: Teff, M: maize, W: wheat B: barley, S: sorghum Mt: millet

Source: AWRDO, 2010, unpublished).

There is only one rainy season (summer) rainfall pattern, from June to September in Ankesha wereda. The belg season (i.e. small rainy season which may take place any time between Novembers to May) is not common in the area. However, due to the long tradition of irrigation practices, very small number of farmers harvest in some cases twice in the drier months by using nearby rivers.

3. 3.2. Vegetation

The earliest written records and oral sources gave us image of a well managed and dense vegetation cover in Ankesha wereda. But land pressure and deforestation has now resulted in replacement by bush and grassland. A few remnants of the natural vegetation can be found in

church compounds, sacred places and along stream banks. Eucalyptus, an exotic tree, is now the dominant tree in the study area, often planted around farm boundaries and in private wood plots at the edge of farm plots and especially around homestead areas. The Eucalyptus provides wood for fuel, poles for home and other construction, and it is also the main source of income by selling standing trees to urban dwellers. It is argued that expansion of planting this tree for its economic importance has encouraged the elimination of other indigenous species, which are economically more beneficial in terms of soil fertility and conservation of cultivable land (AWARDO, 2010, unpublished).

3. 4. Population Size by Age- Sex and Settlement

Based on the information obtained from the AWARDO, in the year 2010 the wereda has a total population of 214,169 and from these 106,449 are males and the remaining 107,720 are females. From the total population 194,788 are residents in rural areas and only 19,381 in urban areas. The population density of the wereda is one of the highest in Awi zone, with 147 people /km². The wereda is divided into 32 administrative kebeles, of which 30 are rural and 2 are urban kebeles.

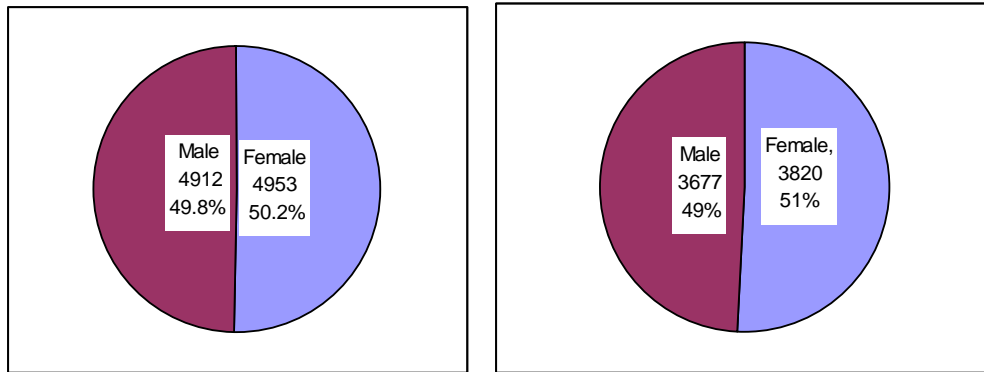
Table 3.2. The Urban and Rural Population Distribution of the Wereda by Age Group and Gender

Age group	Rural			Urban		
	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total
0-14	46969	51476	98445	3055	3149	6204
15-64	46358	44498	90856	6699	5988	12687
Above 64	3133	2354	5487	235	255	490
Total	96460	98328	<u>194788</u>	9989	9392	<u>19381</u>

Source: AWARDO, 2010, unpublished

From the above total population of the wereda, the number of people in the two selected kebeles is shown in the figure 3.3 below.

Figure 3.3. Population Distribution by Sex in Bekafta (left) and Tulta (right)



Source: (Kebele Office Document/KOD, 2010, unpublished)

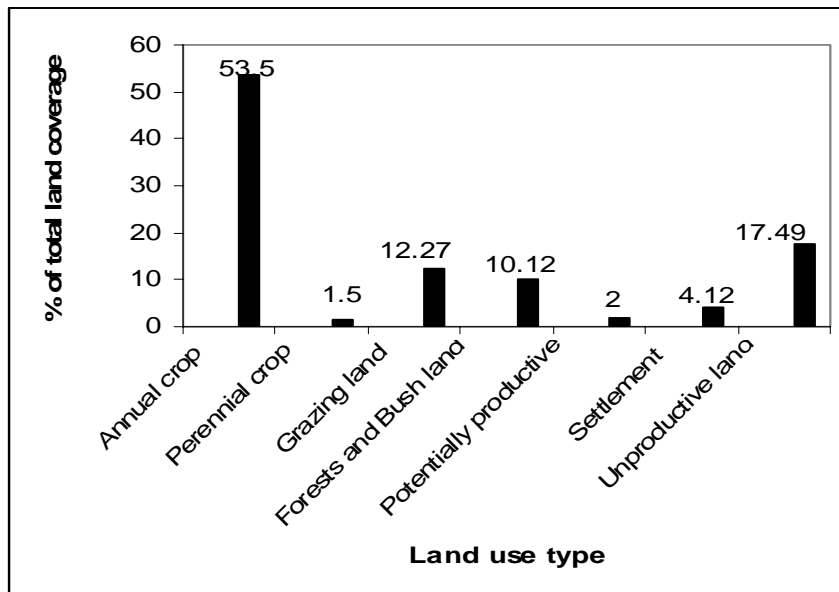
The number of people who are registered in tax paying or who have a parcel of land are 1255 male headed and 497 female headed households in Bekafta study site and 1029 male headed and 352 female headed households in Tulta (KOD,2010, unpublished)

The settlement pattern of the study area in Bekafta Kebele is densely populated and settled with village type of settlement but that of Tulta kebele study site is dispersed and scattered. Village-type of settlement is not common in the wereda including the study area of Tulta in which majority of farmers built their houses at the foot of mountains. Most of the farmers are also settled near to the river, and church and these areas become denser than other places. The member of one head or parent usually construct houses around their families' home and form a small village of very close relatives. This leads to the fragmentation of homestead plots. When land is fragmented the number of cut-off drains and traditional ditches are commonly increasing.

3.5. Land Use Pattern

According to the report by AWARD0 (2008), cultivable land and grazing land account for 53.5 and 12.27 percent respectively from the total land resource of the wereda. The remaining land area is covered by houses, forests and bush land, wetlands and waste area (like rock outcrops).

Figure 3.4. Land Use Pattern of the Wereda



Source: (AWARDO, 2008, unpublished)

3.6. Farming System and Major Crops

Agriculture has been the primary, perhaps the only, source of livelihood for the majority of population since the start of human settlement in the area. Only river side farms and those found in and around swampy lands use irrigation and most of the farmers depend on rain-fed agricultural production which is not sufficient to cover family demand of food consumption. The farming system is characterized by a smallholder mixed agriculture for which land and livestock are the most important livelihood assets.

The major crops growing in the area include Teff (33.99%), Maize (24.44%), Millet (10.16%), Wheat (6.68%) and the rest (24.37%) are others. All of these major crops are cultivated during the rainy season. Cultivation of pulses like beans and peas is also common in Ankessa. Vegetables include potatoes (like potato and Agew potato); cabbage, onion and sugar cane are also produced as cash crops in some specific irrigated areas of the wereda (AWARDO, 2010, unpublished).

Farm size per household in Ankessa wereda is small and a large majority of farmers hold smaller than one hectare. The average land size per household in the study areas is 0.75 and 0.8 hectare

in Bekafta and Tulta kebeles, respectively. However, farmers cultivate a large number of cereal crops in different forms of multiple cropping systems, such as double cropping and intercropping. For example, crops like potato can be grown in both seasons (meher and belg) and intercropped with maize. The land is cultivated by a wooden plough with an iron point drawn by using mostly two horses and/or sometimes oxen. Hoe cultivation which is tedious activity is also employed by most households using various traditional implements to cultivate gardens and rocky soils or steep slopes. In general people of the study sites depend on small scale subsistence agriculture (AWARDO, 2010, unpublished).

3.7. Economic Activity/Income Generating Sources

The income generating activity of the study area is based on, only on farm activity or is based on mixed agriculture (crop-livestock system) with strong interaction between the two and non-farm activities are not considerable. The primary purpose of keeping livestock includes provision of drought power (oxen), production of manure to fertilize the soil, security against emergencies, provision of dairy and meat products and source of income.

The household herd is composed of different types of animals including cattle, goats and sheep. Cattle are the major type of animals mostly in kola areas, because of their diverse use including drought power, production of manure and dairy products. Transport and farming animals such as horse and mule are common in the selected kebeles and showing a significant increase in the area at present due to their use for plowing, marketing activities and transportation of grain from distant farm plot during harvest. The number of small ruminants such as goats and sheep is generally low since they are frequently sold to meet immediate economic needs. The shortage grazing land keep these animals is the major cases for decrease in number.

About 99.5% of the two kebeles is engaged in mixed agriculture. Unlike other kebeles Bekafta kebele has relatively plain area which is suitable for agriculture but that of Tulta is mountainous with hills and valleys that are not suitable for cultivation but potential areas for animal husbandry. So that, the people of the study kebeles have no other multiple income generating opportunities or non-farm activities other than agriculture (KOD, 2010, unpublished).

3.8. Socio-Economic Condition of the Wereda

87% of the wereda population lives on agriculture, 0.7% on trade and 11.6% on the other businesses. The economic condition of the wereda is poor. Two thirds of the populations are living below the poverty line on the basis of the international standard. Due to the poor fertility of the soil, erratic rainfall, prevalence of harmful traditional practice, effects of HIV/AIDS and poor farming practices, the yield, from agricultural activities is very low, and the great majority of the population live on meager income (AWARDO,2010, unpublished). As a result, the wereda is a home of various socio – economic problems like.

- Year –to- year increasingly growing unemployment
- Street children seems to increasing due to poverty and in search of better life in the towns and migration to major towns and cities is prevalent.
- Increased number of prostitutes
- Increase of juvenile delinquents
- HIV/AIDS orphans are increasing from time to time
- Expansion of exploitation of child labour
- Expanded begging activities etc. that affect the society

3.9. Social Conditions and Access to Social Services

The religious composition of the population is that 95% is Orthodox Christianity and the rest 5% is Muslim and Protestants. When we see access to social services, the expansion of social services in the kebele is one of the factors that determine the status of the people.

Education: The expansion of schools is believed to enhance the enrollment ratio in the Wereda. Accordingly, primary schools are constructed to satisfy the educational demand of the people. However, the students and their families are worrying for there is no high school where the students in the kebeles would continue their education.

The primary schools in the Wereda are 98 in number and 2 General secondary school and 1 recently opened higher education preparatory school of which all of them are governmental type with 49,684 students of which 25,658 are males and 24,658 are females. From those 98 primary schools, 3 are in Bekafta kebele and 2 are in Tulta kebele study areas.

Health: In the Wereda, there are 4 health centers and 30 health posts that are serving the community and there are 3 private clinics and 4 rural drug stores. Thus, the status of health services given in the area is poor. The number of skilled labor force is low and inconsiderable. The table 3.4 below depicts the number of health infrastructure and skilled labor force in the two kebeles.

Table 3.3. The Number of Health Institutions and Health Professionals of the Study Rural Kebeles.

Kebeles	Health Institution				Skilled Labor Force			
	Health post	Clinic	Health Station	Hospital	Doctor	Nurses	Health Extensions	Others
Bekafta	1	-	-	-	-	-	2	1
Tulta	1	-	-	-	-	1	2	-

Source: KOD, 2010, unpublished

Telecommunication: As far as telecommunication is considered, access of telecommunication is direct (fixed) type on the two urban centers (Agew Gimjabet and Azena) and there is a wireless telecommunication service in 30 rural kebeles in the Wereda. But almost all of them are not functional at the present time including the study sites. Some part of Bekafta kebele has a chance of using mobile cell as its nearness to the wereda town.

