

**ADDIS ABABA UNIVERSITY
SCHOOL OF GRADUATE STUDIES**

**PATTERNS, CAUSES AND CONSEQUENCES
OF URBAN-WARD MIGRATION IN ETHIOPIA:
THE CASE OF KOMBOLCHA TOWN**

GASHAW TESHOME NEGA

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Presented to
The School of Graduate Studies
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of the Requirements for the Degree of
Master of Arts in Geography**

**BY
GASHAW TESHOME NEGA**

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DECLARATION

I, the undersigned, declare that the Thesis is my original work, has not been presented for a degree in any other university and that all sources of material used for the thesis have been duly acknowledged.

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ABBREVIATIONS

CSA:	Central Statistical Authority
CSO:	Central Statistical Office
ECA:	Economic Commission for Africa
ICDR:	Institute of Curriculum Development and Research
IUSSP:	International Union for Scientific Study of Population
NOP:	National Office of Population
ONCCP:	Office of the National Committee for Central Planning
OPHCC:	Office of Population and Housing Census Commission
SNNP:	Southern Nations, Nationalities and People's Region
UN:	United Nations

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DEFINITION OF TERMS

Approved Investment Projects:- Refer to investment projects that have received investment permits either from Ethiopian Investment Authority or from Amhara Regional State Investment Bureau.

Area OF Destination:- The area to which a migrant moves (in this case Kombolcha).

Area of Origin:- The area from which a migrant moves (in this case areas other than Kombolcha).

Chain Migration:- It is a process where by migratory movements are sustained through kinship or other links.

Edir:- Is fund raising voluntary association to cover the expenses of funeral services and other related affairs.

Inactive Investment Projects:- Refers to approved investment projects that have not started their implementation program.

Inter-Regional Migrants:- Migrants from other administrative regions of the country.

Intra-Regional Migrants:- Migrants who come from the region where Kombolcha is found (Migrants from Amhara Region).

Intra-Zonal Migrants:- Migrants from other weredas of South Wollo Administrative Zone.

Kebele:- It is the lowest administrative unit in the country.

Migration Stream:- A group of migrants having a common origin and destination in a given migration period.

Migrant:- Is a person whose area of residence is different from his origin during the field survey.

Non-Migrants:- (In this case) is a person who is born in Kombolcha.

Projects that have Commenced Operation:- Refer to those approved projects which have partially or fully completed their implementation phase and began production or services.

Rural-urban Migrant:- Is a person who changes his usual place of residence from a rural to an urban area.

Step-Wise Migration:- Moving from Smaller Settlement to larger ones up the urban hierarchy.

Terminated Investment Projects:- Refers to projects whose investment permits are returned by the investor or are canceled.

Under-Implementation Projects:- Refer to those approved investment projects which have started practical activities such as civil engineering works, construction of factory buildings, purchasing of machinery and equipment.

Urban-Urban Migrant:- A person who changes his usual place of residence from one urban area to another.

Wereda:- The Administrative Unit next to administrative zone in descending order.

ABSTRACT

In some developing countries such as Ethiopia the phenomenon of rural-urban migration which is mainly triggered by rural 'push' factors than urban 'pull' factors is the main cause of unbalanced rate of population growth and distribution

between urban and rural areas. This situation in turn affects the healthy development of both urban and rural areas.

In spite of this fact, not much is known on many of the aspects of rural-urban migration. The present study of migration to Kombolcha is mainly concerned with an assessment of the flow pattern and characteristics of migrants, and the major causes and consequences of the flow of people from rural to urban areas.

In order to find out the problems, 537 household heads were randomly selected from the total household heads residing in the town. Structured and open ended questionnaires were prepared on the demographic and socio-economic characteristics of both migrant and non-migrant households. However, large part of the questionnaire is mainly centered around the migrants.

Most of the migrants move to the town alone. They have some information about the town and the decision of their migration is mostly made by themselves. However, most of them migrated spontaneously. A greater number of the migrants are short distance migrants, young adults, males, married and had some form of education.

There are many causes for the movement of the people to the town. Among them the need to join friends and relatives, the search for job and urban amenities and facilities are the most important.

Many of the migrants encountered problems at the initial period of adjustment and adaptation and even currently. However, many of them are not far below the natives in the town in their socio-economic conditions.

In line with this, some useful points of recommendations for effective urban management and rural development activities are suggested.

CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

Unlike mortality and fertility, internal migration does not affect the entire population size of a country. But it has a very important role in redistributing the population size between rural and urban areas and between rural areas of low potential and those of higher agricultural potential.

The movement of people from rural to urban areas is only one of the possible forms of internal migration. It does not account for the largest proportion of internal migrants in low income countries. Rural to rural migration is more important quantitatively (UN 1991:191; UN 1999:30 and Broadely and Cunningham, 1994:23).

However, the emphasis is generally placed on rural-urban migration. In other words, it becomes a focus in the literature and major interest to administrators and policy makers, because it is the most conspicuous cause of differences between urban and rural rates of population growth (Bilsborrow, etal, 1984:22 and UN, 1988:191). Moreover, it tends to accentuate the unevenness in the numerical distribution of population such as the high concentration of population in the primate cities of developing countries (Garnier, 1966: 221-223).

The rapid rate of urban population growth and the high concentration of population in towns and cities of the third world are associated with problems of allocation of scarce resources to expand urban services and amenities. In other words, urban areas are not capable of absorbing migrants in gainful jobs and unable to provide adequate living conditions.

The rapid geographic shift of persons from rural to urban places of residence within the same countries has been a result of the combination of both "push" and "pull" factors in the rural and urban areas. For instance, in Ethiopia, the urban areas

are more developed with some what greater prospects of jobs and career advancement and comfortable living-conditions in relative terms than in most of the rural areas where living conditions and job opportunities have not shown any improvement.

Despite the emphasis placed on it, in practice, most of the policies or strategies of third world countries to reduce or reverse rural urban migration have rarely been successful (Hjerppe, 1998:6 and UN, 1990:31). One of the suggested reason for their failures is the formulation of polices without adequate knowledge and information about causes and consequences of migration (Operai, 1987 cited in lussp, 1989:264).

In Ethiopia only very few studies have been undertaken and there is a lack of adequate understanding of the process of migration and its causes and consequences on the migrants. The main purpose of this study is to provide some information for policy makers, administrators and academic institutions on these matters.

1.1 Statement of the Problem

Ethiopia is one of the least urbanized countries of the world where 13.8 percent of its population lives in urban areas. However, its rate of urbanization is one of the highest in the world, 4.1 percent (Markos and Seyoum, 1998:155). The rapid growth of urban population in Ethiopia and in many other developing countries has been largely due to rural-urban migration contributing almost half of their urban population growth (Kebede, 1994:9). For instance, in 1994, about 44.7 percent of the urban residents in Ethiopia were migrants (CSA, 1998 summary reports:14). The figures were higher for some towns such as Kombolcha, 50.6 percent and Bahir Dar, 54.1 percent (CSA, 1995, Vol. 1, part II).

It is apparent that the basic reasons for the drift of large numbers of people from rural to the urban areas are the rural push factors such as rural population pressure and resource and environmental degradation. In addition, the relative improvement of different facilities and better living conditions in the urban areas compared to the rural areas is the main "pulling" factor.

The pace of urbanization or the tide of migration to urban areas which is mainly triggered by rural "push" factors is consistently higher than the capacity of new job openings and the provision of housing and others social services and amenities (Lattes, 1989:268; UN, 1984:60 and McBride, 1991:21). Its effects are felt in wide spread urban unemployment, over-crowded housing and severe shortage of public amenities. However, most consider the opportunity of urban life to be preferable to the harsh conditions from which they migrated. This results in a situation of continued rural-urban migration in the face of rising urban unemployment, problems of housing and degradation of the urban environment. Therefore, instead of its role as an equilibrating mechanism and integral part of development, rural urban migration acts as a means of increasing the ruralization of urban areas or a shift of under employment and poverty from the rural sector to the urban sector in many of the less developed countries (Billborrow, et.al, 1984 and Dasgupta, 1981). Moreover, it can affect agricultural productivity and other rural activities in their areas of origin i.e rural areas.

These problems created by excessive rural-urban migration have stimulated the attention of social scientists, economists, planners and administrators etc. Many governments throughout the world have been implementing direct or indirect policies or programs ranging from integrated rural-urban development to planned re-distribution through resettlement projects. However, most of the population

distribution policies in general and migration policies in particular in developing countries have not been successful (Arowolo, 1988:44).

Currently, there is an increasing recognition that urbanization is an inevitable and irreversible process and an integral part of development. The policies and programs to control rural-urban migration are unrealistic. The solutions to urban problems depend heavily on effective urban management and sound rural development policies (Cheema, 1993 and UN, 1995).

Adequate understanding and knowledge of the characteristics of migrants, patterns, causes and consequences of migration could be considered as a prerequisite for the effective urban management and the formulation and implementation of sound rural development policies.

In Ethiopia, much has not been done to study the characteristics of rural-urban migrants, the patterns, causes and consequences of rural-urban migration. From the available limited literature on the subject a few have attempted to study these aspects of urban-ward migration such as Shack (1973) in Addis Ababa, Mullenbach (1976) in Akaki Beseka, Bjerer (1985) in Shashemene, Kebede (1991) in Nazareth, Berhane (1993) in Awassa, Birru (1997) in Arbaminch etc. Some of these studies are from the anthropological point of view and concentrated on Addis Ababa and the nearby towns. The rest of the studies have been conducted either at regional or national levels. Some of them are Bondestam (1972); Ponsi (1979); Hailu (1983); Alula (1985) and Almaz (1990).

The purpose of this study is, therefore, to investigate the flow pattern and the characteristics of migrants, and causes and consequences of urban ward migration by taking Kombolcha as a case study. Kombolcha is one of the town in the Amhara region that has been experiencing rapid population growth, 4.92 percent with a large

proportion of migrant population, 50.6 percent. It is hoped that this study will contribute to the body of limited and insufficient migration literature in the country and provide some information which could be of help in the efforts of urban management and formulation and implementation of rural development policies and programs.

1.2 Objectives of the Study

Identification of the flow pattern and the characteristics of migrants and the factors influencing rural-urban migration provides an important clue for effective urban management and rural development activities.

In line with problems stated above, the main objectives of the study are to:

1. identify and examine the people who dominate the migration stream on the basis of age, sex, marital status, educational attainment and occupation;
2. examine the factors which motivate the migrants to leave their place of birth, or areas of previous residence and move to the town;
3. approximately gauge the volume and study the spatial pattern of urban ward migration with reference to the study area;
4. assess the primary problems faced by migrants during the initial period of adjustment and adaptation;
5. examine the current demographic and socio-economic conditions of migrants compared to those born in the town;
6. suggest solutions to moderate rural-urban migration.

1.3 Research Questions

Taking the objectives listed above into account, attempts are made to answer the following research questions:

1. Who are the dominant migratory groups to the town?

2. What are the primary reasons of migration for most of the urban in-migrants?
3. What is the spatial and temporal distribution of migrants?
4. How do the processes of urban ward migration proceed?
5. What are the impacts of urban ward migration on the migrants?
6. What is the intention or plan of migrants to return to their origin?

1.4 Research Methodology

1.4.1 Types and Sources of Data

The study is based on data obtained from primary and secondary sources.

Structured and open-ended questionnaire were prepared to gather information about the process and reasons of migration, the past and present demographic and socio-economic characteristics of migrants, and their future plan of migration. The migrant household heads had responded to all the questions. However, the non-migrant households completed only questions in regard to the present demographic and socio-economic characteristics of households. The questionnaire has been administered to the heads of the households, (male or female) or the spouse in the absence of the head.

In addition to data collected through questionnaire, the secondary data pertaining to the physical expansion of the town, the structure and utilization of basic services were obtained from various sources. The Kombolcha wereda administration, education, health and water service offices, Ethiopian Electric Light and Power Authority - Kombolcha district and the administration offices of the six medium and large scale industries were some of the major sources. The Statistical Bulletin of Economic Development and Planning Bureau of Amhara region, Trade

and Industry Department of South Wollo Administrative Zone have been approached to get additional data.

In addition to these, various publications of the CSA such as the 1984 and 1994 population and housing census statistical and analytical reports at country and regional level, the 1998 welfare monitoring survey and annual abstracts have contributed to the study substantially by providing information regarding the study.

1.4.2 Sampling Design and Method of Data Analysis

For administrative purposes, Kombolcha is divided into twelve "Kebeles". Taking time and financial constraints into consideration, the study encompasses a sample size of 537 household heads or four percent of the household heads residing in the town. The sample size households from each Kebele was based on the number of households in each of them as shown in table 1.1.

Table 1.1: Distribution of Sample households by Kebele

Kebele	Total Population	Number of Household Heads	Sample Households (4%)
01	2,640	644	26
.02	4,107	1,002	40
03	5,066	1,236	49
04	4,889	1,192	48
05	3,456	843	34
06	3,473	847	34
07	4,410	1,076	43
08	6,400	1,561	62
09	3,837	936	37
10	6,802	1,659	66
11	4,763	1,162	46
12	5,292	1,291	52
Total	55,135	13,449	537

After having decided on the size of sample households, simple random sampling was employed to select the representative household heads from Kebele household registers.

In order to facilitate the survey work, twelve enumerators who have completed of grade twelve selected from each kebele. They were trained for two days specifically on the nature and details of the questionnaire and how on carefully to handle the filling in of the questionnaire.

