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ADDIS ABABA UNIVERSITY
COLLEGE OF DEVELOPMENT STUDIES
CENTER FOR RURAL DEVELOPMENT STUDIES

RURAL OUTMIGRATION AS A LIVELIHOOD STRATEGY TO
HOUSEHOLDS: A STUDY FROM ANKASHA DISTRICT OF
AMHARA REGIONAL STATE, ETHIOPIA

BY

CHALACHEW AREGA

SUPERVISORS

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MAY 2024

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REQUIREMENTS FOR THE DEGREE OF DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY IN
DEVELOPMENT STUDIES

MAY 2024

ADDIS ABABA

DECLARATION

I, the undersigned, declare that this dissertation titled “*Rural outmigration as a livelihood strategy to rural households: A study from Ankasha district of Amhara Regional State, Ethiopia*” is my original work and has not been presented for a degree in any other University or organization, and all sources of materials used for the dissertation have been duly acknowledged.

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APPROVAL SHEET

This is to certify that the dissertation prepared by **Chalachew Arega** entitled “*Rural Outmigration as a Livelihood Strategy to Households: A Study from Ankasha District of Amhara Regional State, Ethiopia*” Submitted in fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of Doctoral Philosophy in Population Studies complies with the regulations of the university and meets the accepted standards with respect to originality and quality.

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Acronyms

AOR	Adjusted Odds Ratio
CI	Confidence Interval
CSA	Central Statistical Agency
FDRE	Federal Democratic Republic of Ethiopia
IFAD	International Funding for Agricultural Development
ILO	International Labor Organization
LSI	Livelihood Strategy Index
NELM	New Economics of Labor Migration
ODI	Over Seas Development Institute
OLS	Ordinary Least Square
SL	Sustainable Livelihood
SLA	Sustainable Livelihoods Approach
SPSS	Statistical Package for Social Sciences
UN	United Nations
UNRISD	United Nations Research Institute for Social Development
VIF	Variance Inflation Factor

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Abstract

This dissertation investigates the significance of rural-out migration as a means for rural households in Ankasha District of Amhara Regional State, Ethiopia to diversify their livelihood incomes. Employing a cross-sectional design, the study covers a sample of 740 randomly selected households from six Kebeles in Ankasha District, Amhara Region, Ethiopia. The Berger-Parker method was used to calculate the livelihood strategy index, and the Blinder-Oaxaca decomposition of linear regression was performed to compare strategies between the two groups. Moreover, binary logistic regression analysis was used to identify the key factors in migration decisions. Furthermore, the study employed ordinary least squares regression to analyze the impact of outmigration on asset-based wealth, agricultural input expenditure, and health and education spending for left-behind household members. The findings indicate that migrant-sending households display higher livelihood income diversification, which can be attributed to wealth disparities. Younger household heads face challenges in implementing effective strategies, and the elimination of wealth disparities exacerbates this gap. Furthermore, the study reveals that migration decisions are largely made collectively within households, influenced by factors such as household composition, structure, the age of the household head, and economic deprivation.

Moreover, the research highlights the vital role of migration networks for migrant-sending households' association with household size, formal education, and length of stay at the destination influencing the likelihood of establishing a stronger network. The study also demonstrates that outmigration has positive effects on investments in health and agricultural inputs, although these effects diminish in multivariable analysis. Migrant sending status significantly impacts asset-based wealth, and possessing more land and earning income from other sources enhances both asset-based wealth and agricultural input expenditure. Overall, the findings underscore the importance of rural-out migration as a strategy for diversifying households' income in rural Ethiopia. The research emphasizes the need for policies that improve economic conditions, address wealth disparities, and enhance household capabilities in addressing challenges. Furthermore, the study calls for comprehensive analysis and the examination of migration within a broader context of the development agenda, utilizing more reliable longitudinal data.

Keywords: *Rural outmigration; Livelihood strategy; Households; Ankasha District; Amhara; Ethiopia*

CHAPTER ONE

1. INTRODUCTION

1.1. Background and Justification of the Study

Rural livelihoods in Ethiopia are intricately linked to various factors, including land availability, labor opportunities, financial access, and technological adoption. One critical aspect of rural livelihoods is diversification, which involves households engaging in multiple income-generating activities beyond traditional agricultural practices (World Bank, 2019). Out-migration emerges as a significant strategy for rural households seeking to diversify their livelihoods (Kassie et al., 2017). Human migration is an age-old phenomenon that dates back to the earliest periods of human history (International Organization for Migration [IOM], 2018). It is neither a new phenomenon nor a replacement for development. Individuals move as part of their efforts to improve the livelihoods of their families, learn new skills, acquire new experiences, find a job, or escape from unsafe conditions such as insecurity, disaster, or famine (IOM, 2018). Migration can be viewed as a response of individuals to better economic and non-economic opportunities, with the expectation of improving the overall economic welfare of their households (Tanle, 2003). It represents a proactive approach by rural households to seek improved living conditions and capitalize on potential economic prospects.

Internal migration appeared as a massive phenomenon, exceeding international migration. In 2015, for example, there were 740 million internal migrants worldwide as opposed to 244 million international migrants (International Organization for Migration (IOM), 2018). The same source further contends that many internal migrants originate from rural areas, and one could assume many of them are youth, given their higher propensity to migrate (IOM). As Bundervoet (2018a) notably argues that young people are 40 percent more likely to move from rural to urban areas or across urban areas than older individuals. Moreover, migration has also been a key livelihood and survival strategy for many poor groups across the developing world, particularly in Africa (de Brauw & Mueller, 2011; Lall & Selod, 2006; McDowell & de Haan, 1997; Waddington & Sabates-Wheeler, 2003).

Rural families also use rural-out migration for work as an alternative strategy to diversify their source of income and livelihood (Mendola, 2008). In this regard, the effect of rural out-migration on the agriculture sector remained a controversial issue. On one hand, it involves the removal of production factors such as labor and capital (due to migration costs) from the rural sector, and on the other hand, it promotes agricultural investment via the inflow of remittances from migrants. Existing migration studies have their boundaries and argue either towards the positive or negative effects of migration on household income without suggesting any rational decision-making point of migration and without taking into account the demographic and socio-economic contexts of sub-Saharan Africa (Adepoju, 2008a, 2008b; Wondimagegnhu, 2012). Labor migration has also been linked to limited opportunities in education and the absence of work in the country of origin (Bekele, 2013; Getachew, 2016; Orozco, 2003). For instance, people in developing countries such as Ethiopia view the movement of people overseas as a strategy to find a better life for themselves and their families.

Ankasha District in the Amhara Regional State of Ethiopia provides an interesting context for studying rural out-migration as a livelihood diversification strategy. Here are some reasons why this study is relevant: Ankasha District has witnessed shifts in its socioeconomic fabric due to factors such as population growth, land scarcity, and changing climate conditions. These changes necessitate an exploration of alternative livelihood options. Understanding migration patterns—both internal and external sheds light on how households adapt to economic challenges. Households in Ankasha have used migration as a coping mechanism to enhance their livelihood resilience. Insights from this study can inform policy interventions related to rural development, migration, and livelihood diversification. Policymakers need evidence-based strategies to support rural households effectively.

1.2. Statement of the Problem

The academic debate surrounding rural-out migration has garnered significant attention due to its potential implications for the economic well-being of rural communities and its capacity to alleviate poverty. Central to this discourse is the investigation into whether empirical evidence substantiates the premise that rural-out migration can indeed augment the economic conditions of rural households and contribute to diminishing poverty levels. This line of inquiry has been

pursued in numerous studies, including the work of Deshingkar and Start (2003), which recognizes a multifaceted and reciprocal correlation between income dynamics and migratory trends, culminating in diverse consequences for the originating households of migrants.

A study published in 2023 in the *Journal of International Migration and Integration* examined the impact of rural-urban and international migration on vulnerability to rural multidimensional poverty in Southern Ethiopia. The findings suggest that international migration significantly reduces the vulnerability of households to multidimensional poverty by 34.32% and rural-urban migration by 20.63% (Eshetu et al., 2023). Another study from the *Journal of Human Rights and Social Work* in 2023 highlights the distress faced by rural migrants in India, emphasizing the need for interventions that support sustainable livelihoods in drought-prone regions (Bellampalli & Yadava, 2023). These studies contribute to a nuanced understanding of how migration affects rural livelihoods and poverty, providing valuable insights for policymakers and stakeholders involved in rural development and migration management.

For instance, research conducted by Chakrapani and Kumar (1994) in India observed a notable increase in the incomes of migrants post-relocation. Similarly, a study by Haberfeld *et al.* (1999) in Dungarpur indicated that households with members who migrated tended to have higher income levels compared to non-migrant households. Conversely, Kothari (2002) provided a more nuanced perspective, suggesting that migration could simultaneously act as a mechanism to alleviate poverty and, paradoxically, as a factor that perpetuates it. While extensive research on rural-out migration has been conducted in several Asian countries, such as India, Bangladesh, and China (source), as well as in African nations like Egypt, Kenya, and South Africa (Deshingkar & Grimm, 2005), the phenomenon remains underexplored in Ethiopia. The limited studies available, such as (Mekonnen, 2013) work on the determinants of rural out-migration of children and youth and its impact on migrant-sending households in selected areas of Gojam and Wolaita, highlight the potential benefits of internal migration. These benefits include poverty reduction, livelihood enhancement through the alleviation of population pressure, the introduction of new technologies, and increased income. Katalyeba (2002) also points to the significance of rural-rural movements in East Africa, suggesting that such migrations, often

overlooked by researchers, could significantly influence population dynamics and the economic outcomes for sending households.

Despite these contributions, the specific effects of rural-out migration on the livelihoods of sending households in Ethiopia remain a puzzle. The existing literature has not sufficiently addressed the outcomes of rural-out migration as a viable strategy for diversifying and enhancing the livelihoods of rural households. This gap in knowledge underscores the need for further investigation. The current study seeks to address this gap by evaluating the outcomes of rural-out migration on the sending households within the research context, aiming to clarify the ambiguous effects of such migration on rural livelihoods and poverty levels. In light of recent studies, such as the work by Eshetu *et al.*(2023), which examined the impact of rural-out migration on vulnerability to rural multidimensional poverty in Southern Ethiopia, it is evident that the dynamics of migration are multifaceted. Their findings suggest that international migration can significantly reduce the vulnerability and multidimensional poverty of households, supporting the remittance hypothesis of the new economics labor migration theory (Eshetu et al., 2023). This aligns with the broader discourse on the potential of migration to catalyze socio-economic development, as highlighted in reports by the United Nations (UN, 2017).

In conclusion, the existing research has not adequately addressed the outcomes of rural-out migration as a livelihood strategy for the left behind household members in rural Ethiopia. This study aims to address that gap by evaluating the effects of rural-out migration on the sending households, to clarify the impacts on rural livelihoods and poverty. Given the complex dynamics of migration highlighted in recent studies, further investigation is needed to fully understand how different forms of migration, like international migration, can influence the vulnerability and multidimensional poverty of rural Ethiopian households. This research marks a crucial advance in bridging the knowledge divide and offering a more comprehension of how migration shapes rural livelihoods.

1.3. Research Questions

This dissertation aimed at providing answers to the following specific set of empirical and policy questions.

- What are the key predictors of livelihood strategies used by households in the study area affected by rural-urban migration?
- What are the key socioeconomic and demographic factors that influence individuals' decisions to migrate out of the study area?
- How do age and sex impact migration networks and remittance patterns in the study area?
- How do migrant-sending and non-sending rural households in the study area differ in terms of changes in social and economic capital, and what are the corresponding impacts?

1.4. Objectives

1.4.1. General Objective

The overall objective of this study was to investigate and analyze rural out-migration and its role as a livelihood income diversification strategy for rural households in Ankasha district, Amhara Region, Ethiopia.

1.4.2. Specific Objectives

- To characterize the contribution of rural-urban migration and key predictors of livelihood strategies used by households in the study area;
- To identify the key socioeconomic and demographic predictors of decisions to migrate to the study area.
- To examine the age-sex differentials/patterns of migration networks and remittance in the study area.
- To characterize and assess the impacts of migrant-sending and non-sending rural households based on changes in social and economic capital

1.5. Significance of the Study

The dissertation titled "Rural-Out Migration as a Livelihood Diversification Strategy to Rural Households: A Study of Ankasha District of Amhara Regional State, Ethiopia" explores the significance of rural-out migration as a strategy for livelihood diversification among rural

households in the Ankasha District of the Amhara Regional State in Ethiopia. Here are some key points regarding the significance of this study:

Rural livelihood diversification: Livelihood diversification refers to the process by which households engage in multiple income-generating activities to reduce their vulnerability and enhance their overall well-being. In rural areas, where agriculture often serves as the primary livelihood source, diversification becomes crucial to mitigate risks associated with climate variability, market fluctuations, and limited opportunities (Qaim et al., 2019). Understanding the role of rural-out migration as a diversification strategy can provide insights into how households navigate economic challenges.

Migration as a livelihood strategy: Rural-out migration involves individuals or households leaving their rural communities and seeking employment or other economic opportunities in urban or peri-urban areas. Migration can offer rural households access to new income streams, improved job prospects, and social networks. Exploring how migration contributes to livelihood diversification can shed light on how rural communities cope with economic transformations and capitalize on urbanization processes (De Haan, 1999b).

Ankasha District: The specific focus on Ankasha District in the Amhara Regional State of Ethiopia adds geographical context to the study. Ankasha District's characteristics, such as its rural setting, agricultural practices, demographic composition, and socio-economic conditions, are likely to influence migration patterns and livelihood strategies. By examining this particular district, the study can provide localized insights that contribute to the existing knowledge base on rural-out migration.

Policy implications: The study may explore policy implications and recommendations based on its findings. By understanding the dynamics of rural-out migration and livelihood diversification in the Ankasha District, the study aims to contribute to evidence-based policy formulation and development interventions that can support sustainable rural development, enhance livelihood opportunities, and mitigate potential challenges associated with migration.

1.6. Scope of the Study

The scope of the study for the dissertation titled "Rural-Out Migration as a Livelihood Diversification Strategy to Rural Households: A Study of Ankasha District of Amhara Regional State, Ethiopia" encompasses several key aspects. Here is an outline of the study's scope:

Geographical scope: The study focuses on the Ankasha District, which is located within the Amhara Regional State in Ethiopia. The Ankasha District is chosen as the specific area of investigation to provide a localized understanding of rural-out migration dynamics and livelihood diversification strategies within this particular rural context.

Target population: The study targets rural households residing in the Ankasha District. It aims to explore the experiences, motivations, and outcomes of rural-out migration as a livelihood diversification strategy from the perspective of these households. The sample population may include individuals or families who have engaged in rural-out migration as well as those who have remained in the district.

Livelihood diversification: The study examines how rural households in the Ankasha District engage in livelihood diversification as a response to challenges and opportunities. It explores the different income-generating activities and strategies pursued by households to enhance their economic well-being. Livelihood diversification can encompass agricultural activities, off-farm employment, entrepreneurship, remittances, and other sources of income.

Rural-out migration: The study specifically investigates rural-out migration as a strategy for livelihood diversification. It examines the patterns, drivers, and impacts of migration on rural households in the Ankasha District. The study aims to understand the factors that influence migration decisions, the destinations chosen by migrants, and the effects of migration on the households left behind.

Socio-economic and demographic factors: The study considers various socio-economic and demographic factors that may influence migration and livelihood diversification in the Ankasha District. These factors can include education levels, household size, and access to resources, land

tenure systems, infrastructure, market conditions, and social networks. Analyzing these factors helps provide context and insights into the migration process and its outcomes.

1.7. Limitations of the Study

Limitations of the study for the dissertation titled "Rural Out-Migration as a Livelihood Diversification Strategy to Rural Households: A Study of Ankasha District of Amhara Regional State, Ethiopia" may include the following:

Generalizability: The findings of the study may be specific to the Ankasha District and may not be representative of other rural areas in Amhara Regional State or Ethiopia as a whole. The results may be influenced by the unique characteristics, socioeconomic conditions, and cultural context of Ankasha District.

Sample size and selection: The study may have a limited sample size, which could affect the generalizability of the findings. The sample may also be selected from a specific subgroup of all households in Ankasha District, which may not be fully representative of the entire population.

Data reliability and validity: The study relies on data collected through surveys. There may be limitations in the accuracy and reliability of the data due to potential recall bias, social desirability bias, or measurement errors. The validity of the findings depends on the quality of the data collected.

Researcher bias: The researcher's own biases, perspectives, and prior assumptions may influence the design of the study, data collection, and interpretation of the findings. It is important to acknowledge and consider the potential impact of researcher bias on the study's outcomes.

Time constraints: Conducting a comprehensive study on rural out-migration and livelihood diversification requires sufficient time and resources. However, the study may have been limited by time constraints, which could affect the depth and breadth of the research.

Data limitations: The study may face limitations in the availability and quality of data related to rural out-migration and livelihood diversification in Ankasha District. There may be gaps in existing data sources and certain variables or indicators of interest may be unavailable or difficult to measure accurately.

External factors: The study may not account for external factors that could impact rural out-migration and livelihood diversification in Ankasha District. Factors such as national policies, regional development programs, or global economic trends may influence the study's results but may not be fully considered or controlled for.

1.8. Methodology of the Research

1.8.1. Research Paradigm

"This study is grounded in the pragmatist research philosophy, which advocates for a flexible and eclectic approach to method selection (Johnson & Onwuegbuzie, 2004). In line with this paradigm, a cross-sectional research design was employed to investigate the impact of rural-out migration on the livelihoods of migrant-sending households in Ankasha District, Amhara Regional State. This design allows for a comprehensive survey of a cross-section of households, providing insights into the outcomes of rural-out migration on their livelihoods. The research design is considered the most appropriate as the study aims at obtaining an overall picture of rural-out migration outcomes to the left behind household members from a cross-section of the study population as it stood (as it was) at the time of the survey (Babbie, 1989). On the other hand, quantitative approach is applied to explain best and explore the research problem (Creswell, 2002). The quantitative approach deals mainly with (household characteristics of both the left behind and the departed; propensity to migrate; drivers of out migration and subsequent outcomes of the migration process/decision; etc.).

1.8.2. Data Sources and Collection Instruments

In order to achieve the objectives of the study, data were collected both from primary and secondary sources. Primary data sources including household survey/the questionnaire were employed. Secondary data sources include published and unpublished materials such as books,

topographic and thematic maps, journals, and reports of the Central Statistical Agency of Ethiopia as well as other publications and scientific works.

Household Survey/the Questionnaire

Quantitative data were collected from the randomly selected households using a structured questionnaire. Data were collected on various socio-economic, demographic, and institutional factors affecting access to and participation in the market. Data collection processes were assisted by enumerators who are native speakers of the Agaw/*Awigni* language; where they were selected and trained for the purpose.

1.8.3. Sampling, Survey Design, and Selection of Migrant Sending Households

1.8.3.1. Sampling and Survey Design

The study employed a quantitative approach in the development of a survey instrument to measure the prevalence and to identify important variables of the study and generalize the results to a larger population group. The quantitative approach was employed to study different sample groups such as the households from which migrants have moved out, the departed members, and the potential migrants (Creswell & Clark, 2007).

The study employed both probability and non-probability sampling techniques for a better understanding of the drivers of rural migration and its effect on the sending household members. Agrawal (2006) statistical formula was employed to determine the desired sample size for the study.

$$\begin{aligned}
 n &= \frac{N}{1 + N(e)^2} \times de + C \\
 &= \frac{65,600}{1 + 65,600(0.05)^2} \times 1.75 + 10\% \\
 &= \frac{65,600}{165} \times 1.75 + 10\% \cong 766
 \end{aligned}$$

Where, n= sample size,
de= design effect,
C= contingency for non-response (10% was used),
N = is the population from which the sample is drawn,
e= is the degree of precision which is 0.05

Although 766 respondents are expected to be interviewed only 740 were successfully interviewed while 26 of them were found to be incomplete. Hence, the response rate is 96.5%.

To identify the target sample population, the study employed a multistage sampling technique. First, six rural kebeles were selected purposively. According to the Woreda Labor and Social Affairs Office, these kebeles were identified and documented by their intensity of out-migration. Second, sub-villages (*gotts*) from each kebele were identified. Finally, from a complete listing of rural households a sample proportional to the size of the households was drawn. Hence, the 766 rural households were selected by taking the sampling frame from the kebele administrations though complete responses were obtained only from 740 respondents.

1.8.4. Techniques of Data Analysis and Definition of Variables

The analysis involved a statistical examination to establish the relationship between the dependent and independent variables. Specifically, the analysis was the rural-out migration decisions made by households. This decision is binary and categorical in nature, with households either choosing to migrate or opting to remain in their current location. To facilitate this analysis, a numerical coding system was employed. Households whose members decided to migrate were assigned a value of 1, while those who chose not to migrate were assigned a value of 0. This dichotomous coding scheme allows for a quantitative assessment of the relationship between the dependent variable (migration decision) and the independent variables under investigation.

1.8.5. Ethical Considerations

This research involved rural households of the study area as subjects who take part in responding to different queries related to some personal and livelihood issues in their households and/or the surroundings. The researcher tried to fulfill ethical issues that need to be respected. Accordingly, the whole purpose of the research will be explained to the subjects. Without the consent and permission of the respondents, information will have not been collected, and interpreted. As well, information generated remained confidential. All possible means of protecting the privacy and anonymity of respondents are applied.

1.9. Organization of the Dissertation

This dissertation comprises four distinct yet interconnected articles that delve into various aspects of migration, including its role as a livelihood diversification strategy, the factors influencing migration decisions, migration networks, and the effects of migration in rural Ethiopia.

Chapter 1 – the Introduction chapter Provides background information, states the research problem , objectives, research questions, significance of the study; limitations and scope of the study and outlines the overall structure of the dissertation.

Chapter 2- is dedicated entirely to the "Review of Related Literature," wherein the conceptual, theoretical, and empirical literature is thoroughly examined. The subsequent sections of this dissertation are organized into five chapters, each presenting its findings.

Chapter 3 introduces the first article titled "Migration as a Strategy for Livelihood Diversification among Rural Households in Ethiopia: A Comparative Analysis." This article aims to explore how rural households cope with economic vulnerabilities resulting from limited income-generating opportunities in their local areas. It discusses how migration is perceived as a means to supplement or diversify income by seeking employment in urban areas or other regions with better economic prospects.

Chapter 4, titled "Predictors of Migration Decision in Recent Population Mobility from Ankasha District, Amhara Regional State, Ethiopia," examines the factors that influence migration decision-making. The chapter analyzes migration networks among rural households in the sending communities.

Chapter 5 contributes to our understanding of migration networks among recent out-migrants from the Ankasha District of Amhara Regional State, Ethiopia.

Lastly, Chapter 6 addresses the impacts of recent outmigration on the economic and social capital of source communities/households, presenting evidence from the Ankasha District of Amhara Regional State, Ethiopia.

In the final chapter, Chapter 7, the major findings, policy implications, and future research work/directions are thoroughly discussed.

CHAPTER TWO

2. REVIEW OF THEORETICAL AND RELATED LITERATURE

2.1. Introduction

This chapter offers an overview of migration studies, covering various concepts and theories. It introduces the neo-classical migration theory, which focuses on individual decision-making based on wage differentials and employment opportunities. However, scholars developed the New Economics of Labor Migration (NELM) framework to address its limitations, considering social networks, household dynamics, and the socio-economic context. The chapter explores different stages and dynamics of migration, including the impact of rural out-migration on households. It emphasizes that limited opportunities in rural areas lead to population outflows with implications for labor availability, remittance inflows, and social dynamics. Migration costs, both direct and indirect, are examined, encompassing transportation expenses, visa fees, and income loss during the transition period. Understanding these costs is crucial for assessing the feasibility and profitability of migration decisions (Schewel & Asmamaw, 2021).