Water Supply: The availability and distribution of clean water is the most indispensable one. The wereda has both the surface and ground water source. Regarding the water supply schemes, currently there are 20 human developed wells, 107 developed springs, and 2 deep wells/motorized/ and 3 line extension which sum up a total of water schemes. But the non functionality rate is 13.7% mainly due to budget constraint and lack of proper attention. In terms of water supply coverage, the wereda rural water supply coverage is 65%. When we see the kebeles water supply coverage, the study area of Bekafta is 65.5% while that of Tulta is 19.49% which is much below the average.

Market Accessibility: The accessibility of markets seems better for Bekafta than Tulta study site. But the nearest market center for both kebeles is “Yima” awigna term to say Wednesday to

which the people from different areas come to sell and exchange goods and services on Wednesday. This market center is simply a plain place without any construction and other social services. The people of Tulat study site walk for more than 6 hours to get access to market center at the wereda town, Agew- Gimjabet (KOD, 2010, unpublished).

3.10. Practice of Migration in the Study Areas

People migrate to urban areas or other rural areas to find better opportunities from the study kebeles because of the above discussed reasons or others. Based on the information obtained from kebele office of Bekafta, in the year 2010, people mostly youths migrate mainly to Addis Ababa and seasonally to Ayo commercial farming areas with in the wereda, Gilgel beles and Humera to find economic opportunities and due to other social reasons(see table 3.5). But the numbers of migrants in the study site of Tulta are not registered.

Table 3.5. The Number of Migrants in 2010 from Bekafta Kebele to Addis Ababa, Humera and Gligel beles

Age group	Sex		Total
	Female	Male	
18-22	123	216	339
22-27	55	94	149
28-32	39	44	83
>32	15	21	83
Total	232	375	607

Source: KOD, 2010, unpublished

CHAPTER FOUR

4. RESULT ASND DISCUSSION: Migrants Characteristics and Factors Motivating Rural-Urban Migration

Migration studies usually focus on the socio-economic and demographic nature of migrants, who are involved in the mobility. The focus of different studies emphasize on the selective nature of migration in reference to sex, age, marital status, wealth status, educational background etc. Knowing the characteristics of migrants' means inferring the possible influences that the rural-urban migration would have to the place of origin and destination. This chapter dealt with socio-demographic nature of migrants and factors motivating for rural-urban migration.

4.1. Migrants Characteristics

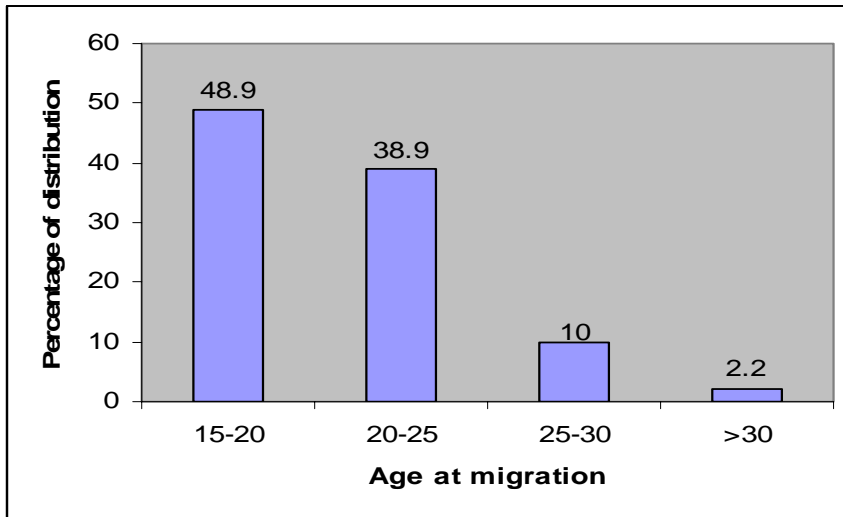
4.1.1. Age and Sex Profile

Internal migration is an activity undertaken primarily by young adults all over the world (Deshingkar and Grimm, 2004). In Africa also labor migration, particularly greater distance tends to be dominated by young men (De Haan, 2000).

The study of rural-urban migration in Ethiopia found that, migrants are mostly male under the age of 30 (15-30) years (CSA, 1999). The study conducted by Feleke et al (2006) also found that even though children have participated in the rural-urban migration, most migrants to Addis Ababa are young male and female from different ethnic groups.

Inline with the above discussion, the results of this study shows that, the rate of migration was found significantly higher for the people who belonged to the age group of (15-20) followed by (20-25) about 48.9 % and 38.9%, respectively, (indicating that youths, among others, are more migratory) and the rate was about 2.2% among the age group of 30 years and above (see fig. 4.1).

Figure 4.1. Age at Migration of Migrants and Percentage Distribution



Source: Own survey, 2011

The age of migrants clearly shows that majority of them were very young at the time of their first migration. The proportion of migrants remarkably decreased with increasing in age group. The average age at the time of migration was found about 21 years with standard deviation of 3.44 years. Thus, the rural migrants to urban are concentrated among youth. This proves that children and elderly are less interested in rural-urban migration. There is also the general consensus among the researchers that young people are more mobile (Adepoju, 1982; De Haan, 2000, IDRC, 1977; Tianshong et al, 2000). Since the discounted value of future earnings would be higher for the younger people than those of adults and aged, youths enjoy the capacity to learn new trends, acquire new skills and education to achieve their goals in the urban areas. They are also less burdened with various family and other social responsibilities and hence free to move.

In terms of gender as one of the demographic factor, perhaps the most important form of social differentiation that influence migration propensities, in the case of in-migrants to Addis Ababa is dominated by male with proportion of 76.7% and it is 23.3% for female migrants (table 4.1). This seems to be the same with the experiences of other African and Asian countries where urbanization is still at early stage, and where migration is characterized predominantly by the movement of males (Bhuyan et al, 2001). In contrast, a larger proportion of females make their way to village for marital status. It is likely that a village woman probably will lie to be married to

somebody in her own villages or in other village (Bhuyan et al, 2001). Contrary to the above ideas, a study on migrant population to Addis Ababa by Falge et al (2001 cited in Devereux et al, 2003) found that migrants from the rural areas have an unusual gender profile, compared to other African countries, in Ethiopia, women migrants to the capital outnumber male counterparts.

Table 4.1. Some Characteristics of Migrants from the Sample Villages to Addis Ababa

Characteristics		No. of Respondents	Percent
Sex	Male	69	76.7
	Female	21	23.3
Educational status	Illiterate	14	15.6
	Primary, 1st cycle (1-4)	27	30
	Primary, 2nd cycle (5-8)	39	43.3
	General Secondary (9-10)	8	8.9
	11-12	1	1.1
	12+	1	1.1
Marital status	Single	48	53.3
	Married	22	24.4
	Divorced	20	22.2
Family size	3 and below members	7	7.8
	4-6 members	43	47.8
	7-10 members	32	35.6
	More than 10 members	8	8.9
Economic condition	Poorer of the poor	8	8.9
	Poor	45	50
	Medium	32	35.6
	Rich	5	5.6
Head of the household	Father	34	37.8
	Mother	51	56.7
	Sister/ brother	2	2.2
	Other	3	3.3
Current occupation	Street vendor	46	51.1
	Daily labourer	44	48.9

Source: Own survey, 2011

4.1.2. Educational Status

As mentioned earlier, selectivity of migration varies according to education of migrants too. Most studies of rural-urban migration found that, relatively better educated shows the highest propensity to migrate (Deshigkar and Grimm, 2005; Hossain, 2001). But the findings of CSA (1999) in Ethiopia showed that 70% of internal migrants were illiterate. In the present study, results show that 15.6% of migrants are illiterate and there are a high proportion of migrants who attained primary school (73.3%), of whom 30% were at primary school level of first cycle (grade

1-4) and 43.3% were attended second cycle level (grade 5-8). The rest were at the level of general secondary education (8.9%) and one case of each who attained grade 11-12 and more than grade 12 among migrants. This doesn't suggest that the least educated are the most migratory; rather it reflects the predominance of primary school graduates given high drop-out rates at the end of primary education course (table 4.1).

4.1.3. Marital Status

The migration decision of an individual is also influenced by marital status. Different literatures state that generally those who have no family obligation are more prone to move (IDRC, 1977; Mendola, 2006). Supporting this idea, the result of this study shows that more than half (53.3%) of the migrants were single, 24.4% were married and 22.2% were divorced at the time of their migration. However, more female migrants were married 7(33.33%) and divorced 10(47.6%). This may indicate that early marriage is mostly practiced among females in rural areas of their origin. A study done by Guest (2003 cited in Deshingkar and Grimm, 2004) contradicts the findings of this study in case of female rural-urban migrants, who found that majority of female rural-urban migrants in East and Southeast Asia are young and unmarried.

4.1.4. Household Demographic Characteristics

When the family size of household in which the migrants arise was seen, the majority of migrants came from the large family size. Table (4.1) shows that most of the migrants came from the family size of 4-6 members (47.8%) followed by 7-10 members (35.6%) and a small number of migrants (7.8%) came from a family size of 3 and below members. Thus, migrants' family seems still lack awareness about the benefit of small size family.

4.1.5. Socio-Economic Status

Studies on migration suggest that families of poorer people (usually from poorly irrigated and rain fed dependant) areas tend to be migrated to urbanized location or richer villages (Deshingkar and Grimm, 2005). Those who are mostly with limited access to land and other assets are more likely to migrate from rural to urban areas. Inline with this, in this study, the migrants were asked whether they came from families of poor, poorer of the poor, medium and rich families according to their perception in comparison with neighbors at origin. They reported that half of

the migrants (50%) were from poor families followed by medium families (35.6%), 8.9% were from poorer of the poor and insignificant number of migrants (5.6%) were from rich families (see table 4.1).

4.1.6. Head of the Household Migrants Came from

The study found that, although a few of the households are female headed households as compared to male headed households from the migrants' origin of the rural site, female headed households were more likely to be the source of rural-urban migrants than the male counterparts. Rural-urban migrants from female headed households accounted for 56.7% while migrants from male headed households accounted for 37.8% of respondents. This is related with the study done by Devereux et al (2003) on Wollo, which shows that female headed households did have a higher probability of becoming poor as compared to male headed households at that particular place. The most common way this happens is when women lose their husband due to divorce or death and are forced to lead households with out critical male labor and management skill. This may lead members of the family to migrate to find alternative livelihood strategy.

4.1.7. Occupational Status

The rural-urban migrants to Addis Ababa from Ankesha wereda are engaged in different urban informal economic sector activities, such as street vending and daily labor and other casual work. In terms of employment status, the subjects of this study reported that more than half (54.4%) are self and shared employers in the street vending activity and the rest (45.6%) are engaged as daily laborers. A study conducted by Feleke et al (2006) stated that most of the rural-urban migrants to the two urban sites (Addis Ababa and Shashene) lack adequate education or required occupational skill to be engaged in the formal sector, and hence the only option is to join urban informal sector.

As expressed above it is more important for the rural destitute migrants of this study, because they are less educated, unskilled to be employed in the formal sector and have no capital potential to run any form of big business of their own in the capital city. That is why they are engaged in the urban informal economic sector of street vending and daily casual work to lead their life.