In order to maintain the quality of data collected, meetings were held with enumerators at the end of each survey date to discuss problems encountered. The researcher has randomly checked the households surveyed by the enumerators. Additional visits were made particularly on week ends and other convenient times for interviewing household heads who were absent at the regular time of interviewing and re-interviewing was needed for corrections.

Out of the total 537 sample households, 5 were not available even at the time of additional visits. Questionnaires were successfully completed for a total of 532 households (330 migrant and 202 non-migrant households).

After the completion of data collection, descriptive statistical techniques (percentages, rates, averages tables etc) were employed as method of data analysis.

1.5 Significance of the Study

The findings of this study are expected to make modest but important contributions to policy and planning issues, because:

- I. they may be helpful in tackling the problems that force people to leave their rural origin and narrowing the development gap between urban and

rural areas through the introduction of sound rural development strategies and effective urban management.

- II. they could provide information for planners and policy makers in their overall effort to formulate and implement population redistribution or migration policy.

1.6 Limitation of the Study

1. Due to the lack of adequate and reliable data to measure the impact of urban-ward migration on the destination and origin of migrants the research work focuses only on the impact of urban-ward migration on the migrants based on the responses of them.
2. In an attempt to complete the study within the given time frame, the sample size is limited to 537 household heads. Among the total sample household heads only 330 are migrants. When we consider the number of sample migrants from each region, zone and wereda at the time of the study, it is almost nil for most of them. As a result, it is insufficient to measure the rate of migration from different parts of the region or the country and to test the degree of its dependency on different variables.
3. As some of the questions were retrospective, some respondents had difficulties of re-calling events such as their age at the time of leaving their place of birth or area of previous residence, the year of migration to Kombolcha etc.
4. Due to cultural and other influences some respondents were unwilling to provide correct information about their current monthly income, marital status before their migration to the town etc.

Some of the migrants were unable to know the region, zone and wereda of their birth. This may be attributed to their lack of contact or visit to their origin, continuous re-classification of administrative boundaries etc.

1.7 Organization of the Thesis

This research work is organized into six chapters. The first chapter covers the introductory part that assess the statement of the problem, objectives, methods, significance, limitations of the study.

Chapter two deals with the literature review encompassing the pattern and process of migration, demographic and socio-economic characteristics of migrants, causes and consequences of rural-urban migration in Ethiopia and generally in the less developed countries.

Chapter three presents a general background to the study area such as the physical condition, origin and growth, demographic and socio-economic conditions of the town. The flow pattern and characteristics of migrants and the cause of migration are discussed in chapter four. Chapter five is devoted to effects of migration on the migrants. The last chapter (chapter six) presents the conclusion and recommendations of the study.

CHAPTER TWO

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 The Conceptual Frame Work

2.1.1 Definitions and Classifications of Migration

Mobility is a general term embracing all kinds of territorial movements (UN, 1984:29). In other words, it includes both circulation and migration (Hornby and Jones, 1993:99). Circulation has been defined as short term, repetitive or cyclical movements (Newman and Matzke, 1984:159; Shryock, et.al, 1976:373 and Binns 1994:32). Migration is a permanent change of residence for a substantial duration (Lee, 1966:49; Broadly and Cunningham 1994:22).

However, no restriction is placed upon the length of duration (one year or more is often taken as the accepted duration) or upon the distance of the move (the lowest level of administration unit should be considered) (Hornby and Jones: Ibid; Broadly and Cunningham: Ibid). Therefore, in operational terms, migration is not a sharp concept. Its definitions are largely situational, depending on the investigator's particular needs (Newman and Matzke, Ibid) and the nature of the sources available for the study of any migration phenomenon (White and Woods, 1980:5).

It is possible to classify migration in terms of distance, time, character of origins and destinations, motive and characteristics of the migrants etc. (Barke and O'Hare, 1991:204; and Johnston, 1994:380). Thus, migration is a multi-dimensional phenomenon that has resulted in a wide-range of types (Aklilu and Tadesse, Ibid and Broadly and Cunningham, 1994:22). This prohibits simple classification of migration and obviously no single typology satisfactorily incorporates all types of human migrations (Clarke, 1972:30). Another problem is the lack of uniformity in terminology (Clarke, Ibid) and as research has progressed and data have increased in volume, detail and reliability old topologies have been modified or discarded and others have been proposed (Hornby, 1980:106).

2.1.2 Laws, Theories and Models of Migration

Though several attempts have been made, the development of theories in migration has been limited. This is because of the changing and multiple usage of the variables involved (Kubat and Richmond, 1975:24).

2.1.2.1 Ravenstein's Laws of Migration

E.G. Ravenstein was one of the first contributors to the theory of migration (Whiterick 1994:83). He devised the laws of migration in the context of the 19th century Britain (Barke and O'Hare, 1991:205). These laws were comprised of a set of migration generalizations (Rhoda, 1979:12) about the characteristics of migrants, their motives and patterns of migration (Barke and O'Hare: Ibid; and Hornby and Jones 1993:111).

The most important of these laws are the following (Ravenstein, 1885 cited in Hornby and Jones, 1993:99):

1. Most migrants travel short distances and that with increasing distance the number of migrants decreases.
2. Migrants proceeding long distances generally go by preference to one of the great centers of Commerce and Industry.
3. Migration occurs in stages i.e. migration will first be to nearby places and then to most rapidly growing cities.
4. Each main current of migration produces a compensating counter current.
5. The natives of towns are less migratory than those of rural parts of the country.
6. Females appear to pre-dominate among short journey migrants.
7. The volume of migration increases with the development of transport, industry and commerce.

8. The economic motives are predominant among push and pull factors of migration.

Since, Ravenstein's laws were devised in the context of the 19th century Britain, they have limited application to the contemporary third world countries and it would be wrong to give the impression of uniformity in migration characteristics. Finally, it should be stressed that these generalizations are, like most others in the contemporary third world, liable to change (Barke and O'Hare 1991:205).

Inspite of such challenges, Ravenstein's 'laws' largely have withstood the test of time and remain the starting point for work in migration theory (Rhoda, Ibid). Most of the models of generalizations developed in the 20th century were basically derivatives of these laws (Monstead and Walji, 1978:130).

2.1.2.2 The Concept of Distance-Decay and The Theory of Intervening Opportunities

The best known of Ravenstein's laws states that migration is a distance-decay phenomenon. In other words, the volume of migration decreases with increasing distance. This happens mainly because of the increase of the cost of travel and decrease of awareness of opportunities with distance (Ravenstein, Ibid).

Later (1946), Zipf put this notion in a more sophisticated way by adding another variable i.e. the population size of the origin and destination. Thus he realized that "the volume of migration is directly proportional to the product of the population of places of origin and destination, and inversely proportional to the distance between the two places." (Zipf 1946 cited in Witherick , 1994:84).

Samuel A. Stouffer (1940 and 1960) introduce another factor influencing the volume of migration. These are "intervening opportunities" between an area of origin and a potential destination; and the "competing migrants" at the destination. Thus, Stouffers theory of intervening opportunities states that:

The amount of migration over a given distance is directly proportional to the number of opportunities (Jobs, housing, goods, services, attractive amenities etc) at the place of destination and inversely proportional to the number of opportunities between the place of departure and the place of destination as well as the number of other migrants competing for opportunities at the destination (Stouffer, 1960 cited in Clarke, 1972 and Hornby, 1980:93).

Rose's analysis of social class and migration to Minneapolis (1955) throws interesting light on the related concepts of distance-decay and intervening opportunities. He found that "as social class (occupational status) declined, the distance moved decreased except for those in the very lowest social class" (Rose, 1970:90).

2.1.2.3 The Push-Pull Theory

The push-pull concept is concerned with reasons for migration. It explains that, for any individual the decision to migrate results from the interplay of 'push' and 'pull' factors. The 'push' factors are pressures which encourage individuals or families to leave one place (the rural home land). These factors could include: low crop yield, land shortage, poor employment prospects etc. The 'pull' factors are attractions of the destination (attractions of the city). For example high wages, employment opportunities, wide range of amenities etc. (Gmelch and Zenner, 1996:190; Broadly and Cunningham, 1994:22). In some cases only 'push' factors will be of major importance and in other situations, 'pull' factors will be of overwhelming importance (Wetherick, 1994:79 and Hornby and Jones, 1993:102).

The two dimensions of the basic push-pull theory are: migration selectivity and migration elasticity. Migration selectivity or differential migration refers to the tendency of certain persons or groups (age, sex, class etc.) to be more migratory than others in certain circumstances and at certain times. Migration elasticity acknowledges the fact that individuals react differently to the 'push' and 'pull' factors

since they perceive and evaluate them differently (Hornby, 1980:88; Witherick, *Ibid*, and Jansen, 1970:14).

In 1966, E.S. Lee revised the basic push-pull concept. He does not attempt to isolate the push and pull factors as influencing personal migration decisions. Instead, he presents a situation in which a particular place of origin and place of destination is characterized by a particular mix of attributes. Each individual perceives these attributes differently depending on personal characteristics (age, genders, education, marital status etc.).

A particular individual will see some of the attributes of the present location as advantages (plus factors at origin discouraging migration) and others as disadvantages (minus factors at origin encouraging migration). The same individual will be indifferent towards a third group of factors (neutral factors at origin that have no bearing on the decision making). A similar picture of positive, negative and neutral factors is present at a potential destination, except that here positive factors encourage and negative factors discourage migration (Witherick, *Ibid*: 82; Lee, 1966:50).

Lee introduced another component to the simple push-pull model. This is the concept of intervening obstacles. Intervening obstacles are factors which make the actual migration from one place to another very difficult, such as distance between areas of origin and destination, cost of transportation, etc. In other words, they are factors that must be overcome before migration can take place (Witherick, 1994:82; Hornby and Jones, *Ibid*:105; and Aklilu and Tadesse, 1991:38-40).

After identifying the factors of migration, Lee deduced some conclusions with regard to the volume of migration, the development of streams and counter streams; and migration selectivity (Lee, *Ibid*:50-56).

1. The volume of migration is related to the difficulty of surmounting the intervening obstacles.
2. The efficiency of the stream is high if the major factors in the development of a migration stream were minus factors at origin or if the intervening obstacles are strong.
3. Migrants responding primarily to positive factors (pull factors) at urban destination tend to be positively selected, i.e, better educated or more highly skilled.
4. Migrants responding primarily to negative factors (push factors) at rural origins are likely to be negatively selected; i.e. with little education and less marketable skills. Of course, where these factors are overwhelming, they may not be selective at all.
5. The degree of positive selection increases with the difficulty of intervening obstacles.

The push - pull theory may be considered as an off-spring of the neo-classical economic theory and basically associated with the 19th century European Economic Development (Monstead and Walji, 1978:131-132). Most of the theoretical formulations of it have been applied to urban-urban migrations in the developed countries of the world. But it has little or no application to the rural-urban migrations in the underdeveloped countries (Mabogunje, 1975:210). Although the push-pull concept is appealingly simple, it is nevertheless a useful framework for categorizing a range of factors encouraging migration (Gmelch and Zenner 1996:190).

2.1.2.4 The Economic Models of Migration

The Lewis model is the first well known economic model of development to include the process of rural-urban labour transfer as an integral element. The model

is based on the concept of dual economy (the subsistence sector and the capitalist sector) and considers rural-urban migration as essentially an equilibrating mechanism through the transfer of labour from the surplus area (rural sector) to labour deficit one (urban sector).

Despite the appeal of the dual economy model and its relevance to the history of the development of many of the developed countries of the world today, most observers have found it unsatisfactory for analyzing the causes and consequences of migration in Third World Countries because of a number of shortcomings:

1. Migration is not solely induced by the presence of underemployment and low wages in rural areas.
2. The assumption of near zero marginal productivity in agriculture has not been empirically supported.
3. The most serious shortcoming of this model is, however its assumption of a high rate of expansion of urban employment opportunities (the capitalist sector) through continuous investment of the rural surplus labour. However, in the vast majority of less developed countries, the rate of growth of employment in the urban sector has been unable to absorb the surplus labour from the rural sector. Instead, rural-urban migration has resulted in the shift of underemployment from the rural to the urban sector (Bilsborrow, et al, 1984:168; Shrivastava, 1994:163 and Dasgupta, 1981:53)

Sjaastad cost benefit model (1962) uses the concept of investment in human capital. It treats the decision to migrate as an investment decision involving the cost and benefits of migration decisions. Sjaastad's approach assumes that people will

migrate when the net benefits exceed the cost of migration (Sjaastad, 1962 cited in Bilsborrow, et.al, 1984:16-17).

According to this model rural development activities will decrease the benefit of rural-urban migration by increasing income and other opportunities in rural areas. It also decrease the cost of migration by increasing the ability to finance the move to a city, access to information about urban opportunities, the level of educational attainment etc. (Rhoda, 1979:1, 22).

Todaro's expected income model is basically an extension of the human capital approach of Sjaastad. The model is based on the idea that the decision to migrate depends upon a perception by the potential migrant of an "expected" income rather than an actual wage rates (Todaro, 1969 cited in Bilsborrow, et.al, 1984:17). In other words, Todaro ascribed rural-urban migration primarily to rural-urban expected income differential. This results in a situation of continued rural-urban migration in the face of rising unemployment, problems of housing and degradation of the cities of third world countries (Harris and Tadaro, 1970 cited in Rhoda, 1979:19).

In the Todaro model, rural-urban migration would cease when the expected urban income is equal to the expected (prevailing) rural income. This model also suggests that rural development activities and rural-urban migration have negative relationship (Todaro, 1969 cited in Rhoda, 1979: 20-22).