2.2. Understanding of Major Concepts

2.2.1 Rural-Out Migration

Demographers, anthropologists, sociologists, and economists define and interpret migration differently because they look at migration from different angles of view. In the literature, it is indicated that people move/migrate for a wide range of reasons and these differences affect the overall migration process. Migration might be internal or external. Internal migration is a permanent change in residence from one geographical unit to another within a particular country. For example, internal migration may involve a change in residence from a rural area to a city, from one city to another, from one rural area to another or from one region of a country to another (United Nations, 2003).

Ellis (2000, 2003) and Hossain (2001) have provided valuable insights into the concept of migration and its impact on the welfare of families. According to their observations, migration involves the departure of one or more family members from their resident household for varying periods of time. This separation allows migrants to engage in new and different activities that can

potentially contribute to the overall well-being of their families. However, it is important to note that the mere act of migration does not guarantee such contributions.

2.2.2. Livelihood and Sustainable Livelihood

The concept of livelihood is extensively discussed in contemporary literature on poverty and rural development. However, its precise meaning can often be elusive due to vagueness or variations in definitions found in different sources (Ellis, 2000). While the dictionary definition of livelihood refers to a "means to a living," it encompasses more than just income. It emphasizes the manner in which individuals acquire their livelihood, not merely the end result in terms of income or consumption. In practical terms, the concept of livelihood aims to capture not only the activities individuals undertake to sustain their lives but also the resources and means that enable them to establish a satisfactory living, the risks they must consider in managing their resources, and the institutional and policy framework that either supports or hinders their pursuit of a viable and improved livelihood (Ellis, 2003).

The initial definition of livelihood was provided by Carney (1998), who stated that "A livelihood comprises the capabilities, assets (stores, resources, claims, and access), and activities required for a means of living: a livelihood is sustainable if it can cope with and recover from stress and shocks, maintain or enhance its capabilities and assets both now and in the future" (Carney, 1999, p. 4). However, the most widely accepted definition originates from the work of Chambers and Conway (1992), with subsequent modifications that have been adopted by various authors and organizations. According to Chambers and Conway (1992), a livelihood encompasses the capabilities, assets (stores, resources, claims, and access), and activities necessary for a means of living. For a livelihood to be sustainable, it must have the ability to withstand and rebound from stress and unexpected events, preserve or enhance its capabilities and assets, provide opportunities for future generations, and contribute net benefits to other livelihoods at local and global levels in both the short and long terms.

However, Ellis's (2000) definition of livelihoods fails to adequately capture the dynamic nature of change over time and the adaptive capacity of individuals and households to evolving circumstances. It is essential to recognize that rural livelihoods in contemporary developing

countries possess a fundamental characteristic of adaptability for survival (Farrington et al., 1999). This means that livelihood construction should be viewed as an ongoing process, where the elements involved are not assumed to remain constant from one season or year to the next.

Assets, for example, can be accumulated, depleted, or abruptly destroyed, as observed in tragic events like floods or fires. The availability of activities also experiences seasonal and yearly fluctuations, particularly about broader economic trends at the national and global levels. Consequently, access to resources and opportunities for individuals or households may change due to shifting norms and events within the social and institutional context that surrounds their livelihoods (Ellis, 2000).

Farrington et al. (1999, p. 1) highlight the importance of understanding livelihoods as a dynamic process of adaptation and change. They argue that livelihood strategies should not be viewed as fixed or static, but rather as flexible and responsive to the evolving conditions and challenges faced by individuals and households in developing countries. Furthermore, Chambers and Conway (1992) emphasize the significance of considering livelihood strategies within the broader context of sustainable livelihoods frameworks. They argue that a sustainable livelihood approach should consider the vulnerability context, as well as the various assets, capabilities, and institutions that shape livelihood outcomes.

The study aimed to establish a comprehensive definition of sustainable livelihood, drawing upon the modified definitions proposed by Chamber and Conway (1992), as well as the definition put forth by Ellis (2000). These definitions were chosen due to their relevance and applicability to the study's objectives. Throughout the study, the adopted definition of sustainable livelihood was as follows:

A livelihood comprises the capabilities, assets (stores, resources, claims and access), access and activities required for a means of living; a livelihood is sustainable if it can cope with and recover from stress and shocks, maintain or enhance its capabilities and assets, and provide sustainable livelihood opportunities both now and in the future while not undermining the natural resource base, and which contributes net benefits to other livelihoods at the

local and global levels and the short and long term(Farrington et al., 1999; Scoones, 1998).

This definition emphasizes the multifaceted nature of livelihoods, encompassing various aspects such as capabilities, assets, access, and activities. It also highlights the importance of sustainability, encompassing the ability to withstand and recover from challenges, maintain or enhance resources, and provide opportunities for future generations without depleting the natural resource base. Furthermore, the definition recognizes the interconnectedness of livelihoods at different scales, from local to global, and the need for positive impacts on other livelihoods. The modified definition of sustainable livelihoods proposed in this study aligns with the broader concept of sustainable development, which seeks to balance economic, social, and environmental considerations. By incorporating these dimensions, the definition provides a comprehensive framework for understanding and promoting sustainable livelihoods.

2.3. Theoretical Underpinnings

Migration theories aim to explain the multifaceted nature of human migration, a phenomenon that has shaped societies and cultures throughout history. These theories provide frameworks to understand the underlying factors and motivations that drive individuals and communities to relocate from one place to another. One prominent theory is the neoclassical economics approach, which emphasizes the role of economic factors such as wages, job opportunities, and income differentials in shaping migration patterns. According to this perspective, individuals migrate in search of better economic prospects and higher living standards

2.3.1. The neo-classical migration theory (the neo-classical equilibrium perspective)

2.3.1.1 The pull-push theory

The first scholarly contribution to migration consisted of two articles by the nineteenth century geographer Ravenstein (1885, 1889), in which he formulated his “laws of migration”. He saw migration as an inseparable part of development, and he asserted that the major cause of migration was economic. Migration patterns were further assumed to be influenced by factors such as distance and population densities (Skeldon, 1997, p. 19). In this perspective people are expected to move from low income to high income areas (Lewis, 1954), and from densely to

sparsely populated areas, that is, the general notion that migration movements tend towards a certain spatial-economic equilibrium, has remained alive in the work of many demographers, geographers, and economists ever since (Castles & J., 2003, p. 22).

In Ravenstein's theory, the relation between distance and volume of migration was central. He concluded that a "push-pull" process governed migration; that is, unfavorable conditions in one place (oppressive laws, heavy taxation, poor economic conditions, less job opportunities, etc.) "Push" people out of their geographical locations while favorable conditions in an external location "pull" or attract them out. Ravenstein's laws stated that the primary cause for migration was better external economic opportunities; the volume of migration decreases as distance increases; migration occurs in stages instead of one long move; population movements are bilateral; and migration differentials (e.g., gender, social class, age) influence a person's mobility (De Haan et al., 2000).

The major strength of this theory is acknowledged by de Haas (2007) that most researchers who have applied the push-pull framework have assumed that various environmental, demographic, and economic factors verify migration decisions. Two main forces (push and pull) are typically distinguished to craft the pushes and pulls: (1) rural population growth causing a Malthusian pressure on natural and agricultural resources, and pushing people out of marginal rural areas, and (2) economic conditions (higher wages) attracting people into cities and industrialized countries (King & Schneider, 1991, pp. 62–63; M. S. Schwartz & Notini, 1994; Skeldon, 1997, p. 20). At first prospect, the push-pull model seems attractive, as it is apparently able to incorporate all the factors that play a role in migration decision-making. Because of its apparent ability to amalgamate other theoretical insights, it has been frequently suggested that a general view of labor migration could best be achieved using a push-pull framework (Bauer & Zimmermann, 1998; Schoorl et al., 2006).

Since Ravenstein's theory bears some elements of the neoclassical economic theory, it has fallen to the same trap that most dominant neoclassical economic theorists (e.g. the Harris-Todaro Model) have found themselves in (Harris & Todaro, 1970). This setback is based on the grounds that the theory has remained silent on the risky nature of migration and the remittances that a

migrant sends back home. The theory also does not explain how migration decision is reached and who decides on migration; basically the entire migration decision process is not captured by this theory. It does not also explain the threshold between pull and push factors. Moreover, push-pull models tend to ignore the heterogeneity and internal stratification of societies, while general contextual factors habitually defined as either push or pull factors are likely to work out in a differentiated way on the individual level, and might subsequently encourage some people to leave and others to stay (De Haan, 1999a).

Another fundamental weakness of this model is that push and pull factors are generally mirrored in each other (H. De Haas, 2008). For example, the argument that migrants are lured to big cities or to foreign countries because of the high wage ‘pull’, is implicitly or explicitly made in relation to an apparent low wage ‘push’ at the sending end. It then becomes arbitrary and open to subjective judgment to establish whether the push or the pull is dominant. In fact, the differences in the relative scarcity of labor can be aptly expressed in one single variable, that is, wage differentials. Furthermore, besides wage differentials, factors such as population pressure, demographic pressure, or environmental degradation have commonly been postulated as “root causes” of migration (King & Schneider, 1991; A. Schwartz et al., 1994; Zachariah et al., 2001).

Nevertheless, apart from the fact that population or migration pressure are relative, difficult-to-grasp and often weakly defined concepts, such factors alone cannot explain why people move and also fail to see migration as a social process (H. De Haas, 2008). People do not typically move from places because they expect to find a ‘better environment’ or ‘less population pressure’, but because they expect to be able to make a more satisfying living elsewhere (Zachariah et al., 2001). In fact, many migrants tend to move from areas (mainly rural areas) with relatively low population densities and relatively little environmental degradation to environmentally degraded areas (mainly urban) with high population densities. People tend to be increasingly concentrated in crowded places—cities, towns, and prosperous agricultural areas—that however, in spite of their crowdedness generally offer better social and economic opportunities in terms of individual freedom, safety, education, health care, paid labor, entrepreneurial activities and amusement (Bebbington, 1999). This further illustrates the limitations and potential triviality of “push-pull” explanations.

2.3.1.2. The Harris-Todaro Income Differential Theory

Several other important theories have been developed which try to treat different patterns of migration on their own terms, but these too are variants of the push-pull theory. First and probably the most cited, and traditionally much of the economic literature on migration has followed, is the *neoclassical migration economic theory*, (Sjaastad, 1962; Todaro, 1980) focusing on wage differentials.

It is argued that although the issue of migration has not attracted substantial attention within mainstream economic theory itself (Bauer & Zimmermann, 1998; Passaris, 1989, p. 7), economic explanations have nonetheless dominated popular and scholarly thinking on migration. The neoclassical theory proponents believed that at the macro-level, neo-classical economic theory explains migration by geographical differences in the supply and demand for labor it suggests that areas with surplus labor supply (and low demand) will have low wages while those with scarce labor supply and high demand will have high wages. The resulting differentials in wages cause labor (workers) to move from low-wage, labor-surplus regions (mostly rural areas) to high-wage, labor scarce regions (mostly urban areas) (Sjaastad, 1962; Todaro, 1980). In this case migration would cause labor to become less scarce at the destination and scarcer at the sending end, and on the other end, capital is expected to move in the opposite direction (H. De Haas, 2008). In a perfectly neo-classical world, this process of “factor price equalization” (the Heckscher-Ohlin model) will eventually result in growing convergence between wages at the sending and receiving end (Harris & Todaro, 1970; Lewis, 1954; Ranis & Fei, 1961; Schiff, 1994; Todaro & Maruszko, 1987). In the long run, this process would remove the incentives for migrating (H. De Haas, 2008).

At the micro-level, neo-classical migration theory views migrants as individual, rational actors, who decide to move on the basis of a cost-benefit calculation. This means each potential risk-neutral migrant decides whether or not to move, typically from rural to urban areas, on the basis of the expected income maximization objective arising from wage differentials between origin and destination areas (Harris & Todaro, 1970). Assuming free choice and full access to information, they are expected to go where they can be the most productive, that is, are able to

earn the highest wages. This capacity obviously depends on the specific skills a person possesses and the specific structure labor markets(H. De Haas, 2008).

Todaro (1969) and Harris and Todaro (1970) elaborated the basic two-sector model of rural to-urban labor migration. This influential “Harris-Todaro model” has remained the basis of neo-classical migration theory since then. The original model was developed in order to explain the apparently contradictory phenomenon of continuing rural-to urban migration in developing countries despite rising unemployment in cities. The model was born out of discontent with vague and “amorphous explanations such as the “bright lights” of the city acting as a magnet to lure peasants into urban areas” (Harris & Todaro, 1970, p. 126). Harris and Todaro argued that in order to understand this phenomenon, it is necessary to modify and extend the simple wage differential approach by looking “not only at prevailing income differentials as such but rather at the rural-urban “expected” income differential, i.e., the income differential adjusted for the probability of finding an urban job” (Todaro, 1969, p. 138).

The expected income in the destination area not only depends on the actual (or average) earnings at the destination, but also on the probability of employment. The assumption is that as long as rural-urban income differences remain high enough to outweigh the risk of becoming unemployed, the “lure of relatively higher permanent incomes will continue to attract a steady stream of rural migrants” (Todaro, 1969, p. 147). Later, the Harris-Todaro model was refined to make it more realistic (Bauer & Zimmermann, 1998, p. 97). Modifications pertained to the inclusion of other factors than unemployment that influence the expected income gains that can be achieved through migration. The potential gains in the form of higher wages should be balanced with factors such as the opportunity costs of migration, the costs of travel, (temporary) unemployment while moving and installation at the destination, and the psychological costs of migration. In fact, the factors such as costs and risks associated with migration explain why it is generally suggested that not the poorest who migrate and why social networks are so crucial in lowering the material and psychological thresholds to migration.

2.3.2. The New Economics of Labor Migration

Neoclassical economics theorists believed that migration is rooted in economic theory (Todaro, 1976b) focusing on the rational behavior of individuals. But, later on, these economic theories were broadened to accommodate transaction costs, imperfect information, as well as missing or incomplete rural capital and insurance markets. The perspective that migration is not only driven by labor market imperfections is a trademark of the more recent theory of migration, the New Economics of Labor Migration (NELM)(Deshingkar & Start, 2003)). These ‘new’ economics of labor migration recognize the household as the unit of decision-making according to the incentives and constraints it faces. It is the economic position of households at community level (their ‘relative deprivation’) that influences the household behavior with respect to migration. The New Economics of Labor Migration (NELM) framework of analysis addresses the multiplicity of factors, which underlie the decision to migrate, and the possible effects of migration on both migrant origin and destination economies (Taylor, 1991).

The NELM approach conceives migration as a household strategy whereby migrants and resident household members act collectively not only to maximize income, but also to minimize risks (such as financial risks), diversify income earnings and loosen financial constraints through remittances (De Haan et al., 2002; Rogaly et al., 2002). The decision that a member of the household should migrate is based on the calculation of the costs of migration (e.g. foregone family agricultural labor, travel expenses, helping the migrant during periods of unemployment) and benefits of migration (e.g. regular remittances, investment in local income generation, anticipated assistance during times of particular hardship). Thus, anticipated remittances are part of the migration decision, part of an implicit contract between the migrant and the remaining family(Stark & Lucas, 1988).

Migration and remittances from it have both positive and negative effects on the welfare of rural households and communities, depending on the type of household/community (Mendola, 2006). The impacts also change with time: in the beginning, migration may deprive the household and rural economy of labor but in the longer term, remittances may be invested back into improving productivity and creating assets and household incomes. It follows that according to the NELM approach, migration impacts are conceived in terms of risk management, income diversification

and alleviation of liquidity constraints at household level. However, some macro-economic studies of the determinants of remittance behavior distinguish between remittances ‘required’ by NELM household relationships and ‘desired remittances’ resulting from the migrants’ decisions to move money to their areas of origin, based on their portfolio of savings, assets and investments and relative rates of return (Elbadawi & Rocha, 1992; Glytsos, 2001).

NELM provides the only systematic and detailed attempt to theorize remittance behavior, guiding the bulk of empirical research on remittances in stable settings, which is mainly done by economists. The concept of remittances as part of an integrated, transnational household economic strategy permeates contemporary understandings of migration and remitting (Lindley, 2008). However, the approach suffers certain limitations. First, while NELM differs from neoclassical theory in its focus on the diversification rather than maximization of income, it shares the basic premise of rational choice (Arango, 2000). The central assumption of microeconomic theory as applied in this field-that individuals act to maximize income allowing for risk-has been much criticized by other social scientists arguing that economic action is embedded in social relations (Biggart & Castanias, 2001; Granovetter, 1985; Sahlins, 2004; Swedberg, 2007). Even the micro-economic literature reviewed above hints at eminently social aspects of remittance motivations such as sociability, status, and power. The notion of migration and remitting as ‘strategies’, carries the connotation of trying to reach predefined goals through rational and planned action, which sits uneasily beside the sometimes highly constrained circumstances in which migration occurs-and not only in conflict settings. In many situations there is a more unsettled relationship between migration and remitting than that envisaged by NELM: some people do not migrate to remit but do (such as students, and as we shall see, refugees), and others migrate with the expectation of sending money home but for various reasons do not do so.

Second, while placing the household rather than the individual or social structures as the key unit of analysis, NELM offers a rather functionalist understanding of it, neglecting affective and power relations. There is a risk of reifying the household and sidelining analysis of individualistic strategies and the role of extra-household family and community relations(H. De Haas, 2005; Lianos, 1997). The remittance process is also viewed primarily from perspective of

the area of origin, with little attention paid to the migrants' perspective (Lindley, 2008). Indeed, migrants are largely seen as satellites of the original household, with remittances demonstrating that their principal affiliation and commitment is towards that unit (a notion that best fits contexts of labor migration): ceasing to remit implies their detachment from that household (Arnold et al., 1985).

2.4. Empirical Literature Review

Impact of Migration on Household Livelihoods

In the beginning of the 21st century, more than seventy-five percent of the labor forces in sub-Saharan African countries were still employed in the agricultural sector (International Fund for Agricultural Development (IFAD), 2008). Yet, in an increasing number of places, rural livelihoods are becoming less and less dependent on agriculture. This is partly the result of the appearance of rural-based alternative employment and income opportunities (Murphy, 2002). In general, employment in the agricultural sector of developing countries is decreasing (Gollin, 2012).

In the last decade, there appeared many academic studies that confirm this change in rural areas. This includes, for instance, the industrialization of rural areas in the Philippines as a result of the development of metal craft industries (Stalker, 2000). Tacoli (2002) investigated substantial livelihood diversification in the form of artificial fruit and flower production in Vietnam's Red River Delta. Many rural regions are affected by a process of so-called de-agrarianization, resulting in an increasing group of young labor forces searching for non-farm occupations and pushed by the low rural wage rates and agricultural constraints. More and more people in rural areas diversify their livelihood and reduce risks by working in or outside their place of living. Literature shows that especially in rural Africa, non-farm income sources account for a considerable share (42%) of rural household income, more than in other regions of the world (Tacoli, 2002). When rural people seek to diversify their income sources and occupations, they often go quickly in temporary or long-term migration. Studies show that remittances as a result of migration are increasingly important for the sending areas and have surpassed farming as the major income source for rural household (Ellis, 2000).

There is no agreement on the impact of migration for rural development. Migration processes are not only positive for the sending households, but also for the whole communities, regions and even countries. Supporters of this idea support policies aimed at the strengthening of financial, social and economic relationships between migrant and their areas of origin, because they consider migration as a household strategy resulting in economic and social flows and networks (Ellis, 2000). Highlighting the positive impact of the resource flows from migrants to the sending areas, like money transfers, in-kind remittances and innovative techniques and ideas. These resource transfers result in improvement of the livelihoods of rural households and in some cases used for investments in non-agricultural activities, which in turn lead to a higher employment rates (H. de Haas, 2007).

There are also a variety of factors that influence the extent to which migration has a negative or positive impact on sending areas. The effects of migration, for instance, are dependent on the duration of the migration, the local context and the amount of remittances (International Fund for Agricultural Development (IFAD), 2008). Most of the studies on the impact of migration are in line with the New Economics of Labor Model. They consider migration as a strategic household response to scarcity and poverty conditions in order to reduce vulnerability and increase income and investment opportunities. Remittance flows play a central role in these studies and are mainly seen as a poverty-alleviating strategy (H. de Haas, 2007).

The extent to which loss of human capital affects the sending households depends on different factors like family structure, duration of the migration, the migrant characteristics and the relationship between migrant and sending household. For instance, in areas with high population density, the out-migration of people may result in relief in terms of less underemployment and less pressure on natural resources. In this way, the departure of human resources forms a protection of rural livelihoods of the remaining rural households (International Fund for Agricultural Development (IFAD), 2008).

Also, rural out-migration has important consequences for rural labor markets. Out-migration reduces the supply of labor in the sending areas, which sometimes can lead to higher wages and less under- or unemployment. Whether this is the case or not depends on the presence of an

oversupply of labor, flexibility of wages and the replacement possibilities in sending areas (Lucas, 2006). In some regions, rural-outmigration results in higher wages while other regions have no gains, because the lack of labor is replaced by unemployed people (Lindley, 2008).

Some empirical studies reveal that the resource, which flows from the migrant to the household of origin, can compensate the lack of labor forces (Dugbazah, 2012). However, in other cases, the remittances are insufficient to replace the departed labor force (International Fund for Agricultural Development (IFAD), 2008). The lack of labor may also be fulfilled with inexpensive labor forces from other rural areas. A study in Morocco revealed that many rural households use hired laborers for their agricultural activities, besides sharecroppers and family members (H. de Haas, 2007). This process resulted in higher wage rates in rural Morocco.

According to Rizzo (2011) and Tacoli (2002) in Rwanda and Tanzania, there is a highly diversified and lively rural labor market in these countries, furthered by the migration of young able-bodied people. These studies reveal a high number of people who work for other people as their major source of livelihood. Rural wage labor plays a crucial role in the survival of the poorest. In several rural areas, migration of young people has resulted in an increase in the mean age of labor forces. This aging has a negative impact on agricultural production and revenues. Another consequence of migration is the loss of well-educated and highly-skilled people. Yet, there is still no agreement on the impact of this on rural development, due to lack of scientific evidence (Nunn, 2005). According to Skeldon (1997), the negative effects of the loss of human resources can be compensated by a later return of the most skilled migrant or by structural investments in the destination area.

In contrast, temporary or seasonal migration can enhance the allocation of labor because, during the labor-extensive periods outside the farming seasons, migrants work in urban areas elsewhere and return during the farming seasons to help with harvesting. In this way, their migration offers extra income sources while it does not affect their farming activities (Skeldon, 1997). Moreover, migration can have an important impact on task divisions and work load within sending households. The remaining family members often have to replace the tasks performed by the

migrated household members, such as household tasks, care of the children or agricultural activities on a household parcel (Dugbazah, 2012).

The departure of especially young and physically powerful men often results in an increasing workload for women in the household (Turner, 2010). These increasing responsibilities can be an emotional burden for these women. De Haas (2007) noticed that women in Morocco did not automatically appreciate the sudden changes in responsibility and work tasks but rather valued the traditional gender roles in their society. Also, in Burkina Faso, women did not appreciate new working times and tasks because they experienced a shortage of time to perform all their tasks (International Fund for Agricultural Development (IFAD), 2008). Finally, the departure of parents or husbands can cause feelings of loneliness and emptiness in remaining household members. Especially in the case of long-term migration, family structures and relationships can erode, and children can get feelings of abandonment or rejection when they never see their father or mother (World Bank, 2008).

2.5. Conceptual Framework of the Study

This study intended to use the basic concepts of the sustainable livelihood (SL) framework as the main building block of this study which are integrated with the perspectives of the “New” Economics of Labor Migration (NELM) approaches/theory; which is the anchor theory of this study to explain the relationships amongst the various variables to be studied. On the one hand, as stated earlier the NELM approach/theory recognizes the household as the unit of rural-out migration decision-making according to the incentives and constraints it faces (Deshingkar & Start, 2003).