4.2. Factors Motivating Rural-Urban Migration and Significance of Push-Pull

Factors Related to Anksha Migrants

Most of the studies indicate that migration is primarily motivated by push and pull factors. But the question arises which factor is more important, push or pull? This study is therefore, to see whether people migrate due to compelling circumstances which push them out of the place of origin or they are lured by the attractive conditions in the destination place.

Thus, different factors are perceived by migrants as important reasons for rural-urban migration that are broadly categorized in to push and pull factors. So it necessitates having a fresh look at the major “push” and “pull” factors contributing for rural-urban migration among migrants and comparative significance of the two factors. To do this, the perception of rural-urban migrants on a set of 24 statements for which each and every responses were measured on a five point Likert scale type that determine the role of different “push” and “pull” factors in the process of rural-urban migration were studied (the list of this statements is presented in Appendix).

In this regard, paired sample t-test was performed to compare the significance of means between the two factors. Thus the result shows that there is a statistically significant difference existing in the mean scores between the two factors which are contributing for rural-urban migration ($t=8.151$, $df=89$, $p<0.01$). More specifically, the push factors are by far greater than the pull factors and it is possible to conclude that migrants are forced mainly by rural push more than by the pull of urban opportunities.

Table 4.2. Paired Sample Statistics and T-test of the Significance of push-Pull Factors

Paired Sample Statistics		Mean	N	Std. Deviation				
pair 1	Push factor	3.6944	90	.47174				
	Pull factor	3.1870	90	.43817				
Paired Sample T Test								
		Paired Differences			t	df	sig. (2-tailed)	
		Mean Difference	Std. Deviation	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference				
				Lower	Upper			
Pair1	push-pull factor	.5074	.59053	.38372	.63109	8.151	89	.000

Source: Own survey, 2011

Moreover, the results of the study show that the push factors explain the mean of 3.6944 and the pull factors explain about 3.1870. It indicates the agreement level of the respondents on the five point Likert types of scale statements. From this, we can infer that even though the push factor is significantly by far greater than the urban pull factors, the mean indicates that the pull of urban opportunities are also contributing for rural-urban migration to the capital city.

Regarding qualitative evidence about push and pull factors of rural-urban migration in Ethiopia, the study done by Feleke et al (2006) and Participatory Poverty Assessment (MoFED, 2005) provide insights on the push and pull factors of migration. The rural push factors associated with rural-urban migration are shortage of land, landlessness and destitution and urban areas associated with the pull of perceptions of better employment opportunities, particularly in the informal sector. Applying this discussion, this study reveals that landlessness and small landholdings play an important role in determining rural out-migration to Addis Ababa. In an agrarian economy where the rural people are totally dependent on the availability of and access to land, through which they obtain the basic necessities for their life, landlessness leads to rural-urban migration (Getahun, 2007). The other study done by Hossain (2001) also found that rural out-migration is

closely associated with unequal distribution of resources, particularly land. Land as one of the most important indicators of household economic status, the result reveals that more than three quarters (83.3%) of migrants are landless and they describe that landlessness is the major reason for their migration and 16.7% of them responded that even though they have a land, it is fragmented and small in amount. They reported that with this small amount of land and dependant on rain-fed agriculture with out the development of irrigational activity, it is difficult to afford their life.

Thus, the landless rural people in the study area found it difficult to anticipate their life without land. Based on the information obtained through interview and FGD, the problem of landlessness is a fundamental reason for their out-migration to Addis Ababa. When their ages increase they find it difficult to depend on scarce resource and small landholding of their families. Migration either to other rural or urban area is therefore an important strategy where they are engaged in different activities to support themselves and families. In this case Getahun (2007) also adds that population movement in Ethiopia and migration to Addis Ababa clearly indicates the existence of a correlation between rural development and rural employment, and land as central to both because the rural economy in Ethioia is associated with availability of land and its productivity.

On the other hand, regarding population pressure in relation to land fragmentation and small landholdings, Boserup (1965 and 1987 cited in Hornby and Jones 1993) has explained that the increase in population size will not be a trouble for countries development. She said that people would devise their own mechanism by advancing the level of technological status to produce more out put and improve the food security situation. However, the findings of this study depict the extent of land fragmentation increasingly becoming an obstacle for rural development. The problem is further intensified due to low level of technological adaptation as well as less capacity to invest in the major agricultural inputs. The average land holding size per household in the study site of the rural kebeles is around 0.7 hectare. Thus, the migrants in Addis Ababa explained the following about the effects of small land size holdings on the families' economic condition.

You can see that a family of 7 or more members is struggling on small size plot by using traditional plowing system. Migrants and non-migrants share the point that off-farm and non-farm

incomes are very crucial to support agricultural income but the non-farm activities and off-farm activities are not as such accustomed to the people of the study area and what the majority of the migrants replied that their members of a households do not at all have means of generating income from non-farm and off-farm activities. This testifies that there is concentration of high earning opportunities in the towns and cities than in the rural areas. Thus, rural-urban migration is inevitable because as Todaro (2000 cited Lynch, 2005) pointed out that, an individual will move if the value of the expected income of the place of destination exceeds to that of the origin.

4.3. Source of Information, Decision to Migrate and Hosting at Destination

4.3.1. Source of Information

Once a certain critical number of migrants have settled at the destination, other forces come into play which influence on subsequent migration patterns (De Haas, 2008). There is a Lee's (1966 cited in De Haas, 2008) argument that migrants facilitate the flow of information back from the place of destination to the origin, which in turn facilitates the passage of other migrants.

Supporting this idea, information flow and personal networks such as friendship and kinship were among the important determinants of rural-urban migration to the migrants of this study. More than three quarter (77.8%) of migrants had obtained information about destination (Addis Ababa) prior to their migration. The sources of information were friends, relatives, family members, school, their previous knowledge and some other informal sources. Based on this, 54.4% of respondents obtained information about the destination from friends, 13.3% from relatives, 21.1% from other family members, 2.2% from previous knowledge, 5.5% from school and 6.6% respondents received information from other sources such as returnees whom they did not know and second hand information from somebody before they travel to Addis Ababa. No one had heard information from mass media because as all of them are from the rural origin they have been less sensitive to depend on mass media.

Table 4.3. Percentage Distribution of Respondents by Prior-Information about the Destination and Decision Making for Migration

Having information, Source of information and Decision making		No.of Respondents	Percent
<i>Having information about the destination</i>	Yes	70	77.8
	No	20	22.2
<i>Source of information</i> (Multiple Responses are possible)	Friends	49	54.4
	Relatives	12	13.3
	Family members	19	21.1
	Previous knowledge	2	2.2
	School	5	5.6
	Others	6	6.6
<i>Who decide for migration</i>	Self	48	53.3
	Parents	13	14.4
	Relatives	9	10
	Friends	20	22.2

Source: Own survey, 2011

There are various factors involved prior to make the decision for rural-urban migration. Other than the problems of the rural areas and expectations of urban life, information flows that individuals receive are important inputs to migration decision (Rayhan and Grote, 2007). Getahun (2007) states the influence of pioneer migrants and the existences of networks were very important in attracting potential migrants to Addis Ababa. What he states is that information and social networks in facilitating migration was important because those who are generally less educated and subject to greater social constraints were more likely rely upon friends or relatives information and guidance to make the decision to migrate.

As seen in table (4.3) migration of the majority of the respondents (53.3%) was decided by the migrants themselves, 14.4% were reported that their migration was decided by their parents after discussion with the whole family members, the remaining 10% and 22.2% of the migrants

decision to move to Addis Ababa was mainly decided by the prior migrants of their relatives and their friends respectively.

4.3.2. Hosting at Destination

Migration from distant places is heavily dependent upon interpersonal influences among family, relatives and friends. Typically, one person, a family member, or friends migrate from rural area to a distant city. Upon finding work in that city the migrants write to relatives and friends “back home” or communicating through phone or they may be informed during return trip, indicating that work is found and perhaps telling about some of attractions of city life. Due this case, the migrants are attached with the fact that they already have friends and relatives at their destination who might provide comfort, help in a job search, or perhaps offer them a place to stay initially. Hence, the presence of such relatives and friends at the destination, as well as the flow of information between origin and destination has been identified as among the most important key influences on the pattern of migration (Beyene, 1985; Birru, 1997; Feleke et al, 2006, Worku, 1995).

Similarly the migrants were asked if their friends/relatives/family members who migrated before to the destination provide some kind of assistance upon arrival to Addis Ababa. 27.8% of respondents reported that they received financial assistance, 45.6% food and housing and 38.9% of them got assistance related to their work.

Tabl 4.4. Assistance Provided to New Migrants from Earlier Migrants

<i>Assistance provided</i> (Multiple Responses are Possible)	No. of Respondents	Percent
Financial	25	27.8
Food & housing	41	45.6
Arrange work	35	38.9

Source: Own survey, 2011

Chain migration is common among the migrants. An attempt was made to assess the situations followed by the migrant during in-migration and after. The interviewed migrants said that they

followed their close friends/relatives/ and family members during their in-migration to Addis Ababa. The migrants after arriving at Addis Ababa, similarly they adjusting themselves to the new environment and they provide different types of information and assistance to the potential migrants in the area of origin.

In general, the result of the study shows that most of the migrants left their place of origin to Addis Ababa with their friends, relatives and their family members. Similarly most of them did bring any other family members, friends, relatives and spouses to Addis Ababa after their coming. Thus, chain migration is common among the Ankesha migrants to Addis Ababa.

4.4. Preferred Place of Work of Ankesha Migrants and Job Satisfaction

4.4.1. Preferred Place for Migration

Respondents were asked why they prefer Addis Ababa and why they have been involved in street vending or daily labor work. This is one of the most frequently asked questions among people concerned with the issue. It is natural to see people migrating from place to place to satisfy their needs. For example, places with better natural resources and job opportunities will attract more people from other areas or people could be forced to leave the area due to natural calamities, political instability, ecological degradation and some other pushing factors. The trend of rural-urban migration among most of the migrants from Ankesha wereda specifically from Tulta and Bekafta Kebele is to Addis Ababa than any other near by small and medium towns, like Gimjabet, Injibara, Dangila and Chagni where some of the migrants from study area are attracted. Distance as a geographic factor is not applied with the migrants of youth from Ankesha wereda to Addis Ababa. As noted in the discussion and document from the rural kebeles of origin, what they reported is that more number of youths migrate to Addis Ababa at the present time than any other near by towns. Hence, this research paper has intended to answer the question of why the migrants prefer to migrate to Addis Ababa than any other town and why they primarily involve in to street vending and daily labor work than any other work.

Regarding to the preference of the particular location, Addis Ababa in this case is related to the idea of Rayhan and Grote (2007) who state, once the migrants go to the destination areas, they transmit information to the non-migrants on their return home and this becomes one the

facilitating factors for other migrants to migrate to specific location. More individuals then migrate and in turn, inform their friends and relatives. Through this process, potential migrants find out more about opportunities in that particular city than they would be likely find out other locations.

By sharing this statement, the migrants of this study stated that the earlier migrants informed them about their life in Addis Ababa and besides owing to information, they were encouraged by the changes they saw in the lives of friends who had migrated earlier to Addis Ababa than any other near by towns. Earlier migrants stimulated migration to Addis Ababa through frequent visits and remittances. Most returned with changed socio-economic status through exposure to modernization and urban life. Their clothes demonstrated the quality of life in Addis Ababa and this in turn influence others to make the decision to migrate. But as Getahun (2007) stated, this conclusion does not always reflect the reality of migrants' life in the city. Seemingly, rural kin viewed their relatives migrated to the cities they are leading comfortable and luxurious lives. As such large numbers of migrants spontaneously make decision and follow them (Getahun, 2007). This determines the direction of migration to specific location (Addis Ababa).