Todaro's model provides insight into continuing migration in the face of growing urban unemployment (Hoopengardner 1974:1). However, it is criticized on the following grounds (Bilsborrow, etal, Ibid):-

1. Estimating the expected income and their rural-urban differential is problematic both methodologically and conceptually.

2. The model does not consider non-economic factors.
3. An increase in rural income may increase rural-urban migration by increasing the ability to finance the move to a city, access to information about urban opportunities, the level of educational attainment etc.

2.2 The Empirical Framework

2.2.1 Migration and Urbanization

The process of rural-urban migration is normally associated with industrialization and urbanization (McBride, 1991:21). It is responsible for the growth of urban populations with considerably greater speed than the corresponding rural populations throughout the world (UN, 1974:19).

Rural urban migration was a feature of the 19th century in developed countries (Europe and North America). In other words, from the onset of industrialization particularly from 1860s onwards, a considerable part of their urban growth was due to rural-urban migration (Alula, 1991:91 and Gelbard et al; 1999:17). After 1920s, rural-urban migration or rural depopulation began to slow down due to the beginnings of sub-urbanization and the transformation of certain urban industrial areas into depressed areas. In the contrary, urban out-migration became accelerated (Lewis, 1998:133-134).

Since 1945, the less developed countries (Asia, Latin America and Africa) began to industrialize and more people began to move to their cities. Cities in developing world have grown so rapidly and rural-urban migration became one of the characteristics of those countries (Alula, Ibid and Gelbard, et al, Ibid). For instance, in the period between 1950 and 1975, the urban population of less developed countries grew at 4.0 percent annually, much faster than the rate of increase of developed countries in the 19th century (did not exceed 2.5 percent) and migration

alone accounts for about 40 percent of their urban population growth (Gelbard, et.al 1999:17-18 and Grigg, 1980:254).

Moreover, with the decline of natural increase in many of the urban areas of the developing countries, net rural-urban migration became the major source of urban population growth. For example, it has accounted for 54 percent of their urban growth in the 1980s. However, the contribution of rural-urban migration varied from 25 percent in Africa to 64 percent in developing Asia (UN, 1999:30). In Latin America (most urbanized among less developed regions), its contribution declined from 75 percent in the post world War II period (Lattes, 1989:263) to 34 percent in the 1980s (UN 1999:30). This is because the increases in the level of urbanization will lead to low net urban migration in relation to high rates of net rural out-migration (UN, 1988:194).

2.2.2 Patterns and Processes of Migration

It is through rural-urban migration that a country develops from a rural to urban society. In other words, because of its contribution to city growth, rural-urban migration is often cited as a major determinant of urban growth. Thus, rural-urban migration becomes a focus in the literature and attracts interest of administrators and policy makers (UN, 1988:191 and Bilsborrow, et.al, 1984:22).

It does not mean that rural-urban migration accounts for the largest proportion of internal migrants in all parts of the world. In countries that are largely rural (many parts of Africa, parts of Asia such India and Thailand) rural-rural migration accounts for the majority of flows and in highly urbanized countries (Britain, Korea, Brazil, Peru etc.) urban-urban and urban-rural movements of population are important (UN, 1988: Ibid; UN, 1991:191, UN, 1999:30; and Broadly and Cunningham, 1994:23).

An important aspect in the study of the process of rural-urban migration is the place of origin of migrants. Urban in-migrants may be drawn from the whole range of settlements but they may not be equally represented (Jansen, 1970:18 and Ishumi:1984:53). In countries that are largely rural, most urban in-migrants originate in rural areas. For instance, the bulk of migrants to greater Cairo has been from villages in the Nile Delta (UN, 1990:4) and 60 percent of the migrants in Monterrey were coming from rural areas (Browning, 1971:281).

A large number of studies indicate that most migrants to urban centers are short distance migrants and the volume of in-migration to urban centers declines with distance (Fndlay 1987:59; Caldwell, 1969:157 and Rhoda, 1979:25). For instance, 50 percent of the migrants in Bangkok came from within a 50 mile radius of the city and the majority of the migrants in Singapore had come from the adjacent state of Johore (Jones 1975:229). However, the improvements of transportation and communication systems will reduce the negative influence of distance on the volume of migration. For instance, in Thailand and other Asian countries, successive censuses indicate that migrants were moving longer average distances (IUSSP, 1989:247).

Step-wise migration was one of the features of migration in Europe and North America during the industrial revolution (Phase of major urban growth). In contrast, it is not a common feature among many of the rapidly urbanizing, less developed countries due to the existence of extreme urban primacy (Jones 1975:230; Newman and Matzke, 1984:173 and Johnson, 1990 cited in Hornby and Jones, 1993:116). For example, 71 percent, 51 to 92 percent and 80.4 percent of the migrants to Lusaka (Peil and Sada, 1985:121), West African towns (Peil and Sada: Ibid) and Dijkarta (Heeren, 1955 cited in Jones, 1975:230), respectively, were direct

migrants. However, in countries with a wider urban base and relatively diversified economy like Nigeria, Ghana and Kenya step-wise migration tends to predominate over direct movement from villages to capital cities (Adepoju, 1980:129).

A substantial majority, more than two-third, of migrants to large cities in developing areas have relatives or friends living there. For instance, in Monterrey and Jamshed par (India) 84 and 75 percent of the migrants had relatives and friends living in these respective towns (Browning, 1971:298). Therefore, Personal Communication with families and friends who live in the city is a very widespread source of information in relation to possibilities for work, living and services in the cities for the potential migrant. As a result migrants prefer to move to destinations about which they already have sufficient information (Cardona and Simmons, 1975:24). This process of migration is known as chain migration. In other words, "it is a process whereby migratory movements are sustained through kinship or other links" (Johnston, et.al., 1994:60).

Not all migrants take up permanent residence in cities. Many return permanently to the village after spending a substantial period in towns and account for large proportion of out-migrants from towns (Engmann, 1972:175 and IUSSP, 1989:250). For instance, most African rural-urban migrants return home eventually (Peil and Sada, 1985:143) and in Cedral (Mexico) 34 percent of the interviewed subjects were return migrants (Browning, 1971:284).

Some of the reasons for the return of migrants to rural areas are failure to find urban job and to adapt to urban life, enough saving or success etc. For example, 40 and 20 percent of the return migrations from Ghanaian cities were due to failure in town and saving enough money, respectively (Caldwell, 1969 cited in National Academy of Sciences, 1971:284). In Ghana and in all Latin American

countries returning to the village at retirement is common (Browning, 1971:284). The low proportion of elderly people in African towns may also be an indication of the return of large number of migrants to their home villages (Peil and Sada, 1985:143).

2.2.3 The Characteristics of Migrants

Migrant selectivity includes the characteristics that are normally used to differentiate migrants from the general population, non-migrants (Jansen, 1970:15; White and Woods, 1980:12-14). They can be demographic variables (age, sex, marital status etc.), socio-economic variables (education, occupation etc) and psychological characteristics (risk taking propensity).The characteristics of migrants are interrelated and reinforce one another (Browning, *Ibid*, 309), and they are the determinants of the impacts of migration on both the areas of origin and destination (White and Woods, *Ibid*). As a result some knowledge of the forms and degree of migrant selectivity is important to understand the role of migration satisfactorily.

The selectivity of rural-urban migration varies with the rate of urbanization. The higher the rate of urbanization (the higher the rate of out-migration from rural areas and small towns to large cities) the lower the selectivity and vice-versa (Browning, *opcit*: 293). Therefore, due to the variation of migration selectivity in response to changing conditions over time and space, the efforts of scholars in different disciplines to establish a "universal" migration differential is still unsuccessful (Jansen 1970:14-16 and Browning, 1971:307).

2.2.3.1 The Demographic Characteristics of Migrants

Migration can occur at any age but several migration studies have shown that the vast majority of migrants are concentrated in the young adult age-group 20-30 years (Caldwell, 1969:84; Clark, 1986:21; Ducoff, 1970:191 and Goldstein, 1976:135 etc.).

The predominance of young adults is not always true for all migration streams. Large number of migrants to the coastal areas in England (Hornby and Jones, 1993:103) and retirement relocation in the United states (Newman and Matzke, 1984:171) are usually selective of older and retired persons (persons aged 65 and over). The results of a study by the population division (UN, 1986:6) found that children, especially in less developed countries, account for a substantial share of total migration. For instance, over 40 percent of the rural - urban migrants in less developed countries are children (UN, 1988:199).

The sex - selectivity of rural-urban migration is different among countries of the world depending on their level of urbanization. In all developed countries (except Australia) there is a pre-dominance of females among migrants to cities. In contrast, in developing countries (except Latin-America, the Caribbean, the Philippines; industrializing countries of Asia such as South Korea, Thailand and Taiwan) male migrants outnumber female migrants (UN, 1988:195; Barke and O'Hare, 1991:205; UN, 1999:27; Gugler, 1988:55; UN, 1990:34; Browing, 1971:287). For example, 65 percent of the migrants in the major Kenyan towns (Monstead and Walji, 1978:13) and the majority of rural-urban migrants in Ghanaian towns (Caldwell, 1969:84) are men.

Like most developed and other developing regions, the sex-ratio of rural-urban migration in Africa and Asia are subject to change. In other words, the proportion of women moving to African and Asian cities is rapidly increasing with the increasing volume of urban-urban migration (Adepoju, 1980:129; Barke and O'Hare, 1991:205; IUSSP, 1989:250; Gugler, 1988:58). Therefore, the lack of uniformity in "sex selectivity" in time and place seems to give little or no support to the Ravenstein's

law of differential migration (Mc Gee, 1975:232; Richmond, 1969 cited in Clark, 1986:21).

Compared to the populations from which they originate, rural-urban migrants are dominantly single (Browning, 1971:288; Caldwell, 1969:76; Kebede Mamo, 1994:12). For example 43, 45 and 56 percent of the migrants to Sanslavadoir (Ducoff, 1970:191), Paris (Poucher, 1970:191) and major Kenyan towns (Monstead and Walji, 1978:134), respectively, were single. The marital status of migrants has experienced change through time. In developed countries at one time migrants were mainly single like in developing countries today, but now there is more and more migration of families (Clarke, 1972:131-132).

2.2.3.2 The Socio-Economic Characteristics of Migrants

Education in the modern world stimulates rural out-migrations to cities (Newman and Matzke, 1984:179). This results possibly from the fact that education overcome economic, cultural and social obstacles that migrants encountered in the city by increasing income, range of opportunities and access to information about potential destinations for the migrants (Cardona and Simmons, 1975:26-27; Gugler, 1988:551). As a result the level of educational attainment of migrants to urban areas (especially to large cities) is higher than the non-migrants in their place of origin and lower than the natives in their destination (Operai, 1978:223; Browing, 1971:289).

The picture where educated persons tend to migrate to urban areas of Africa and other developing regions has changed as illiterate persons have increasingly migrated to the urban informal sectors (Newman and Matzke, 1984:179 and Adepoju, 1995:92). This may reduce the generality of education as a factor of selection.

Specially in contemporary migrations occupational selectivity is important to a large extent. Migrants to the large cities have a higher occupational level than the populations from which they originate (Hornby, 1980:87; Browing, Ibid:200) and the same is true for long distance migrants (Rose, 1970:20). For instance, the break down of migrants according to occupation of the father demonstrates that the substantial number of migrants to Paris had a father engaged in the clerical and managerial classes and only a quarter of the migrants had a father engaged in agriculture (Poucher, 1970:195).

2.2.4 The Causes of Migration

Most studies have shown that the decision to migrate is generally made by the individual or household making the move (Clarke, 1986:7). However, many migrants specially wives and children, do not actually make the decision (McGee, 1975:236).

The decision to migrate depends on a wide range of factors (UN, 1980:30; Bilsborrow et.al, 1984:14; Gmlech and Zenner, 1996: 190). The continuing flow of migrants to increasingly densely populated urban areas has generated considerable interest in the study of those factors (Oberai, 1978: 229). However, it is not easy to assess the influences of the complex factors affecting the decision to migrate and the choice of destinations (McGee: Ibid and Jansen 1970:23) because migration occurs in a variety of development contexts and varies in type, composition and direction (UN, 1984:29).

Inspite of their complexity, the factors (causes) of migration decision are generally grouped either into 'push' or 'pull' factors. The 'pull' and 'push' factors of migration can be economic or non-economic (demographic, social, natural, political etc.).

2.2.4.1 The Economic Factors

Most empirical studies indicate that rural-urban migrations in the third world countries are primarily a response to economic push factors (population pressure on land, loss of job due to mechanization in farming, landlessness and small land holdings etc) (Dickinson et.al, 1983:57; Harvey, 1972: 167; Premi, 1976:111; Aina, 1995:48 etc.). Rural out-migration from Kentucky mountain (Brown, et.al 1970:96); Indian Punjab (Oberai, 1978:233) and Tzintzuntzan (Kemper, 1996) are mainly due to economic push factors (unemployment, lack of land and general rural poverty etc.). In many countries of topical Africa, the greatest proportion of rural-urban migrants come to the city in search of employment (Binns, 1994:128). For example, 43 percent of the migrants to Daressalaam leaving their origin to seek paid employment (Ishumi, 1984:53).