The New Economics of Labor Migration (NELM) framework of analysis addresses the multiplicity of factors which underlie the decision to migrate and the possible effects of migration on migrant origin households/areas (Taylor, 1991). On the other hand, from the livelihood framework context, sustainable livelihoods are achieved through access to a range of livelihood resources which are referred to as ‘assets’ or ‘capitals’. Moreover, the things that people do by using the asset base owned or accessed in pursuit of a living are referred to in the

livelihood framework as livelihood ‘activities or strategies’(Chambers & Conway, 1992; Ellis, 2000; Scoones, 1998).

This study examines migration as a strategy for diversifying livelihoods among rural households in the Ankasha District of the Amhara Region. It is recognized that rural households engage in migration as a means to enhance their standard of living. The concept proposed is that migrating out of rural areas provides opportunities for engaging in a range of activities that are, to varying degrees, geographically distant from the households' original residence. Ellis (2003) suggests that individuals' efforts to improve their livelihoods yield specific outcomes: higher or lower material welfare (human capital), reduced or raised vulnerability to food insecurity (physical capital), improving or degrading environmental degrading environmental resources (natural capital), and so on. Equally important, this context applies to rural-out migration (the subject under study) undertaken by rural households, it may as well result in enhanced or worsened livelihoods of sending households.

These two approaches/frameworks i.e. the sustainable livelihoods framework and NELM framework of analysis have been adapted for this study due to the fact that the main aim of the study is to assess the outcomes of rural-out migration on the livelihood of the rural sending households. Since in the NELM context the decision to migrate is made by the household and the fact that migration as a livelihood strategy may have positive or negative outcomes to the livelihoods (asset /capital) of sending households, the relationships amongst the two key concepts in the study necessitated the adoption of the two approaches. Thus, based on the relationships of the variables established in these two approaches, the study conceptual model as displayed in Figure 2.1 is developed.

Rural-Out Migration as a Livelihood Diversification Strategy to Rural Households: A Study of Ankasha District of Amhara Regional State; Ethiopia

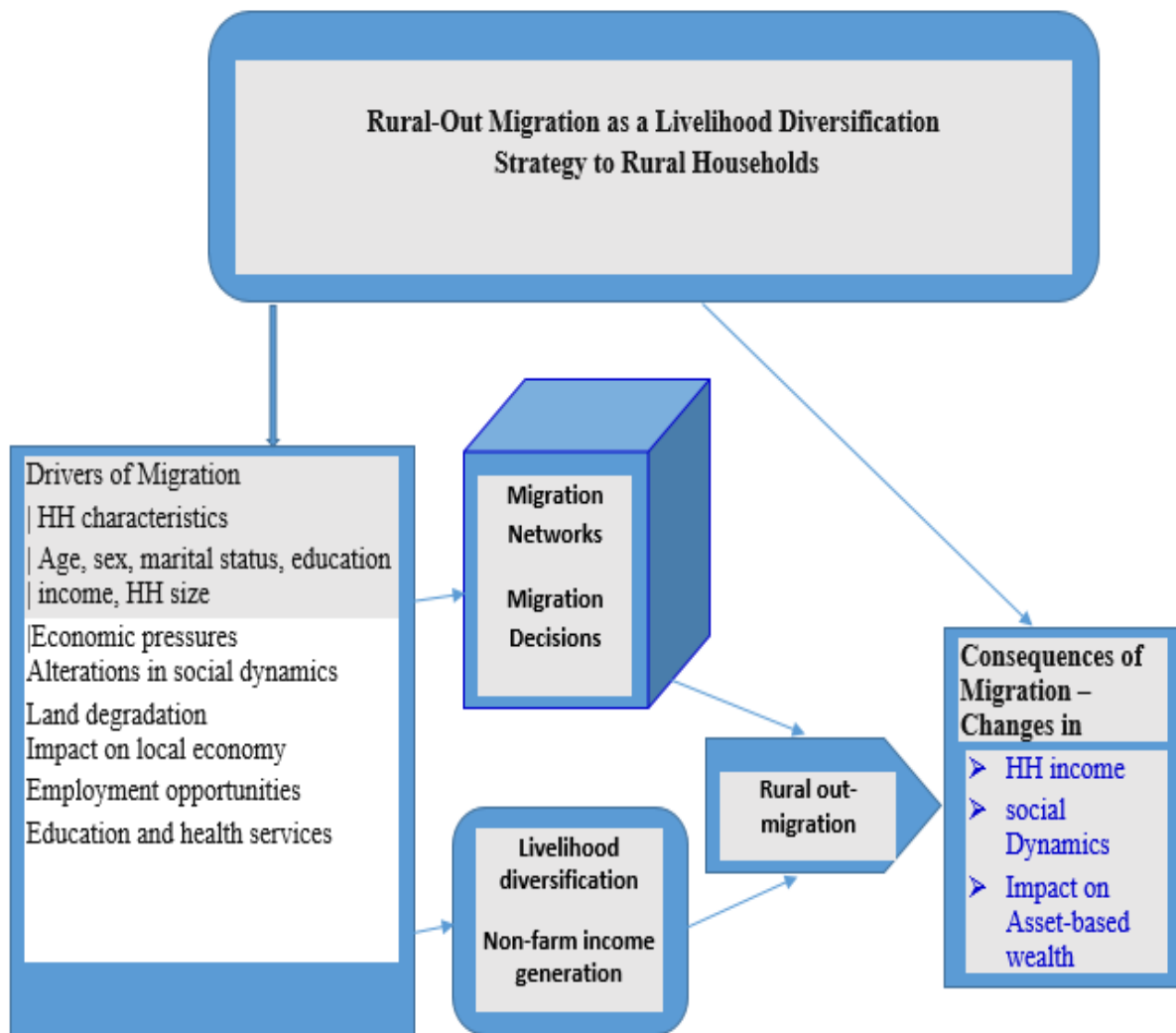


Figure 2.1: Conceptual Framework of the Study

[Developed by the author based on Literature]

This Conceptual Framework illustrates the flow from the drivers of migration through the livelihood strategies that rural households may adopt, leading to various consequences of migration. Each component can be further detailed with specific factors relevant to the Study Area’s context.

The conceptual framework presented in figure 2.1 for this study is grounded in two key theoretical approaches: the Sustainable Livelihoods Approach (SLA) and the New Economics of Labor Migration (NELM) theory.

Sustainable Livelihoods Approach (SLA)

The Sustainable Livelihoods Approach (SLA) underscores the significance of grasping the assets, capabilities, and strategies that rural households utilize to attain sustainable livelihoods. Within the context of this study, the SLA provides a comprehensive framework to analyze the various livelihood assets, encompassing human, social, financial, physical, and natural capital, that influence rural households' decision to engage in out-migration. Additionally, the SLA helps to identify the contextual factors, such as policies, institutions, and vulnerability that shape the livelihood strategies of rural households.

New Economics of Labor Migration (NELM) Theory

The New Economics of Labor Migration (NELM) theory posits that migration decisions are not made solely by individual actors, but are instead influenced by the household as a unit. This theory suggests that rural households may use out-migration as a strategic response to diversify their income sources, manage risks, and overcome constraints in the local economy.

The NELM framework helps to elucidate the household-level dynamics and motivations driving rural-to-urban migration. This includes understanding the role of remittances sent back by migrant household members and the potential impact on the overall well-being of the sending household.

Rather than viewing migration as an individual choice, NELM theory considers the household as the key decision-making unit. Households may strategically deploy members to work in other locations as a means of income diversification and risk management in the face of limitations in the local economy..

CHAPTER THREE

3. MIGRATION AS A STRATEGY FOR LIVELIHOOD INCOME DIVERSIFICATION AMONG RURAL HOUSEHOLDS IN ETHIOPIA: A COMPARATIVE ANALYSIS

Abstract

Sustainable livelihoods are strongly associated with migration, a complex yet diverse phenomenon. Migration offers economic benefits to sending households, including remittances, income source diversification, social network access, and skill acquisition. Despite evidence of its positive economic impact, research on migration's effect on livelihood diversification is limited. This study compares livelihood strategies between migrant-sending and non-sending rural households using a cross-sectional design, and involved 740 randomly selected households from six Kebeles in Ankasha, Amhara. The Berger-Parker formula computed the livelihood strategy index. Blinder-Oaxaca decomposition of linear regression compared strategies between groups. Sending households scored one unit higher on average than non-sending ones. Wealth inequality primarily contributed to the gap. Eliminating wealth disparity widened the gap, offset by the coefficient effect. Younger household heads struggled more with effective strategies. Migrant-sending households exhibited more diversified strategies, with wealth disparity explaining differences. Policies improving economic conditions can enhance household capabilities to navigate challenges.

Keywords: Migration, livelihood Diversification, Comparative Analysis, Ankasha, Amhara, Ethiopia

3.1. Introduction

Migration and sustainable development are intricately linked, influencing each other in a reciprocal relationship. The source elucidates that SDG goals one and eight closely related to migration with particular focus on understanding push and pull factors and achieving improved and sustainable living standards (Aniche, 2020). The implications of migration for sustainable development are complex, with potential contributions to sustainability transitions (Adger, et. al., 2002). Environmental factors, such as degradation and population growth, can significantly impact migration, necessitating a comprehensive approach to prevention. Despite differences in views, both sending and receiving countries can benefit from migration, with migrants being potential contributors to economic growth (Faozanudin, 2021). Moreover, it is also to be noted that migration contributes to livelihoods and, thus, to sustainable development (Aniche, 2020).

In Ethiopia, migration has emerged as a rapidly expanding and complex phenomenon with multifaceted dimensions. As with global migration trends, the study of migration in Ethiopia has garnered significant attention from scholars seeking to comprehend its various dynamics. While many researchers have concentrated on exploring the underlying causes and motivations behind migration, a notable gap in knowledge remains regarding the effects of migration on the individuals and communities left behind in the process (H. de Haas, 2010; Mendola, 2012). While it is essential to acknowledge and appreciate the scholarly and policy analyses that focus on understanding the causes of migration, it is equally crucial to adopt a comprehensive approach beyond merely examining the causes of migration. In order to fully comprehend the phenomenon of migration, it is essential to analyze its various dimensions, including the effects it has on the regions, communities, and households from which migrants originate.

There has been little research on the effects of rural outmigration on developing-country communities. For instance, Sunam (2017) examined the effects of outmigration on rural households' non-agricultural income sources and found significant changes in their livelihood strategies. Additionally, Sunam and McCarthy (2015) explored the impact of outmigration on agricultural labour supply and identified notable shifts in the availability and composition of

labour in rural areas. Furthermore, the feminization of agriculture has been another consequence of rural outmigration. Gartaula, Niehof, and Visser (2010) conducted a study highlighting the disproportionate burden placed on women in agricultural activities due to male outmigration. Similarly, Martini, Goldey, Jones, and Bailey (2003) also discussed the feminization of agriculture due to rural outmigration. Moreover, rural outmigration has been associated with growing inequality and differentiation within developing-country communities. Sunam and McCarthy (2015) investigated this aspect and found that outmigration contributed to increasing disparities among migrant-sending and non-sending households and communities.

Some African studies have also highlighted the importance of outmigration in enhancing household food security (Obi, C.; Bartolini, F.; D’Haese, 2020; Sulemana, I.; Anarfo, E.; Quartey, 2019), facilitating development projects (Ajaero, C.; Onokala, 2013), causing agricultural labour loss (A. Adaku, 2013), and exacerbating income inequality (Anyanwu, 2011a). Rural outmigration may have significant implications for migrant-sending communities. The recognition of migration as a crucial development concern in the 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development serves as an optimistic indication that further exploration of migration within the framework of the development agenda is warranted (IOM, 2018). In Ethiopia, a nation with a population exceeding 100 million individuals, second only to Nigeria in terms of population size (World Bank, 2020), migration holds substantial economic significance. It contributes to approximately 85% of employment opportunities, 42% of the Gross Domestic Product, and approximately 90% of export earnings (CSA, 2023). These statistics underscore migration's profound impact on Ethiopia's economy and make it imperative to understand the additional effects of rural outmigration on the communities from which migrants originate.

In Ethiopia, labor migration has experienced significant growth in recent decades, primarily due to various structural factors that influence the country's economy and society. This trend is evident in the escalating numbers of individuals leaving rural areas to seek opportunities in urban centres. Between 2005 and 2013, the percentage of rural-to-urban migration witnessed an increase from 24% to 33% (FDRE, 2014). A more recent survey by the Ethiopia Statistics Service (2021), excluding data from the Tigray region due to exceptional circumstances, revealed

that rural-to-urban migration in the country stood at approximately 29%. This figure demonstrates that the migration trend persists and continues to shape the demographic landscape of Ethiopia. Approximately two million Ethiopians are estimated to live and work abroad, but this figure may be significantly understated, especially given the recent increase in outmigration (ILO, 2017).

Migration represents a multifaceted and intricate phenomenon intricately intertwined with sustainable livelihoods and development. McDowell (1997) offers a thought-provoking challenge to the prevalent assumption of sedentary lifestyles as the norm, shedding light on the diverse forms of migration and the institutional factors that shape it. Mistri (2013) emphasizes the pivotal role of migration in mitigating vulnerability to environmental and non-environmental stressors, particularly within the context of diminishing natural resources. Tanle (2015) puts forth an integrated framework for comprehensively analyzing the intricate connections between migration and livelihoods, particularly emphasizing the influence of institutional structures and vulnerability. Adger, et al.; (2002) delves into the repercussions of migration and remittances on social resilience and sustainable development in coastal Vietnam, discovering that these factors can both bolster and undermine the diversification of livelihoods. Collectively, these studies underscore the imperative of comprehending the intricate interplay between migration, livelihoods, and sustainable development.

As a fundamental approach to securing a sustainable livelihood, households engage in different income generating activities depending on their socio-ecological contexts. The practice of livelihood diversification through temporary migration, although a primitive practice, has experienced growth due to the impacts of climate change, globalization, and development (Biswas & Mallick, 2021). Despite the abundance of evidence demonstrating the positive economic effects of migration on sending households, there is a relative scarcity of research focused specifically on the impact of migration on livelihood diversification strategies. Therefore, the primary objective of this study is to address this research gap by conducting a

comparative analysis of the livelihood diversification strategies employed by migrant sending and non-sending rural households.

3.2. Methods and Materials

The study was conducted in Ankasha Woreda, Amhara National Regional State. The main outcome variable of the study was households' livelihood strategy. The livelihood strategy index (LSI) was computed using the Berger Parker formula (Endler & Parker, 1990; Maxwell, 2008). First, seven indicators for livelihood strategy including migration were prepared. These included various livelihood strategies adopted by households, such as off-farm wage, livestock keeping, fishing related activities, off-farm self-employment, working in development projects, casual laboring, and migrant sending households and non-farm activities. Secondly, weights were assigned to these indicators based on their relative frequency across sending/non-sending status. Finally, the weighted sum of the indicators yielded the score for the livelihood strategy index that measures the overall level of livelihood strategies of households. The resulting values are non-negative real values that were taken as continuous variable. A list of explanatory variables were included in the analysis: from individual specific variables – the age of the respondent, sex of the household head, parental education, the respondent's employment status, and marital status – and from household characteristics – household size and wealth were included.

Data cleaning, management and analysis were carried out using STATA version 17. To illustrate the socio-demographic characteristics of the respondents, descriptive analysis techniques were employed. This involved examining and summarizing key variables to provide an overview of the demographic and social factors within the study population. A linear regression model was fit separately for sending and non-sending households for LSI. Thereafter, the Blinder-Oaxaca decomposition analysis was used to split the gap in LSI between the two groups. The Blinder-Oaxaca decomposition technique splits the overall gap in LSI into two parts of migrant sending and non-sending households. The first component is referred to as the endowment effect; it extracts part of the gap that is attributable to differences in characteristics of the two groups. The second part referred to as the coefficient or structural effect shows the discriminatory effect of the covariates and the effects of unknown factors (Jann, 2008; Kaiser, 2015). In our analysis, the coefficients for the pooled model were considered the non-discriminatory coefficients or

reference coefficients. It should be noted that the decomposition of the gap was made from the viewpoint of migrant sending households. A p-value of 5% was used to declare statistical significance in the analysis.

3.3. Results

The analysis was conducted using data collected from a sample of 740 households residing in the Ankasha district, covering six randomly selected Kebeles. The survey results revealed that a significant proportion of the individuals who participated in the study fell into the middle-aged category, accounting for approximately 30.1% of the total respondents. Additionally, a majority of the participants were adults aged 50 or older, comprising 52.6% of the overall sample. Furthermore, the study found that an overwhelming majority of the households represented in the survey were headed by males, constituting approximately 97.0% of the total households. Moreover, when examining the family sizes included in the study, it was observed that half of the households surveyed fell into the category of medium-sized families, making up approximately 50.8% of the sample (Table 3.1).

A substantial majority of the respondents were married at the time of the survey (83.6%) and attended a primary level of education (94.7%). The primary source of income for the households in the area was agriculture, accounting for a significant majority of the households (88.2%). This indicates that the majority of families relied heavily on farming, cultivating crops or raising livestock to sustain their livelihoods. Despite the predominant agricultural focus, a small fraction of the households pursued a non-agricultural occupation as their main means of livelihood. Nearly two in five (38.0%) of the households had lower level of asset-based wealth while a third of the households were classified as well off (33.2%) (Table 3.1).

Table 3.1: Background characteristics respondents and migrants

Variables and categories	No.	Percent
Age of respondent		
<30	32	4.3
30-39	96	13.0
40-49	223	30.1
50+	389	52.6
Female headed household		
No	718	97.0
Yes	22	3.0
Current marital status of the respondent		
No	121	16.4
Yes	619	83.6
Household size category		
<=4	220	29.7
5-7	376	50.8
8+	144	19.5
Educational level of the respondent		
None	11	1.5
Primary	701	94.7
Secondary+	28	3.8
Occupation of the respondent		
Agriculture	653	88.2
Non-Agriculture	41	5.5
Others	46	6.2
Asset based wealth		
Low	281	38.0
Middle	213	28.8
High	246	33.2

Both migrant sending and non-sending households in the area employed a range of livelihood strategies beyond agriculture to sustain themselves. These strategies included off-farm wage labor, livestock keeping, fishing, off-farm self-employment, casual laboring, and working in development projects. The average values for the livelihood strategy index (LSI) were compared for the sending and non-sending groups of households. The mean comparison test conducted on the livelihood strategy index scores revealed a statistically significant difference between non-sending households and sending households. Specifically, the results indicated that the average livelihood strategy index score for non-sending households was approximately one unit smaller compared to the sending households (Table 3.2).

Table 3.2: Patterns of livelihood strategies employed by sending and non-sending households

Livelihood strategies		Households	
		Non-sending (%) (N = 497)	Sending (%) (N = 243)
Off-farm wage (farm related work, but not working on own farm)		60.4	39.6
Livestock keeping (for payment)		63.1	36.9
Fishing related activities		65.0	35.0
Off-farm self-employment (running shop, sewing cloths etc.)		64.6	35.4
Working in development projects in the area		67.0	33.0
Casual laboring		66.6	33.4
Migrant sending households		0.0	100.0
Livelihood Strategy Index	Mean (SE)	3.6 (0.11)	4.3 (0.08)
	P-value (T-test)	0.000	

The livelihood strategy index score was found to be consistently lower by an average of one unit for households headed by youths when compared to those headed by older individuals. Furthermore, when examining the specific subset of migrant non-sending households, this relationship between age and livelihood strategy index scores was even more pronounced. In these particular households, the disparity in livelihood strategy between youths and older individuals was notably greater in magnitude (β (*Sending*) = **-0.78** and β (*Non-Sending*) = **-1.15**). Contrarily, the score was significantly higher for migrant-sending households headed by young and middle-aged persons than older individuals. Such difference was not statistically noticeable among the migrant non-sending households (β (*Sending*) – *Age 30-39* = **0.61** and β (*Sending*) – *Age 40-49* = **0.47**). Another interesting finding reported in this analysis was the striking similarity in livelihood strategy of male and female-headed households in the context of both the migrant-sending and non-sending households (Table 3.3).

In analyzing the livelihood strategies of households, particularly in the context of migrant sending and non-sending households, it is observed that households primarily relying on the sale

of livestock and livestock products exhibit a more diversified livelihood strategy compared to farmers. Notably, this association is even more pronounced within the context of migrant non-sending households (β (*Sending*) = 0.56 and β (*Non-Sending*) = 1.69). Although the association lacks statistical significance, an increase in the size of landholding among migrant non-sending reduced the score of livelihood strategy. Additionally, it is worth noting that the asset-based wealth of households plays a crucial role in bolstering their livelihood strategies, particularly in the case of migrant non-sending households. In this context, households possessing medium to high levels of asset-based wealth exhibit significantly higher diversified livelihood strategy scores compared to households with low asset-based wealth (β (*Middle*) = 2.23 and β (*High*) = 2.82) (Table 3.3).

The occupation of the household plays a crucial role in determining the livelihood strategies of migrant non-sending households. When examining the relationship between occupation and livelihood strategies, it was found that households headed by individuals involved in the non-agricultural sector tended to have diversified livelihood strategy scores compared to those engaged in agriculture-related livelihoods (β (*Non-agricultural occupation*) = 0.89). In the context of migrant non-sending households, we observed that household heads with a primary level of education had a reduced score on livelihood strategies than households headed by better-educated individuals. In addition, among the migrant non-sending households, married household heads are better off devising diversified livelihood strategies than those not in marital union at the time of the survey (Table 3.3).

Table 3.3: Results of OLS regression for the determinants of livelihood strategies among migrant-sending and non-sending households

Variables and categories	Sending (N = 243)				Non-Sending (N = 497)			
	β	p-value	95% CI		β	p-value	95% CI	
Age of respondent								
<30	-0.78	0.02	-1.44	-0.11	-1.15	0.02	-2.15	-0.16
30-39	0.61	0.04	0.03	1.20	0.06	0.84	-0.51	0.63
40-49	0.47	0.02	0.07	0.87	0.19	0.38	-0.24	0.61
50+[<i>Ref</i>]	0.00				0.00			
Female-headed household	-0.02	0.97	-1.22	1.17	0.80	0.14	-0.26	1.85
Respondents married at the time of the survey	0.06	0.79	-0.40	0.53	0.60	0.03	0.07	1.14
Household size category								
<=4	0.18	0.32	-0.18	0.54	0.31	0.19	-0.15	0.78
5-7[<i>Ref</i>]	0.00				0.00			
8+	-0.31	0.12	-0.69	0.08	0.13	0.61	-0.39	0.66
The educational level of the respondent								
None	-1.13	0.18	-2.78	0.52	0.98	0.28	-0.82	2.79
Primary	-1.00	0.02	-1.82	-0.18	0.35	0.49	-0.65	1.36
Secondary+[<i>Ref</i>]	0.00				0.00			
Occupation of the respondent								
Agriculture[<i>Ref</i>]	0.00				0.00			
Non-Agriculture	0.26	0.43	-0.39	0.92	0.89	0.04	0.05	1.74
Others	-0.06	0.84	-0.68	0.55	-0.93	0.03	-1.76	-0.09
Asset-based wealth								
Low[<i>Ref</i>]	0.00				0.00			
Middle	0.13	0.66	-0.47	0.74	2.23	0.00	1.60	2.86
High	0.03	0.93	-0.57	0.62	2.82	0.00	2.18	3.46
Landholding	-0.02	0.93	-0.35	0.32	-0.44	0.05	-0.87	-0.00
The main source of income								
Selling agricultural products/farming[<i>Ref</i>]	0.00				0.00			
Selling livestock and livestock products	0.56	0.03	0.04	1.08	1.69	0.00	1.03	2.35
Other	0.45	0.53	-0.96	1.86	-0.34	0.30	-0.98	0.31

[*Ref*] = Reference category

The decomposition analysis conducted in the study shed light on the factors contributing to the variance in livelihood strategies between migrant-sending and non-sending households. The results indicated that among the various demographic and socio-economic factors examined, the primary driver of the observed discrepancy was households' asset-based wealth. The effect of asset-based wealth of households on livelihood strategies resulted from both characteristic differential between the groups and structural. As shown in the figure below, migrant-sending households are predominantly from low asset-based wealth category households. This characteristic differential explained the livelihood strategy discrepancy between the sending and non-sending households ($\beta (Wealth) = 1.46, p\text{-value} = 0.000$). Additionally, it was observed that the coefficient effect played a role in reducing the disparity in livelihood strategy between migrant non-sending and migrant-sending households ($\beta (Wealth) = -0.84, p\text{-value} = 0.000$) (Figure 3.1).