On the other hand, non-migrants at the place of origin were asked if they had prior migration experiences and their preferred place of migration. The participants of FGD stated that they have migration experiences but towards near by towns and seasonally to the commercial areas of Gilgel-beles in Binishangul Gumuz to harvest maize and sesame, to Ayo commercial areas of their wereda to harvest maize and teff, and some times to Humera for sesame cutting and they mostly migrated to the wereda town to get social services like marketing, grain mill, schooling, health care, telephone services and etc.

4.4.2. Working in the Informal Sector

After observing some of the uniformity of jobs adhered by group of people, who belong to the same place of origin in Addis Ababa, the researcher has a keen interest to answer the aforementioned question. For example, the youth migrants from Gurage and Hadya have dominated shoe shining as self employment and informal small business activity in Addis Ababa. There are also large numbers of migrants from Tigray, who are involved in selling brooms and

migrants from Merawe (Gojjam) are engaged through lottery selling. Likewise, people coming from Awi-Zone are also increasingly establishing their means of livelihood mainly in street vending and daily labour work. The interviewed migrant street vendors said that they are actively involved on small scale informal trading.

According to the migrants from Ankesha, street vending and daily labor work is not a preference to them, rather it is a trend in which earlier migrants from the same area have been doing and continued by their descents. Early migrants were relatively effective and beneficiaries in solving some of their economic problems by working in the informal sector. Thus, the current daily laborers and street vendors migrated with the hope of solving their economic problems. Had it not been the first migrants were headed to this place and proved successful by working in the informal sector, then there might not been a probability to see as many migrants as there are now participating in this sector. Hence, the existing network between migrants and non-migrants will dictate the destination area and the type of activity that the migrants will be engaged in. They further explained that there may not be a possibility to see them involved in street vending and daily labor work if the early migrants were involved in other livelihood activity than street vending and daily labor work.

In addition to the participation of earlier migrants, the migrants of this study choose their work (Street vending and Daily labor work) because of other reasons. They responded that they are involved in this work mostly for economic independence (46.7%), to save money (10%), and the majorities (83.3%) were involved because they have no other option to lead their life as they couldn't be absorbed by the formal secured employment due to the lack of formal education and any trained skills. Only insignificant numbers (2.2% and 4.4%) are involved as off-season occupation and until siblings to finish school respectively, of the total respondents 17.8% additionally stated that they prefer their current work to determine working hours and days by themselves. Some street vendors reported that it was their preference as first job to start with small amount of money.

4.4.3. Job Satisfaction

The respondents were also asked how much they are satisfied with their current work. They responded as very satisfied (2.2%), some what satisfied (11.1%), neither satisfied nor dissatisfied (4.4%) and others report some what dissatisfied and very dissatisfied about 54.4% and 27.8% respectively (table 4.5).

Table 4.5. Percentage Distribution Migrants Satisfaction on their Current Job

<i>Level of satisfaction</i>	No. of Respondents	Percent
Very satisfied	2	2.2
Some what satisfied	10	11.1
Neither satisfied nor dissatisfied	4	4.4
Some what dissatisfied	49	54.4
Very dissatisfied	25	27.8
Total	90	100.0

Source: Own survey, 2011

The question why the migrants are dissatisfied with their work was raised. Accordingly, they reported that they are not using their skills and work experiences (8.9%), it is not their preferred occupation (13.3%), return is too low (17.8%), deprived social security (4.4%), the majority replied that their employment is less secure (62.2%). Some others (7.8%) reported, they are dissatisfied due to other reasons like they do not get job as expected. They also ashamed of drop-out of their schooling and unable to attend their education in the current place of their destination because of situations do not invite them to lead their life and to attend school in the capital city (see table 4.6).

Table 4.6. The Reason for Dissatisfaction of Migrants on their Current Occupation

<i>Reason for dissatisfaction</i> (Multiple Responses are Possible)	No. of Respondents	Percent
I am not using my skills and work experiences	8	8.9
It is not my preferred occupation	12	13.3
Return is too low	16	17.8
I am deprived social security	4	4.4
My current employment is less secure	56	62.2
Others	7	7.8

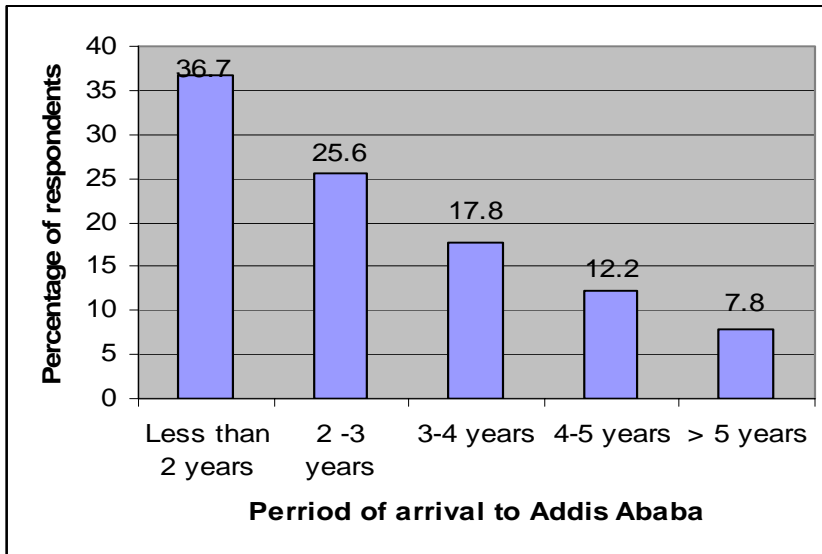
Source: Own survey, 2011

4.5. Length of Residence in Addis Ababa and Their Future Plan of Ankesha Migrants

4.5.1. Length of Residence in Addis Ababa

Migrants may not arrive at the same time to a certain place. Some of them may arrive earlier than others and some of them may have arrived recently. An attempt was made to examine when the migrants arrived at Addis Ababa. Thus, the length of arrival may have an influence on occupational status, income level and on other related activities. The finding of the study then reveals that the trend of migration is increasing from earlier to the present. Accordingly 36.7% of migrants arrived with in the period of less than 2 years, 25.6% with in 2-3 years, 17.8% with in 3-4 years, 12.2% and 7.8% with in 4-5 years and more than 5 years ago respectively (see figure 4.2).

Figure 4.2. Period of Arrival of Migrants to Addis Ababa and their Percentage Distribution



Source: Own survey, 2011

From the above graph we can infer that the trend of migration is increasing from earlier to the present. The occupational status of migrants is also affected by their length of residence in the capital city. As data indicated that most of the earlier migrants are currently engaged on a small-scale self employed informal business on the streets and recent migrants are engaged mostly on daily casual labor work.

4.5.2. Future Plan of Ankessa Migrants'

The migrants were also interviewed about future aspirations, plans and place of preference. Most of the interviewed migrants do not prefer to return to the rural areas of origin. Rather, they said that after some years of working in Addis Ababa, they prefer to return and work in other near by towns of their families if conditions will be available. This is mainly because of the rise of cost of living, absence of regular jobs and the bad living conditions in the capital city. Many interviewed migrants said that urban life is not convenient for them, because they can not find job regularly and they informed that the living cost in the capital city is becoming high and as a result they could not save enough money. The living conditions in the capital is difficult, especially their sleeping room which will expose them to disease. According to them, their daily expenditure is getting higher for house, food, water, clothing and others. Their saving rate is minimal because the cost of living in the capital city has increased whereas their daily income remains low. Despite the

severity of urban congestion, difficult life and less satisfaction with their current living conditions in the capital, many of the interviewed migrants said that it is better than the living conditions of the rural area and conditions and prospects are generally better for migrants in the city than in rural areas.

4.6. Summary

In this chapter, the socio-demographic characteristics of migrants and factors motivating for rural-urban migration have been discussed. Migrants in the study tend to be young, single and at the status of primary educational level and they are from female headed households and poor economic background of their families. The major factors of migration are landlessness and land shortage. Besides, lack of non-farm activity is another major factor causing migration. Significantly the push factors are causing rural-urban migration than the pull factors. The flow of information and social networks also play an important role in determining migrants' specific place of destination and their works. Most of the migrants are not satisfied with their current employment because of the reason of its less security, mismatch of their expectation and other different reasons.

CHAPTER FIVE

5. RESULT ASND DISCUSSION: Implication of Migration

Under this sub topic, the possible implication of migration, major purposes of remittances, the living and working conditions of migrants and challenges they have faced in the host environment (Addis Ababa) are points of discussion. Both the negative and positive aspects of migration to the place of origin, destination and migrants themselves were also dealt.

5.1. Implication of Rural-Urban Migration on the Place of Origin

In general, most studies that have touched upon rural-urban migration have emphasized the impacts on the receiving areas. See (Birru, 1997; Endalew, 2007; Gashaw, 2002). The economic, social and cultural implications of migration in rural areas of origin have received less attention. This state of affairs reflects a general urban bias in studies of internal migration.

Hence, under this sub-topic the implication of out-migration to the place of origin was dealt. The possible negative and positive impacts of migration largely depend on the characteristics of migrants, duration of stay, the structure of the household and the amount of remittance investment. With regard to adverse impacts, it is observed that lack of productive labor and increased workload were reported to be the most obvious impacts at the place of origin. On the contrary, improvement in the overall family socio-economic status is most important positive impacts (perceived success) of out-migration.

5.1.1. Economic Impact

Most theories (Todaro, 2000 cited in Lynch, 2005; Ravenstein, 1885 and 1889 cited in Rewelamira, 2008) and empirical studies (Faruk and Islam, 2010; Kainth, 2009; Bjerer 1985) stated that economic motives are the major reasons for rural-urban migration and rural-urban income difference is believed to be the main reason for rural out-migration. Likewise, migrants from Ankesha wereda have attracted to Addis Aababa with the expectation of better income. According to the information collected the economic background of migrants fall in to the poor and medium income groups. This is what the case study on migration and livelihoods conducted by De Haan et al (2000 cited in Woldie et al, 2010) have indicated; the poor in Ethiopia have migrated more than the relatively better off. Then, most of the migrants have migrated to send

remittance to their families at the place of origin and economic impact on the place of origin is mostly determined by frequency and volume of money remitted from urban to rural place of origin and the remittance investment.

A. Frequency and Volume of Remittances

Respondents were asked whether they remitted money or goods home to their relatives in rural areas. About 66.7% of respondents replied affirmative to this question while others stated quite clearly that they did not do well enough themselves to be able to do this, or that some of them had lost contact with their rural families' altogether after living in Addis Ababa for some years.

Most migrants who send money to the home usually do so during festival (47.8%), very few 10%, 11.1% and 12.2% remit money within the time period of 2-6 months, once in six months and once a year respectively. About 13.3% of migrants send money with in the time interval of 6-12 months and some others (35.6%) do send money when situations allow them and during any emergencies either for medication, to buy grain or to pay debt (table 5.1). None of the migrants send money monthly. The amount of money sent to home varies among individuals.