On the other hand, the economic pull factors (urban job security, high per-capita income etc.) have served as a powerful magnet for migration of rural residents to Paris (Poucher, 1970:194), Bangkok (Goldstein, 1989:276) and Aberdeen city (Illsley, et al; 1970:123). Therefore, studies of out-migration generally indicate that economic "push" factors are most important while in-migration studies suggest that economic "pull" factors are pre-dominant.

The existence of high population density on rural land which in turn causes rural unemployment and poverty is among economic factors which leads rural out-migration (Olusanya and Pursell, 1981:23; Mel Rokett 1993:36; Bilsborrow, et.al; 1984:18). It is some times referred to as a demographic factor of migration (Aklilu and Tadesse, 1991:56). The surplus population have been leaving Frafra of Ghana, Mossi Upper Volta and the Rwanda (Peil and Sada, 1985:124); and the rural areas of Egypt (UN, 1990:4) and India (Shrivastava, 1994:452) to cities and other rural areas.

The commercialization of agriculture has generally increased inequality in land distribution and landlessness. Therefore, it can induce rural out-migrations (Peek and Standing, 1979 cited in UN, 1990:36). Empirical studies in Africa, Asia (India) and Latin America (Colombia and New Hebrides) indicate a positive correlation of rural out-migration with commercialization of agriculture, unequal distribution of land and landlessness (Bilsborrow, et.al, 1984:19; Rhoda, 1979:25).

Unemployment and under-employment in rural area and rural out-migrations are not only a function of man-land ratio and concentration of land in the hand of few individuals but also a function of mechanization of agriculture. In other words, capital intensive rural-development strategies or excessive mechanization of agriculture reduce the labour demand in agriculture and increase the intensity of rural out-migrations (UN, 1990:36; Mel Rockett, 1993:36).

2.2.4.2 The Non-Economic Factors

Although purely economic considerations are of primary importance large number of people also move into the urban areas for non-economic reasons (social, natural, political etc) (Bilsborrow, et.al; 1984:19; Rhoda, 1979:23).

Among the social factors-marriage, search for educational opportunities and the presence of friends and relatives in urban areas are the most important (ECA, 1983; Monstead and Walji, 1978:133-135; and Binns, 1994:32). A considerable number of rural women in south east Asia move to urban centers due to marriage (McGee, 1975:233) and two - thirds of the women arriving in Tanzanian towns came to be with their husbands (Peil and Sada, 1985:129). Some rural-urban migrations in Latin-America and Asia are motivated by a desire for educational opportunities offered in urban areas (Rhoda, 1979:23). In Ghana and perhaps in tropical Africa, education is a powerful determinant of rural-urban migrations (Caldwell, 1969:84).

The physical factors such as climate, drought etc. are among the 'push' factors that make people in developing countries to move to cities (Shrivastava, 1994:167; Dickenson, et.al; 1983:57). For example, more and more people have moved from the villages of Rajasthan (Indian State) to large cities in neighbouring states due to arid climate (Mel Rockett, 1993:37).

Political factors such as the prevalence of civil war, conflicts among ethnic groups, discriminatory government laws etc. are important factors producing much rural-urban migration in the third world (Cox, 1970:157; Aklilu and Tadesse, 1991:29). Many thousands of Colombians particularly during the 1940s and 1950s abandoned the country side for the relative security of towns and cities (Newman and Matzke, 1984:167).

2.2.5 Consequences of Migration on the Migrants

Most migrants to the cities of the third world are not going into the great unknown. Many of them are quite well informed from friends and relatives who preceded them to the cities and some are able to visit kin or friends in the city before migration (Gugler, 1988:54).

In addition family and kin-networks facilitate the initial adaptation of the new arrivals to urban life through their assistance in the provision of accommodation and food and even in finding job (Findlay, 1987:62; Gugler, 1988:55; Legazpi Blair and DeJong, 1993). Such strategies are most common among tribal and peasant migrants in the cities of developing countries. For example, "ties to the more experienced migrants have been important in the initial urban experiences of more than 90 percent of Tzintzuntzenous living in Mexico city (Kemper, 1996:192).

Another way in which many migrant groups used to find a place to live, get a job and develop a net-work of friends in the urban setting is the establishment of

voluntary associations. It is the best example of group-oriented strategies and comprised of members of the same ethnic group or individuals from the same rural village or region. However, individualistic strategies involve the dependency of migrants primarily upon their own resources and initiative. It is more typical among better educated and middle class migrants in Western society (Gmelch and Zenner, 1996:192; Kemper, Ibid).

Most migrants to the cities of the third world find urban life better than their standard of living prior to out-migration from a rural area (Broadely and Cummingham, 1994:23; Shrivastava, 1994:167; UN, 1984:31). For example, 87 percent of the migrants in the two squatter settlements of Bogata (Browning, 1971:302) and nearly all Tizintzuntzan in Mexico city (Kemper, 1996:204) consider that they have improved their condition. Studies, throughout the third world report that the great majority of migrants have not only improved their condition prior to migration but are also satisfied with their move. For instance, 92 and 57 percent of migrants in Monterrey (Browing, 1971:302) and Accra (Caldwell, 1969), respectively, are satisfied with their decision to move to these cities.

Rural-urban migrants enjoy greater economic success (upward occupational mobility and higher earnings) than before migration since most of them are young adults and positively selected on educational attainment (Morrison, 1977:67; ECA, 1983:45). But this does not mean that every migrant is completely satisfied. A survey in Eastern Africa had shown that only 17.1 percent of the subjects under study are clearly satisfied with their present financial and material situation and only 5.7 percent of the respondents were employed or had a gainful job (Ishumi, 1984:61-62). In Calabar (Nigeria) 50 percent of the migrants had to wait for longer than four months to find housing (Binns, 1994:139). Those migrants who find

difficulties in finding jobs in the "urban formal" sector try to earn a living in the "urban in-formal" sector (Shrivastava, 1994:168).

In the great majority of large cities in developing societies, migrants do not rank far below the non-migrants but as low as would reasonably be expected on socio-economic indicators. Migrants in Monterrey (Browing, *Ibid*:30), and Manila (Legazpi Blair and DeJong, 1993:613) have lower occupational prestige positions than the non-migrants, while in some of the Latin American cities (Santiago, Sansalvador and Guatemala city), migrants have almost a similar occupational structure with the non-migrants. In Buenos Aires, Mexico city, Monterey etc., migrants have lower educational attainments than the non-migrants (Balan, 1969 cited in USA, National Academy of Sciences, 1971:301).

Migrants in urban areas have lower participation than non-migrants in formal organizations (Zimmer, 1970:73). A comparison of migrants and non-migrants by income and possession of items (Stove, Radio, Refrigerator) in Recife found little socio-economic differences (Browing, 1971:301). The housing condition between migrants and non-migrants in San Salvador also shows difference, 90 percent of the migrant household heads live in rented houses compared to 80 percent for the native household heads (Ducoff, 1970:395). In much of the large cities of the developing world squatter settlements are group responses undertaken by migrants to the shortage of low cost housing (Gmelch and Zenner, 1996:191). However, the socio-economic gap between migrants and natives decreases or becomes non-existent for long distance migrants (Illsley et.al, 1970:132) and long-exposure migrants (Browing, 1971:301).

2.2.6 Government Views on Rural-urban Migration

The problems created by excessive rural-urban migration have stimulated governments throughout the Third World to adopt direct or indirect strategies to reduce or to reverse rural-urban migration particularly migration to primate cities (UN, 1984:34-36 and UN, 1996:184).

The centrally planned nations such as China have attempted direct controls or restrictive measures on migration largely through registration system (residential controls, ration cards etc). However, their effectiveness appears limited. For instance, there are large number of unauthorized migrants in all of the major cities of China (UN, 1996:185 and Gugler 1988:59 and Goldstein, 1989:283).

Many other third world countries have also attempted to influence the determinants of migration indirectly through a variety of development policies such as development of growth centers, promotion of small and medium-sized cities, integrated rural-development strategies, building new capitals, land colonization schemes etc. (UN, 1995:77, UN, 1990:31).

In practice most of the above mentioned policies or strategies have rarely been successful (Hjerppe, 1998:6 and UN, 1995:9). The reasons for these failures are different but some of the most important are suggested below:

1. Many policies were formulated without an adequate knowledge of the real causes and consequences of migration (Oberai, 1987 cited in IUSSP, 1989:264).
2. Governments have sometimes "borrowed" approaches from other regions without adopting them to their specific economic, social and cultural circumstances (UN, 1996:186).
3. There has been insufficient continuity in the implementation of population distribution policies etc. (Ibid) etc.

Currently, there is an increasing recognition that urbanization is an inevitable and irreversible process and an integral part of development. Therefore, the policies and programs to control rural-urban migration are unrealistic. The solutions to urban problems depend heavily on effective urban management and sound rural development policies (Cheema, 1993:212-213 and UN, 1995:78).

2.2.7 Urban Ward Migration in Ethiopia

Though the history of urbanization in Ethiopia goes back to the time of Axumite civilization, it stagnated for several centuries particularly due to the absence of fixed urban centers until the end of the 19th century (Assefa et.al, 1995:66; Markos and Seyoum (eds), 1998:154). Therefore, modern urbanization in Ethiopia is a recent phenomena that began during the reign of Menelik particularly with the establishment of Addis Ababa as a permanent capital and the introduction of element of modernization such as the construction of the Franco-Ethiopian Railway in 1917 (Baker, 1990 and Mesfin, 1966).

Its rate of growth became accelerated since the 1950s (Andargachew, 1992:1). For instance, in the 1960s, the annual urban population growth rate was 6.3 percent (Kloos and Aynalem, 1989). However, the majority of the country's population still live in rural areas (NOP, 1993; Ekanem, 1992:171). In 1984 and 1994 only 11.2 and 13.8 percent of its population respectively was residing in urban areas. The level of urbanization in the country varies regionally, ranging from nearly 98.7 percent in Addis Ababa to 6.8 percent in SNNPR (CSA (1998), 1994 Census summary Reports, page 17-19).

The rapid growth of the urban population was largely attributed to the contribution of rural-urban migration. The annual rate of rural-urban migration was 3.8 percent in 1960 (Alula, 1989:606) and half of the population of the towns with

more than 20,000 population e found to be migrants in 1971 (1977, Assefa and Kloos, 1993, Hailu, 1982).

The rate of voluntary rural-urban migration was lower in the mid - 1970s and 1980s. For instance, the urban growth rate of Addis Ababa was 3.0 percent (Solomon Mulugeta, 1985) and the rate of migration to Ethiopian towns was slightly above 1 percent (Alula, 1989:606). Some of the reasons pointed for this event were the resolution of the problem of landlessness by the rural land reform of 1975; the restrictive policies of the Derg on the movement of people etc. (Mekete, 1990:56 and Baker, 1995:237-238).

However, the volume of urbanward migration in the country has accelerated recently. For instance, reports of the survey of major towns in Ethiopia show that 75 percent of the migrant households had moved to these towns in the last five years (Department of Economics, AAU, et.al, 1995:23). Moreover, proportion of rural-urban migrants varies regionally, ranging from 57.8 percent in Addis Ababa to 8.8 percent in Benshangul Gmuz region (CSA (1998), 1994 Statistical report at country level vol.I, 259-26 and NOP, 2000:21).

Urbanward migration studies on Shashemene (Bejeren, 1985:53), Nazareth (Kebede, 1991:70), Awassa (Berhane, 1993:72) and Abraminch (Birru, 1997:50) indicate the predominance of rural-born migrants in the stream. This is not only an indication of the high propensity of rural population to migrate but also the low level of urbanization in the country.

Urban-ward migration in Ethiopia is both direct and step-wise. About 75 percent of in-migrants to Shashemene (Bejeren, 1985:54) and 62.5 percent of rural-urban migrants to Awassa (Berhane, 1993:86) were step-migrants. On the other hand 57.6 and 74 percent of the migrants to Nazareth (Kebede, 1991:80) and

Arbaminch (Birru, 1997:53), respectively, were direct migrants. The same studies indicated that step-wise migration is more common among urban-urban migrants than rural-urban migrants. The majority of urban in-migrants in Ethiopia are short distance migrants. But compared to rural-rural migrants, urban-ward migrants (rural-urban and urban-urban) are less common and are relatively long distance migrations (CSA, 1992:145; Markos and Seyoum (eds), 1998:164).

The decision to move to urban centers in Ethiopia are mostly made by the migrants themselves (Department of Economics, AAU, et.al, 1995:23; Kebede, 1991:87; Birru, 1997:79). Most moves to the major urban centers of Ethiopia appear to be planned (Department of Economic, AAU et.al, 1995:24). While the majority (61.2 percent) of the migrants to Nazareth out-migrated spontaneously (Kebede, 1991:55). Family migrations are relatively common in the urban-ward migration streams of Ethiopia compared to that of individual-migration (Department of Economics, AAU et.al, 1995:24 and Kebede, 1991:91).

A substantial number of urban in-migrants in Ethiopia particularly rural-urban migrants had some relatives and friends in the urban centers before migration. These friends and relatives residing in urban areas serve as a major source of information about urban life and later joined by relatives and friends from their origin. Therefore, chain-migration is not a rare phenomena in the urban-ward migration of Ethiopia (Berhane, 1993:87-89; Birru, 1997:53).

Like in many other redeveloping countries, the overwhelming majority of the urban in-migrants of Ethiopia are young adults, single, female and educated compared to those who remain at the origin (Abdurhaman, 1987: 49-68; O.P.H.C.C, 1991:249 and 285; NOP, 1993:7; CSA, V.II, 1999:199-209; etc). However, some

other studies show the predominance of Male migrants in these streams of migrations (Ponsi, 1978:392; Worku, 1995:197).