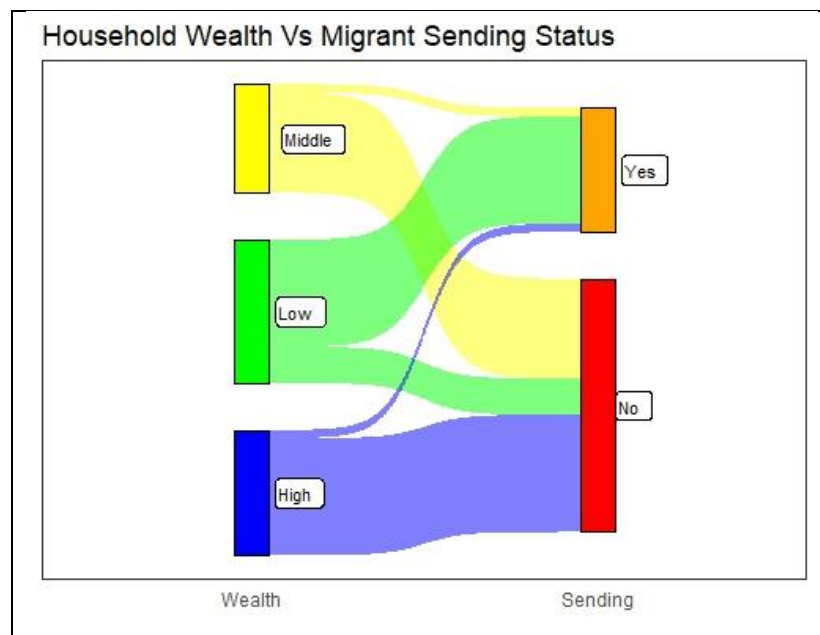


Figure 3.1: Household Wealth by Migrant Sending Households Status

3.4. Discussion

The study aimed to document and analyse the livelihood strategies adopted by rural households in the Ankasha district. More specifically, the study sought to compare the livelihood

diversification strategies of rural migrant-sending and non-sending households. The findings reveal a noteworthy discrepancy in the livelihood diversification strategy between migrant-sending and non-sending households. It was observed that migrant-sending households exhibited a higher score in terms of livelihood diversification strategies compared to their non-sending counterparts. This disparity suggests that rural households engaging in out-migration tend to adopt a more diverse range of income-generating activities to sustain their livelihoods. Moreover, the study identified a significant factor contributing to the variation in livelihood strategy scores between migrant-sending and non-sending rural households. The asset-based household wealth was shown to explain the gap in livelihood strategy score between migrant-sending and non-sending rural households.

The findings show that rural households use migration to diversify livelihood strategies to sustain their livelihood and navigate economic shocks. Challenges faced by rural households that depend on rain-fed agriculture as their primary livelihood are manifold and can significantly impact their economic stability and overall well-being. These challenges stem from the inherent vulnerability of rain-fed agriculture to climate variability and other factors. However, individuals in such households often adopt coping strategies to enhance their resilience and improve their livelihoods. Migration has emerged as one such strategy, extensively discussed in the literature, due to its potential benefits, especially regarding receiving remittances (Jha et al., 2018; Paumgarten et al., 2020). Consistent with prior research in Ethiopia and elsewhere, the finding of this study reported that migration is perceived as a livelihood diversification strategy by some rural households. Migrant-sending households may have diversified income sources due to the remittances received (Mago, 2018a; Wiederkehr et al., 2018). This diversification makes them less reliant on limited income sources, making them more resilient when faced with economic shocks.

Younger heads of migrant sending and non-sending households are less likely to engage in multiple income-generating activities or adopt different approaches to secure their livelihoods when compared to their older counterparts. Contrarily, an inverse relationship between age and livelihood diversification was reported in a study conducted in Ethiopia's Somali and Amhara regional states (Alemu, 2023; Yussuf & Mohamed, 2022). In recent publications on the link

between age and extent of livelihood diversification in Assossa district and Afar region, on the other hand, null findings were reported (Ayana et al., 2022; Melketo et al., 2021). To add to this, in a study conducted in North Shoa zone of Amhara regional state among urban households, Emeru and colleagues (2022) reported that the likelihood of positive livelihood diversification increases as ages of household heads rise. The available body of literature provides evidence that there have been no definitive findings linking the age of household heads to diversified livelihood strategies. Regardless, the likely explanation is that younger individuals may have limited knowledge and experience to manage multiple livelihood strategies. It may also be possible that younger heads lack social networks in the community, making it challenging for them to establish partnerships necessary for livelihood diversification.

Among the migrant non-sending households, wealthier households were more likely to engage in diversified livelihood strategies than poor households. Whereas among the migrant-sending households, the affluent and economically disadvantaged households had a comparable degree of engagement in income-generating activities. The decision to send a migrant did not necessarily lead to a significant divergence in the livelihood strategies of different socioeconomic groups within the sending households. Contrary to our finding, a study on livelihood diversification from rural Laos reported that an improved asset status of households increased their income-generating potential and unlocked migration opportunities (Martin & Lorenzen, 2016). These findings indicate the complex interplay between the study community's wealth distribution, migration, and household livelihood strategies.

The decomposition analysis provided a valuable tool to delve deeper into the intricate dynamics and interactions among wealth distribution, migration patterns, and livelihood diversification. By breaking down livelihood diversification into its constituent parts, we gained a more comprehensive understanding of the underlying mechanism of the influence of wealth on livelihood diversification. Our finding revealed that the differential distribution of asset-based wealth of households contributed to the widening gap in the level of livelihood diversification strategies between migrant-sending and non-sending households. Migrant-sending households are poorer and often have access to additional sources of income through remittances. These remittances can significantly bolster the financial resources available to migrant-sending

households, enabling them to invest in education, healthcare, and other forms of human capital development. Consequently, these households are better equipped to withstand economic shocks and implement diversified livelihood strategies (Sikder et al., 2017). It is expected that household wealth inequality widens the gap in the livelihood diversification strategies of sending and non-sending households. At the same time, our work showed that the return rate of wealth was observed in offsetting the ever-widening gap in coping strategies of rural households.

3.5. Conclusions

Migrant-sending households showed better resilience in sustaining their livelihood. Contrarily, young household heads who lack experience and resources are more likely to be adversely affected by economic fluctuations or unexpected events. Similarly, poor households, characterized by limited financial resources and lower socio-economic status, are more vulnerable to livelihood shocks than their wealthier counterparts. The research findings indicate that the level of wealth possessed by migrant non-sending households is the main factor influencing the number of livelihood strategies they employ. Further decomposition analysis by sending and non-sending households also confirmed that household wealth is a significant cause of variations in the intensity of livelihood diversification strategies. These findings suggest that addressing the economic vulnerabilities of young household heads and poor households could help improve their ability to cope with livelihood shocks. Additionally, efforts could be made to provide targeted support and resources to younger household heads, such as training programs, access to credit, and networking opportunities, to enhance their ability to engage in various income-generating activities. The study will contribute to a better understanding of the livelihood diversification strategies employed by rural households in the study area and beyond.

CHAPTER FOUR

4. PREDICTORS OF MIGRATION DECISION IN RECENT POPULATION MOBILITY FROM ANKASHA DISTRICT, AMHARA REGIONAL STATE, ETHIOPIA¹

Abstract

Migration has a global impact, affecting individuals, communities, and countries. Research indicates that rural migration can enhance household livelihoods by increasing remittances and alleviating land pressure in origin areas. This study aimed to identify key factors influencing migration decisions. The study examined 740 households, randomly selected from six Kebeles in Ethiopia's Ankasha district. Both migrant-sending and non-sending households were included. Binary logistic regression analysis determined the primary predictors of migration decisions. Results showed that migration decisions were predominantly collective household choices rather than individual ones. Households with heads aged 40-49 and 30-39 were respectively 75% and 55% more likely to migrate. Female-headed households had a lower likelihood of sending migrants compared to those with male heads. Larger households were more inclined to migrate than medium and small-sized households. Furthermore, medium and high-wealth-class households were less likely to send migrants than those in the lower-wealth class. In conclusion, household composition, structure, household head's age, and economic deprivation significantly influenced migration decisions in the study area. The findings underscore the importance of further comprehensive research that considers individual and societal factors to better comprehend the complexities of migration decision-making in both origin and destination contexts.

Keywords: Rural out-migration, neo-classical economics, life course approaches, Ankasha, Ethiopia.

1

4.1. Introduction

Migration is a global phenomenon that has significant implications for individuals, communities, and nations (Mago, 2018b). Literature on migration in developing countries suggests that an increasing number of people worldwide are migrating to improve or secure their livelihoods. Most of these historical population mobilities are often the result of a combination of push factors (such as conflict, poverty, disaster etc.) and pull factors, for instance job opportunities (Massey et al., 1994; Stark & Bloom, 1985). Ethiopia is one of the largest sources of migrants in Africa, with an estimated 839,000 Ethiopians migrating abroad in the past five years, mainly to the Middle East and Gulf countries (Ethiopia Statistics Service, 2021). The main drivers of migration from Ethiopia include poverty, unemployment, and lack of opportunities, environmental degradation, political instability, and human rights violations (Ethiopia Statistics Service, 2021; Mago, 2018b).

Migration from Ethiopia has both positive and negative effects on the migrants themselves, their families, and their communities. It enhance the income, education, health, and social status of migrants and their families, as well as contribute to the development of their origin and destination countries through their labor, remittances, skills transfer, and investment (Mago, 2018b; Wondimagegnhu & Zeleke, 2017). On the other hand, some migration types (such as illegal migration, child migration, forced migration etc.) can expose migrants to various risks and challenges, such as exploitation, abuse, trafficking, smuggling, discrimination, and irregular status, as well as create social and psychological problems for the migrants and their families left behind (Ethiopia Statistics Service, 2021; Mago, 2018b).

Theoretical issues about determinants/predictors of migration are commonly explored at either the macro, meso, or the micro level. The micro-level theory focuses on individual level migration decisions. The second level of migration theory deals with macro-level one which explains human migration in aggregate trends. At the third level, there are also theories that explain issues lying between micro and macro-levels which explain migration at household and community levels. Traditional micro-economic models of migration were founded on theories relating to individual optimizing behavior. For instance, a number of earlier studies view rural-urban migration as a result of large differences in employment opportunities and income between

rural and urban settings. Individuals are likely to migrate when the expected economic benefits exceed the economic costs. Todaro (1976a) argues that people migrate from rural to urban areas if the expected wage differential is larger, even if the unemployment rate in urban destination areas is higher than origin. This entails that potential migrants calculate their expected earnings in their place of origin in comparison to various places of destination.

The “new economics of migration”, views migration as a means by which the household spreads risks. In this model, households or families are seen as the principal agents in migration decision-making (Stark, 1991). For example, family structure, family migrant network, and family resources are more important in determining individual migration, whereas family and kin ties to the place of origin play a more critical role in family migration (De Jong, 2000; De Jong et al., 1996). The new economics of migration also suggests that migration can have positive feedback effects on the origin areas through remittances, investments, social networks, and diffusion of ideas and norms (Clemens, 2017). In Ethiopia, there has been massive internal migration during the last few decades. Increased population, climate change, and environmental degradation, vulnerability to food shortages (IFAD, 2016a; World Bank, 2019a), socio-demographic and political transition (Redehegn et al., 2019), recurrent drought and famine, war and political crisis (Abate, 2002; Ezra, 1997) are the major factors responsible for spatial mobility.

Studies on migration in Ethiopia are scarce and mainly focus on urban areas, i.e., mostly data collected at the place of destination due to the complex nature of the subject. A recent study carried out by (Bundervoet, 2018b; Schewel & Asmamaw, 2021; Soto Nishimura & Czaika, 2023). We have limited data on migration dynamics, especially on migration decisions and impacts at the place of destination and origin (Bundervoet, 2018b). Given this, the present study opted for answering the following two questions: “*What are the key predictors of migration decisions in the study area and similar context?*” And “*Is migration a household or individual decision?*”. The analysis in this study was made based on primary data collected from Ankasha district, Amhara region, Ethiopia (Schewel & Asmamaw, 2021).

4.2. Materials and Methods

The study was conducted in Ankasha district, located in Amhara Regional State, the second most populous region of Ethiopia. Currently, it comprises one smaller town named Agaw Gimja Bet - the capital of the district and 16 rural kebeles. According to the 2007 Population and Housing Census report of Ethiopia, the district had a total population of 199,826 inhabitants. Of these, males constitute 99,285(49.7%) and the majority of them are residing in areas designated as rural. The district is well noted for its intensive agricultural practices and cropping systems (Samson Tsegaye Mekasha et al., 2020). The bulk of the data required for this study were generated from household survey of migrant sending and non-sending households residing in the district using household survey questionnaire. The study employed cross sectional study design with qualitative and quantitative approaches. In such design, data are collected at a specific point in time in the lives of the respondents. Such design is commonly used when the primary interest is to estimate prevalence than studying cause-effect relationship.

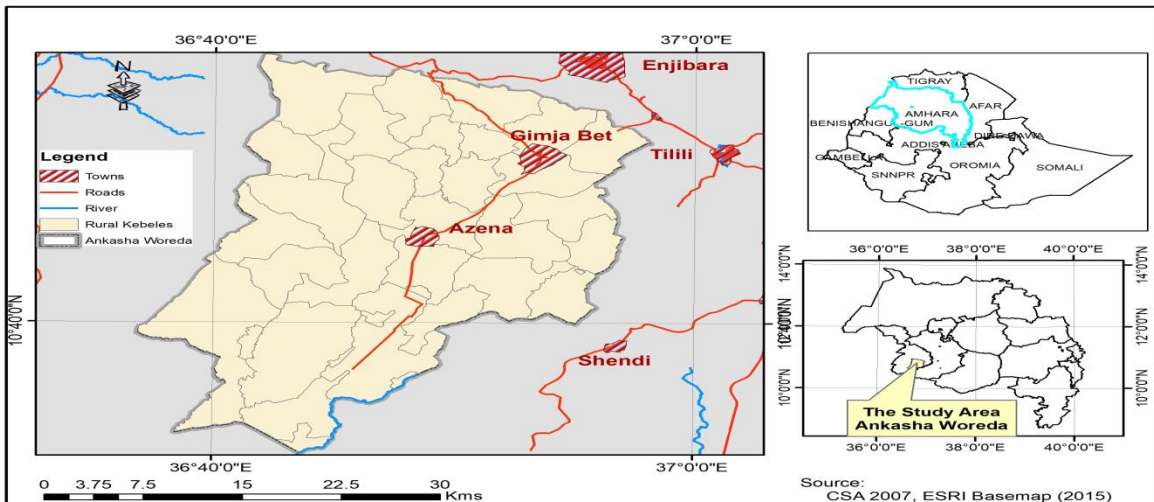


Figure 4.1: Map of Ankasha District

The estimation of the sample size was done using Yamane (1967) formula which yielded a total sample size of 740 households. The 740 sample households were selected using multistage sampling technique. First, six rural Kebeles were selected purposively. According to Woreda Labor and Social Affairs Office (2022), these Kebeles are identified and documented by their intensity of out migration. Second, sub-villages (*gotts*) from each kebele were identified. At the

second stage, based on a complete listing of households, eligible households were selected randomly based on Population Proportion to Size (PPS), size being the number of households in the sample Kebeles.

The data collection procedure included recruitment of field workers, translation of data collection tools, training of field staff, piloting, and debriefing, and field data collection. A field manual was prepared and used for training of the field staff. We arranged two days of intensive training and 1-day pretesting sessions prior to data collection. The outcome variable of the study was migration decision coded as 1 if a household had at least one out-migrant and 0 otherwise. The exposure variables were categorized into two major groups: individual and household characteristics. The individual variables included the sex of the household head, age of the respondent, parental education, respondent's employment status, and marital status. The household variables were wealth, household size, land size, and other sources of household income.

After data collection, the collected data were subjected to cleaning, management and analysis using STATA version 17 software(StataCorp, 2021). Descriptive analysis was employed to portray the sociodemographic characteristics of the respondents. The hypothesized relationship between selected explanatory variables and the outcome variable, migration decision – a binary variable, was examined using binary logistic regression(Pampel, 2020). Correlations among the explanatory variables was checked using the Variance Inflation Factor (VIF). Initially, bivariate binary logistic regression was conducted to select the most promising explanatory variables for the multivariable regression analysis. Variables with a p-value<0.20 in the bivariate analysis were entered in the multivariable analysis. We used a 95% confidence interval along with a 5% cut-off values for p-values to declare significant association between predictors and the outcome variable.

4.3. Results

The present analysis was conducted using data obtained from survey that involved a total of 740 households. The results portray that half of the respondents were elderlies of age 50 and above (52.6%). The survey also included participants within the age bracket of 40 to 49 years, comprising approximately three in ten respondents. Furthermore, it was noted that respondents of

age less than 30 years made up almost one in twenty (4.3%). The analysis of the survey data revealed that female-headed households accounted for only 3% of the total households surveyed. This finding suggests that the area in question exhibits characteristics of a patriarchal society. At the time of the survey, a significant proportion of the respondents were in marital union (83.6%) and the remainder of them underwent marital dissolution or never married (Table 4.1).

The survey results revealed interesting findings about the composition of households in the area. Specifically, it was observed that half of the surveyed households fell into the category of middle-sized households, characterized by having a member count ranging from 5 to 7 individuals. This indicates that a significant proportion of the population in the area lived in households of moderate size. Furthermore, the survey also indicated that almost one in five households, specifically 19.5% of them, were classified as larger households. These larger households consisted of more than 7 members. In addition to middle-sized and larger households, the survey demonstrated that smaller household sizes were also prevalent in the area, constituting 30% of the surveyed households. Smaller households typically have fewer than 5 members (Table 4.1).

In terms of the highest level of educational achievement, nineteen of twenty respondents (94.7%) had a primary level of educational attainment. It is only 3.8% of the respondents that had a secondary and above level of educational attainment. It is important to note that within the surveyed group, there were also a few respondents who reported not having attended any formal schooling. A significant majority of the respondents, approximately 88.2%, relied on agriculture as the primary source of their livelihood. The high percentage of respondents whose livelihoods are connected to agriculture underscores the sector's significance in providing employment opportunities and income generation to households in the study area (Table 4.1).

When examining the distribution of wealth based on assets, it is observed that a significant proportion of households fall into different categories. Explicitly, 38.0% of households are categorized as having low asset-based wealth, while 33.2% of households are classified as having high asset-based wealth. The former may have limited financial resources and may face challenges in building wealth or accessing certain opportunities, however, the latter households

might have greater financial stability and access to a wider range of opportunities and resources (Table 4.1).

Table 4.1: Background characteristics respondents and migrants, Ankasha district, (N = 740)

Variables and categories	No.	Percent
Age of respondent		
<30	32	4.3
30-39	96	13.0
40-49	223	30.1
50+	389	52.6
Female headed household		
No	718	97.0
Yes	22	3.0
Current marital status of the respondent		
Not married	121	16.4
Married	619	83.6
Household size category		
<=4	220	29.7
5-7	376	50.8
8+	144	19.5
Educational level of the respondent		
None	11	1.5
Primary	701	94.7
Secondary+	28	3.8
Occupation of the respondent		
Agriculture	653	88.2
Non-Agriculture (such as trade)	41	5.5
Others	46	6.2
Asset based wealth		
Low	281	38.0
Middle	213	28.8
High	246	33.2

The gender differential analysis aimed to investigate whether there were notable variations between the background characteristics of male and female migrants. Upon analyzing the data, the study found that the gender differential in rural out-migration did not exhibit any statistically significant variation in terms of selected background characteristics. In other words, the study did not identify any significant differences between male and female migrants based on factors such as age, education level, occupation, household wealth, or access to information. However, despite the lack of significant variation in these background characteristics, the study yielded an intriguing discovery. The analysis uncovered a noteworthy association between the size of the households from which migrants originated and the gender of the migrants themselves (P -value = 0.038). Specifically, female rural out-migrants more likely originate from medium and high household size households while male rural migrants are more likely to originate from small and medium household sizes (

Table 4.2).

Table 4.2: Gender differential in recent rural out-migrants by household size in the study area (N = 223)

Variables and categories	Sex of migrant		P-value (Chi-square)
	Male (%)	Female (%)	
	(N = 187)	(N = 36)	
Household size category			0.038
<=4	36.9	19.4	
5-7	41.7	41.7	
8+	21.4	38.9	

The analysis also showed an assessment of the differentials of age-pattern rural out-migration. A marginally statistically significant association was witnessed between age of the household head and age of migrant. An exceedingly large proportion of the out-migrants of all age were from households whose head is an elderly. The majority of rural out-migrants possessed the advantage of having access to information about their destination areas. This access to information might allow them to make more informed decisions, plan their journey, and anticipate what to expect

upon arrival. However, it is important to note that not all rural out-migrants had the same level of privilege when it came to accessing information about their destination areas. A significant number of migrants faced limitations in obtaining such information. Such limitation is commonly observed among those who are below the age of 30 (Table 4.3).

Table 4.3: Age patterns of recent rural out-migrants by age of household head and access to information in the study area (N = 223)

Variables and categories	Age category of migrant				P-value (Chi-square)
	Young		Middle		
	Youths (N= 67)	Adults (N= 60)	30s (N= 65)	Aged (N= 31)	
Age of household head					0.052
<30	4.6	3.4	8.8	6.5	
30-39	6.2	6.8	10.3	3.2	
40-49	24.6	20.3	4.4	32.3	
50+	64.6	69.5	76.5	58.1	
Access to information					0.001
Yes	73.8	67.8	94.1	83.9	
No	26.2	32.2	5.9	16.1	

The plots presented below provide compelling evidence of a gender disparity in rural out-migration. The data clearly shows that there is a higher number of male migrants compared to females, indicating an imbalance between genders in terms of migration patterns in rural areas. Upon analyzing the sources of rural out-migration for male migrants, it becomes evident that small and medium-sized households play a significant role in contributing to the male migrant population. This implies that men from relatively smaller households are more likely to migrate from rural areas. On the other hand, the data suggests that female rural out-migrants are more commonly found in large and medium-sized households. This indicates that women from larger households are more inclined to migrate(Figure 4.2(a)).

When considering the age pattern of migration and access to information of the destination area, although the great majority of recent rural out-migrants had access to information, youths and young adults were disproportionately affected by lack of information about destination area (Figure 4.2 (b)). Similarly, the analysis reveals that migration is more likely a household decision rather than a decision made by individuals. What is more, a significant portion of these individual decisions were made in the absence of information about the destination area (Figure 4.2 (c)).