Table 5.1. Frequency and Volume of Remittance Sent to Families and Items taken

		No.of respondents	percent
<i>Frequency of sending money</i> (Multiple responses are possible)	Monthly	-	-
	2-6 month	9	10
	Once in 6 month	10	11.1
	6-12 month	12	13.3
	Once a year	11	12.2
	During festival	43	47.8
	Others	32	35.6
<i>Volume of remittance</i>	Less than 500	25	27.8
	500-1000	20	22.2
	1000-1500	9	10
	1500-2000	4	4.4
	More than 2000	2	2.2
	Total	60	66.7
	Missing System	30	33.3
Total	90	100.0	
<i>Items taken during home visit</i> (Multiple responses are possible)	Clothes	51	56.7
	Consumer items	65	72.2
	Household utensils	33	36.7
	Educational materials	31	34.4
	Others	15	16.7

Source: Own survey, 2011

For those individual that did remit, the typical level of such remittance would be explained as follows. From the remitting money 27.8% of the respondents remit less than 500 birr per year, 22.2% remit 500-1000 and 10% remit 1000-1500 birr per year. Insignificant numbers (4.4%) and only two case (2.2%) remit money home about 1500-2000 and more than 2000 birr per year respectively. Table 5.1 shows a considerable number of remitters remit less than 500 birr per year. This indicates how much insignificant the amount of money sent to the rural areas is to bring

change in a well-being of their families let alone the community. Some migrants did not remit money, but took gifts of clothing, shoes, educational materials, household utensils and others on annual home visit at the time of important holidays and during emergencies. Most of the migrants visit their home place at least once or twice a year on important holidays like Easter (Fasika or Tinsae), Epiphany (Timket) and during the time of New Ethiopian year (September) and some of them visit at the time of Meskel and Christ-Mass. The researcher raised the question that what items are taken at the time of their home visit. About 56.7 % of the respondents have taken clothes, 72.2% of them have taken consumed items for holidays, 36.7% replied that they have taken household utensils and 34.4% of respondents have taken educational materials for siblings, only 16.7% of respondents who have taken items during the return trip replied they have additionally taken cash to their families of origin. This is what the non-migrant discussants at the place of origin told during the FGD that most items taken to home are clothes and consumer items such as coffee and sugar, not any other items that are for investment.

B. Recipients and Uses Made of Remittances

The results of this study also verify the fact that the respondents do send money to their relations out of the capital city. An important question is to whom the money is being sent. The survey revealed that by far, parents of migrants (father/mother) at the home place are the greatest beneficiaries of remittance (60%), only a very small proportion goes to spouses (4.4%) and children/son and daughter (3.3%), 21.1% send money to sisters/brothers and only 3.3% to any other relations (table 5.2). Even though many of the migrants of the present study made individual decision for migration they have a link with their families and remit what they can. This is what Stark and Bloom (1985) stated that as such migration is a source of income diversification for households facing income risks and is also circular in that it entails continued rural-urban interaction between migrants and their families, who remain in the area of origin.

Table 5.2. Recipients of Money Sent out by People from Addis Ababa and Purpose of Remittances

Recipients (Multiple Responses are Possible)	No. of Respondents	Percent
Parents	54	60
Spouse	4	4.4
Son/daughters	3	3.3
Sister/bother	19	21.1
Others	3	3.3
<i>Use of Remittance</i> (Multiple Responses are Possible)		
To pay debt/tax	30	33.3
For ceremonial expenditure	48	53.3
To purchase consumable goods	37	41.1
To buy cattle/horse/oxen	5	5.6
To construct/improve house	17	18.9
To educate children/siblings	34	37.8
To purchase electronics	2	2.2
To buy clothes	38	42.2
To start new business	1	1.1
To buy land	3	3.3

Source: Own survey, 2011

On the other hand, understanding the remitting behavior of rural-urban migrants in developing countries and uses made of remittances are important from a rural development point of view (Regmi and Tisdell, 2010). In the light of theories, this study explores the behavior and motives of Ankesha migrants to Addis Ababa and use made of remittances in rural village.

Table (5.2) also represents the frequencies of reasons given by remitting migrants for making income transfers or remittances to their families of origin. As table (5.2) shows, an overwhelming number of remitters remitted money to support households for ceremonial expenditure. Of the

total remitters about 53.3% remitted for this reason. The second ranked purpose for making remittances was to buy clothes (42.2%) and 41.1% remitted money for the purpose of purchasing items related to consumption. Only one case remitted money to start new business. Education of close relatives was the fourth major reason for remitting and 37.8% of the migrants replied that they remitted for this purpose. Only 3.3% of remitting migrants remitted money for the purpose of buying land for agricultural development in the village. Others (33.3%) sent money for the purpose of paying debt/tax, about 5.6% to buy cattle/horse/oxen and 18.9% of remitters remitted to construct/improve houses and insignificant numbers to purchase electronics (2.2%).

This indicates that remittances are basically used to contribute to the household consumption expenditure. It seems that remittances are mostly to fulfill the cash needs of the rural households for basic household items. Hence the contribution of remittances to improve agriculture and increasing investment in rural areas seems to be very low. This may be due to the fact that the amounts of remittances in the case of rural-urban migrants are insufficient to finance much investment in property like land and other businesses. The purpose of such remittances is mainly for consumption purpose and provides cash for family needs such as clothes, fertilizers and essential goods such as salt, sugar and for performing cultural ceremonies like celebrating festivals, marriage and death ritual and so on. Therefore, long term investment appears not to be the prime purpose for rural-urban migrants making remittances.

However, there is an idea pointed out by (Regmi and Tisdell, 2010), even remittance used for consumption purpose could have a positive impact on agricultural productivity because the nutrition of farm laborers is enhanced and thus, better nourished workers are more productive. Nevertheless, unless such remittances either directly or indirectly results in durable agricultural investment, it is unlikely that self sustaining agricultural development will be fostered.

During the FGD, conducted among non-migrants, they stated that the majority of migrants migrated for long term or seasonally to Addis Ababa, it is obvious that migrants are collecting some amount of money during their stay in Addis Ababa. However, they did not see any difference in the livelihood condition of migrants' family. They stated that only insignificant number of migrants who migrate seasonally or permanently to Addis Ababa became successful

and improve their well-being by buying oxen, constructing house, while the majority became unsuccessful. What the non-migrants also added is that the change for them is very common practice to buy clothes to them and to their families which might be bought at lower cost in Addis Ababa what the rural people call “*Wuraji*”, Awigna term and “ ” in Amharic which is to mean left of other or second hand clothes. The migrants also return with consumable items such as coffee, sugar, etc., not any other thing. The remittance is unable to bring any further improvement in the living condition of the migrants themselves and families of origin. This is supported by a study conducted on internal migration in Ethiopia by Mberu (2005) which revealed that there is no significant relationship between internal migration and improved living conditions.

The non-migrants have also discussed on the negative economic impacts of the out-migration to their village and migrants household. The migrants and their families’ farm land did not pass through the necessary land preparations especially for cultivation of their land just before the rainy season. The implication is that the output per unit of land would be less than the land can give if it is properly prepared and even there are times when the migrants’ family gives their land for sharecropping due to labor shortage. They also added that the migrants might go in search of money to raise their assets, but in doing so, some of them are losing the assets that they already have in their home due to poor management resulted by out migration. Similarly an interviewed woman of female headed household stated the following regarding how much she is burdened in managing the household because of absence of her sons due to migration to Addis Ababa.

“Since there is no male son and husband who can manage the family at home, I have suffered with three of my daughters in taking care of agricultural activities. I take on the whole day at agricultural work and pass the whole night in taking care of property from theft. Thus, I have burdened with many responsibilities.”

From this we can conclude that it has led to a serious decline of productivity in the traditional agriculture of the rural sector as it has been labor demanding and this sector lacks productive labor force because of out flow of active labor force.

Contrary to the above ideas, there is a positive impact of out-migration to the rural households. During the FGD conducted at the place of origin with non migrants and as stated by the interviewed migrants family, it was pointed out that migration of labor enables to repay debt , educate children, buy modern clothes, cover festival expenditure and etc.

The interviewed head of a household in rural areas with his son and daughter migrated to Addis Ababa, had said that “the productivity of our land has decreased from time to time and has lost its potential to feed our family. So if family members had not migrated, we would not have sufficient income to sustain our family”. Thus, migration contributes in decreasing the number of consumers in a household.

One of the FGD participants, a returnee migrant also informed about the positive contribution of his migration to Addis Ababa. He was working in an individual farmer house employed as a farmer with annual payment of only 100 kilogram of maize and 50 kilogram of teff. But three years ago he was informed by his friends and went to Addis Ababa. He worked as a daily laborer in Addis Ababa and collected some amount of money. Then, what he did with the money he earned from Addis Ababa was that he bought two horses for his families that are using for plowing purpose and now he has continued his schooling.

5.1.2. Social Impact

A. Rural-Urban Migration to School Drop-Out

It has been repeatedly said that education is the best means to get out of poverty. Hence, Ethiopia like any other developing countries is trying to raise the educational enrollment with especial emphasis to primary education. Accordingly, primary schools are constructed in the two kebeles of migrants' origin even though they are not per the demand of the people and the existing enrollment in both sexes is considerable. But the result of the study indicates that the drop-out of education is significant among the migrants. More than half (52.2%) of migrants were students before coming to Addis Ababa.

Thus, migration could have a negative influence to the current efforts shown to enhance the school enrollment ratio in the kebeles of origin as well as their wereda's. According to the

migrants, their families' low income would not allow them to cover the costs of schooling and to feed their children with limited resource they owned. The implication is that given the low urbanization rate, students who complete village level of education in rural areas have to travel long distance to join the schools of the next levels which are found in urban centers. Under such a situation, only few rural students can succeed in completing their higher level education. The interviewed migrants added that most of them have attained primary education and the next schools are beyond village levels. There is the fact that the costs of education increases as schools are found at a far distance from their villages. Transportation costs, school fees, house rent and food are basic to attend their school in the urban centers. But their parents do not incur such important things. For this reason it is difficult to attend the school beyond village level and the migrants are obliged to drop-out their schooling.

Some migrants also reported that they have been drop-out their schooling even at the early stage of attending primary school. Because of the reason that they think for no longer they can attend after finishing primary schools and they want to find their best livelihood currently rather than killing their time on schooling as they could not finalize like any other friends of them who would not continue their education after completing primary school. This is related with the idea of Seid (2007) who argues that low enrollment and high rate of drop-out from school even before promoting to higher levels in rural areas of developing countries is due to the subsistence nature of the economy. For a household who struggles with current challenges of the economy, income that can accrue through education only after more than a decade might be luxury.

Others informed that their families can afford to teach them but as they were working after school on farm activities and having finished the primary school, they would go to the distant areas and then their families refused to teach them because they lose an important labor force. For this case they migrate to Addis Ababa to escape the traditional culture of their families.

B. Rural-Urban Migration and Health

The non-migrant participants on the FGD at the place of origin said that, the salient feature of rural-urban migration from their kebeles to Addis Ababa is prevalent among males usually single and sometimes married. Hence, if the married male migrant and the wife separated, during this

time, there is a possibility for couples to be unfaithful at both place of origin and destination. The migrant females in Addis Ababa also added that they are highly exposed to sexual harassment which forces them to be the victims of HIV/AIDS.

There is also the other group who may be exposed to disease for economic reasons. Apart from daily labor work, the young female migrants with their little knowledge about sexually transmitted disease could involve in prostitution. Hence the result could be bad as long as unsafe sex is the major means of transmitting disease. It is common among young male migrants to return back to their place of origin for the purpose of marriage. Unless voluntary testing and counseling is undertaken before wedding and sexual relationship, there would be probability for dissemination of sexually transmitted diseases as migrant males may not abstain from sex in the capital city. By generalizing the above conditions the participants stated that rural-urban migration to the big cities with little educational knowledge will make the migrant more exposed to the disease and hence to be potential transmitters of HIV/AIDS and other sexually transmitted disease to the rural place of origin.