Urban-ward migrations in Ethiopia are mainly attributed to economic reasons (Berhane, Ibid:97 and Kebede, 1991:105). Rural-urban migrants have migrated for economic reasons than urban-urban migrants (Department of Economics, AAU, 1995:24 and Kebede, Ibid:107). Among economic reasons the search for employment or job are considered important in many of the urban-ward migrations studies in Ethiopia (Berhane, 1993:97; Birru, 1997:66; Kebede, Opcit, 105 and Palem cited in Kubat and Richmond, 1976).

The non-economic factors are almost equally important for urban-ward migration in Ethiopia (Berhane, Ibid). They are more important for female migration than male migration (Berhane, Opcit; Kebede, 1991:107). In some studies of migration, following the relatives residing in towns are considered more significant among non-economic factors (Palen, Ibid, Kebede, Ibid:105). While in other studies the search for education was important (Department of Economic AAU, et.al, Ibid:23; Berhane, Opcit).

The relatives and friends who are urban residents provide some help for the newly arrived migrants (specially food and lodging) during the initial period of adjustment and adaptation. However, a substantial number of urban in-migrants encounter many problems in their initial arrival. Some of the most important are waiting for long periods to secure job and getting shelter (accommodation), food and related consumer items (Department of Economics, AAU, Opcit; Kebede, Opcit:121-124; Birru, 1997:80-82).

The 1994 population and housing census of Ethiopia has been indicated that the unemployment rate for the non-migrants (2.0 percent) is lower than migrants (6.7 percent) (CSA, 1999:213).

Kebede Mamo, in his study of migration to Nazareth has reported that more of migrant households are engaged in private business (employer or self-employed) and in tertiary economic sector than the non-migrants. The mean monthly income for native households (Birr 174.5) is higher than the migrants (Birr 137.5). In terms of owner occupancy of houses and private toilet facilities non-migrant households are found in a better position than migrant households. However, no significant variations exist in the availability of kitchen and bathing facilities between the two groups (Kebede, 1991: 127-133).

The age-sex selectivity of rural-urban migration affects the labour force structure and the productive potential of rural areas (Birru, 1997:87). Unlike, in many other African countries, only a few of the rural-urban migrants in Ethiopia remit money to their place of origin. The amount of remittance is extremely small and mostly utilized for purchasing of consumer items. Therefore, the effect of remittance for inducing rural development in Ethiopia is almost negligible (Mullenbach, 1980:265; Birru, *Ibid*: 90 and Department of economics (AAU), *et.al*, 1995:24).

The rapid rate of urbanization in Ethiopia is largely contributed by rural-urban migration. It is associated with wide-spread urban unemployment, urban poverty; and great shortage of housing and urban amenities. According to the Second National Population and Housing Census, the urban unemployment rate in Ethiopia was 22.1 percent compared to 3.2 percent of rural unemployment rate in the country (summary Report of the 1994 Census, CSA, 1999:9).

Data from 1988 for nine secondary towns show high level of urban poverty ranging from 64 percent in Ambo and Arssi - Negele to 89 percent in Mizan Teferi (World Bank, 1989 cited in Baker and Aina, 1995:238). The 1998 welfare Monitoring

survey also indicated that out of the surveyed urban households in the country, 54.1 percent use public or 'Bono' tap; 63.3 percent are dry pit latrine users and more than 73.2 percent use Biomass fuels (CSA, 1999:158-162). Therefore, in countries of continuing urbanization, poverty and environmental degradation remain formidable problems to their residents (Tegegne, 2000:67-68).

Generally rural-urban migration becomes a focus in the literature of many countries of the world. However, researches on the pattern, causes and consequences of urban-ward migration in Ethiopia are scanty. Moreover, most of them are focused in Addis Ababa and nearby towns. The present study is therefore, intended to explore the pattern, causes and consequences of urban-ward migration in Ethiopia by taking Kombolcha as a case and to contribute little to the body of migration literature in the country.

CHAPTER THREE

BACKGROUND OF THE STUDY AREA

3.1 Location and the Physical Background

The town of Kombolcha is located in north-eastern part of Ethiopia, 375 kms north of Addis Ababa and 24 kms south - east of Dessie, the capital of South Wollo Zone (Planning and Economic Development Bureau of Amhara Region, 2001:93). It is situated at 11° 44' North and 39° 45' East, at an altitude of 1903 ms above mean seal level (CSA, 2001:9).

Administratively, Kombolcha is one of the 17 districts (weredas) in south Wollo zone of the Amhara region. It is bounded by Dessie Zuria district in the north and west and by Kalu district in the east and south (see Map 1, and 2).

Kombolcha is a plain land surrounded by hills. It is crossed by Borkena river and numerous small streams. The Borkena valley and the gullies formed by the streams from the surrounding hills have made the configuration of the town undulating. The soil is very fertile and varies in texture from clay to sandy clay loam (Ministry of Interior, 1967:1).

Climatically, Kombolcha falls within the Weina-Dega zone (Dessie Chamber of Commerce, 1999:5). The annual average rainfall of the town is about 1044 mm and its average temperature varies from a minimum of 11.9°C to a maximum of 26.8°C (CSA, Ibid:11).

3.2 Origin, Growth and Development

Before the coming of Italians to the region, the present site of Kombolcha was largely covered by thick forests and thorny bushes and there was no permanent settlement particularly due to the prevalence of Malaria. The emergence and

development of Kombolcha as a town was largely attributed to the coming of the Italians which was accompanied by the construction of main roads, Addis Ababa-Asmara and Addis Ababa-Assab, passing through the present site of Kombolcha and the beginning of Malaria Eradication Program etc. (Fetene, 1998:13).

Since 1941, Kombolcha was a capital of Kalu province (Awraja) (Fetene, *Ibid*:16). At present it is the capital of Kalu district and at the same time it has its own wereda administration and municipality. It has 12 kebele administrations (see Map 3).

Before 1943, Kombolcha, formerly known as "Birraro", was a small village with an area of 8 sq.km. Now it is a town with a municipal area of 20.4 sq.km and has a master plan since 1985 (Dessie Chamber of Commerce, *Ibid*). Of its municipal area, 51.0 percent is a built up area, 21.6 percent is under-peasant farm and 27.5 percent is not favorable for construction (Komboilcha wereda Administration, Planning Section, 2001: unpublished document).

Since, its emergence, Kombolcha has been expanding not only in terms of area but also in terms of the size of population. Before 1943, under its former name "Birraro," it had no more than 10 inhabitants (Dessie Chamber of Commerce, *op.cit*). According to the estimates given by the Ministry of Interior the total population of the town in 1956 was 829 (Ministry of Interior, *Ibid*:4) and it increased to 3921 in 1967 (CSO, 1967 and 1968:36) and 18,583 in 1984 (O.P.H.C.C., 1991:80). Ten years later (1994), the population of the town has reached 39,466 (CSA, 1995, Vol.I, par.1:36). At present the town has an estimated population of 52,636 (CSA, 2000:44-68). This implies that in 44 years, the population of the town has increased by 51,807 in absolute numbers or increased 63 times.

Table 3.1: Population Size and Growth Rate of Urban Centers of Amhara Region with more than 30,000 inhabitants (2000)

Urban Center	1967	1984		1994		2000		1967-2000
	No. Pop.	No. Pop.	A.A.G.R (%)	No. Pop.	A.A.G.R (%)	No. Pop.	A.A.G.R (%)	A.A.G.R. (%)
Gondar	30,734	80,664	5.8	112,249	3.4	149,075	4.84	4.9
Dessie	40,619	71,537	3.4	97,314	3.1	129,431	4.87	3.6
Bahir Dar	12,463	54,766	9.1	96,140	5.8	128,024	4.89	7.3
Debre Markos	21,536	41,136	3.9	49,297	1.8	65,515	4.85	3.4
Kombolcha	3,921	18,583	9.6	39,466	7.8	52,636	4.92	8.2
Debre Berhan	9,188	25,635	6.2	38,717	4.2	51,466	4.86	5.4
Weldiya	8,505	15,325	3.5	24,533	4.8	32,692	4.90	4.2

Source: CSO, 1967 and 1968, O.P.H.C.C, 1989, 1990, 1991, CSA, 1995 and 2000 and My own computation

NB:- A.A.G.R. represents annual average growth rate of population for each urban center.

The period 1956-1984 was a time of fast growth for Kombolcha. Its average annual growth rate was 11.7 percent. Even the current growth rate of the town (7.8 percent per-annum for the period 1984-1994) is higher than the annual average growth of the major urban centers of Amhara Region. Therefore, Kombolcha is the fifth largest and the most rapidly growing town in the region (See Table 3.1).

A greater proportion of the growth of population of the town is contributed by migration, although natural increase is almost equally important. For instance, in 1994, 50.6 percent of the residents were migrants. With such figure, Kombolcha stands third among the major urban centers of the region in terms of volume of migration, next to Bahir Dar (54.1 percent) and Debre Berhan (51.6 percent) (see Table 3.2). The annual rate of in-migration of the town in the same period was about 3.9 percent (CSA, 1995, Vol. I, part III:20 and 41) compared to 3.6 percent for urban areas of the country as a whole (CSA,1999, Vol. II:217).

Table 3.2: Proportion of Migrant Population in the Urban Centers of Amhara Region, with more than 20,000 Inhabitants (1994)

Urban Center	All Persons	Migrant Population		Not Stated
		Number	Percent	
Gondar	111,606	40,056	35.9	585
Dessie	96,649	39,258	40.6	466
Bahir Dar	95,456	51,667	54.1	272
Debre Mrkos	49,074	18,685	38.1	171
Kombolcha	39,201	19,819	50.6	240
Debre Berhan	38,591	19,922	51.6	153
Weldiya	24,407	11,325	46.4	124
Debre Tabor	22,428	7,943	35.4	129
Kobo	20,760	6,838	32.9	93

Source:- CSA, 1995: The 1994 Census results of Ethiopia for Amhara Region, Vol.I, part III: 16-28 and my own computation.

3.3 Demographic and Socio-Economic Characteristics

The CSA estimation of the year 2001, indicates an excess of male population over females in the town, 111 males for 100 females (CSA, 2001:28). This figure is completely different from the 1984, 92 males for 100 females (OPHCC, 1991:80) and 1994 Census results (93 males for 100 females) (CSA 1995, Vol.I, P.I., page 14). This is higher than the regional and national average sex ratio for urban areas. This may be an indication of less attractiveness of the town for females and the increasing volume of male migration towards the town very recently.

According to the 1994 Population and Housing Census, the proportion of very young or population under the age of 15 in the town, 36.8 percent (CSA, 1995, Ibid:) is not too high as that of the rural areas of the region (44.7 percent) (CSA, 1998, vol.II:13) and the country (46.6 percent) (NOP, 1998:22). In contrast the town has a large proportion of population aged 15-64 years, 60.9 percent (CSA, 1995:op.cit).

This is not only a result of low urban fertility but also the migration of young adult population to urban area.

Among the economically active population in the town 3.3 and 19.7 percent were unemployed in 1984 (OPHCC, 1991: 172) and in 1994 (CSA, 1995, Vol.I, Part II:174), respectively. Therefore, the unemployment rate of the town has grown by 16.5 percent and is higher than the regional urban unemployment rate which is 11.8 percent (CSA, 1998, Ibid:105) and lower than the national urban unemployment rate, 22.1 percent in 1994 (CSA, 1998 Summary report:9).

The presence of industries may be one of the factors attracting the economically productive age population towards the town. However, the relatively medium and large scale industries have created job opportunity only for 2932 workers. This figure is even lower than the number of industrial employees in pre-1991 period. This indicates that the additional three newly established industries in the town are capital intensive and even those established before 1991 have reduced their employees. Therefore, the job creation capacity of the industries in the town is very low compared to the relative increase in their numbers within a short period (see table 3.3). The 56 small scale industries with a capital of less than 250,000 Birr create employment only for 106 workers (South Wollo Zone, Trade and Industry Department, 2001:47-48).

Table 3.3: Number of Employees, in Medium and Large scale Industries of Kombolcha

Year	Kombolcha Meat Factory	Kombolcha Tannery	Kombolcha Textile Factory	Kombolcha Beer Factory	Kombolcha Steel & Steel Products Industry	Kombolcha Flour Factory	Total
1991/92	380	157	2,467	-	-	-	3,004
1998/99	434	118	2,179	132	-	23	2,886
1999/00	477	117	2,142	132	51	19	2,938
2000/01	429	114	2,174	132	60	23	2,932

Source: The administration Offices of each Factory, April 2001: unpublished document

The majority of the town's population engaged in trade and services (Dessie Chamber of Commerce, 1999:5). The number of trade licenses with a capital of less than 250,000 Birr are 25 in wholesale trade, with total capital of 6,714,000 Birr, 320 in retail trade, with total capital of 2,059,452 Birr, 273 in service, with a total capital of 2,908,801 Birr and 56 in industry, with a total capital of 978, 296 Birr (South Wollo Zone, Trade and Industry Department, Ibid:23-50).

As far as the ethnic and religious composition of the population of the town is concerned, the Amhara ethnic group is dominant accounting for 91.3 percent. The majority of the residents are muslims, 57.4 percent, followed by Orthodox Christians, 41.7 percent (CSA, 1995, Vol.I, part I:117, 192).