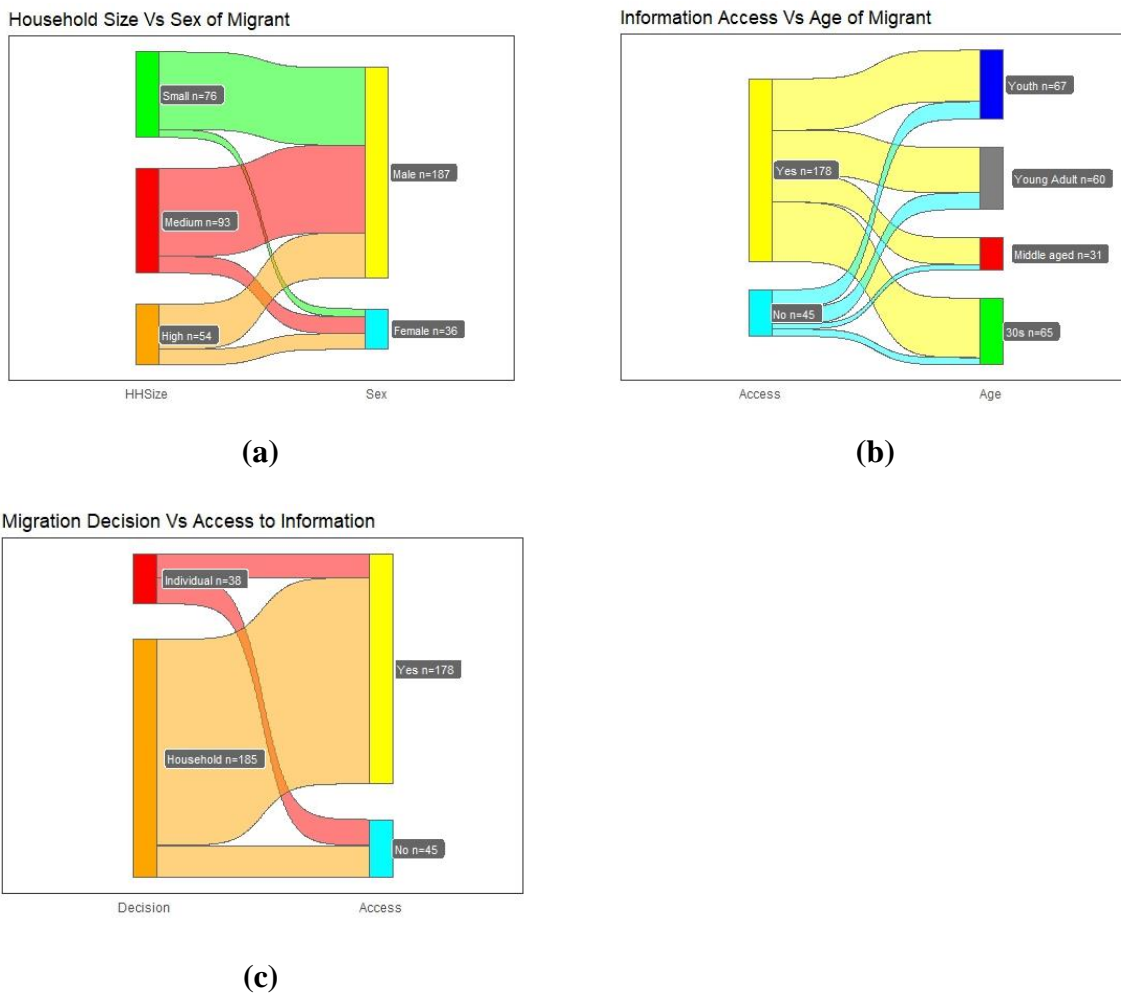


Figure 4.2: Household size, Migration Decision, Access to Information of Destination Area, and Background Characteristics of Migrants

The findings of the logistic regression analysis revealed that rural out-migrants tend to come from households with older heads. The study found that the odds of making the decision to out-migrate were significantly lower for households whose head fell within the age range of 40-49. The adjusted odds ratio (AOR) for this age group was 0.25, indicating a substantial reduction in the likelihood of out-migration compared to age groups of 50 (AOR =0.25 with a 95% CI (0.14 - 0.43)). Similarly, the age groups 30-39 have shown a reduced odds of sending out-migrants as compared to those in the age bracket of 50 years and above (AOR = 0.45 with a 95% CI (0.21, 0.99)). The analysis also revealed that the age group of 30-39 exhibited a decreased likelihood of sending out-migrants compared to households headed by individuals aged 50 years and above. The adjusted odds ratio (AOR) for this age group was 0.45, indicating a substantial reduction in the odds of out-migration when compared to the older age bracket (Table 4.4).

The analysis also examined the relationship between household head gender and the likelihood of sending out-migrants. While the results did not reach a strong level of statistical significance, there was suggestive evidence indicating that female-headed households had a reduced odds of sending out-migrants compared to households with male heads (AOR = 0.25 with a 95% CI (0.06, 1.11)). The analysis also revealed an interesting pattern regarding the association between household size and the decision to out-migrate. The findings indicated that larger families had significantly higher odds of choosing to migrate compared to medium and small-sized households. Specifically, the analysis showed that the odds of deciding to migrate were three times more likely for larger families than medium sized households (AOR = 2.97 with a 95% CI (1.55, 5.68)). This suggests that as the size of the household increases, the likelihood of making the decision to migrate also increases (Table 4.4).

One of the significant findings from the analysis is the relationship between household wealth and the decision to out-migrate in rural areas. The results indicate that householders in the middle-class wealth range serve as a threshold that distinguishes households that send migrants from those that do not. Specifically, the odds of sending migrants were significantly reduced by 98% for households in the medium and high wealth classes compared to households in the lower wealth class (AOR = 0.02 with a 95% CIs (0.01, 0.04) for middle and (0.01, 0.03) for high class households) (Table 4.4).

Table 4.4: Results of binary logistic regression for the determinants of migration decision (N = 740)

Variables and categories	COR	p-value	AOR	p-value	95% CI	
Age of Household Head						
<30	0.90	0.778	0.78	0.662	0.26	2.36
30-39	0.30	0.000	0.45	0.048	0.21	0.99
40-49	0.32	0.000	0.25	0.000	0.14	0.43
50+[Ref]	1.00		1.00			
Female headed household						
No[Ref]	1.00		1			
Yes	0.44	0.147	0.25	0.068	0.06	1.11
Current marital status of the head						
Not in union[Ref]	1.00		1			
In union	1.24	0.317	0.98	0.951	0.52	1.86
Household size						
<=4 (Small)	1.71	0.003	1.36	0.274	0.79	2.34
5-7(Medium) [Ref]	2.14	0.000	1			
8+ (Large)	1.00		2.97	0.001	1.55	5.68
Educational level of the household head						
None	0.76	0.692	0.19	0.070	0.03	1.14
Primary[Ref]	1.00		1			
Secondary+	0.96	0.929	1.31	0.661	0.40	4.32
Occupation of the household head						
Agriculture[Ref]	1.00		1			
Non-Agriculture	1.22	0.558	1.44	0.489	0.51	4.09

Others	1.36	0.331	2.12	0.106	0.85	5.29
<hr/>						
Wealth status						
<hr/>						
Low[Ref]	1.00		1			
Middle	0.03	0.000	0.02	0.000	0.01	0.04
High	0.02	0.000	0.02	0.000	0.01	0.03

COR = Crude Odds Ratio, AOR = Adjusted Odds Ratio, CI = Confidence Interval
 Ref = Reference Category

4.4. Discussion

The primary objective of the study was to investigate the factors that contribute to rural out-migration decisions. The study specifically focuses on understanding the underlying reasons for such decisions and exploring potential gender-based disparities and age related patterns in these migration decisions. The findings of the study shed light on the multifaceted nature of rural out-migration decisions and the complex interplay of factors that influence these decisions. The study identified that the decision to out-migrate involves not only an individual but also their household members. The decision to migrate is often a collective one, with multiple individuals within a household having a say and contributing to the decision-making process. Moreover, the study reported interesting findings regarding determinants of rural out-migration decision. The findings reported in this study have sparked several discussions and interpretations.

Economic resources play a crucial role in the rural households' out-migration decision.

It is noted that wealthier households do not have the tendency to make a decision to out-migrate. Households in the middle and higher wealth classes may have better access to economic opportunities, social support networks, and resources that enable them to improve their living conditions at origin without the need to decide to migrate. Households experiencing economic deprivation were more likely to view migration as a viable strategy to escape poverty and enhance their financial well-being. The finding is consistent with several other studies reporting migration as a response to reduction of household risks such as possible food insecurity, hunger and poverty. O'Neil et al. (2016) reported that people migrate to overcome poverty, escape conflict, or cope with economic and environmental shocks.

Migration is mainly a household consideration rather than an individual preference: The analysis indicated that the decision to migrate is often a collective choice made by the entire household unit. It is thus within the household unit that individuals weigh and assess multiple factors that contribute to the decision to migrate. Migration is often accompanied by various expenses, including transportation, documentation, and potentially housing or other expenses. When considering migration, households are confronted with the crucial decision of how to finance the costs associated with the move. These financial burdens can pose significant challenges for households, particularly those already facing economic constraints. This requires careful budgeting and prioritization of essential needs as households may seek financial assistance from family members, friends, or community networks. This finding is consistent with a study conducted in Southern Ethiopia, Dilla Town, which concluded that households that had negative attitudes towards migration had no members migrating (Yilma, 2012).

Household decision-making on migration implies that family and kin networks facilitate the initial adaptation of the new arrivals to urban life through assistance in the provision of accommodation and food and even in finding a job (Blair & Jong, 1993). At times, the type of household decisions could vary depending on which family member migrates. To this, some previous studies (Jolly et al., 2005) indicated that women may have little influence on migration decisions in the household. They added also that even where women migrate alone this is likely to be with reference to, or even determined by, the household livelihood strategy and expectations of contributions through remittances. Tadele *et al.*(2006) argue that forms of migration are strongly determined by social and family structures. For example, a nuclear family is more likely to lead to one-way permanent migration, while extended families sponsor single-male migration leaving the rest of the family behind. Similarly, there are studies indicating the restriction on female mobility outside the household which makes circular migration a more likely option.

The present finding is in line with the new economics of migration theory which entails that migration is a major component of the theory of survival strategy (Stark, 1991), in which temporary or long-term migration of people from a household are seen as a way for the household to maximize its chances for survival in an uncertain environment by diversifying its

sources of income. Further, migration occurs not only to maximize expected income, but also to minimize risks and to loosen constraints (Massey et al., 1994). This occurs through diversifying its sources of income or spreading risks (Stark, 1991).

On the other hand, when individuals make the decision to migrate at an individual level, it is often the case that this decision is made in the absence of comprehensive information. These may be driven by immediate concerns for well-being or the pursuit of better opportunities elsewhere, leading them to make decisions based on limited information. This part of the finding could be in line with another perspective of migration known as “life-course approach”: The life-course perspective of human mobility stresses how individuals’ age-related roles and obligations change through time. Under this perspective, migration is often seen as a normal, routine part of the experience of individuals (not group decision per se) as they proceed along their lifetime continuum. Departure of children from home as they attain adulthood-in order to marry, attend schools of higher learning and escape from childhood status – are frequently viewed as normal events. For instance, females may have a higher risk of experiencing a migration triggered by events such as marriage. Thus, a life-course approach emphasizes the importance of context, in determining migration behavior. While micro economic and migrant network theoretical frameworks are frequently invoked to explain individual and household level migration behavior, both have limitations in capturing the dynamics of migration decision-making.

Household dynamics shaped rural out-migration decision and patterns: Among the various demographic factors considered, household size emerged as the key determinant of rural out-migration. The study highlighted that larger households were more likely to engage in migration compared to smaller households. This suggests that the dynamics of household composition and the needs of larger families have a significant influence on the decision to migrate from rural areas.

It is also noted that female migrants more likely originate from larger households. The reasons for this trend may be that different factors are influencing female out-migration than males, by factors such as gender-specific roles, cultural norms, or specific circumstances within these larger households. O’Neil *et. al.*(2016) reported that women usually have less control over the decision to migrate than men – a decision more likely to be taken by their family. A study in

Ghana indicated that while boys have more opportunities for employment and migration, parents are also very accepting of girls' migration because girls traditionally move to their husband's family upon marriage (Hashim, 2005). In other studies, more females migrated for better education, while more males migrated for business (Cerrutti & Massey, 2001). Similar conclusions were made by a study conducted in Southern Ethiopia (Regassa & Yusufe, 2009).

The study has both strength and limitations worth mentioning. One peculiar limitation of the study is related to its cross-sectional nature which inherently limits the possibilities of making cause-effect relationship between the exposure and the outcome variable. It is also important to note that some macro and community variables (such as distance, factors related to the place of destination etc.) were not used in the analysis due to data limitation. The interpretation of the results should be made in light of these limitations. However, given the scanty available migration studies in Ethiopia, the findings could be useful in planning, monitoring and evaluation of migration dynamics in the country. It can also be used as a spring board for other large scale studies.

4.5. Conclusion

The study reported that migration is mainly a household consideration that accounts various factors such as economic prospects and social networks. Further, the study identified economic deprivation of households as a major driver of the rural out-migration. Households experiencing economic hardships were more likely to make the decision to migrate in search of better opportunities and improved living conditions. The appeal of higher wages, better job prospects, and improved economic conditions in urban or more developed areas prompted these households to consider migration as a means to improve their economic situation. The study identified that migration is a household-level decision in which numerous factors such as economic situations, social networks, environmental factors, and access to resources all play a role when families consider migration. Finally, the study noted that among the demographic factors, it is only household size that played a crucial role in shaping rural out-migration decision and patterns. Large size households are migrant sending than medium and small sized households. Female migrants originate from these households than smaller ones. The overall finding implies that more in-depth studies, constituting both micro and macro level determinants, is needed in order

to understand the complex nature of migration decision making from both place of origin and destination perspectives.

CHAPTER FIVE
**5. CORRELATES OF MIGRATION NETWORKS AMONG
RECENT OUT-MIGRANTS FROM ANKASHA DISTRICT OF
AMHARA REGIONAL STATE, ETHIOPIA²**

Abstract

Ethiopia has been one of the hot spots for internal migration during the last three decades, where massive rural-to-urban migration took place all over the country due to socio-demographic and political changes. This study has primarily aimed at examining the migration network among migrant-sending households in the Ankasha district of Amhara Regional State, Ethiopia. The cross-sectional study was employed Based on migrant-sending and non-sending households, who were randomly selected from six kebeles of Ankasha District. The study employed Ordinary Least Square Regression analysis techniques to assess the possible impacts of the outmigration of at least one household member on four outcome variables (asset-based wealth, expenditure on agriculture input, expenditure on health, and education of left behind household members). The result showed that the likelihood of having a higher network decreases by about 78% (OR= 0.221; CI: 0.082-0.595) for those household sizes of <4 members at the place of origin. On the contrary, migrants originating from a household size of 8+ had a 2.47 times higher likelihood of having better networks with sending communities compared to the reference category. Migration network was 3.73 times higher (CI: 1.79- 7.736) among migrants having formal education compared to those having no formal education. The likelihood of migrants having higher networks with sending communities decreased by about 59.6% for those who stayed at the place of destination for <6 months compared to those who stayed for more than 3 years. The findings implied the need to establish monitoring of the dynamics of impacts of migration on both sending households and migrants themselves. There has been limited research on migration networking in Ethiopia in general and the study area in particular. This calls for in-depth analysis and the need to examine migration in a wider context of the development agenda based on more reliable longitudinal data.

Keywords: Ankasha District, Network, Outmigration, Remittance, Ethiopia

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Introduction

Migration is a worldwide phenomenon that has existed across human history and nations in the world (Bariagaber, 2014). It is argued that migration flows are often a response to economic, social, and political problems people experience in their lives (Solimano, 2010). Migration can be either individual or family decision (Bariagaber, 2014; Uchehara, 2016) and has several implications for the household the sending society and eventually the entire economy (Azam & Gubert, 2006). Most recent scholars agree that migration is usually a highly successful way of greatly improving a household's financial position and living standards (de Haas, 2003).

Ethiopia has been experiencing an influx of internal migration during the last three decades, where massive outmigration from rural areas took place all over the country due to recurrent socio-demographic and political changes (Redehegn et al., 2019). For instance, a recent survey on all regions (except Tigray) puts rural-to-urban migration at 29% (Central Statistics Agency (CSA) [Ethiopia], 2021). The Ankasha District of Amhara Regional State, which is the focus of this study, is known for massive population movement, where the influx of people migrates to small and big towns due to economic and other non-economic reasons. Though the trend and volume of outmigration may differ from one zone to the other, the process takes place in nearly the same fashion across most communities in the region. While complex factors contribute to such rampant population mobility across all regions, political instability coupled with economic distress arising out of increased population pressure and climate change-based food insecurity are the main driving forces (Bundervoet, 2018; Dessalegn et al., 2023).

Once a household decides to send a family member to a place of destination, the next phase in the process involves networking through various mechanisms. Network Theory of Migration assumes that the cause of migration is not purely economic. It is a theory that explains migration in relation to the ties or connections between/among individuals in the home and destination place. It is stated that migration is caused by the interpersonal ties which connect the potential migrants and non-migrants in the origin through different ways of linkages. Social network is increasingly regarded as important sources of social capital (Ryan et al., 2008) that minimizes the cost of migration, maximize the returns the migrants could achieve from migration, and facilitate in finding jobs in the destination countries (Massey et al., 1993). Networks have multiplier effects

that could result in a migration chain (Dessalegn et al., 2023). The mere existence of a network and migration chain reduces the risks and costs the migrants might experience which in turn increases migration. Migration network entails remittance, and interpersonal linkages that interconnect migrants, former migrants, and non-migrants across geographical boundaries (Dessalegn et al., 2023; Massey et al., 1999).

Information and communication between migrants and non-migrants are commonly known means to capture migration network. The previous migrants provide accurate information about the realities such as the available employment opportunities in the destination countries for the potential migrants (Zaiceva and Zimmermann, 2008). Similarly, Van Dalen, Groenewald, and Schoorl(2005)stated that social network is influential in determining migration and migration intention in some countries like Ghana and Egypt. However it did not have any impact in influencing individuals to develop migration intention in Morocco and Senegal.

Remittance is one of the most commonly used indicators to measure how an out migrant is connected with his/her place of origin. Remittance is one of the means by which migrants primarily contribute money to support the people they have left home (Binford, 2003). These remittances constitute one such domestic plan to increase the family's forms of income and generate extra funds for ongoing expenses(Binford, 2003; Selamawit, 2013). The migration optimists, the first theoretical approach to migration, argued that migration and remittances were crucial in helping left-behind families and children meet their basic needs. These 'migration optimists' claimed that migrants serve as agents for the families who have been left behind in the sending communities (H. De Haas, 2007c).In a study conducted in Moroccan, remittance from internal migration accounted for 10% of the income (H. De Haas, 2006); 18 per cent in Ecuador, and 43% in Brazil (Bendixen & Onge, 2005); half of the total household income in Bangladesh and Nepal (Seddon, 2004); and 50% of household expenditure (Nwajiuba, 2005). Migration pessimists have claimed that remittances can encourage others to migrate because they have the potential to build socio-economic disparities in the sending societies, resulting in migration-induced migration being prevalent.

Migration studies in Ethiopia are scarce and very few attempts to investigate the migration networks in internal migration dynamics. The existing literature on Ethiopian migration has solely focused on understanding and characterizing migration at the place of destination. There are no studies conducted in identifying the predictors of networks (approximated by remittance and ties) among outmigrants and sending communities (i.e., place of origin) in both the study area and the region. Hence, the main objective of this study is to assess the key individual and household level predictors of networks in Ankasha District, Amhara Region.

5.1. Research Methods

5.2.1. Study context

Amhara Region is the second largest region in Ethiopia with an estimated population of 32,134,988 (CSA [Ethiopia], 2007). The median age of the population was estimated to be about 17 years. According to a recent estimate, about 12 percent of the total population of the region is residing in urban areas while the bulk of the population (88 %) are living in rural areas. Poverty is one of the most important concerns of the region where about 56.8 percent of the total population is living under poverty line. It is estimated that the average landholding per household is 1.10 hectares and the average per capita holding is 0.24 hectares (Adenew & Abdi, 2005).

The study area, Ankasha District, is located in Awi zone of Amhara Regional State. It is located in the North Western Highlands of Ethiopia. Astronomically, it roughly lies between 10°31'46" and 10°41'32" north and 36°36'18"–36°59'33" east (Adugna & Tamrat, 2022). Currently it comprises one smaller town named Agaw Gimja Bet - the capital of the district and 16 rural kebeles. According to the 2007 Population and Housing Census return of Ethiopia, the district had a total population of 199,826 inhabitants. Of whom males constitute 99,285 (49.7 %) and the majority of them are residing in areas designated as rural. With regard to migration data, migrants constitute 32,324 (16.2%) of the population (CSA [Ethiopia], 2007). The district is well noted for its intensive agricultural practices and cropping systems. Since virtually the Ethiopian rural population derives a living from agriculture and the effects of rural out-migration directly affect the rural population, the research will focus on the rural population of Ankasha district (Adugna & Tamrat, 2022).

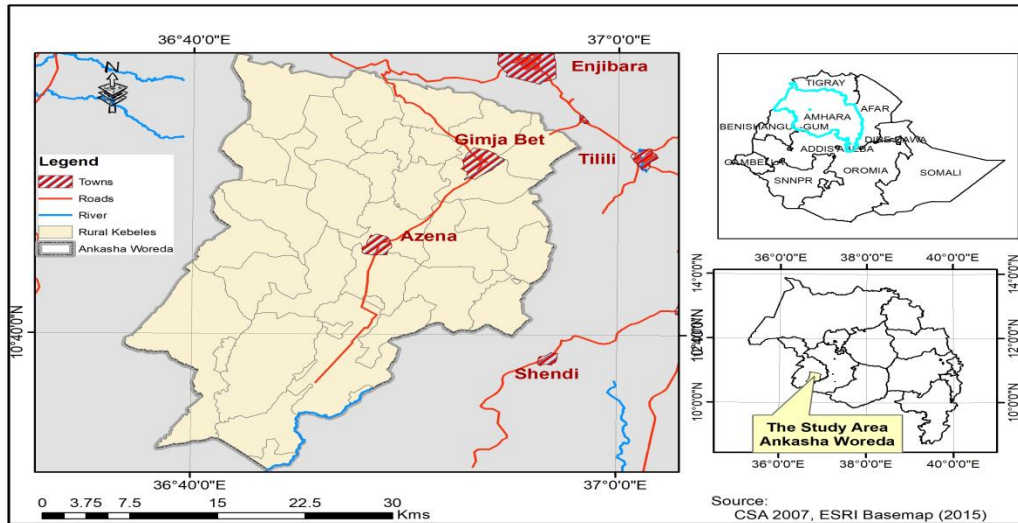


Figure 5.1: Map of the study area

5.2.2. Study Design and Data Sources

The study employs cross sectional study design. In this design, data are collected at a specific point in time in the lives of the respondents. The design is commonly used when the primary interest is to estimate prevalence than studying cause-effect relationship. The data required for this study were generated from household survey of migrant sending households residing in the district using household survey questionnaire.

The data for this study were collected using quantitative household survey, mainly focus on collecting socio economic profiles, migration history of household members, remittance, networking, positive impacts and adverse consequences of outmigration on source communities. Household survey questionnaire was used to collect quantitative data on socioeconomic and demographic characteristics of both migrant sending and non-sending households. The tool was also used to gather quantitative information on impacts (such as social, financial, physical, natural and human capitals). The interviews were conducted in the local language of the study areas, and it was audio recorded, and transcribed into English for analysis.