5.1.3. Rural-Urban Migration and Cultural Impact

A participant of FGD with non-migrants has emphasized that it is not migration that is affecting their culture, but the migrants involvement in unaccepted activities like prostitution, loss of traditional culture and dominance of urban way of clothing and hair style. The migrants also involving in begging which are not accepted by the rural people who depend on traditional culture and norms.

In addition, impacts of migration on migrants themselves and place of origin can be culturally explained in terms those bad experiences that the migrants are personalized from urban culture. Regarding this, the researcher has observed those migrants while they were chewing chat and smoking cigarettes which are totally condemned and unaccepted behaviors by the rural traditional societies where they came from.

5.2. Rural-Urban Migration and Impact on Migrants

It is essential to identify the living and working conditions of migrants at the destination in order to determine the impacts on them. Thus, the following section describes the type of occupation the migrants engage, the amount of income they earn, any type of skills they acquired in the capital city, challenges and risks they face upon arrival and during the course of stay in Addis Ababa.

5.2.1. The Working and Living Conditions of Migrants

After a close supervision of the migrants, the researcher has the intention to collect data from migrant street vendors and daily laborers as almost all of the Ankesha migrants to Addis Ababa are engaged on the urban informal sector of street vending and daily labor work.

According to the field survey, those of migrant street vendors are currently engaged in selling items on the streets which mostly include selling of new and second hand clothes, shoes, household utensils, electronics, cosmetics and etc. Their working condition is mostly mobile nature and they are selling at the public places mostly near the Orthodox Church on saint days and other important places where more number of pedestrians are passing. Most of these sites in Addis Ababa are places of Piyasa, Legahar and Mexico. Some of the migrants are vegetable vendors and females' as side walk food sellers and others working in the construction sector, loading and unloading, domestic work (mostly females like cloth washing, carrying water, Injera backing and others). Some others engage in, additionally, as guards of construction sector and individual households and as beggars. Thus, begging is another area of the research that should be undertaken by any one of the organization as considerable number of able bodied migrants of the Ankesha wereda to Addis Ababa are participated on this informal may be illegal activity of business creating.

More numbers of Ankesha migrants to Addis Ababa are concentrated in the low cost and slum dwelling units of Addis Ketama sub city (mainly kebele 32) and some other are Kolfe sub city. They prefer such locations due to low cost of houses, their nearest to the opportunities of job available and some others are due to the residence of earlier migrants from the same place of origin. Most of them are living through room rent with their friends of 4 and 5 and floor rents in daily basis.

5.2.2. Income of Migrants

The impact of migration on migrants as well as household economy depends on the amount of income that the migrants earned at the destination and any change in the quality of life. Table (5.3) shows that the majority (45.6%) of migrants earn monthly income between 500-1000, 26.7% earn below 500 birr per month and 22.2% of migrants earn monthly income of 1000-1500. Only 5.6% of respondents earn the income more than 1500 birr per month.

Table 5.3. Percentage Distribution of Income of Migrants' per Month

<i>Income Level</i>	No. of respondents	percent
Less than 500	24	26.7
500-1000	41	45.6
1000-1500	20	22.2
>1500	5	5.6
Total	90	100

Source: Own survey, 2011

In order to understand the role of rural-urban migration, it is better to know the amount of money and the function of money obtained through migration and work at destination. During the survey, the respondents were asked how they use the income earned through their employment. About 66.7 % agreed that they remit some amount of money which is left from their daily consumption, 20% of migrants informed that they spend all by themselves and only 13.3% replied they save some amount left from their expenditure.

5.2.3. Psychological Cost of Migrants

Psychological cost of rural-urban migration to Addis Ababa on migrants can be seen from the perspective of their place of origin. The migrants aware that the culture of the people at the place of origin does not accept rural-urban migration to Addis Ababa for working in different informal sector activities, rather people of the origin mostly accept those who are moving in relation to government employment. The migrants are exposed to several criticisms by members of the community while they return to their village. People stigmatize them, mostly female migrants. Those females who returned from Addis Ababa are more affected by the culture of the society.

No one asks her for marriage post retuning from Addis Ababa. Compared to this psychological cost, the psychological gain is also insignificant. Most of the migrants are dissatisfied with their work. They said that they are interested to show some changes in the quality of their life to the rural people of origin to divert their attitudes, but with low amount of income they earn in the capital city, they can't bring rapid change though they stated that living conditions and prospects are better in the city than the rural origin where they came from.

5.2.4. Skills Acquired by Migrants in the Capital City

The respondents were also asked if there is skill acquired due to rural-urban migration to the capital city. These skill acquiring opportunities are not available in the rural areas and some of the skills that the migrants acquired in the capital are supposed to be changing their quality of life in the future. Accordingly, table (5.4) reveals that out of migrant respondents, 21.1% acquired skills related to language, and very insignificant numbers acquired skills related to masonry and carpentry (2.2 and 8.9%), respectively. Most of the migrants (48.9%) acquired skills related to run small scale business and others (27.8%) acquired the skills in other activities as urban agriculture growing, coble stone working, metal working and working related with plastic production factories, car driving (one case), females food preparation etc.

Table 5.4. Skills Acquired by Migrants in the Capital City

Skills acquired (Multiple Responses are possible)	No. of Respondents	Percent
Language	19	21.1
Carpentry	8	8.9
Masonry	2	2.2
How to run a business	44	48.9
Others	25	27.8

Source: Own survey, 2011

5.2.5. Challenges Encountered by Migrants at Destination

Migrants were asked about their migration experiences if they were visited any other urban centers before they arrived to Addis Ababa. It was reported that only 24.4% of them had visited

any other place before their arrival to Addis Ababa and the majority of the respondents (75.6%) were directly coming to Addis Ababa from their rural origin. This contradicts the theory of “Ravenstein Law of Migration.” Ravenstein (1885 and 1889 cited in Rwelamira, 2008) argues that migration is step by step process which takes place first from rural area to near by towns, then to other medium town steps and finally to the capital city. The same to the “Ravenstein Law of Migration”, Bjerren (1985) argues that large number of urban migrants in Ethiopia have lived at least in one other town before moving to the large town. But this law of migration does not apply to the migrants of this study. As mentioned, most of the migrants were directly coming to Addis Ababa. Migrants’ entry into in the urban centers is part and parcel of their first exposure to the urban life and independence from parental control. It is expected that they were facing new situations at the initial stage of adjustment and adaptation to the urban way of life in the capital city. Hence, it is also equally important as other impacts of migration to analyze what problems migrants face just at arrival and during the course of their life at place of destination.

Table (5.5) starts with the presentation of the first set of problems related to initial adjustment outlined as financial problems. Accordingly, 35.6% were reported to have encountered serious financial problems just at the beginning of their stay at the place of destination. Becoming unemployed is the other set of problem quite a common phenomenon for the majority of migrants. Table (5.5) reveals that 50% of migrants reported to have faced unemployment problem for some times at the first stage of their arrival at the place of destination.

Inability to get social services (housing/accommodation, toilet, water, medication) and lack of consumable items is also expressed by migrants. Accordingly, 22.2% and 14.4% of them were faced with lack of social services and inability to obtain consumed items at the time of their arrival. Whether a migrant faced cultural difference (cultural shocks) or not at the time of first arrival is also examined in table (5.5). It is seen that 21.1% of the migrants reported to have encountered these problems and 7.8% of migrants reported they encountered with problem of health of one kind or the other at the time of first arrival at the current destination. On the first set of adjustment other problems are also mentioned, many of the migrants expressed problems of uncertainty regarding how to behave, speak and dress like the urbanites and other problems

encountered were abuses by the people of destination. These include demand of higher payments during travel, greater exposure to robbery, intimidation, and etc.

Table 5.5. Problems Encountered by Migrants at the Place of Destination

Problems Encountered (Multiple Responses are Possible)	No. of respondents	Percent
<i>Problems Encountered Upon Arrival</i>		
Financial	32	35.6
Unemployment	45	50
Lack of food and consumed items	13	14.4
Inability to obtain social services	20	22.2
Cultural differences	19	21.1
Illness	7	7.8
<i>Problems Encountered During the Course of Stay</i>		
Susceptibility to disease	15	16.7
Vulnerability to crime	48	53.3
Mistreatment	11	12.2
Unemployment	44	48.9
Lack of social service	49	54.4
Sexual harassment	23	25.6
Unequal opportunity in every aspect of life	8	8.9
Loss of family ties	21	23.3
Do not get job as expected	57	63.3

Source: Own survey, 2011

Studies indicate that migrants usually face problems during the course of their life in addition to the problems encountered at the time of arrival. In this study, information was collected from all the migrants about the nature of problems they faced during their stay at the place of destination (Addis Ababa). Table (5.5) listed nine major problems that are encountered by migrants in the urban areas during their course of stay. It is seen that 53.3% of migrants reported to be vulnerable

to crimes of some kind during the course of their stay at the place of destination. For this case migrants mentioned that they often move in groups for their safety. During data collection the researcher has also observed that they indeed move in groups. While those street vendors are selling on the street the researcher got them they cover the same place and those of daily laborers are also wondering with groups. This could be the coping strategy in protecting themselves from robbery and helping each other during the time of any accident.

Social crisis/mistreatment by those of urban residents is reported by 12.2% of respondents. Of the overall respondents nearly half (48.9%) have faced the risk of being unemployed and inability to obtain income regularly during an extended period of time. It is not surprising to find such large proportions to get no employment at the place of destination since migrants are not equipped with formal education and any technical skills to involve in secured and formal employment. Lack of social service mainly homelessness among migrants was reported to be one of the most serious reported problems. It is observed that 54.4% have reported to face problems in obtaining social services mainly home. Further, 25.6% of migrants encountered with the problem of sexual harassment and 8.9% of migrants are reported to feel that they have experienced unequal opportunities in every aspect of life and 23.3% lose ties with their rural families. The majority (63.3%) of migrants reported that they encountered with expectation crisis i.e., they do not get job as expected. This shows that the migrants are misinformed about the place of destination (Addis Ababa) before they decided and came to the destination.

In addition to the problems mentioned, the interviewed migrants explained that they encountered many other problems. Police harassment is common among the migrant street vendors. As the migrants are expected to be informal traders with in the public places without any recognition from the government, the police arrest them and their goods and sometimes destroy their business claiming that they are illegal. So that they claim bribe in return for releasing their goods. The loss of their goods and earning time is catastrophic for migrants, so they are likely to pay a bribe. Police and rapid action were searching street vendors and accusing them being informal. The researcher has also observed while the police man destroy their business and cause physical punishment.

With regard to this, one of the interviewed migrant from street vendors stated to the researcher that a “friend of him died of a car while he was running to escape the police” and some others become physically disabled with the accident of a car to the same reason. He stated how much the problem is serious up to the lose of life and it is the last option of their livelihood. On the other hand, those of daily laborers stated that their work is tedious and mostly it needs physical strength to perform the job. They said that to do this we have to eat a lot but the income we obtain is not as such enough to eat different food items and they also encountered with long working hours to survive urban life on which every thing is absent with out money.

5.3. Ankesha Population Conception on Rural-Urban Migration

Rural-urban migration by the rural people is seen differently by different people or it may differ from place to place according to their culture. In this study, the researcher raised the question how the people on the place of origin view rural-urban migration to Addis Ababa. The reflection is that migration to Addis Ababa is seen negatively by most of the rural people of the origin. The non-migrant participants of FGD discussants told that out migration of labor is the norm and it is undertaken mostly by the poor households seasonally, during agricultural slack period as a means of securing income. They have a negative outlook towards migrants of urban areas, outlined that villagers do not have a tradition of migration to Addis Ababa for long term except the government employees and some traders. According to the participant non-migrants in the FGD, most of the people do perceive out-migration towards urban area exposes to disease. Thus, migration for work to Addis Ababa is shame for them, mostly for females and even seasonal migration to other rural areas is not fully accepted by many people.