3.4 Urban Amenities and Facilities

3.4.1 Housing Conditions

During the first and second National Population and Housing Census, the number of housing units in the town was 3473 and 8643, respectively. This shows that about 5170 housing units were built within a decade with an estimated annual average growth rate of 9.5 percent (330 housing units constructed annually). This was higher than the annual increment of the town's population (7.8 percent) and households (7.0 percent) between the two census periods. This was also reflected in the decrease of the average number of households per-housing unit from 1.4 to 1.1 (OPHCC, 1991:69 and 313 and CSA,. 1995, Vol. I, Part V: page 120). The average number of persons per-room of 2.1 in 1994 is lower than the regional and the national average for urban areas, 2.3 (CSA, 1998, Vol II: page 248 and CSA, 1999, Vol II, page 268). Therefore, the shortage of houses in the town is less severe than most urban areas of the country.

In the period between 1994 and 2000, out of 6229 applicants only 163 individuals or organizations got house construction permits and the municipality built

16 housing units for 34 households (Kombolcha Wereda Administration, 2000:7). It is a period of low rate of house construction compared to the period between the two censuses. This will not be good for the healthy growth of the town, unless access to house construction permits is made easy.

The materials and the technology used in the construction of houses is one of the factors considered in the evaluation of housing conditions. About 74.5, 94.7 and 58.6 percent of the housing units in Kombolcha have wood and mud walls, corrugated iron sheet roofs and mud floor respectively and 83.9 percent has no ceiling (CSA, 1995, Ibid: 23, 33, 41 and 46).

In addition to poor physical conditions, a substantial number of housing units in the town lack adequate supply of basic facilities and amenities. For instance, in 1994, about 33.4 percent of the housing units do not have toilet facilities, either private or shared and 25.41 percent are without kitchen, either private or shared while more than 89 percent of the housing units receive tap water (CSA, 1995, Op.cit: 83, 97, 112). There are only 11 public toilets. The shortage of such facilities will have a sanitation problem for the town.

3.4.2 Water and Electric Services

According to the report of Kombolcha wereda Administration, 93 percent of the town's population have access to clean water (Kombolcha Wereda Administration, 2000:11). The total number of water meters in the town increased from 1174 in 1991 to 2678 in the year 2000 (Kombolcha Wereda Water Service department 2001: unpublished documents). This shows an annual increase of 9.6 percent or 112.7 water meters were added annually. This growth rate is higher than the estimated annual average population growth rate of the town between 1994 and

2000 (4.92 percent). At present the ratio of housing units per water meter is about 3:1.

In 1995 and 2000 the annual water consumption of the town was 346,640 and 466,690 cubic meter (Ibid). This shows an annual increment of 21.1 thousand cubic meters or increased by 6.1 percent annually. The average daily water consumption for the town is about 1200 cubic meters for both residential and non-residential purposes. The annual average per-capita consumption for the town, 8.9 cubic meters is much lower compared to Africa as a whole, 49.5 cubic meters (Bahh and Unn, 1992, cited in Birru, 1997:46).

The percentage of housing units with electric meter (both private and shared) has increased from 70 percent in 1984 (OPHCC, 1991:339) to 90 percent in 1994 (CSA, 1995, Vol.I, Part V:139). This indicates that the vast majority of the residents of the town have access to electric service as a source of lighting. The number of electric meters in 1995 both residential and non-residential was 3574 and 4189 in the year 2000 (Ethiopian Electric Light and Power Authority, Kombolcha District, 2001: unpublished documents). Only 615 electricity meters are added in 5 years time with annual growth rate of 3.2 percent (114.4 electric meters annually) compared to the estimated annual population growth rate of 4.92 percent for the same period. At present the ratio of housing units per electric meter is about 2.1:1. Therefore, the population pressure per electric meter is not a serious problem of the town at present.

3.4.3 Educational and Health Facilities

The town has four kindergartens, five elementary, two junior and one senior secondary schools. Such a number of schools with their inadequate educational facilities, cannot create a good climate of teaching and learning in the town. The student section ratio in the primary (1-8) and secondary schools of the town is about

76 and 81, respectively (Kombolcha District Education Office, 2001: unpublished documents) compared to 56 and 63.4 for urban areas of Amhara Region (Amhara Region Planning and Economic Development Bureau, 2001:127-133). This student section ratio is with a shift system. Therefore, such large number of students in one section even with a shift system is not an easy problem for the town. The problem is much worse in secondary school because there is only one senior secondary school with few classrooms. It serves as a preparatory and vocational school in addition to the already existing programs.

In addition, the town has one agricultural training center serving the whole of Amhara region and rural technology promotion center serving south Wollo and nearby administrative zones. There is no college or higher institute in the town, even within a radius of 375 kms.

From the point of view of health services, the town has no hospital and has only one government health center, 19 clinics (one governmental clinic), 5 physicians, 16 nurses and 30 health assistants (Kombolcha District Health Office, 2001: unpublished). The ratio of population to health facilities is not a serious problem of the town by the Ethiopian standard. However, the main health service problem in the town is the absence of hospital. Moreover, the existing government health center and clinic are poorly supplied with the necessary facilities such as laboratory, medicine etc.

3.4.4 The Transport Net-work

Kombolcha has become one of the examples of towns serving as a route center in Ethiopia since it is the junction point of three main routes (Kmbolcha - Djibouti; Kombolcha-Mekele and Kombolcha-Addis Ababa). In association to its function as a route center, there are large stores such as the stores of World Vision,

World Food Program, Ethiopian Domestic Distribution Corporation (E.D.D.C), Ethiopian Disaster Prevention and Preparedness Commission etc. and there are 10 freight and 3 passenger transport share companies with offices. Moreover a high amount of petroleum gas distribution is undertaken in the town. For instance, in the year 1999 a total of 18,228, 305 liters of petroleum was distributed. This figure is higher than the amount of petroleum gas distributed in other towns of south Wollo Zone in the same period (Kombolcha Wereda Administration, 2000:10, 13). This is because of its function as a transport center. The opening of the offices of Ethiopian Road Construction Authority, North-Eastern District, Ethiopian Customs Office, North-Eastern district etc. are mainly related to its locational advantage as a route center.

However, there is a no land port for loading and unloading freight and no parking place for vehicles. A large number of vehicles are parking on either side of the main roads in the town and this creates a high traffic congestion. In addition, the town has one air strip that links it with Addis Ababa and Mekaneselam (a capital of Debresina district.)

As far as intra-urban route is concerned, the town has a total length of 46.8 km (8.8 km asphalt and 38 kms gravel road). There is no asphalt road within the town except the main asphalt roads crossing the town. The length of intra-town gravel roads has increased from 7 kms before 1994 to 38 kms in the year 2000 (Kombolcha Wereda Administration, Ibid:6). There is no renewal and maintenance of the asphalt roads and the gravel roads are of poor quality. Thus, they become muddy during the rainy season and dusty in the dry season. This is one of the crucial problems of the residents of the town. There is no intra-town bus transport and has few taxis operating only on the main asphalt roads crossing the town. The

most common means of intra-town transport especially on non-asphalted roads is horse cart.

3.4.5 Investment

Due to its location as a route center, cheap labour market and high consumption (surrounded by areas of high population density), access to port etc. Kombolcha has attracted a number of private investors both foreign and domestic.

From 1994-1995 fiscal year up to February 2001, a total of 76 investors have received investment permits either from the Ethiopian Investment authority or from Amhara National Regional State Investment Bureau to invest their capital in Kombolcha town. The figure include only those projects with an investment capital of Birr 250,000 and above.

The Sectoral distribution of approved projects shows that the tertiary sector (trade and services) has the highest share in terms of number of projects (72.4 percent), followed by the secondary (manufacturing) sector which accounts for 19.7 percent. The primary (agricultural) sector amounts to 1.4 percent of the total number of approved projects. The remaining 6.6 percent are not stated by sector.

However, only a small proportion of the approved projects (7.9 percent) have started operation up to February 2001. The majority of the approved projects (60.5 percent) are in the implementation phase. A substantial proportion, 27.6 percent are in active. The remaining 3.9 percent are terminated (Kombolcha Wereda Administration, Department of economic Affairs, April 2001: unpublished document).

The 14 investment projects in the industrial sector have been approved in the period between 1994 and 1999. They have a total investment capital of 371.5 million Birr. Of these only 21.5 percent (three projects) which have an investment capital of 348.1 million Birr have started production. Most of the approved projects in the

industrial sector (57.1 percent) with an investment capital of 16.4 million Birr are inactive. While the remaining 21.4 percent with an investment capital of 7.0 million Birr are in the implementation phase up to October 1999 (see Table 3.4).

Table 3.4: Number of Approved Investment Projects in the Industrial Sector by Amount of Investment Capital and status

Status	INVESTMENT PROJECTS		INVESTMENT CAPITAL	
	Number	Percent	Amount in Million. Birr	Percent
Stated Production	3	21.4	348.1	93.7
Under-Implementation	3	21.4	7.0	1.9
Inactive	8	57.1	16.4	4.4
Total Approved Projects	14	100	371.5	100

Source:- South Wollo, Trade and Industry Department, 2000:78

There are also 48 and 34 projects that have received licenses in social services and other businesses, respectively. These are projects with a capital of less than 250,000 Birr. However, most of them are in the implementation phase until the end of 2000 (Kombolcha Wereda Administration, 2000:10).

CHAPTER FOUR

THE PATTERNS AND PROCESS OF MIGRATION, CHARACTERISTICS OF MIGRANTS AND REASONS OF MIGRATION

4.1 The Flow Pattern and Process of Migration

4.1.1 The Volume and Origin of Migrants

At present, urban population has been growing at an annual rate of 2.3 percent globally and 3.2 percent in less developed countries (UN, 1999:25). At continental level, however, it reaches the highest rate in Africa (4.6 percent) (Binns, 1994:116) and particularly in Eastern Africa which records 6.5 percent (UN, 1996:10).

The rapid growth of urban population in many of the developing countries has been largely due to rural-urban migration contributing almost half of their urban population growth (Kebede, 1994:9).

In Ethiopia, also, the urban population has been growing in 1990s at annual rate of 4.1 percent compared to 2.2 percent of the rural population growth in the country (Markos and Seyoum (eds), 1998:155). This is mainly because of rural-urban migration, although natural increase is equally important. For instance, in 1994, 44.7 percent of the urban residents in the country were migrants (CSA, 1998 Summary Reports:11).

Kombolcha has experienced an annual population growth rate of 7.8 percent between the two census periods and 50.6 percent of its residents were migrants in the year 1994.

According to the present sample survey, 62.0 percent of the heads of the households are migrants. Such variation in the level of migration of the study area during the 1994 census and in the present sample survey may be attributed to the difference in the method of data collection. In other words, the 1994 census involves the enumeration of all residents by migration status, whereas this survey includes only heads of households by migration status.

The 1994 census report which was based on area of previous residence of migrants, revealed that urban migrants predominate the migration stream to

Kombolcha (accounting for 62.1 percent of all the migrants in the town) (CSA, 1995, vol.I, part III:20). However, the present survey which is based on place of birth, reveals, the pre-dominance of migrants with rural origin (61.2 percent) compared to the urban ones (38.8 percent) (see Table 4.1 below). This finding is consistent with the fact that in countries that are largely rural, most urban in-migrants originate in rural areas (UN, 1999:30).

Table 4.1: The Number of Migrants to Kombolcha by Sex and Place of Birth

Place of Birth	Male		Female		Total	
	No	%	No.	%	No.	%
Rural	112	64.7	90	57.3	202	61.2
Urban	61	35.3	67	42.7	128	38.8
Total	173	100.0	157	100.0	330	100.0
Percentage of Total		52.4		47.6		100.0

The spatial distribution in the origin (source) of migrants to Kombolcha manifests not only a rural-urban variation but also a regional variation. Migrants to Kombolcha came from different administrative regions of the country. However, the bulk of the migrants accounting for 83.6 percent came from the same administrative region (Amhara region), mainly because of proximity and close links. Only 54 migrants (16.4 percent) are inter-regional migrants where Tigray, Addis Ababa and Oromiya share about 7.0, 4.2 and 3.6 percent, respectively. Other regions contribute only 1.5 percent of the in-migrants to Kombolcha (see Appendix 1).

The low proportion of inter-regional migrants is not only a function of distance but also of the location of the town in the region of low rate of in-migration. In other words, the northern regions including Wollo have relatively high population and are potentially poor areas and have been experiencing net-loss instead of net gain of population from other regions (O.P.H.C.C; 1991:250).

Among the intra-regional migrants, the overwhelming majority (71.7 percent) are intra-zonal migrants. The inter-zonal migrants account for only 28.3 percent of the intra-regional migrants to Kombolcha where North Wollo's share is 15.6 percent followed by Kemise Oromiya zone of Amhara region (5.4 percent). While, the other 8 administrative zones of the Amhara region together constitute 7.2 percent of the intra-regional migrants to Kombolcha (see Appendix 2).

The adjacent weredas mainly Kalu and Dessie Zuria are the main suppliers of migrants to Kombolcha. They constitute 26.3 and 23.7 percent of the intra-zonal migrants, respectively. The nearby weredas particularly Ambasel, Teuledere and Dessie contribute a substantial proportion i.e. 10.1, 7.6 and 6.6 percent, respectively. The remaining 11 weredas of South Wollo administrative zone share 24.7 percent of the intra-zonal migrants to Kombolcha (see Appendix 3). All the above indicate that most of the migrants to Kombolcha are short distance migrants and the volume of urban-ward migration decreases with an increase in distance.