The field activities were guided by a standard field procedure with a broad set of actions to be implemented sequentially. The data collection procedure included, recruitment of field workers, translation of data collection tools, training of field staff, piloting, and debriefing, and field data

collection. A field manual was prepared and used for training of the field staff. The contents of the manual included module by module descriptions of tools, technical skills during the interview, general instructions and ethical standards to be followed by enumerators during the field work. The researcher also understands that, due to the complex nature of the subject, a careful selection of the enumerators, supervisors, and field/cluster coordinators was required. The researcher arranged a two days intensive training and 1-day pretesting sessions prior to data collection. During the field work, all efforts were made to conduct spot checking and close supervisions. After the fieldwork is completed post-fieldwork debriefing session were held by the researcher to share about their field experience. Secondary data were collected from various sources including published and unpublished materials such as books, topographic and thematic maps, journals, reports of Meteorological and Central Statistical Agencies as well as other publications and scientific works.

5.2.3. Sampling and sample size

The estimation of a representative sample size began with identifying the outcome variable(s)/the indicator of interest. There could be a wide range of impacts of massive outmigration on individual households which includes economic/ financial, physical, social, and environmental. Given this, a good indicator for sampling purpose would be the proportion of household poverty or livelihood status. As the most current and accurate proportion households with such characteristics for each study villages was not readily available, the study used Yamane's (1967) formula to estimate the sample size for the study. However, the current study was made based on 223 recent migrant sending households extracted from the full data set.

5.2.4. Data Analysis

The outcome variable is migration network, constructed based on the linear and combined effects of a set of yes/no questions for the question "if the migrant sends remittance or has recent ties with the sending households or has got information about the destination before moving". The selection of potential explanatory variables was guided by an extensive literature review and by model fitting procedures. The exposure variables were categorized into two major groups: individual and household characteristics. Variables included in the analysis were age of the migrant, marital status of migrant, education, duration of stay, occupation, and cost of migration.

Data cleaning, management and analysis were carried out using STATA version 17. The distribution of various socio-demographic variables was described using frequencies and proportions. The hypothesized relationship between selected explanatory variables and the outcome variable was examined using Ordered Logistic regression. The parallel line assumption test was conducted to check if Ordinal logit regression is appropriate. The correlations among the explanatory variables was checked using the Variance Inflation Factor (VIF). Initially, bivariate proportional Odds regression was conducted to select the most promising explanatory variables for multivariable regression analysis. Variables with a p-value<0.20 in the bivariate analysis were selected for entering the initial multivariable proportional odds. AIC and BIC were used to test model fitness(Luke, 2019).In each regression model 95% confidence interval of the odds ratio (OR) was calculated as the effect measure of each factor.

5.2. Results

The age distribution of the migrants shows that a slightly more than a quarter of them were adolescents and youth (age <25). About 24% were between age 25-29, and 31% in the age group 30-39. About 15% of them were above 40-year-old (Table1). Two thirds of the respondents were never married; 42% reside in medium sized household 5-7 and 34% in small sized households (<4 members). Close to 95% of the respondents reported having at least primary education and only 47% of migrants had formal education. There was high disparity in occupation types between the parents of the migrant and the migrants themselves. It is noted that about 87% of the parents were engaged in agriculture whereas more than half of the migrants were reportedly engaged in non-agricultural activities. The distribution of the asset-based wealth status indicates that about 89% of them were categorized as “poor” (Table 5.1).

Table 5.1: Background characteristics of respondents and recent migrants, Ankasha District

Characteristics	No	Percent
Age of respondent (sending HH)		
<30	13	5.8
30-39	16	7.2
40-49	41	18.4
50+	153	68.6
Age of migrant		
<25	67	30.0
25-29	53	23.8
30-39	70	31.4
40+	33	14.8
Current marital status of the respondent		
No	30	13.5
Yes	193	86.5
Marital status of migrant		
Never married	148	66.4
Ever married	75	33.6
Household size category		
<=4	76	34.1
5-7	93	41.7
8+	54	24.2
Educational level of the respondent		
None	3	1.3
Primary	211	94.6
Secondary+	9	4.0
Educational status of migrant		
No formal schooling	118	52.9
Formal schooling	105	47.1
Occupation of the respondent		
Agriculture	193	86.5
Non-Agriculture	14	6.3
Others	16	7.2
Occupation of the migrant		
Student	28	12.6
Farming	65	29.1

Non-agriculture	113	50.7
Others	17	7.6
Asset based wealth		
Low	198	88.8
Middle	13	5.8
High	12	5.4

Source: Own survey

The results of Pearson's Chi-square test for assessing the gender differentials in selected migration behaviors is presented in Table 2. The gender differential analysis aimed to investigate whether there were notable variations between the background characteristics of male and female migrants. The study did not identify any significant differences between male and female migrants based on the indicated factors. While none of the indicators had significant association with gender of the migrant, it is apparent that there are some variations between the two sexes. For example, there are more male migrants having access to information compared to females. Likewise, there is some evidence for higher cost of migration among female migrants. In terms of duration, females have stayed longer in the place of destination (50% vs 35.5%) (Table 5.2).

Table 5.2: Access to information, cost of migration, and migration duration by Sex of migrants, n=223

	Sex of Migrant		P-value (Chi-Square Test)
	Male (%)	Female(%)	
Access to information			
Yes	150 (80.2)	28 (77.8)	0.620
No	37(19.8)	8(22.2)	
Migration duration			
< 6 months	50(26.7)	5(13.9)	0.129
2.6-12 months	71(38.0)	13(36.1)	
3> a year	66(35.3)	18(50.0)	
Cost of migration			
Yes	154(82.4)	31(86.1)	0.762
No	33(17.6)	5(13.9)	
Source of migration financing			
Selling HH asset	70(37.4)	15(41.7)	0.312
Borrowed from individuals	16(8.6)	5(13.9)	
Own saving	59(31.6)	7(19.4)	
Other	9(4.8)	4(11.1)	
No cost	33(17.6)	5(13.9)	

Source: Own survey

Table 3 presents the predictors of migration network. It is seen that five variables appear to be significant predictors of network (information and remittance): Age of the migrant, marital status of migrant, household size at the place of origin, educational status of migrants and migration duration. Migrants in the age group 25-29 were 2.96 times more likely to have higher network with sending community compared to the reference category (age 30-39). Those ever-married migrants had 2.36 times higher likelihood of having higher level of networks with sending households/communities compared to those never married migrants (Table 5.3).

The likelihood of having higher network decreased by about 78% (OR= 0.221; CI: 0.082-0.595) for household size of <4 members at the place of origin. On the contrary, migrants originating from household size of 8+ had 2.47 times higher likelihood of having better networks with sending communities compared to the reference category. Migration network was 3.73 times higher (CI: 1.79- 7.736) among migrants having formal education compared to those having no formal education. The likelihood of migrants having higher networks with sending communities decreased by about 59.6% for those who stayed at the place of destination for <6 months compared to those who stayed for greater than 3 years. This variable, however, is just marginally significant (p=0.054). The association between cost of migration and networks was significant in the bivariate analysis only (p<0.05) (Table 5.3).

Table 5.3: Ordinal Logistic regression analysis for predictors of migrant networking, Ankasha district

Variables	COR	AOR	p-value	95% CI
Age of respondent				
<30	1.10	2.901	0.216	0.536 -15.700
30-39	0.55	1.528	0.593	0.323- 7.243
40-49	0.64	1.058	0.903	0.425-2.636
50+	1	1		
Age of the migrant				
<25	1	1.623	0.323	0.621- 4.238
25-29	0.74	2.956	0.028*	1.125 -7.765
30-39	1.30	1		
40+	0.88	0.606	0.422	0.179- 2.057
Current marital status of the respondent				
No	1	1		
Yes	1.38	0.808	0.729	0.242- 2.697
Marital status of migrant				
Never married	1	1		
Ever married	2.25***	2.369	0.036*	1.057-5.313
Household size				
<=4	0.45***	0.221	0.003**	0.082-0.596
5-7	1	1		
8+	2.05**	2.477	0.044*	1.025-5.986
Educational status of migrant				
No formal schooling	1	1		
Formal schooling	3.00***	3.725	0.000***	1.794-7.736
Occupation of the respondent				
Agriculture	1	1		
Non-Agriculture	0.77	0.689	0.623	0.156-3.044
Others	1.06	0.389	0.160	0.104- 1.454
Asset based household wealth				
Low	1	1		
Middle	1.95	1.045	0.949	0.268- 4.071
High	1.01	0.166	0.026*	0.034-0.803
Access to information on destination				
Yes	1	1		
No	0.00	8.14e-10	0.986	0 .
Migration duration				
< 6 months	0.31***	0.404	0.054*	0.160- 1.017
6-12 months	0.89	0.813	0.627	0.353-1.873
>12 months	1	1		
Cost of migration				

Yes	1	1		
No	0.16***	0.546	0.235	0.201-1.484

Outcome variable: Networking (*None, Medium, High*)

5.3. Discussion

This study has primarily aimed at examining the key predictors of migration networking in Ankasha District, Amhara Regional State, Ethiopia. Supported by micro-level empirical research findings around the world. We argued that a mixture of individualistic and familial characteristics explains the likelihood of having reasonable networks. The outcome variable was measured by a combination of access to information and remittance. The analysis identified five variables having significant associations with the outcome variable, namely; age of the migrant, marital status of migrant, household size at the place of origin, educational status of migrants and migration duration. The association between cost of migration and networks was significant in the bivariate analysis only.

It appears that younger migrants in the age group 25-29 are more likely to establish strong networks with the place of origin. This is not surprising because these groups usually remain single, and hence, they are more likely to keep their connection with the sending households. This finding may contravene with the preposition that migration networks, opportunities, and experiences developed over time. As expected, migrants' education status made a significant contribution to the level of migration networks with the place of origin. It was noted that the migration network was higher among migrants having formal education compared to those having no formal education. Most previous studies reported that education level does not have any positive correlation (Rafia, 2023).

Our finding indicates that the likelihood of migration networks decreased for those who stayed at the place of destination for <6 months compared to those who stayed for a longer duration. This is consistent with some survey-based studies which suggested that migrant ties and remittances tend to grow slowly until it reaches a peak approximately 15–20 years after moving out (Fokkema & Groenewold, 2003). On the other hand, this finding contravenes the general thought about the remittance-decreasing effect of the weakening of ties with home countries over time. Even this weakening of transnational ties over time cannot be taken for granted, as such ties can

often be sustained over very long periods(H. De Haas, 2007c).This evidence casts doubts on the proposition that temporary migrants would be better and more reliable remitters than integrated and settled migrants(H. De Haas, 2007b).

Migration cost was associated with the level of networks in the bivariate analysis, suggesting that those with no cost spent for their mobility had little connection with the sending communities/households. It is worth mentioning that the finding contradicts with the remittance decay hypothesis which is based on the assumption that remittances are primarily sent either to pay back migration debts or for altruistic reasons(H. De Haas, 2007b). Finally, it is worth mentioning the strengths and limitations of the study. Given studies on migration in Ethiopia (especially on networking and migration impacts) are scarce, the findings of the study could be useful in increasing our understanding of the migration dynamics and help planning, monitoring and evaluation of ever increasing trend of outmigration. One of the demerits of the study is that the variables used in the analysis were limited in both scope and size, and there might be some important variables (such as the cultural and community level variables) that may determine network in different fashion. Moreover, as the data were collected based on cross-sectional design, drawing cause-effect relationship among the explanatory and outcome variables was not possible.

5.4. Conclusion and Implications

Based on the forgoing analysis, it can be concluded that the patterns and level of migration networks are determined by some key household and individual variables; age and marital status of the migrant, duration of stay at the place of destination, educational status and household size. The findings imply the need to establishing monitoring of the dynamics of impacts of migration on both sending households and migrants themselves. There has been limited research on migration networking in Ethiopia in general and the study area in particular. This calls for in-depth analysis and the need to examine migration in a wider context of the development agenda based on more reliable longitudinal data.

CHAPTER SIX

6. IMPACTS OF RECENT OUTMIGRATION ON ECONOMIC AND SOCIAL CAPITAL OF SOURCE COMMUNITIES: EVIDENCE FROM ANKASHA DISTRICT OF AMHARA REGIONAL STATE, ETHIOPIA

Abstract

In Ethiopia, since the last three decades, massive internal migration has taken place all over the country due to socio demographic and political changes and transitions. With increased climate change-imposed food insecurity and poverty in most parts of the country, outmigration has been seen as one of the survival strategies for most migrant-sending households. This study has primarily aimed at examining the impacts of outmigration on migrant-sending households in Ankasha district of Amhara Regional State, Ethiopia. This cross-sectional study was based on a sample of 740 migrant-sending and non-sending households, randomly drawn from six kebeles of Ankasha district, Amhara Regional State. We employed Ordinary Least Square Regression analysis to assess the possible effects of the outmigration of at least one household member on four outcome variables (asset-based wealth, expenditure on agriculture input, expenditure on health and education of left behind household members). The bivariate analysis indicated that outmigration of at least one recent migrant had positive impacts on investment in health and agricultural input expenditure. The effect diminished in the multivariable analysis. Our multivariable analysis indicated that migrant-sending status has a significant effect on asset-based wealth, controlling for all other variables in the model ($p < 0.001$). Having more land signified increased asset-based wealth and expenditure for agricultural input. Likewise, total income from other sources (i.e other than remittance from out migrants) resulted in a significant increase in asset-based wealth. The overall findings of the study indicated that migration will not always have positive impacts on asset building and the wealth status of a household. However, outmigration can significantly impact on the propensity migrant-sending households have a higher propensity to invest in health, education and agricultural inputs. The study called for in-depth analysis to examine migration in a wider context of the development agenda based on more reliable longitudinal data.

Keywords: Asset based wealth, Outmigration, Remittance, Ethiopia

6.1. Background

Ethiopia is the second most populous nation in Africa after Nigeria (World Bank, 2019b). According to the most recent report, the country is one of the poorest, with a per capita income of \$790. Ethiopia is an agrarian country where agriculture accounts for more than sixty percent of the GDP, and it is responsible for 80% of total employment (World Bank, 2019b). Agriculture is primarily rain fed and thus highly dependent on rainfall. Thus, poverty is still widely spread as it concerns almost a quarter of the rural population (24 percent). Fueled by a high level of fertility rate, the country is amongst the fastest growing non-oil economies in the world with annual average population growth rate of 2.5% (Eyasu, 2020; World Bank, 2019b; Yigezu Wendimu, 2021). The Ethiopian population is characterized by a young age structure with a median age of not more than 18 years – a feature of rapidly growing population (CSA [Ethiopia], 2007).

Since recently, there has been increasing pressure on rural land due to rapid population growth and expanding environmental degradation, which in turn results in vulnerability to food shortages (IFAD, 2016b; World Bank, 2019b). In addition to environmental problems, farmers face numerous constraints related to small and diminishing farm sizes, low tenure security, imperfect agricultural markets. These together positioned the country, especially most rural Ethiopia in a vicious circle of hunger and poverty (IFAD, 2016b; World Bank, 2019b). Thus, outmigration from the rural Ethiopia is one of the survival strategies for most migrant sending households.

Since the last three decades, massive rural to urban migration took place all over the country due to sociodemographic and political changes (Redehegn et al., 2019). Due to economic and political transitions, migration out of agriculture has long been a salient feature of life in rural Ethiopia. Earlier researches show that landlessness, agricultural policy, land fragmentation, environmental degradation, population pressure, recurrent drought and famine, war and political crisis were the major factors responsible for spatial mobility (Abate, 2002; Ezra, 1997) and the migration pattern has changed, with rural-urban migration becoming the dominant migration flow over the last two decades (Bundervoet, 2018b).

Rural out migration has significant impacts on both the areas of origin and the destinations. In the case of Ethiopia, where a large portion of the population is engaged in agriculture and rural livelihoods, rural-urban out migration has several effects. There is no agreement on the impact of outmigration on the source communities. This is to mean that migration processes are not only positive for the sending

households, but can also have negative and zero net effects. The very few available studies reported a wide range of impacts of outmigration on sending households including, but not limited to, agricultural production, income diversification, child education, land use, fertility and mortality etc. The participation of individuals in migration and agricultural activities is also highly selective; making the departure of a household member reduces household labor supply, which will reduce labor inputs to agriculture and other activities unless there is a compensating increase in effort by the remaining household members. On the other hand, many authors in environmental studies and development studies have argued that outmigration and remittances will lead to agricultural decline and de-intensification (e.g., a reduction in agricultural intensity).

Blaikie (2002) studied the transformation of rural space due to the increase in off-farm income and migration over 20 years and found no major changes in agriculture (such as commercialization of agriculture or rapid economic growth). By contrast, migration may reshape migrant-sending economies through indirect channels to make agricultural improvements in rural areas. In environmental studies, this idea is part of “forest transition theory”, in which rural outmigration is viewed as a key mechanism leading to land abandonment and the subsequent regrowth of native vegetation (Rudel et al., 2005). Migrants often remit substantial amounts of their income share to origin families. Remittances provide the potential to foster agricultural production levels, rises household income, and improve general rural conditions (Vargas-Lundius et al., 2008). Particularly, as rural farmers in Ethiopia live in economies virtually deficient of formal credit and insurance markets, migration may positively influence local production intensities in migrant-sending areas by providing households with scarce capital and serving as insurance policies against risks associated with new production activities (Damon, 2020; Qin, 2010).

The Ankasha District of Amhara Regional State, which is the focus of this study, is historically known for massive population movement, where influx of people migrates to small and big towns due to economic and other non-economic reasons (Arega et al., 2023). Though the trend and volume of outmigration may differ from one zone to the other, the process takes place in nearly the same fashion across most communities in the region. However, the phenomenon of the recent massive rural outmigration in the region carries several economic, social, and cultural problems in the source communities throughout region. Those factors affecting in and out migration (such as economic, social and ecological factors) and the impacts on rural development are least explored in the study area/region, and hence, its policy implications are not clearly known.

The existing literature on Ethiopian migration has solely focused on understanding and characterizing migration at the place of destination. To the best of the author's knowledge, there are no studies conducted in identifying a comprehensive impact of outmigration in rural areas (i.e place of origin) in both the study area and the region. The very few available studies addressed the issue of migration at the place of destination. The main objective of this study is thus to explore the effects of outmigration on rural livelihood such as diversification of income, household wellbeing, wealth and asset building, agriculture and land use, physical, social and human capital in Ankasha district.

6.2. Materials and Methods

6.2.1. Study Context

Amhara region is the second largest region in Ethiopia with an estimated projected population of 32,134,988 (CSA [Ethiopia], 2007). The median age of the population was estimated to be about 17 years. According to a recent estimate, about 12 percent of the total population of the region is residing in urban areas while the bulk of the population (88 %) are living in rural areas. Poverty is one of the most important concerns of the region where about 56.8 percent of the total population is living under poverty line. It is estimated that the average landholding per household is 1.10 hectares and the average per capita holding is 0.24 hectares (Adenew & Abdi, 2005). About third of children are stunted, and 10 percent are severely wasted (Central Statistical Agency (CSA) [Ethiopia] and ICF, 2016).

The study area, Ankasha district, is located in Awi zone of Amhara regional state. It is located in the North Western Highlands of Ethiopia. Astronomically, it roughly lies between 10° 31'46" and 10° 41'32" north latitude and 36° 36'18" – 36° 59'33" east longitude. The total area of the district is 218.61km²(Adugna & Tamrat, 2022). Currently, it comprises one smaller town named Agaw Gimja Bet - the capital of the district and 16 rural kebeles. According to the 2007 Population and Housing Census return of Ethiopia, the district had a total population of 199,826 inhabitants. Of whom males constitute 99,285(49.7 %) and the majority of them are residing in areas designated as rural. With regard to migration data, migrants constitute 32,324 (16.2%) of the population (CSA [Ethiopia], 2007). The district is well noted for its intensive agricultural practices and cropping systems(Adugna & Tamrat, 2022). Since virtually the Ethiopian rural population derives a living from agriculture and the effects of rural out-migration directly affect the rural population, the research will focus on the rural population of Ankasha district.

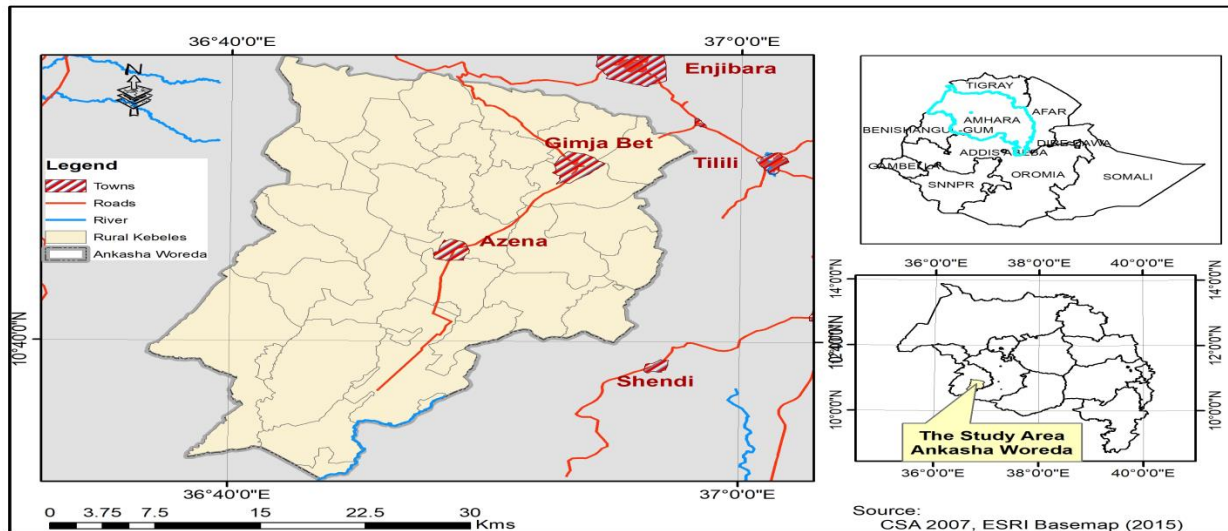


Figure 6.1: Map of the study area

6.2.2. Data Sources

The bulk of the data required for this study were generated from household survey of migrant sending and non-sending households residing in the district using household survey questionnaire. Secondary data were collected from various sources including published and unpublished materials such as books, topographic and thematic maps, journals, reports of Meteorological and Central Statistical Agencies as well as other publications and scientific works.

6.2.3. Study Design

The study employs cross sectional study design. In such design, data are collected at a specific point in time in the lives of the respondents. Such design is commonly used when the primary interest is to estimate prevalence than studying cause-effect relationship.

6.2.4. Sampling Design

The estimation of a representative sample size began with identifying the outcome variable(s)/the indicator of interest. There could be a wide range of impacts of massive outmigration on individual households which includes economic/ financial, physical, social, and environmental. Given this, a good indicator for sampling purpose would be the proportion of household poverty or livelihood status. As the most current and accurate proportion households with such characteristics for each study villages was not readily available, the researcher used the Yamane (1967) formula to estimate the sample size of 740 migrant sending and non-sending households (see annex 1).

The 421 sample households were selected using two stage sampling technique. First, six rural Kebeles were selected purposively. According to Woreda Labor and Social Affairs Office, these Kebeles are identified and documented by their intensity of out migration. Second, sub-villages (gotts) from each Kebele was identified. At the second stage, based on a complete listing, eligible households were selected randomly based on Population Proportion to Size (PPS), size being the number of households in the sample Kebele.

6.2.5. Data Collection: Tools and Procedures

The bulk of the data for this study were collected using quantitative household survey, mainly focus on collecting socio-economic profiles, migration history of household members, remittance, networking, positive impacts and adverse consequences of outmigration on source communities. Household survey questionnaire was used to collect quantitative data on socioeconomic and demographic characteristics of both migrant sending and non-sending households. The tool was also used to gather quantitative information on impacts (such as social, financial, physical, natural and human capitals).