Participants also explained that individuals who migrate to Addis Ababa either permanently or seasonally except government employees have given lower prestige not only for him/her self but to his/her families as migrants are viewed rude, thieves and losers of their culture. Thus, migration is predominantly perceived negatively by the majority of the people and taken as the last option.

According to the data, although the poor and non-poor members of the household are undertaking out migration to Addis Ababa, still there is a negative outlook towards migration and many of participants on FGD stated that the community and they themselves do not support out-migration

of people to Addis Ababa. This is closely related to the prevailing cultures which perceive migration to the big urban centers like Addis Ababa often associated with loose of traditional culture and transmission of communicable disease like HIV/AIDS. Due to this and other reasons rural-urban migration to Addis Ababa is not encouraged by the society. However, regardless of their negative outlook towards rural-urban migration to Addis Ababa due to their culture, some discussants of FGD among non-migrants said that they will move if there is an opportunity.

5.4. Impacts of Migration on the Place of Destination

The impact of rural-urban migration on the host environment (urban area) has also positive and negative aspects. Rural-urban migration have contributed to the development of the town and overcoming labor shortage of the urban areas. According to Devereux et al (2003), rural-urban migrants are considerably playing an important role in supplying cheap labor to the town, and the largest percentage of the manual labor demand of the town has been supplied by migrants.

According to the migrants of this study, it is the rural-urban labor migrants who have been contributing the largest share of labor demand in to the construction, loading and unloading, domestic work etc. in the capital city. Thus, these people are playing greater role in the development of the city.

On the other hand, the negative aspect of rural-urban migration on the host environment includes exerting pressure on urban resources. Like overcrowding on social services (housing, transportation, health sector), increasing urban unemployment and delinquency, polluting the environment and etc.

It is the rural-urban migrants who are polluting the city, as they do not sometimes make use of toilet because of the reason that they have rent the floor or rooms with out any services except for sleeping. The migrants added that since they lie in a floor rented room which is not ready made with toilet, they use unoccupied places of the city as a toilet. Then this solid wastes of excrete leads to the pollution of the city.

Negative impact of rural-urban migration on the host environment is also explained in increasing the number of unemployment in the city. For this case, what migrants informed that urban dwellers, especially the young have a negative attitude towards them because they consider them as the burden to the city by creating unemployment. On the other hand, migrants themselves acknowledged that there are crimes committed by other members of them which again erode the social security of the capital city.

5.5. Summary

As the part of result and discussion, in the preceding chapter, implication of rural-urban migration to the place of origin i.e. economic, social and cultural implications and impact on migrants and on the place of destination were widely discussed. Accordingly, migration to Addis Ababa in relation to economic aspect did not bring any change on the place of origin and a considerable amount of the remittance is to cover consumption expenditure. On the social aspect, migration to Addis Ababa leads to drop-out of education among youth. People of the place of origin reported that their culture is still not accepted migration to the big cities like Addis Ababa. The other point of discussion was impact of migration on migrants. Based on this, the migrants reported that they have encountered with many problems up on arrival and during the course of stay in Addis Ababa and their income level is insignificant to bring any change on their quality of life. The impact of migration on the destination is important in supplying cheap labor force. However, besides this advantage, migration leads to over crowdedness and pollution of the urban environment.

CHAPTER SIX

6. CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

6.1. Conclusion

This research basically dealt with investigating the prevalence of factors (push and pull) contributing for rural-urban migration to Addis Ababa and implication of this migration on the various aspects of life primarily on the place of origin of migrants as well as migrants themselves and areas of destination. The important data for this study were collected from both the rural villages' of place of origin (Ankesha) and place of destination (Addis Ababa). As discussed in the extensive literature on migration, rural-urban migration in the case of Ethiopia have been fuelled by a variety of "Push-pull" factors. The stagnant agricultural sector, poor infrastructure and less access to basic services pushed rural people to big cities on the one hand and access to basic public services and better provision of public services in big cities pulled rural people to urban areas.

The following results can be deduced from the empirical results of this study:

Rural-urban migrants are not the random samples of the population of origin; it is selective group formed on the basis of one or combinations of characteristics, such as age, gender, education, marital status, parents economic condition, family size and head of the household they came from. Accordingly, predominantly youth, among others are more migratory than children and the aged. Most of them were students and some others were unemployed before migration and currently working as street vendors and daily laborers in different sectors. The migration rate was found significantly higher for those who were at the primary school level of educational attainment and belonging to the age group of 15-20 followed by 20-25 years at the first period of migration and the mean age of first migration was about 21 years, who are at the critical age of labor force for agricultural production in the rural areas.

In terms of sex, marital status, parents economic condition, family size and head of the household they came from, rural-urban migration is pursued primarily by single men and they are from families of larger size, poor economic condition and female headed households. Female migrants in this type of migration are negligible.

Operationally, rural push factors are by far greater than urban pull factors for contributing rural-urban migration. Landlessness, land shortage and poor economic conditions in the rural sector have acted as an important push factors which compelled rural youth to find opportunities in the urban areas. There is a tendency of growing unemployment and underemployment which is arising from lack of investment and growth in rural areas, at the same time the rural people are suffering from excessive population growth, lack of alternative employment, drought and famine. Urban areas like Addis Ababa are characterized by employment opportunities with better chance as strong pull forces than any other near by small towns.

The findings also indicate that the network of contacts i.e. the flow of information from earlier migrants about the availability of opportunities at destination is seen as a highly significant inducement of rural-urban migration to Addis Ababa which is characterized by chain migration following one another. However, migrants were misinformed about employment opportunities and income in Addis Ababa and they are confronted with expectation crisis. What has been told about the job and income that the migrants could get are unreliable. Besides, the transmission of information, simply the presences of their friends, relatives and family members at destination have given the confidence for the migrants to make spontaneous decision to migrate.

As migrants are less equipped in any means to find jobs in the urban formal sector, most rural-urban migrants are obliged to find jobs in the urban informal sector and the capital city hardly seems capable of absorbing the excessive flooding of people to the capital.

The other findings of the study indicate that the rural-urban migration has both positive and negative implications on the households at the place of origin, on the host environment as well as on the migrants themselves.

On the positive side, rural-urban migration is important in alleviating the problem of landlessness and land shortage for those who have large family size and poor economic conditions of their families. The remittances are a crucial source of income for families of poor migrants. But the remittances are not as such enough to bring changes in the quality of life. Even the limited remittance that are sent home are mostly used for meeting pre-existing household expenses such

as medication and other consumable items. Analyzing the pattern and utilization of remittance shows that they provide much for festival expenditures (mostly holidays), clothing, loan/tax payment etc.

However, as noted, the single biggest end use of remittance for the receiving household is in terms of basic necessities such as food and clothing, there by building human capital (education). Small amount of remittance gets invested in assets such as buying agricultural land or livestock and investment in smaller enterprise or non-farm investments. Migrants are also positively contributing the recipient areas by supplying cheap labor force.

On the negative side, rural-urban migration has a negative influence on the household at the place of origin by creating labor burden. As most of the migrants are long term migrants, labor departure is a problem for many female headed households at the place of origin. The families at the origin have also reservations because the migrants may bring back sexually communicable disease, mainly HIV/AIDS and they are expected as losers of rural culture. Additionally, migration exerts pressure on social services in the capital city, increase unemployment, pollute the urban environment, increase crime etc. Problems related with social services (mostly inability to get housing), absence of regular jobs, working long hours, exposure to illness, and robbery, less security of jobs and harassment are the common types of sufferings on which rural-urban migrants confront in the capital city. As the study finds, what ever challenges they could face and what ever the impacts on the origin and on the city itself, the migrants feel it is better than their rural village.

6.2. Recommendations

Depending on the findings, to solve the negative implications of rural-urban migration and to benefit from the advantage, the thesis aimed to propose some possible policy options related to rural-urban migration.

- Rural-urban migration is mainly triggered by rural push factors visa-a-vis urban pull factors. Therefore, rural development strategy through intensification of agriculture is important to reduce rural harsh conditions confronted by youth in the origin.

- Vocational training of the rural people on small scale industries (non-farm) activities that could generate an income for the rural household should be introduced in rural areas as it is supposed to alleviate the problem of landlessness and land shortage and their total dependency on only one source of livelihood i.e. Agriculture.
- Development of small scale irrigation alleviate the problem of rain fed dependence cultivation system and used to produce additional cash oriented (Horticulture) products.
- Migrants rely in asymmetric information about the destination. If migration is inevitable, providing complete information can make the migrants more aware about their destination before making the decision and sustainable effort should be made at grassroots level to raise awareness and bring attitudinal change for the non-economic factors of migration.
- Migration from rural to urban area is tied mostly to the income gap (actual and perceived) difference between rural and urban areas. Balancing regional inequalities should be alleviated through adopting viable and equitable regional planning and development policies.
- There is a conflict between the authorities and street vendors at the destination. Despite the frequent harassment street vending in the capital is increasing. It is important to think that after all who are responsible for making decent living, instead of stealing and becoming idle. If government could provide adequate employment opportunities to them at the place of origin, they would not migrate first to the capital city and would not be forced to live on the street for their meager income. Hence, street vending should be viewed as a resource rather than a problem since it has been providing employment for the poor migrants. Only the need is to think about management and planning of urban environment how to preserve the beauty of the city and provide trading place to the vendors in a sustainable way. The government should formulate policies and implement according to practical needs.
- The fate of youth and students in rural areas is not promising and secondary level education is still an urban phenomenon. So that as much as possible secondary school should be constructed either by NGOs or Government Organizations or through cooperatives at the village level in order to decrease the school drop-out of youths and provision of other different social services of medical facilities, piped water, electricity

and road facilities and marketing centers is also important to prevent migration to the major urban centers.

- Fertility is the most important factor that affects population structure in a society. The finding confirms that members of large household size are more prone to migration. To avert the problem, the Health sector should design and expand productive health service to each rural household of the origin and create awareness about the benefit of small family size.
- Female headed households are the major source of migrants from the rural origin to Addis Ababa. So that, equal access and equity in resource distribution should be realized for female headed households to reduce vulnerability among them and provide some affirmative actions and awareness creation strategies to ensure their equality in every aspects of life.
- The results of this study have revealed that remittances cannot be expected to contribute sufficiently for long term investment and reduce the risk of social problems of the households at the place of origin and it is only for immediate basic needs. The analysis has documented that remittances do not provide a satisfactory means of reinsurance for households at the place of origin. This finding calls for developing existing rural financial and insurance markets to provide social security services.

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II. Factors of Migration Perceived by Migrants

Please state your Agreements and Disagreements for the following statements that push you from the rural areas.

No.	Statements	Strongly agree	Agree	undecided	Disagree	Strongly disagree
1	I moved out of place of origin to get rid of debt					
2	Lack of social services (health, electricity, transportation etc.) is the cause for my migration.					
3	I moved out of place of origin to get rid of natural disaster (drought, famine).					
4	I moved out of place of origin because of unemployment					
5	Landlessness compelled me to migrate.					
6	Population pressure from my origin forced me to migrate.					
7	Poor economic condition(extreme poverty) of my family is the cause for my migration.					
8	Too many family members in a house is the reason for my migration					
9	Marital factors (unhappy married life, newly married, divorce) forced me to migrate					
10	Disagreement with my family is the reason for my migration					
11	I moved out of place of origin because I was threatened by opposition/enemy					
12	Death of my family/care takers is the reason for my migration					

Please state your Agreements and Disagreements for the following statements that pull you to the urban areas (Addis Ababa).