4.1.2 Distance Traveled and Year of last Arrival

Short distance migrants constitute the majority of urban in-migrants and the volume of in-migration to urban centers declines with distance. However, with the improvement of transportation and communication, the average distance migrants can move will become longer.

As indicated in table 4.2, the majority (67.9 percent) of the in-migrants to Kombolcha, reported to have covered an average distance of less than 199 kilometers. Only 23.9 percent traveled 200 kilometers or more. This household sample survey also shows that urban-urban migrations are less common and are relatively long distance migrations (see Table 4.2).

Table 4.2: Distance Migrants Traveled to Reach Kombolcha from their Birth Place

Distance (kms)	Rural		Urban		All In-migrants	
	No	%	No	%	No	%
Less than 100	123	60.9	53	41.4	176	53.3
100-199	31	15.3	17	13.3	48	14.5
200-299	12	5.9	9	7.0	21	6.4
300-399	8	4.0	18	14.1	26	7.9
400-499	6	3.0	9	7.0	15	4.5
500 and above	6	3.0	11	8.6	17	5.2
Not stated	16	7.9	11	8.6	27	8.2
Total	202	100.0	128	100.0	330	100.0

Migration to Kombolcha and other urban areas of the country dates back to several decades, but the 1994 census report reveal that the time when most migrants moved to them is quite recent.

Of the surviving migrants 44.8 and 55.2 percent entered the urban areas of the country before 1984 and after 1984, respectively (CSA, 1999, vol. II:193). The variation in the volume of in-migration to Kombolcha during these periods was quiet high. Only 37.4 percent of the migrants were migrated to the town before 1984. The majority, 62.6 percent, entered during the decade preceding the census date (CSA, 1995, Vol.I, part III:41).

The present survey data shows that only 15.2 percent of the migrant house hold heads have moved to Kombolcha before 1974. The majority of the in-migrants (83.9 percent) came to the town after 1974. The maximum number of migrants (more than 40 percent) migrated to the study area between the two census periods (see table 4.3). This may be partly attributed to the rapid growth of the town as industrial, trading and transport center.

Like most other parts of the country, particularly the year 1990-1991, was a time of high volume of in-migration to Kombolcha (12.7 percent) (CSA, 1995, Ibid) compared to 9.7 percent for urban areas of the country as a whole (CSA, Ibid). According to this sample survey, 9.4 percent of the migrants entered Kombolcha in the same year. Such a high percentage of in-migration within a single year was largely attributed to the displacement of people due to change in the government and the separation of Eritrea.

Table 4.3: Distribution of Migrants by Year of Last Arrival in Kombolcha, Sex and Place of Birth

Year of Last Arrival	Sex	Place of Birth				All in-migrants	
		Rural		Urban			
		No	%	No	%	No	%
Before 1974	Male	16	14.3	5	8.2	21	12.1
	Female	22	24.4	7	10.4	29	18.5
	Total	38	18.8	12	9.4	50	15.2
1974-1984	Male	38	33.9	13	21.3	51	29.5
	Female	21	23.3	12	17.9	33	21.0
	Total	59	29.2	25	19.5	84	25.5
1985-1994	Male	46	41.1	26	42.6	72	41.6
	Female	30	33.3	30	44.8	60	38.2
	Total	76	37.6	56	43.8	132	40.0
1995-2000	Male	11	9.8	17	27.9	28	16.2
	Female	15	16.7	18	26.9	33	21.0
	Total	26	12.9	35	17.3	61	18.5
Not Stated	Male	1	0.9	-	-	1	0.6
	Female	2	2.2	-	-	2	1.3
	Total	3	1.5	-	-	3	0.9
Total	Male	112	55.4	61	47.7	173	52.4
	Female	90	44.6	67	52.3	157	47.6
	Total	202	100.0	128	100.0	330	100

4.1.3 The Process of Migration

The process of rural-urban migration involves a multiplicity of patterns such as step-wise migration, direct migration, multiple migration, individual or family migration, chain-migration etc.

Step-wise migration was one of Ravenstein's laws of migration. It is not a common characteristics of urban-ward migration in many of the third world countries due to the existence of extreme urban primacy (Jones, 1975:230, Newman and Matzke, 1984:173 and Johnson 1990 cited in Hornby and Jones, 1993:116).

The data in table 4.4 show that, of the total in-migrant house hold heads under study slightly more than half (51.8 percent) had lived for one year and more in at least one other town before coming to Kombolcha while 47.3 percent made direct moves from their place of birth. Migrants of rural origin tend to move in steps (53.5 percent) compared to migrants of urban origin (49.2 percent). Male migrants involve more in step wise migration than female migrants in both rural-urban and urban-urban migrations. However, it is not good to consider all non-direct migrants (movers) as step wise migrants because there are a number of migrants living in larger urban areas such as Desise and Addis Ababa after leaving their place of birth and before coming to Kombolcha. In other words, all multiple migrations are not step wise migrations.

Table 4.4: Number of Places Migrants Lived After their Departure from their Place of Birth and Before their Migration to Kombolcha by Origin

Number of Places	Place of Birth				All In-migrants	
	Rural		Urban			
	No	%	No	%	No	%
0	94	46.5	62	48.4	156	47.3

1	49	24.3	29	22.7	78	23.6
2	28	13.9	17	13.3	45	13.6
3	21	10.4	9	7.0	30	9.1
4	5	2.5	6	4.7	11	3.3
5+	5	2.5	2	1.6	7	2.1
Not stated	-	-	3	2.3	3	0.9
Total	202	100.0	128	100.0	330	100.0

Many surveys carried out in Africa indicate that initial family migration is uncommon. In other words, most migrants especially young men both single and married initially migrate to the cities alone (Adepoju, 1980:128; Baker and Aina, 1995:92). Likewise, only 35.2 percent of the in-migrants to Kombolcha were accompanied by family members or relatives at the time of in-migration. On the other hand, 64.2 percent migrated to the town alone. However, the survey on major urban centers of Ethiopia indicates that family migrations are common in the urban-ward migration streams of Ethiopia (Department of economics, AAU, and et.al; 1995:91).

Most studies have shown that the decision to migrate is generally made by the individual or household making the move (Clark, 1986:7). However, many migrants especially wives and children, do not actually make the decision (McGee, 1975:236). The decision to move to urban centers in Ethiopia are mostly made by the migrants themselves (Department of economics, AAU and et.al, Ibid:23; Kebede, 1991:87 and Birru, 1997:79).

As the data in table 4.5 reveal, 68.2 percent of the migrants have left their place of origin or previous place of residence for Kombolcha on their own personal decision. Decision by family and employers accounts for 11.2 and 11.5 percent, respectively. The remaining 7.9 percent reported that the decision was made by parents, relatives or friends, and others. The percentage of females who migrated to

Kombolcha by their own decision (60.5 percent) is lower compared to male migrants (75.1 percent).

Table 4.5: Migration Decision as Reported by the Respondents

Migration Decision	Male		Female		Total	
	No	%	No	%	No	%
Self	130	75.1	95	60.5	225	68.2
Family	8	4.6	29	18.5	37	11.2
Parent(s)	4	2.3	10	6.4	14	4.2
Relatives or Friends	-	-	3	1.9	3	0.9
Employer	25	14.4	13	8.3	38	11.5
Others	5	2.9	4	2.5	9	2.7
Not Stated	1	0.6	3	1.9	4	1.2
Total	173	100.0	157	100.0	330	100.0

Most moves to the major urban centers of Ethiopia appear to be planned (Department of Economics, AAU and et.al, 1995:24). However, this survey indicates that the majority (57.6 percent) of the migrants to Kombolcha migrated spontaneously.

Access to the sources of information play an important role in influencing the choice of destination of a migrant. In other words, migrants have a desire to live in a place about which they have sufficient information. Though, the information obtained through mass communications is important, personal communications from families and friends are considered as more relevant by the potential migrant in his migration decision process (Cardona and Simmons, 1975:24).

Most migrants to the cities of the third world are not going into the great unknown. Many of them are quite well informed from friends and relatives who preceded them to the cities and some are able to visit Kin or friends in the city before migration (Gugler, 1988:54).

The data obtained from the present sample survey, indicate that the vast majority (84.5 percent) of the migrants had prior knowledge about Kombolcha before they came to the town. The most important sources of information for most of them (43.6 percent) had contact with people who knew or heard about the town followed by previous visits (32.1 percent). While the remaining 8.8 percent had gained information from mass media (see table 4.6 below).

Table 4.6: Percentage Distribution of Migrants by Sources of Information and Place of Birth

Sources of Information	Rural		Urban		Urban + Rural	
	No	%	No	%	No	%
1. have no Information	25	12.4	16	12.5	41	12.4
2. Friends or Relatives Residing or Visiting the Town	84	41.6	60	46.9	144	43.6
3. Mass Media	15	7.4	14	10.9	29	8.8
4. Previous Visits	71	35.1	35	27.3	106	32.1
5. Not Stated	7	3.5	3	2.3	10	3.0
Total	202	100.0	128	100.0	330	100.0

A substantial number of migrants (49.7 percent) to the study area reported to have had relatives and friends already settled in the town before their move to the town. The survey further show that greater number of rural-urban migrants (53.5%) have friends and relatives residing in Kombolcha prior to migration compared to urban-urban migrants (43.8 percent). As it was already discussed, these friends and relatives residing in the town were one of the chief sources of information about life in Kombolcha.

Most of the migrants (64.2 percent) migrated to Kombolcha alone and only 27.9 percent had later been joined by relatives and friends from their origin. Thus the volume of chain migration to Kombolchga (27.9 percent) is relatively lower compared to that of Awassa (35 percent) and Arbaminch (30 percent). Moreover

chain migrants (migrants followed by their births and kin's, friends, relatives or co-villagers) did not form a homogenous section (traditionally known as "sefer") in some parts of the town based on their origin.

4.2 The Characteristics of Migrants

Migrants are not randomly selected from the population of the origin and are not randomly added to the population of the destination. In other words, migration is a selective process in terms of age, sex, marital status, education, occupation etc.

The character of migrants can be demographic (age, sex, marital status) and socio-economic (education, occupation etc.) and the prime determinant of the impacts of migration on both the areas of origin and destination (White and Woods, 1980:13-14).

4.2.1 Demographic Characteristics of Migrants

4.2.1.1 Age and Sex Structure

Migration can occur at any age but several migration studies in Africa and other parts of the world have shown that the vast majority of migrants are concentrated in the young adult age group of 20-30 years (Caldwell, 1969:84; Clark, 1986:21; Goldstein, 1976:135 etc). The rural -urban migrants in Ethiopia are also pre-dominantly young adults (CSA, 1999, Vol II: 198-202; Abdurhaman, 1987:49-68; NOP, 1993:7 etc). Therefore, age is among the important determinant factors in most migration streams.

Similarly, results of this survey reveal a strong age selectivity pattern in the stream of migration to the study area. Out of the total migrants to Kombolcha, 80.3 percent were between the age groups of 10-39 years at the time of in-migration to the town. Particularly, migrants with ages varying from 20-29 years account for 39.1 percent of the in-migrants (see table 4.7).

The data in table 4.7, further reveal that 79.6 percent of the female in-migrants reported to have moved in when they were below the age of 30 years as compared to 43.9 percent for the male in-migrants. In other words, females enter in the migration stream to Kombolcha at earlier ages than males. Migrants of rural origin seem to be relatively younger (66.3 percent were below the age of 30 years) than those who migrated from other urban areas (52.3 percent for the same age group).

In Africa and most other developing regions there is a pre-dominance of males among migrants to cities (UN, 1988:195 and Barke and O'Hare, 1991:205). However, most studies in Ethiopia indicate the excess of female over males in the stream of urban ward migration (NOP, 1993:7; O.P.H.C.C, 1991:249 and 285 etc).

As indicated in table 4.1 at the beginning of this chapter, unlike, most urban ward migrations in Ethiopia, male migrants (52.4 percent) to Kombolcha outnumbered female migrants (47.6 percent). The excess of male migrants is more prevalent among migrants of rural origin (55.4 percent). However, among urban-urban migrants, females (52.3 percent) exceed male migrants (47.7 percent).

4.2.1.2 Marital status

Marital status is another important demographic characteristic influencing the propensity to migrate. Migration propensities change with marital status. At one time migrants were mainly single in developed countries but recently it has changed. In developing countries most migrants are single even recently (Clarke, 1972:131-132, Ducoff, 1970:191, Monstead and Walji, 1978:134 etc). Similarly most urban in-migrants in Ethiopia are single (CSA, 1999, Vol. II: 203-204).

In this study, as table 4.8 indicates a large proportion (57.6 percent) of the migrants to Kombolcha, were un-married during the time of leaving their place of birth. This is true for both rural born and urban born migrants except the female migrants of rural origin (45.6 percent married compared to 42.2 percent unmarried). The relatively high number of married female migrants of rural origin might be due to the practice of early marriage in rural areas.

However, as indicated in table 4.9 the majority of the migrants were married when they moved to Kombolcha to settle permanently (54.2 percent married compared to 40.0 percent un-married) except male migrants of urban origin (41.0 percent married compared to 54.1 percent un-married). In other words, the proportion of unmarried migrants at the time of in-migration to Kombolcha (40.0 percent) were lower than the proportion at the time of departure from their place of birth (57.6 percent). This was possible because migrants might have stayed for a certain period of time in some places found between their origins and the study area.