The field activities were guided by a standard field procedure with a broad set of actions to be implemented sequentially. The data collection procedure included, recruitment of field workers, translation of data collection tools, training of field staff, piloting, and debriefing, and field data collection. A field manual was prepared and used for training of the field staff. The contents of the manual included module by module descriptions of tools, technical skills during the interview, general instructions and ethical standards to be followed by enumerators during the field work. The researcher also understands that, due to the complex nature of the subject, a careful selection of the enumerators, supervisors, and field/cluster coordinators was required. The researcher arranged a two days intensive training and 1-day pretesting sessions prior to data collection. During the field work, all efforts were made to conduct spot checking and close supervisions. After the fieldwork is completed post-fieldwork debriefing session were held by the researcher to share about their field experience.

6.2.6. Measure of the Outcome and Exposure Variables

The outcome variable is impacts of outmigration, measured in four specific outcomes: Asset based wealth, expenditure on health, expenditure on education, and expenditure on agricultural inputs. Each outcome was constructed based on the linear and combined effects of a set of yes/no questions. The selection of potential explanatory variables was guided by an extensive literature review and by model fitting procedures. The exposure variables were categorized into two major groups: individual and

household characteristics and community variables. The individual variables included sex of household head, age of the respondent, parental education, respondent's employment status, and marital status. The household variables were household size, land size, other source of household income, migration sending status. Age of women was classified into four groups (years) :<30, 30-39, 40-49 and 50+. Marital status was measured as married or unmarried. Educational attainment was grouped into three categories: no education, primary and secondary or more. Occupation was categorized into three: agriculture, non-agriculture and others. Household size was measured as small, (≤ 4 members), 5-7 medium and 8+ large household size. Land size and other source of income were continuous variables.

6.2.7. Data Management and Analysis

Data cleaning, management and analysis were carried out using STATA version 17/ SPSS version 26. The distribution of various sociodemographic variables was described using frequencies and proportions. The hypothesized relationship between selected explanatory variables and the four outcome variables was examined using Ordinary Least Square Regression (OLS). Due to the continuous nature of the outcome variables, the analysis started by checking the key assumptions of OLS regression (linearity, absence of multicollinearity, heteroskedasticity, and independence of observation). Correlations among the explanatory variables was checked using the Variance Inflation Factor (VIF). Initially, bivariate proportional regression was conducted to select the most promising explanatory variables for multivariable regression analysis. Variables with a p-value<0.20 in the bivariate analysis were selected for entering the initial multivariable proportional odds. R-square was used to assess model adequacy and 95% confidence interval along p-values was used to declare a significant association between predictors and outcome variables.

6.3. Results

Table 6.1 presents the percentage distribution of respondents by major background characteristics. It is seen that migrant sending and non-sending households have variation in terms of their age distribution. 69% of sending and 44.5% non-sending households were reported fall in the older age group (50+); 36% of the non-sending and only 18% of the sending households fall in the age group 40-49. The proportion of female headed households was slightly higher among non-sending households (3.6 versus 1.6%). It is evident from the analysis that higher proportion of large households (8+ members) was observed among the migrant sending households compared to non-sending (26% versus 17%). There is no variation in the distribution of respondents in terms of educational status, as about 95% of both sending and non-sending households reported having primary level of education. Likewise, little variation was observed in employment status of the respondents as 86% of non-sending and 89% of sending households reported to

have engaged in agriculture. On the other hand, there appears to be wide gap in the self-reported asset-based wealth status among the two groups. While 46.3% of the non-sending households fall in high wealth category, there were only 6.6% of the households in the non-sending category fall in high asset-based wealth category (Table 6.1).

Table 6.1: Percentage distribution of respondents by migrant sending status, n=740

Characteristics	Migrant sending status	
	Non-sending	Sending
Age of the respondent		
<30	19(3.8)	13(5.3)
30-39	78(15.7)	18(7.4)
40-49	179(36.0)	44(18.1)
50+	221(44.5)	168(69.1)
Headship		
Male headed household	479(96.4)	239(98.4)
Female headed household	18(3.6)	4(1.6)
Current marital status of the respondent		
No	86(17.3)	35(14.4)
Yes	411(82.7)	208(85.6)
Household size		
<=4 members	137(27.6)	83(34.2)
5-7 members	278(55.9)	98(40.3)
8+ members	82(16.5)	62(25.5)
Educational level of the respondent		
None	8 (1.6)	3(1.2)
Primary	470(94.6)	231(95.1)
Secondary+	19(3.8)	9(3.7)
Occupation of the respondent		
Agriculture	443(89.1)	210 (86.4)
Non-Agriculture	26(5.2)	15(6.2)
Others	28 (5.6)	18 (7.4)
Asset based wealth		
Low	71 (14.3)	210(86.4)
Middle	196(39.4)	17(7.0)
High	230(46.3)	16(6.6)
Total land size (in ha)(mean (IQR))	5.761127(6)	6.748765(7.25)

Table 6.2 presents the results of independent t-test to assess a bivariate association between four selected impact indicators and migration sending status (i.e., sending and non-sending). It is evident that the two outcome variables (asset based wealth and total health expenditure) have shown significant association with migration sending status. This entails that the average asset-based wealth was much higher among migrant non-sending households compared to those sending at least one migrant during the recent past ($p < 0.001$). On the other hand, the total expenditure of non-sending households was significantly lower compared to sending households ($p < 0.01$). Even though non-significant, migrant sending households had higher mean for the remaining two potential outcome variables (total expenses on education and agricultural input).

Table 6.2: Independent sample t-test for association between outmigration of at least one household member and impact indicators, Ankasha District, Amhara Regional State

Variables	Non-sending			Sending			T – test (P-value)
	Mean	95% CI		Mean	95% CI		
Wealth	0.956	0.767	1.146	-1.956	-2.141	-1.770	19.0 (0.000)
Total education expense	1630	1158	2101	1729	1297	2160	-0.263 (0.793)
Total health expenditure	141.5	69.10	213.9	320.3	199.0	441.7	-2.6 (0.009)
Agricultural input expenditure	1801	1589	2013	1990	1718	2263	-1.0 (0.299)

In Table 6.3, the results of multivariable analysis are presented to assess if out-migration has positive/negative or no impacts on two selected impact indicators: asset based wealth score and agricultural input expenditure. It is noted that migrant sending status has significant effect on asset-based wealth, controlling for all other variables in the model ($p < 0.001$). Being migrant sending household results in a decrease of asset-based wealth by about three-fold relative to the non-sending households. Other two variables in the model (total land size and total income from other sources) have resulted in significant association with the outcome variables. Having more land signified increased asset-based wealth and expenditure for agricultural input. Likewise, there was significant positive association between total income from other sources (i.e., other than remittance from out migrants) resulted in significant increase in asset based wealth.

Table 6.3: Results of OLS regression for the effects of outmigration on physical capital (asset-based wealth and agricultural input expenditure), Ankasha District, Amhara Regional State.

Variables and categories	Wealth				Agricultural input			
	β	p-value	95% CI		β	p-value	95% CI	
Age of the respondent								
<30	0.11	0.74	-0.56	0.79	-308.47	0.46	-1120.22	503.28
30-39	0.01	0.97	-0.43	0.44	-345.67	0.20	-869.76	178.43
40-49	-0.18	0.26	-0.50	0.13	-301.36	0.12	-683.49	80.77
50+ [Ref]	0.00				0.00			
Headship								
Male headed [Ref]	0.00				0.00			
Female headed	-0.28	0.50	-1.11	0.54	-286.50	0.57	-1279.02	706.02
Current marital status of the respondent								
No [Ref]	0.00				0.00			
Yes	0.09	0.67	-0.32	0.49	-93.50	0.70	-577.55	390.55
Household size								
<=4 members	-0.39	0.02	-0.72	-0.06	-312.01	0.12	-708.82	84.80
5-7 members [Ref]	0.00				0.00			
8+ members	0.22	0.23	-0.14	0.59	291.98	0.19	-144.04	727.99
Educational level of the								

respondent									
None	-0.55	0.35	-1.70	0.60	73.57	0.92	-1306.79	1453.92	
Primary [<i>Ref</i>]	0.00				0.00				
Secondary+	0.14	0.71	-0.58	0.86	410.26	0.35	-453.30	1273.83	
Occupation of the respondent									
Agriculture [<i>Ref</i>]	0.00				0.00				
Non-Agriculture	-0.07	0.82	-0.67	0.53	-458.78	0.21	-1175.61	258.04	
Others	-0.33	0.26	-0.91	0.24	-79.94	0.82	-769.82	609.93	
Total land size (in ha)	0.10	0.00	0.07	0.13	97.15	0.00	61.09	133.21	
Migrant sending households									
Non-sending [<i>Ref</i>]	0.00				0.00				
Sending	-3.02	0.00	-3.32	-2.72	46.27	0.80	-310.50	403.04	
Total income from other sources	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.01	0.00	0.01	0.02	
Intercept	0.35	0.16	-0.14	0.84	1341.10	0.00	750.43	1931.78	

Ref = Reference category

In Table 6.4, the results of multivariable analysis are presented to assess the impacts of out-migration on two social capital indicators: health and education. It was noted that the impact of migration on both health and education expenditure was statistically insignificant when other factors are controlled. Regardless, the average health expenditure of migrant sending households was a bit higher than the non-sending households.

Table 6.4: Results of OLS regression for the effects of outmigration on human capital (health and education), Ankasha District, Amhara Regional State

Variables and categories	Total education expense				Total health expense			
	β	p-value	95% CI		β	p-value	95% CI	
Age of the respondent								
<30	-862.59	0.33	-2595.48	870.31	-210.52	0.19	-526.15	105.11
30-39	-806.06	0.16	-1924.88	312.75	-183.02	0.08	-386.81	20.76
40-49	-326.07	0.43	-1141.83	489.69	-148.49	0.05	-297.07	0.09
50+[Ref]	0.00				0.00			
Headship								
Male headed [Ref]	0.00				0.00			
Female headed	-216.90	0.84	-2335.69	1901.90	56.41	0.77	-329.51	442.33
Current marital status of the respondent								
No[Ref]	0.00				0.00			
Yes	657.99	0.21	-375.35	1691.32	100.27	0.30	-87.95	288.48
Household size								
<=4 members	-54.55	0.90	-901.64	792.55	12.17	0.88	-142.12	166.46
5-7 members[Ref]	0.00				0.00			
8+ members	895.57	0.06	-35.22	1826.35	84.29	0.33	-85.25	253.82
Educational level of the respondent								
None	-769.76	0.61	-3716.49	2176.96	-187.94	0.49	-724.66	348.78
Primary[Ref]	0.00				0.00			
Secondary+	7.92	0.99	-1835.58	1851.43	87.80	0.61	-247.98	423.58
Occupation of the respondent								
Agriculture[Ref]	0.00				0.00			
Non-Agriculture	-661.45	0.40	-2191.69	868.80	147.13	0.30	-131.59	425.85
Others	-49.89	0.95	-1522.61	1422.83	26.49	0.85	-241.75	294.74
Total land size (in ha)	77.38	0.05	0.40	154.36	5.85	0.41	-8.17	19.87
Migrant sending households								
Non-sending[Ref]	0.00				0.00			
Sending	-205.57	0.60	-967.19	556.05	121.99	0.08	-16.73	260.72
Total income from other sources	-0.01	0.28	-0.02	0.01	0.00	0.96	-0.00	0.00
Intercept	967.70	0.13	-293.25	2228.66	85.24	0.47	-144.43	314.91

Ref = Reference category

6.4. Discussion

The present study primarily aimed to examine the effects of outmigration on selected impact indicators: wealth, expenditure on agricultural input, expenditure on education and health. The analysis was done based on data collected from 740 respondents randomly drawn from six Kebeles of Ankasha District of Amhara Regional State. The bivariate analysis indicated that outmigration of at least one recent migrant had positive impacts on health expenditure and agricultural input purchase. Previous studies across several developing countries emphasized the positive role of outmigration and remittances in enhancing agricultural investments (Dessalegn et al., 2023; Zeleke et al., 2008). These studies argue that rural households receive remittances from out-migrant family members and use remitted income for

purchasing agricultural inputs such as fertilizer, seeds, pesticides, herbicides, agricultural tools, and livestock (Abebaw et al., 2020; Kassa, 2017). These households will also have a better capacity to maintain their valuable agricultural productive assets, which otherwise could be lost through distress sales. For example, Mohapatra et al.(2012) indicated that Ethiopian rural households that receive remittances refrain from selling productive assets such as livestock. Likewise, outmigration of a family member may increase the likelihood of investing on health and education of left behind household members. A number of studies suggest migrant-sending households have a higher propensity to invest in health and health outcome of sending households (Adams Jr & Page, 2005; Dea & Rathab, 2012; Hagen-Zanker, 2015; Mansuri, 2006; Nguyen & Nguyen, 2013). On the other hand, some previous studies concluded that evidence on the effect of remittances on such investments is not conclusive because it may only be realized in the long-term(Ratha & Mohapatra, 2007).

Our multivariable analysis witnessed significant inverse association between outmigration and household asset-based wealth. This is to mean that the short-term effects of migration on livelihoods of sending households are often negative due to the immediate lost-labor effect(H. De Haas, 2007a). The finding contravenes with the New Economics of Labor Model which consider migration as a strategic household response to scarcity and poverty conditions in order to reduce vulnerability and increase income and investment opportunities (H. De Haas, 2007a). The findings of the negative impacts of outmigration on household wealth is not a surprise as considerable number of previous studies conducted around the world reached similar conclusions. Some previous studies conducted in developing countries context reported impacts of outmigration in terms of reducing the supply of agricultural labor(R. K. Sunam & McCarthy, 2016), and increasing inequality and differentiation (A. A. Adaku, 2013; Anyanwu, 2011b; R. K. Sunam & McCarthy, 2016). Undeniably, there are also several studies which reported some positive impacts of outmigration on sending households such as improving household food security (Obi et al., 2020; Sulemana et al., 2019), reducing the poverty gap (Abadi et al., 2018; Abebaw et al., 2020), enhance the well-being of left-behind household members (Kuschminder et al., 2018) as remittances sent by migrants help the left behind family members increase their consumer asset accumulation (Anderson, 2014) and consumer expenditure (Anyanwu, 2011b) for health and education.

It should be noted that there are a variety of factors involved to determine the extent to which migration has a negative or positive impact on sending areas. The effects of migration, for instance, are dependent on the duration of the migration, the local context and the amount of remittances (IFAD, 2016b). In rural areas, the loss of young and able-bodied individuals can lead to a decline in agricultural productivity and labor availability (H. De Haas, 2007a). This can have adverse effects on the local economy, particularly in

terms of food production. The amount of remittances sent back by migrants to their families could be insufficient to positively contribute to household income, poverty reduction, and local economic development. The Ethiopian agriculture, including the study area, would be more responsive to a reduction in available farm labor as it was featured as a traditional labor-intensive production (Redehegn et al., 2019).

Other ways of looking at negative impacts of outmigration on wealth or economic status of sending households could emanate from the time lag. In a study of the effects of temporary labor migration from five African countries to South Africa's mines on agricultural production, Lucas (1987) concluded that migration diminishes domestic crop production in the short run, but enhances crop productivity and cattle accumulation through invested remittances and increased domestic plantation wages in the long run (Lucas, 1987). Based on household data from southern Morocco, de Haas (2003) identified a sequence in which more real investment by migrant through remittance occurred from 15 to 24 years after migration. Given, most out-migrant reported in the present analysis are relatively temporary, this assumption could hold true.

The findings of this study could be used to understand the dynamics of outmigration in Ethiopia, including planning, monitoring and evaluation of population mobility. The study was limited merely to the variables listed in the methodology part, and there might be some important variables not included in the analysis. Most present studies have primarily focused on the impact of migration on economic growth in the labor-sending community, and limited consideration is given to the cultural, psychosocial conditions of families and left-behind children (Cappelloni, 2011; Shahbaz et al., 2014). Moreover, as the data were collected based on cross-sectional design, drawing cause-effect relationship among the explanatory and outcome variable was not possible.

6.5. Conclusion and Implications

The overall findings of the study indicated that not all migrant-sending households receive remittances and that migration will not always have positive impacts on asset building and wealth status of a household. However, outmigration can significantly impact in that migrant-sending households can have a higher propensity to invest in health, education and agricultural inputs. The findings imply that local/regional government and relevant stakeholders should implement policies and programs that promote balanced local development, create employment opportunities in rural areas, and improve access to quality services in both rural and urban areas. Interventions should consider the multidimensional aspects of migration, including its effects on migrant-sending communities and left behind household

members. There has been limited research on the impacts of rural outmigration on home communities in Ethiopia in general and the study area in particular. This calls for in-depth analysis and the need to examine migration in a wider context of the development agenda based on more reliable longitudinal data.

CHAPTER SEVEN

7. SUMMARY OF MAJOR FINDINGS, CONCLUSIONS, AND POLICY IMPLICATIONS

7.1 Summary of Major Findings

Migration is frequently employed as a coping strategy by migrant-sending households, which tend to utilize a significantly higher number of coping mechanisms compared to non-sending households. This is likely due to the fact that these households are often faced with more pressing economic and social challenges, prompting them to seek out multiple strategies to mitigate these challenges. Household wealth is a key determinant of the number of coping strategies used, suggesting that households with greater financial resources are better equipped to employ multiple coping mechanisms.

The data reveals that approximately 80% of migration decisions were made at the household or family level, with the household often covering the costs associated with migration. This finding suggests that family and kin networks play a significant role in facilitating the integration of new migrants, providing them with vital support and resources as they navigate their new surroundings. Furthermore, the fact that restrictions on female mobility outside the household increase the likelihood of circular migration underscores the importance of considering the social and cultural context in which migration decisions are made.

The study's findings indicate that several key factors predict migration decisions, including large household size, poor asset-based wealth, and having an aged household head or parents. These factors likely contribute to a sense of economic insecurity, prompting households to seek out migration as a means of improving their economic prospects.

The data also reveals that migrant networks, as measured by remittance flows and access to information, are relatively underdeveloped. However, certain factors can strengthen these networks, including longer duration of migration, higher migrant age and education, and

originating from a larger household. These findings have important implications for the development of migrant networks and the potential impacts of migration on sending households.

While out-migration does not always have a positive impact on the asset-based wealth of sending households, it can lead to increased investment in health, education, and agricultural inputs, ultimately contributing to the economic development of these households. Further research using longitudinal data is needed to better understand the development impacts of migration and to identify strategies for maximizing its benefits.

The study area and region are experiencing significant out-migration, with migration being more of a household-level decision rather than an individual one. This underscores the importance of considering the household as a key unit of analysis in migration research. Moreover, the fact that migration networks are generally underdeveloped suggests the need to strengthen ties between migrants and their communities of origin, potentially through the development of programs and policies that support migrant integration and community development.

7.2 Conclusions and Policy Implications

Migrant-sending households tend to use a significantly higher number of coping strategies compared to non-sending households. This indicates that households that send migrants employ a wider array of strategies to manage their livelihoods and adapt to challenges. The text suggests that household wealth is a prime determinant of the number of coping strategies used. This implies that poorer households may have to rely on a greater diversity of coping mechanisms to get by, highlighting the need for policies and programs that can improve the overall livelihoods and economic security of migrant-source communities.

About 80% of the migration decisions were family-based, involving the household selling assets or providing direct financial support. This points to the central role that family and kin networks play in facilitating the initial adaptation and movement of new migrants. The text suggests that migration decision-making occurs at the household level, rather than being an individual choice, and that policies should recognize and account for this family-oriented process.

Key predictors of the migration decision include large household size, poor asset-based wealth, and having an aged household head. This indicates that poorer and larger households are more likely to send migrants. The text argues that migration-related interventions and policies should specifically target these more vulnerable household types.

Migration networks, as measured by remittance flows and access to information, are relatively low in the context studied. However, stronger migration networks are associated with longer migration durations, higher migrant education levels, being married, and originating from larger households. The text suggests that policies should aim to strengthen the connections between migrants and their source communities, potentially by facilitating remittances, information-sharing, and other forms of transnational linkages.

While migration does not always positively impact the asset-based wealth of migrant-sending households, it can significantly increase investments in health, education, and agricultural inputs. This highlights the need for a more nuanced and contextual understanding of migration's development impacts, which can be both positive and negative depending on the specific circumstances.

Finally, the text calls for future research using more rigorous longitudinal data to better establish causal relationships and examine migration dynamics in a wider development context. Investing in national-level longitudinal data would help Ethiopia and similar countries better understand migration trends and outcomes over time, informing more effective policymaking.

7.3. Future work

The study has several limitations that should be addressed in future research. The cross-sectional nature of the data used in this study limits the ability to infer causality between the variables of interest. In other words, the data only provides a snapshot in time and does not allow for an examination of how the variables may be related over time and how they influence each other dynamically. Future studies should utilize more rigorous longitudinal or cohort data to better understand the dynamic nature of migration processes and their multifaceted impacts. Longitudinal data, which follows the same individuals or households over an extended period,

would enable researchers to observe how migration patterns evolve and how they are shaped by various individual, household, community, and macro-level factors.

As well, the analysis in the current study focused on a relatively limited set of variables. Future research should incorporate a wider range of individual, household, community, and macro-level factors to examine migration dynamics more comprehensively. This could include factors such as employment opportunities, educational attainment, family structures, social networks, infrastructure development, economic conditions, and policies, among others. Investing in the collection of high-quality, national-level longitudinal data would also help track changes in migration behavior, practices, and outcomes over time and across different socioeconomic groups in the context of Ethiopia. Such data would provide a more nuanced and robust understanding of the complex drivers and consequences of migration in the country.

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Appendices

Annex 1: Household Questionnaire

Household Questionnaire

Code: _____

Date: _____

A. BASIC HOUSEHOLD INFORMATION

		IDENTIFICATION			
Area Identification				Household Particulars	
Q.001 Kebele		<input type="text"/>		Name of the HHH: _____	
1. Bekafta	4. Hateta			Age of the HHH (In completed years) <input type="text"/> <input type="text"/>	
2. Den zuria	5. Tirba			Sex of the HHH <input type="text"/>	
3. Gewena	6. Tulta			Male 2. Female	
village/Got Name _____				Total persons in the HH <input type="text"/> <input type="text"/>	
				Marital Status of the HHH	
				1. Single 5. Divorced	
				2. Married 6. Widowed	
				3. Cohabited	
				4. Separated.	
Educational Status		<input type="text"/> <input type="text"/>		Main Occupation of the HHH	
1. No education				1= Farming/livestock keeping,	
2. Read & Write only				2= Off-farm wage (Agriculture),	
3. Highest Grade Completed		(_____)		3= Non-farm Wage (Nonagricultural),	
4. (in years)				4= off farm Self-employed,	
				5= No any occupation,	
				6= Others Specify _____	

B. HOUSEHOLD SIZE AND COMPOSITION

B01. In total, how many persons live in this household?

B02. Please tell us their names and attributes accordingly, starting from the household head?

Name	Sex 1. Male 2. Female	Age (in completed Years)	R2HHH 1. Self 2. Spouse 3. Son/daughter 4. Siblings 5. Grand child 6. Parent 7. Grand parent 8. Other Relative 9. Other non-Relative	Marital Status 1. Single 2. Married 3. Cohabited 4. Separated 5. Divorced .Widowed	Educational Status 1. No education 2. Read & Write 3. Highest Grade Completed (years)	Occupation 1=Student, 2=Farming/livestock keeping, 3=Off-farm wage (Agriculture), 4=Non-farm Wage (Nonagricultural), 5=off farm Self-employed, 6=No any occupation, 7=Others Specify _____

Section One: Household income sources

In this section we would like to ask you some questions about your household’s sources of income. The purpose is that we would like to understand how important income diversification is to your household.

i). Use the following table to collect the relevant information regarding income received from the following sources. Please rank them in order of importance. (*Rank: the first (1) to be the most important source and so on*)

No.	Income Source /Type of activities	1. Yes 2. No	Average Amount per month(ETB)	Average Amount per Year (ETB)
101	Selling agricultural products/farming			
102	Selling livestock/domestic animals			
103	Selling poultry and poultry products			
104	Casual labor in the community			
105	Casual labor involving migration			
106	Selling of forest products			
107	Petty businesses			
108	Beekeeping			
109	Remittances			
110	Gifts			

111	Savings			
112	interest			
113	pension			
114	Rental property			
115	Other, please specify _____			

Section Two: Landholding (Land tenure system)

In this section we would like ask you some questions about land availability in this area that might be used for agriculture or for other purposes.