No	Statements	Strongly agree	Agree	undecided	Disagree	Strongly disagree
1	Easy access to informal sector is the reason for my migration.					
2	I was attracted to this place due to better job opportunities (real and perceived)					
3	Higher income probability in Addis Ababa is the reason for my migration.					
4	I am called by relatives/ friends/ family members/ spouses to the city.					
5	Attraction of urban amenities was the reason for my in migration to Addis Ababa.					
6	Lure of attractive climatic conditions attract me to this place					
7	I was attracted to the city to do business					
8	I was come to the city to pursue further studies					
9	The desire to buy modern goods and clothes is the reason for my migration					
10	The need of political freedom attracted me to this place					
11	Lure of the social environment attract me to this place					
12	An aspiration of a better life attract me to this place					

III. General Questionnaire for Migrant Street Vendors and Daily Laborers in Addis Ababa related with Decision Making for Migration, Working and Living Conditions, Challenges they face, Purposes of the Money Obtained through their Work and Economic Condition.

1. When did you come to Addis Ababa?

- 1. Less than 2 years
- 2. 2 -3 years
- 3. 3-4 years
- 4. 4-5 years
- 5. > 5 years

2. Who made the decision to migrate to Addis Ababa?

- 1. Self
- 2. Family/parents
- 3. Relatives
- 4. Friends

3. Did you have any information about the life in Addis Ababa before you left your home/Village?

- 1. Yes
- 2. No

4. If yes, what was the main source of information? (Multiple responses are possible)

- 1. Relatives
- 2. Friends
- 3. Family members
- 4. Mass media (radio, TV, etc.)
- 5. Previous knowledge
- 6. School
- 7. Others (Specify)-----

5. If the source of information were relatives/friends/family members who have come to Addis Ababa earlier, what types of support had been offered by the relatives or friends? (Multiple responses are possible)

- 1. Financial assistance
- 2. Food and housing
- 3. Arranged work
- 4. Others (specify)-----

6. Do you think that gain here is attractive?

- 1. Yes
- 2. No

7. If your response is 'Yes' or 'No' to the question No.6 above, the amount of income you earn here is

- 1. Greater than the income that I used to earn in rural
- 2. Less than the income that I used to earn in rural
- 3. No difference
- 4. Others (specify)-----

8. How many hours do you spend on your work per day?

- 1. Below 4hrs
- 2. 4-8hrs
- 3. 8-12hrs
- 4. More than 12hrs

9. How much are you satisfied with your current employment?

- 1. Very satisfied
- 2. Some what satisfied
- 3. Neither satisfied nor dissatisfied
- 4. Some what dissatisfied
- 5. Very dissatisfied

10. If some what you are dissatisfied or very dissatisfied with your current employment what is the reason for your dissatisfaction? (Multiple responses are possible)

- 1. I am not using my skills and work experiences
- 2. My current employment is not my preferred occupation
- 3. Return is too low
- 4. I am deprived of social security
- 5. My current employment is less secure i.e. the Chance of losing my job is very high
- 6. Others (specify) -----

11. What is the reason for your choice of being engaged on your current employment? (Multiple responses are possible).

- 1. I want to save money
- 2. For economic independence
- 3. Having no other choice
- 4. Off-season occupation
- 5. Waiting for siblings to finish school
- 6. Others (specify) -----

12. What skills have you acquired after in migration to Addis Ababa? (Multiple responses are possible)

- 1. Language
- 2. Carpenter
- 3. Masonry
- 4. How to run the business
- 5. No skill
- 6. Others (specify)-----

13. Where do you sleep?

1. Floor rent
2. Room rent with friends
3. Relatives'/family member's house
4. Others (specify)-----

14. How do you get meal?

1. Through purchase
2. I myself cook
3. From relatives
4. Others (specify)-----

15. Have you visited any other place of town before coming to Addis Ababa?

1. Yes
2. No

16. If your response to question Number 15 is 'No', immediately upon arrival to Addis Ababa, what is/are the main difficulty/difficulties you were facing as the direct result of migrating out from the place of birth? (Multiple responses are possible)

1. Financial problems
2. Unemployment
3. Lack of food and Related consumer items
4. Inability to obtain social services and amenities (housing, school, water, etc)
5. Cultural difference
6. Illness.
7. No difficulties
8. Others (specify)-----

17. What problems are resulting from migration and your course of stay in Addis Ababa?

(Multiple responses are possible)

1. Susceptibility to disease/Illness
2. Vulnerability to crime/robbery
3. Vulnerability to social crisis/mistreatment
4. Unemployment/ Inability to get income regularly
5. Lack of social services
6. Sexual harassment
7. Unequal opportunity in every aspect of life because I am a migrant.
8. Loss of family ties
9. Do not get job as expected
10. Others (specify) -----

18. What advice would you give to your friends/ Relatives/family members in your place of residence /place of birth regarding migrating to the city?

1. Encourage them to come here
2. Discourage them to come here
3. I can't say anything
4. Others (Specify)-----

19. What is the reason that you would give this advice? Because

1. Life is difficult here
2. Life is better here
3. I can't differentiate life before and now
4. Others (specify) -----

20. How much birr per month do you earn on your current employment?

1. Below 500
2. 500-1000
3. 1000-15000
4. More than 1500

21. How do you use your income gained through your employment?

1. Spend all by my self
2. I my self save up some of it
3. I remit home some of it
4. Others(specify)-----

22. If you remit money home, the amount of money sent to home in a year is?

1. 100-500 birr
2. 500-1000 birr
3. 1000-2000 birr
4. 2000-3000 birr
5. More than 3000 birr

23. Who is the recipient of the money you sent (Multiple responses are possible)?

1. Family/father or mother
2. Spouse
3. Son/daughter
4. Brother/Sister
5. Others (specify)-----

24. Frequency of sending birr is? (Multiple responses are possible)

1. Monthly
2. 2-6 month
3. Once in 6 month
4. 6-12 month
5. Once in a year
6. During the time festival
7. Others (specify)-----

25. What are the major purposes of the cash remittance (Multiple responses are possible)?

- | | |
|--|--|
| 1. To pay debt/tax | 7. To purchase electronic goods (radio, tape recorder) |
| 2. To cover ceremonial/ festival expenditure | 8. To buy clothes |
| 3. To Purchase consumer goods | 9. To start new business |
| 4. To buy cattle/horse/oxen for plowing | 10. To buy land for agricultural investment |
| 5. To construct/improve house | 11. Others (specify)----- |
| 6. To educate children/siblings | |

26. What items are/will be taken to home in return trip (Multiple responses are possible)?

- | | |
|-----------------------|--------------------------|
| 1. Clothes | 4. Educational materials |
| 2. Consumer goods | 5. Other (specify)----- |
| 3. Household utensils | |

27. Do you have a land in your place of origin?

- | | |
|--------|-------|
| 1. Yes | 2. No |
|--------|-------|

28. Your own or family's size of land holding (in Kada)

- | | |
|----------------------|--------|
| 1. 2 and Less than 2 | 4. 6-8 |
| 2. 2-4 | 5. >8 |
| 3. 4-6 | |

29. What is the frequency of harvest in your rural village per year?

- | | | |
|--------|--------|------------------|
| 1. One | 2. Two | 3. More than two |
|--------|--------|------------------|

30. Is there any off-farm activity in your area of origin to earn cash money after and before the peak agricultural work?

- | | |
|--------|-------|
| 1. Yes | 2. No |
|--------|-------|

31. If your response to the question number 30 above is "yes" what type of activity?

- | | |
|-------------------------|----------------------------|
| 1. Small scale business | 3. Working in others field |
| 2. Handicraft | 4. Others (specify) ----- |

32. What was the last job you had before in-migration to Addis Ababa?

- | | |
|---------------------|---------------------------------|
| 1. Farmer | 5. Small business runner |
| 2. Domestic laborer | 6. Unemployed |
| 3. Daily laborer | 7. Others (please specify ----- |
| 4. Student | |

APPENDIX. II

INTERVIEW GUIDE

For Migrant Street Vendors and Daily Laborers in Addis Ababa

1. When and why did you come to Addis Ababa? What are the factors that pushed you to leave the rural area? What attracted you to migrate to the city?
2. Was your coming to Addis Ababa plainly?
3. How did you get the information to migrate to your destination (Addis Ababa)?
4. Has any one of your relatives/family members/friends migrated before? If yes did this influence your decision? How?
5. What did they provide you upon arrival to Addis Ababa?
6. What other possible activities do you currently working in to make a living in addition to your employment?
7. How does your income compared with your expenses? How much does you earn daily? Do you save?
8. Why do you choose Addis Ababa for your occupation?
9. What do you do with the money you earn here through your employment? Why?
10. What options do you think would help you to improve your living?
11. Where do you work (location)? Why?
12. Where do you live (district)? Why?
13. Is there any association of migrant workers in the urban informal sector from your local area? Do you interact and participate with social relations of migrants from the same locality?
14. Do you send money or goods back to your family? If so what kind? How much?
15. What skills/experiences have you acquired from your migration?
16. Does your current occupation change your quality of life? What changes have you experienced after being migrated and involved on this work? How was your income before migration and how about now?
17. Are there certain seasons of a year when your income is better? When? Why?
18. Does migration affect your values and beliefs?
19. How are the migrants viewed by people in the city?

20. How are migrants viewed by people in the villages of your origin?
21. How did your migration affect your family that stayed behind? What are the benefits and harms of your migration to them?
22. What are the bad and good experiences you encountered as a result of migration?
23. Do you intend to live and work in Addis Ababa or elsewhere in the future? What factors instigate you to make this decision?
24. How do you perceive your work as a means of generating income? Do you want to continue on your current occupation? If you say no, what job would rather you like to do?
25. Do you want other members of your family/relatives/friends to be engaged on your activity? If not, what would you like they shall do?
26. Do you have arable land? the size of yours/your family's land (in kada)
27. Are you regularly visiting your home village? If yes, why do you visit and if no, why?
28. In case you are interested to work in your home village, what kind of support you are in need of (seeking)? From whom?

Interview Guide for Migrant Families on the Place of Origin

1. Who is migrated from your family?
2. What are the major factors for migration to Addis Ababa?
3. In what kinds of activity your family members are engaged in Addis Ababa?
4. What are the benefits and difficulties for you because of the migration of your family members?

Appendix. III

Focus Group Discussion

To Returnee Migrants

1. What were the major factors for your migration?
2. In what job have you been engaged while you were in Addis Ababa?
3. During your stay in Addis Ababa, what was your average income per month?
4. What were the challenges and opportunities you had been experiencing when you were in Addis Ababa?
5. Why did you return to your place of origin?

To Non-Migrants at Place of Origin

1. Have you ever practiced migration? If yes, where and what were the reasons for your migration?
2. Is there any social services like educational/Health/telecommunication/marketing near your area?
4. Are you satisfied with the current provision of social services? If no, have you experienced any migration in search of better social services?
5. How do you conceive people migrated from your village to Addis Ababa to work in different informal sector activity (like street vending, daily laborer, prostitution, house maids etc) and other casual works? What about the view of other people?
6. How do you compare your quality of life with the migrants' family?
7. Have you ever planned to migrate to Addis Ababa for working in different informal activities? If yes, what were your reasons?
8. How is the social relationship and social ties with the migrants and returnees?
9. Is there any one who has been successful through migrating to Addis Ababa?