(201. Would you please to tell us the availability of land for agriculture / other purposes in this area?

1=Easily Available; 2=Available with difficulties, 3=Not available at all.

202. How is land acquired/got amongst the individuals?

1=Inherited, 2=Distributed by Village authorities, 3=Rented in

4. On contractual basis 5.By other means, specify

203a. If land is acquired on rental basis, for how long is your agreement? (_____years)

203b. If land is acquired on contractual basis, for how long is your agreement? (_____years)

203c. If land is acquired either on rental/contractual basis from whom did you made the agreement?

- 1) From those who own more land?
- 2) From those who leave the area to seek a job
- 3) From those who leave the area to make a living by begging in urban area
- 4) From those who are unable to plough their land because they lack other productive assets like ox/en
- 5) From those who are unable to plough their land due to ill health
- 6) Other, specify _____

204. Do you (this household) held land in this area (or somewhere else)? 1.
 YES 2.NO.

205a. If Yes to Q204 above, Go to (Q206) and (Q207) below

205b. If No to Q204, how do /make a living? _____

- 1.Share cropping 2. Tenancy 3. Casual labor in other area
 4. Seasonal out migration 5. By off farm activities 6. Craft works 7. Others,
 specify _____

206a. To what extent is the land held/owned by the household enough to cater for the needs of this household?

1=*to a very large extent*, 2=*moderately*, 3=*Not* all.

206b. If it is not enough what do you do to compensate for the deficit?

1. Work in other farmer's plot for wage
2. Send out household member/s to work for wage in urban area
3. Limit the number and amount of meal each day
4. Other, Specify _____

207. For the land that you hold, what cost was involved for its acquisition/ putting it into use, and what is the source of funds for acquisition/ putting into use? Use the table below to collect relevant information.

No.	Land use	Size of the land in timad	Total cost	Contribution from migrant/s	Contribution from other Sources
208	Land officially hold by the HH				
209	Land rented in				

Section Three: JOB OPPORTUNITIES AVAILABLE IN THE AREA

In this section we would like to ask you to tell us the kinds of job opportunities available in this area. These are the kind of activities from which people in this area earn their income (that is people work there and get paid).

301. Which of the following listed job opportunities are available in this area and your household members engage in to earn a living?

No.	Type of opportunities	1.Yes 2..No	Availability 1.abundant 2.Average 3. very little 4. not at all
301.1	Off-farm wage (farm related work, but not working on own farm)		
301.2	livestock keeping (for payment)		
301.3	fishing related activities		
301.4	Off-farm self-employment (Running a shop, sewing clothes etc.)		
301.5	Working in Dev. Projects in the area		

301.6	Casual laboring		
301.99	Other, specify _____		

Q302. Does this household have:

1. Internal migrants currently away 2. International migrants ently away
3. Both Internal and International migrants curre away 4. No migrants

V

If HH has no migrants currently away, please complete the non – migrants Questionnaire(starting from page 11)



Section Four: MIGRANT CHARACTERISTICS, MOTIVES AND PATTERNS OF MIGRATION

401. In total, how many migrant/s left/moved away from this household for more than six months?

Please tell us their names and their attributes accordingly

	Q402 Sex	Q403 Age	Q404 Marital Status	Q405 Educat ion	Q406 Physical Capability	Q407 Occupation At home	Q408 Period Outsid e home	Q409 Causes for migration
Name	1.Male 2.Fem ale		1. Single 2.Marrie d 3.Wido wed 4. Divorce d 5.Separa ted 6. cohabite d	1. No Educat ion 2. Read & write 3.highe st grade comple ted____ _____	1=able- bodied 2.Minor physical impairme nt 3.Major Physical impairme nt 4.Other, specify__ _____	1.student 2. farming 3. off-farm wage (agriculture) 4. non-farm wage (non-agriculture) 5.off-farm self employed 6. no any occupation 7.other specify _____	1.< 6 months 2.6-12 Months, 3.> a year	1.Education 2.unemploymen 3. land shortage 4. marriage 5. death of HH member 6.health issue 7=others Specify _____

411 Does this HH member have information on the possibility of getting a job at a particular destination? 1=Yes, 2=No.

412. If yes, how did he/she/ they get this information? 1. from previous migrants through telephone

2. from the household members of the migrant sending household in the nearby 3, Return migrants

4. Other, Specify _____

413. Is there any cost involved for him/her/them to be able to reach at the particular destination?

1=Yes, 2=No.

414. If Yes for Q413, how much cost on average was required for it (in ETB)?

415. How was this amount raised/obtained?

1. Selling HH assets 2. Borrowed from individuals 3. Own saving 4. Renting out the land

5. Other, specify _____

Section Five: HOUSEHOLD ECONOMIC POSITION (Assets owned by the household)

Q501.. Which of the following listed items does your household own or has access to?

No.	Asset/items owned	Yes....1 No.....2	How asset is acquired (Code a)	Est. Total value (ETB)	Cont. from migrant(s) ETB	Contribution from other sources
601	livestock					
601a	Cattle					
601b	Sheep					
601c	Goats					
601d	chickens					
601e	Donkey					
601f	horses					
601g	mules					
601h	beehives					
602	Production assets					
602a	Oxen ploughs					
602b	Horses ploughs					
602c	Hoes					
603	Buildings					
603a	Houses built					
603b	House repair &					

	maintenance					
603c	House purchased					
603d	House rented					
604	Other Assets					
604a	Mosquito net					
604b	Water pumping set					
604c	Houses					
604d	Solar panels					
604e	Beds					
604f	Cupboard					
604g	Radio owned					
604h	Television set					
604i	Mobile phone/s					
604j	Clock/s					

Code a: 1=Purchased; 2.Inherited; 3=4=Rented; 4=given as gift; 5=others.....

PART Six: CONTRIBUTION OF MIGRATION TO HOUSEHOLD GOODS AND SERVICES

6Ai). Contribution in Education

601). Has this household received any educational support from a member(s) who left to seek a living elsewhere? 1=Yes, 2=

602). If Yes, use the following table to collect information on this question:

No.	Type of Support	No. of beneficiaries	Total amount Required	Amount of support from a Migrant/s	Amount of support from other sources
602.1	Tuition fee				
602.2	Books and other materials				
602.3	Uniform including Other clothing				
602.4	Boarding fees				
602.5	Transport costs				
602.6	School building or maintenance				
602.7	Examination fees				
602.8	Pocket Money & Shopping				
6.999	Other _____				

. 603). Has the household gained in any ways from the skills and knowledge brought back by a migrant member? 1=YES and 2=NO.

b). If YES, what are the kinds of skills and knowledge gained by the household so far? (e.g. Carpentry, cookery, farming, animal keeping, etc.).....

.....

6Aii). Contribution in Health

604 a. For the entire period the household member has been away, is there any household member (at home) who suffered any illness or injury?

1=YES; 2=NO:

604.b. Has there been an incidence whereby a migrant member sent money to help “you” (this household) with health care expenses when one of your household member fell sick Yes, 2=No. (If No. go to 604d).

604c. If yes, how often this has been happening? 1=*every time a family member falls sick*, 2=*Once in a while*, 3=*Other specify*

604d. If yes, use this table to collect the relevant information:

No.	Name	Nature of	How much required	How much from a migrant(s)	How much from Other source/s
		1.mild 2.severe			
705.1					
705.2					
705.3					
705.4					
705.5					
705.6					

604e. If No to Q604b above, what might be the reasons? 1=*we have not been informing him/her*, 2=*we inform him/her but fails to respond due to lack of money*, 3=*simply s/he does not respond*.

6Bi. Water Supplies

611). For this household to access various sources of water mentioned below, how much costs was

involved, and what were the sources of funds to meet the costs involved? Use the following table to collect the relevant information:

No.	Type of Water Facility	1. Yes	Total Cost Required (ETB)	Contribution from a migrant	Contribution from other sources	Facility Used for 1=Domestic; 2=Business, 3=Both
		2. No				

611. 1	Piped into Dwelling					
611. 2	Piped into Plot/Yard					
611. 3	<i>public tap</i>					
611. 4	<i>Bore hole with pump</i>					
611. 5	<i>Protected dug well</i>					
611. 6	<i>Protected spring</i>					
611. 7	<i>Unprotected well/spring</i>					
611. 8	<i>River/ponds/spring</i>					
611. 9	<i>Rainwater harvesting</i>					
6.99 9	<i>Other; _____</i> <i>—</i>					

B.ii). Energy Supply

621. What is the main source of energy for this household, how much cost is/was involved and what were the main sources of funds? Use the table to collect responses accordingly.

No.	Type	1. Yes 2.No	Total Cost (ETB)	Contribution n from a migrant	Contribution from other sources	Facility Used for 1=Domestic; 2=Business 3=Both
622	LECTRICITY					
622.1	Electricity (Installations)					
622.2	Electricity (Monthly Bills)					
622.3	Electricity Maintenance(charges)					
623	SOLAR ENERGY					
623.1	Solar Power (Installation)					
623.2	Solar Power (Maintenance)					
624	BIOGASS					
624.1	Biogas (installation)					
624.2	Biogas (Maintenance)					

625	Cooking Gas					
626	Fuel Wood					
627	Charcoal					
628	Kerosene					
.999	Others Specify					

6B(iii). Agricultural Inputs

630). What are the quantities and values/cost of agricultural inputs you use in crop production/agricultural activities, at least over the past 12 months? *(This refers to agricultural cash expenditures; also refer to assets owned by household).*

No.	Type	Number/Amount	1.Purchased 2.hired	Total Cost	Contribution from migrant/s	Contribution from other source/s	Remarks
631	seeds						
632	Fertilizer						
633	Herbicide						
634	Pesticide						
635	Labour						
6.999	Other, Specify _____						

PART SEVEN: HOUSEHOLD AND WIDER INSTITUTIONS

701. Is there any member (members) of your household who has membership in any organization?

1=YES; 2=~~NO~~

Go to Q 803 below, otherwise continue as follows:

702. If YES, please provide as with the following information;

No.	Organization (code as appropriate)	1.Yes 2.No	Position held (Code: a)	Motive for joining (code:b)	Perception on usefulness (code: c)	Impact on the HH (code:d)
702.1	The kebele council (KC)					
702.2	Committee under					
702.3	Political parties					
702.4	CSOs*					
702.5	Farmers' cooperative					

	associations					
702.6	ASCI**					
702.7	RuSaCCos***					
7.999	Other, specify					

*CSOs = Civil Society Organizations ** ASCI = Amhara Saving and Credit Institute ****
 RuSaCCos = Rural Saving and Credit Cooperatives

Code a: 1=Member; 2=Leader;
 Code b: 1=Economic gains, 2=Social gains, 3=Personal gains, 4=Requirement by the village government, 5=Others (Specify)_____;
 Code c: 1=Very useful; 2= Useful; 3=Not Useful; 4= I do not know;
 Code d: 1=Impact on access to resources, 2=Impact on Livelihood, 3=Impact on knowledge and skills sharing/transfer, 4=Impact on information flow, 5=Impact on Network Creation, 6=Others (specify);
 Code e: 1=Entrance/joining fee, 2=Annual subscription fee, 3=Others (Specify)
 Code f: Contribution from migrants
 Code g: Contribution from other sources, please specify

703. What are the reason for not joining into any organization.....

704. When you compare the status of your household before and after a member left the HH to seek a living elsewhere, would you say your household is; 1=Better off 2=About the Same 3=Worsen.

705. If your household has remained about the same or has worsened off, would you associate this due to the departure of member? 1=YES; 2=NO

706. If improved/ gotten better off, would you associate this improvement with assistance received from a migrant member?

1=YES; 2=Nb). If YES, how.....

707. What are your opinions about rural-out migration? Do you support the idea of (promoting) rural-out migration or not? 1=Support; 2=Not Support; 3=Neutral (If supports, **go to question No. 709 below**).

708a). If the government want to enact a law which will prohibit people from leaving their rural areas to seek a living elsewhere, would

you support the law or not? 1=YES; 2=NO.
 708b). For either response, give reasons.....

708c. Apart from all the good things your household is gaining from migration (a migrant member(s)) are there any bad things

(disadvantages) associated with migration? 1=YES; 2=NO.

708d.If Yes, what are these disadvantages of having a member(s) leaving to seek a living elsewhere?

- 1. _____ 3. _____
- 2. _____ 4. _____

08e. Is there incidences where people leave their homes to seek a living elsewhere while healthy but they come back home suffering

from any type of illness. 1=Yes, 2=No.

708f. Has this household ever experienced such incidence/s? 1=Yes, 2=No.

708g. If Yes, how many times you have faced such incidences?.....

708h. In incidences how much cost did the household incur for treating the victim(s)/sufferer(s)/ the sick person(s)?

709). What are your comments regarding people leaving their rural areas to seek a living elsewhere?

- 1. In favor of it 2.against it 3. Neutral

Interview Ended: Date: _____ Time _____;

Thank the respondent for his/her precious time to respond to our questions. Remind again him/her that *the information s/he provided will be treated with high confidentiality by the research team and that under no circumstance will the information be used for any other purpose than meeting the objectives of this study.*

***** **END OF MIGRANT-SENDING HOUSEHOLD**
QUESTIONNAIRE*****

PART III: HOUSEHOLD QUESTIONNAIRE FOR NON_MIGRANT SENDING HOUSEHOLDS

PART Three: HOUSEHOLD ECONOMIC POSITION (Assets owned by the household)
In this section we would like to ask you some questions about your household’s economic position. The purpose is that we would like to understand which factors contribute to shaping the economic position of your household. Which of the following listed items does your household own or has access to?

No.	Asset/items owned	No. of items owned	How asset acquired 1=Purchased; 2.Inherited; 3=Rented; 4= as a gift; 5=Others	Est. Total value (ETB)	Contribution from own sources	Asset/Item used for (Code: 1=Domestic, 2=Business
401	livestock					
401a	Cattle					
401b	Sheep					
401c	Goats					
401d	chickens					
401e	Donkey					
401f	horses					
401g	mules					
401h	beehives					
402	Production assets					
402a	Oxen ploughs					
402b	Horses ploughs					
402c	Hoes					
403	Buildings					
403a	Houses built					
403b	House repair & maintenance					
403c	House purchased					
403d	House rented					
404	Other Assets					
404a	Mosquito net					
404b	Water pumping set					
404c	Houses					
404d	Solar panels					
404e	Beds					
404f	Cupboard					
404g	Radio owned					
404h	Television set					
404i	Mobile phone/s					
404j	Clock/s					

PART FIVE: EXPENSE FOR HOUSEHOLD GOODS AND SERVICES

AAi). Education

Use the following table to collect information on this question:

No.	Expense	No. of beneficiaries	Total amount Required	Support from own source	Amount of support from other sources
1.	Tuition fee				
2.	Books and other materials				
3.	Uniform including Other clothing				
4.	Boarding fees				
5.	Transport costs				
6.	School building or maintenance				
7.	Examination fees				
8.	Pocket Money & Shopping				
9.	Other _____				

501a). Has the household gained in any ways from the skills and knowledge brought back by a migrant member from the other household? 1=YES and 2=NO.

501b). If YES, what are the kinds of skills and knowledge gained by the household so far? (e.g. carpentry, cookery, weaving , farming, animal keeping, etc.).....

AAii). Contribution in Health

3. **502a.** During the last twelve months, is there any household member (at home) who suffered any illness or injury?
 1=YES; 2=NO.

502b. If yes, how often this has been happening? 1. *Several times* 2. *Occasionally* 3. *Once a while*

502c. If yes, use this table to collect the relevant information:

No.	Sickness Incidences	Nature of suffering	How much required	How much from Own sources	How much from Other source/s

BBi. Water Supplies

4). For this household to access various sources of water mentioned below, how much costs was involved, and what were the sources of funds to meet the costs involved? Use the following table to collect the relevant information:

No.	Type of Water Facility	Number	Total Cost	Contribution from own source	Contribution from other sources	Remark

1	Piped into Dwelling					
2	Piped into Plot/Yard					
3	public tap					
4	Bore hole with pump					
5	Protected dug well					
6	Protected spring					
7	Unprotected well/spring					
8	River/ponds/spring					
9	Rainwater harvesting					
	Other; _____					

BBii. Energy Supply

5). What is the main source of energy for this household, how much cost is/was involved and what were the main sources of funds? Use the table to collect responses accordingly.

No.	Type	Rank in ascending order	Total Cost	Contribution from a migrant	Contribution from other sources	Facility Used for 1=Domestic; 2=Business, 3=Both
1	LECTRICITY					
	Electricity (Installations)					
	Electricity (Monthly Bills)					
	Electricity Maintenance(charges)					
2	SOLAR ENERGY					
	Solar Power (Installation)					
	Solar Power (Maintenance)					
3	BIOGASS					
	Biogas (installation)					
	Biogas (Maintenance)					
4	Cooking Gas					
5	Fuel Wood					
6	Charcoal					
7	Kerosene					
	Animal dung					
8	Others Specify					

v). Agricultural Inputs

6). What are the quantities and values/cost of agricultural inputs you use in crop production/agricultural activities, at least over the past 12 months? (*This refers to agricultural cash expenditures; also refer to assets owned by household.*)

No.	Type	Unit Amount (KG/No./day)	How item is obtained 1. Purchased 2. hired	Average Total Cost (ETB)	Contribution from own sources	Contribution from other source/s
	seeds					
	Fertilizer					
	Herbicide					
	Pesticide					
	Labour					
	Other, Specify _____					

PART FOUR: JOB OPPORTUNITIES AVAILABLE IN THE AREA

In this section we would like to request you to tell us the kinds of job opportunities available in this area. These are the kind of activities from which people in this area earn their income (that is people work there and get paid).

1. Which of the following listed items are available in the area and your household members engage in to earn a living?

No.	Type of opportunities	Availability
		1.abundant 2.Average 3. very little 4. not at all
	Off-farm wage (farm related work, but not working on own farm)	
	livestock keeping (for payment)	
	Employment in private or public sector	
	fishing related activities	
	Off-farm self-employment (Running a shop, sewing clothes etc.)	
	Available enterprises (e.g. timber related, milling, etc.)	
	Driving vehicles and tractors	
	Available factories	
	Working in Dev. Projects in the area	
	Casual laboring	
	Other, specify _____	

PART SIX: HOUSEHOLD FINANCIAL, NATURAL AND SOCIAL CAPITAL INFORMATION

In above responses, we have seen how much has been the contribution from a migrant in terms of cash money. Now we would request you to tell us of the following few things:

- 1) a) Does the household (any member of the household) operate current or saving account? 1=YES, 2=NO.
- (b). If Yes, for the household (member) to open and maintain the bank account was there any contribution from a migrant?
1=Yes, 2=No.
- c). If yes, please explain how the migrant contributed/contributes to opening and running the bank account.....
2. a). Over the past 12 months, did household give out any gifts (in cash or in-kind, include Ceremonial Expenditures) to any Individuals/institutions? 1=YES; 2=NO
2. b). If yes, use the table below to collect the relevant information.

No.	Amount	Type of Gift 1.Cash 2.in kind	Total value (Birr)	Contribution from a migrant/s (Birr)	Contribution from a other source/s
1					
2					
3					

- 3a). Are there individuals in the household who are/were members of any self-help group?
1=YES; 2=NO.

b). If YES, how did they finance their membership? Use the table below to collect the following information

No.	Type of a group	Number of HH members	Total amount required [Code: a]	Contribution from a migrant/s	Contribution from a other source/s
1.	Youth related Group				
2.	Men's' Group				
3.	Women's' Group				
4.	Religious related				
5.	Family related				
6.	Social Welfare Groups				

- 4a). Are there individuals or institutions that owe this household any money? 1=YES; NO=2.
- b). If yes, how much do they owe this household (alternatively, how much does the household have in outstanding debt)? Use this table to collect relevant information.

No.	Institutions/individuals	Total amount indebted	Contribution from a migrant/s	Contribution from a other

				source/s

5a). Is the household having any wealth in savings in non-productive assets such as gold and jewelry? 1=YES, 2=NO.

5b). If YES in 9a above, how much does the household have in savings (Alternatively if you decide to sell these items today, how much would you sell them)? Birr.....

PART SEVEN: HOUSEHOLD AND WIDER INSTITUTIONS

1. Is there any member (members) of your household who has membership in any organization? 1=YES; 2=NO. If NO go to 2b below, otherwise continue as follows:

2. a). If YES, please provide as with the following information;

No.	Organization (code as appropriate)	No. of HH members	Position held (Code: a)	Motive for joining (code: b)	Perception on usefulness (code: c)	Impact on the HH (code: d)	Amount required for (code: e)	Code: f	Code: g
1	The kebele council (KC)								
2	Committee under								
3	Political parties								
4	CSOs								
5	Farmers' cooperative associations								
6	ASCI								
7	RuSaCCos								
8	Other,								

specify								
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6. *ASCI = Amhara Saving and Credit Institute and Credit Cooperatives*

7. *RuSaCCos = Rural Saving*

Code a: 1=Member; 2=Leader;
 Code b: 1=Economic gains, 2=Social gains, 3=Personal gains, 4=Requirement by the village government, 5=Others (Specify)_____;
 Code c: 1=Very useful; 2= Useful; 3=Not Useful; 4= I do not know;
 Code d: 1=Impact on access to resources, 2=Impact on Livelihood, 3=Impact on knowledge and skills sharing/transfer, 4=Impact on information flow, 5=Impact on Network Creation, 6=Others (specify);
 Code e: 1=Entrance/joining fee, 2=Annual subscription fee, 3=Others (Specify)
 Code f: Contribution from migrants
 Code g: Contribution from other sources, please specify

2b). What are the reason for not joining into any organization.....

3. When you compare the status of your household before and after a member left to seek for a living elsewhere, would you say your household is; 1=Better off 2=About the Same 3=Worsen.

4. If your household has remained about the same or has worsened off, could you please tell us, what might be the contributing factors to that situation?.....

5. a). If improved/ gotten better off, would you associate this improvement with assistance received from a migrant member?

1=YES; 2=NO b). If YES, how.....

6. What are your opinions about rural-out migration? Do you support the idea of (promoting) rural-out migration or not? 1=Support;

2=Not Support; 3=Neutral (If supports, go to question No. 9 below).

7a). If the government want to enact a law which will prohibit people from leaving their rural areas to seek a living elsewhere, would

you support the law or not? 1=YES; 2=NO.

7b). For either response, give reasons.....

8a). Apart from all the good things your household is gaining from migration (a migrant member(s)) are there any bad things (disadvantages) associated with migration? 1=YES; 2=NO.

8b).If Yes, what are these disadvantages of having a member(s) leaving to seek a living elsewhere?

1. _____ 3. _____
 2. _____ 4. _____

8c). Is there incidences where people leave their homes to seek a living elsewhere while healthy but they come back home suffering from any type of illness. 1=Yes, 2=No.

8cc) Has this household ever experienced such incidence/s? 1=Yes, 2=No.

8d). If Yes, how many times you have faced such incidences?.....

8e). In such incidences how much cost did the household incur for treating the
victim(s)/sufferer(s)/ the sick
person(s)?_____

9). What are your comments regarding people leaving their rural areas to seek a living elsewhere?

Interview Ended: Date: _____ Time _____;

Thank the respondent for his/her precious time to respond to our questions. Remind again him/her that *the information s/he provided will be treated with high confidentiality by the research team and that under no circumstance will the information be used for any other purpose than meeting the objectives of this study.*