Most communities particularly the rural ones have the highest disregard for a divorced or widowed person (mostly for women). Their chance of re-marriage is low. This might be one of the factors that stimulate migration. However, the proportion of divorced and widowed migrants in Kombolcha both at the time of leaving their place of birth and at the time of migration to the town is very insignificant (see table 4.8 and 4.9). This might be due to the fear of respondents to identify themselves as divorced or widowed due to the possible negative impact on their actual and potential marriage opportunities.

4.2.2 The Socio-Economic Characteristics of Migrants

4.2.2.1 Educational Characteristics

Education, especially formal schooling, is one of the significant characteristics inducing rural-urban migration. In other words, education has been a significant factor in the modern world by enhancing a person's potential to migrate by increasing income, range of job-opportunities and access to information (Newman and Matzke, 1984:179). Therefore, migrants are better educated than the non-migrants in the place of origin. The association between the propensity to migrate and level of education is observed in many developing countries (Oberai, 1978 and Browning, 1971). However, the increase in the migration of illiterate persons to the urban informal sectors of Africa and other developing regions may reduce the generality of education as a factor of selection (Adepoju 1995).

As illustrated in table 4.11, 23.9 percent of the migrants were illiterate when they moved to Kombolcha, while about 72.7 percent had some form of education (Read and write, primary and secondary level etc). Of those with some form of education 21.3 percent could only read and write while the rest 78.8 percent acquired some form of formal education (primary level of schooling and above). Again, of those with formal education, 52.4, 36.0 and 11.6 percent reported to have primary education, secondary education and above secondary education, respectively.

In terms of gender, female in-migrants predominate male in-migrants in illiteracy rate. About 37.6 percent of the female in-migrants were illiterate at the time of in-migration as compared to only 11.6 percent for males (see table 4.11).

Table 4.11, further reveals differences in literacy rate and the levels of educational attainment of migrants in accordance to their place of birth. At the time of their arrival to Kombolcha, 26.7 percent of migrants of rural origin were illiterate compared to that of migrants of urban origin, 20.3 percent. The data further show that the proportion of respondents coming from the urban areas with formal education at the time of in-migration was 68.0 percent while for those with rural origin it was 50.5 percent. Similarly, a significant majority of female in-migrants from the rural areas (44.4 percent) were illiterate as compared to female in-migrants from the urban areas (28.4 percent).

The clear disparity in the distribution of educational level of migrants between rural and urban origin is not surprising. It is because of easy access to schooling for migrants of urban origin and poor educational facilities or opportunities in rural areas.

At the time of in-migration to Kombolcha, the average rate of literacy and level of educational attainment of migrants have significantly increased compared to the time of leaving their place of birth (see table 4.10 and 4.11). This is because some migrants, mostly those of rural origin had improved their level of education during the time of their stay in some other urban areas after leaving their place of birth and before the time of their arrival in Kombolcha.

4.2.2.2 Activity and Employment Status

Especially in contemporary migration, occupational selectivity is important to a large extent. Migrants to the large cities have a higher occupational level than the population from which they originate (Hornby, 1980:87 and Browning, 1971:200) and the same is true for long distance migrants (Rose, 1970:20).

Irrespective of their origin, the majority (52.7 percent) of the migrants were employed and that only a small percentage (7.9 percent) were unemployed before their migration to Kombolcha. A significant proportion of the migrants was made of students and small children (23.3 percent) and house wives (15.8 percent) (see table 4.12 below).

Table 4.12: Activity Status of the respondents Before Migration to Kombolcha by Place of Birth

Activity Status	Rural		Urban		All	
	No	%	No	%	No	%
Employed	122	60.4	52	40.6	174	52.7
Unemployed	11	5.4	15	11.7	26	7.9
Student/child	43	21.3	34	26.6	77	23.3
Sick/disabled	1	0.5	-	-	1	0.3
House wife	25	12.4	27	21.1	52	15.8
Total	202	100.0	128	100.0	330	100.0

As table 4.13 reveals, in terms of employment status, relatively large proportion (51.1 percent) were self-employed in agricultural and non-agricultural activities and 47.7 percent were government or non-government employees at their place of birth or area of previous residence while only 1.1 percent were employers.

A comparison of migrants of rural and urban origin indicates that, a significant proportion (54.9 percent) of rural out-migrants and 65.4 percent of the urban out-migrants were engaged in self-employed agricultural, government and non-government employment activities, respectively (see table 4.13).

Table 4.13: Employment Status of Respondents Before their Migration to Kombolcha by Place of Birth

Employment Status	Rural		Urban		All	
	No	%	No	%	No	%
1. Self-employed in agricultural activities	67	54.9	13	25.0	80	46.0
2. Self-employed in non-agricultural activities	5	4.1	4	7.7	9	5.2
3. Government or non-government employees	49	40.2	34	65.4	83	47.7
4. Employer	1	0.8	1	1.9	2	1.1
Total	122	100.0	52	100.0	174	100.0

4.3 Reasons of Migration

In the preceding sections of this chapter, the main focus of the study was on the pattern of flow and characteristics of migrants. Here, an attempt is made to briefly examine the reasons of migration based on the responses of migrants.

Migrants had taken the decision to give up their place of birth or previous place of residence and move to Kombolcha for economic and non-economic reasons. The economic reasons considered are search for job, job transfer, problems related to agriculture, opening and extending business. On the other hand the non-economic factors include the search for education and other modern social services, the need to join friends and relatives, to seek good climate, divorce and death of family member, family pressure and the Ethio-Eritrean conflict.

4.3.1 Economic Reasons of Migration

As can be observed from table 4.14, the economic based movement accounts for 46.4 percent of the surveyed migrants. Migrants of rural origin have migrated for economic reasons, 48.0 percent, than migrants of urban origin, 43.8 percent. The

pre-dominance of economic motives among migrants from rural areas may be an indication of better conditions of urban areas than rural areas in terms of income and other economic opportunities. The table further shows that Males are more likely to migrate for economic reasons, 59.0 percent, than females, 32.5 percent.

Though the provision of employment opportunities in the town is very low, lack of remunerative job in the rural areas of the region and the country at large, pushes people to the town. Thus, search of job stands first among economic reasons of migration accounting for 14.5 percent of the migrations (see table 4.14). The percentage of migrants in search of employment is almost equal among inter-regional, intra-reigonal and intra-zonal migrants (see Table 4.15).

There is a relative concentration of socio-economic services and facilities in Kombolcha compared to most rural and urban areas of the region and the country. As a result a substantial number of migrants, 13.3 percent, come to the town through job transfer from the rural and other urban areas where these facilities and services are inadequately provided or are totally absent (see table 4.14). Therefore, job transfer is the second economic reason of migration next to search of job. It is more prevalent among inter-regional and inter-zonal migrants than intra-zonal migrants (see table 4.15). However, job transfer is not only attributed to the search of urban services but also to the need to join friends, relatives, parents etc. and other factors.

As it was pointed out earlier, Kombolcha is located in the region of high population density and drought. A significant proportion of migrants, 10.6 percent, out-migrated from their origin primarily due to problems related to agriculture such as landnessness, small land holdings, low productivity of land etc. (see table 4.14). It is more prevalent among intra-zonal migrants than inter-zonal and Inter-regional migrants (see table 4.15). However, it is very difficult to consider it as purely

economic reasons of migration. It can also be demographic or physical factor of migration.

Compared to many rural and urban areas of the region and the country, Kombolcha offers good opportunities for business activities due to the factors discussed in chapter three. Thus, migration due to the desire to open-up new business or extend an already existing one is the fourth important economic factor of migration, considered as a primary reason by almost 8.0 percent of the migrants (see table 4.14). It is almost equally important for inter-regional, inter-zonal and Intra-zonal migrants (see table 4.15).

4.3.2 Non-Economic Reasons of Migration

Non-economic factors are almost equally important to economic factors of migration. They were the primary reasons for 47.0 percent of the respondents. Greater number of urban-urban migrants, 50.0 percent move to the town for non-economic reasons than rural-urban migrants, 45.0 percent. Furthermore, more women migrate for non-economic reasons, 60.5 percent than men, 34.7 percent (see table 4.14).

As indicated in table 4.14 migration to join friends, relatives etc. came out to be the first most important non-economic factor of migration. It was considered as primary reason of migration for 19.4 percent of the respondents. It is more prevalent among inter-regional migrants than inter-zonal and intra-zonal migrants (see 4.15). Among those who come to the town to join friends, relatives etc. migration due to marriage account for 26.6 percent. Moreover, as it can be observed from table 4.16, most migrants of Kombolcha were married before leaving their place of birth or areas of previous residence. Therefore, marriage can be considered as an important non-economic factor of migration, specially for female migrants. The presence of relatives or friends, generally facilitates migration to a given destination as relatives or friends usually give some help particularly in the initial periods of adjustment and adaptation to the new environment.

As it was already indicated above, the relative concentration of socio-economic services and facilities in the town exerts a strong pull on migrants from rural areas and other urban areas of the zone or the region. Thus migration in search of modern social services is the second important non-economic factor of migration reported by 18.2 percent of the migrants (see table 4.14). This is more important for intra-regional migrants than inter-regional migrants (see table 4.15).

Table 4.15 Distribution of Intra-Regional and Inter-Regional Migrants by Primary Reasons of Migration

Reasons of Migration	Intra-Zonal		Intera-Zonal		Intera-Regional	
	No	%	No	%	No	%
• To join friends, relatives and parents	39	19.7	10	12.8	15	27.8
• To open or extend business	17	8.6	5	6.4	4	7.4
• In search of job	29	14.6	11	14.1	8	14.8
• Job transfer	12	6.1	17	21.8	15	27.8
• To seek modern-services	40	20.2	15	19.2	5	9.3
• Problems related to Agriculture	26	13.1	6	7.7	3	5.6
• Others	35	17.7	14	17.9	4	7.4
Total	198	100.0	78	100.0	54	100.0

Among those who migrate in search of urban service, 41.7 percent migrate in search of education. Moreover, as it can be observed from table 4.16 the number of migrants who had formal education at the time of in-migration to Kombolcha was relatively high, 57.0 percent. This figure is higher among inter-regional migrants, 85.2 percent than inter-zonal, 50.0 percent and intra-zonal migrants, 52.0 percent. Therefore, education is among the important factors of migration.

Political factors such as the prevalence of civil war, conflict among ethnic groups etc. are important factors producing much rural-urban migration in the third world (Cox, 1970:157 and Aklilu and Tadesse, 1991:29). Likewise, as it can be seen from table 4.14, the Ethio-Eritrean conflicts were the primary reasons for about 4 percent of the migrants to Kombolcha particularly in 1990-1991 and 1998-1999.

Climate is among the physical factors that induce migration. However, the proportion of migrants who moved to Kombolcha to seek good climate are insignificant, 2.4 percent. This implies that Kombolcha is less favorable climatically than the major source areas of migrants.

Another important physical factor of migration is distance between the area of origin and destination. As indicated in table 4.15 the majority of the migrants, more than 83.0 percent are intra-regional migrants and more specifically intra-zonal migrants, 60.0 percent. Migrants from other regions of the country constitute only 16.4 percent. Moreover, the overwhelming majority, 67.9 percent come from areas within a radius of less than 200 kms (see to table 4.2). From this, it can be seen that the volume of migration decreases with distance.

Table 4.16 Percentage Distribution Of Migrants Who Were Married And who had Formal Education at the Time of Departure from their Place of Birth or Area of Previous Residence by Region or Zone

Region or Zone	All Migrants		Married Migrants		Migrants with Formal Education	
	No	%	No	%	No	%
• Inter-regional	54	16.4	32	59.3	46	85.2
• Inter-zonal	78	23.6	35	44.9	39	50.0
• Intra-zonal	198	60.0	121	61.1	103	52.0
Total	330	100.0	188	57.0	188	57.0

CHAPTER FIVE

CONSEQUENCES OF MIGRATION ON THE MIGRANTS

5.1 Problems Encountered by Migrants in the Initial Period of Adjustment and Adaptation

As already indicated in chapter four, most migrants to Kombolcha have some form of information about the town. The main sources of information for many of them were relatives and friends residing in the town (refer to table 4.6). In addition the presence of these friends and relatives facilitates the initial adaptation of the new arrivals in the urban life through their assistance.

For instance, among those reporting to have had friends or relatives in Kombolcha prior to migration, about 31.2 percent stated that they had received assistance in one form or another to settle down and adjust to their new environment. More migrants of rural origin, 34.2 percent, have received assistance than migrants of urban origin. This could partly be attributed to the fact that more migrants of rural origin had relatives and friends, 53.5 percent, than their urban counter parts, 43.8 percent and due to the presence of strong familial and kin ties prevailing more among migrants of rural origin than those coming from other urban areas. It is further assumed that those coming from other urban areas need less help because of their better performance and awareness to urban environment than those coming from rural areas.

According to the data in table 5.1, out of the total respondents who have received assistance from relatives and friends in Kombolcha, 55.3 percent, reported to have been provided with food and lodging and 18.4 percent were assisted in finding house and 17.5 percent in finding job. The remaining 5.8 percent were assisted financially.

Table 5.1: Type of Assistance Received by Migrants During their Arrival to Kombolcha

Problems	Rural	Urban	All In-Migrants
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Encountered	No.		%		No.		%	
	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%
Food & Lodging	38	55.1	19	55.9	57	55.3		
Money	3	4.3	3	8.8	6	5.8		
Help in Finding Job	14	20.3	4	11.8	18	17.5		
Help in Finding House	13	18.8	6	17.6	19	18.4		
Not Stated	1	1.4	2	5.9	3	2.9		
Total	69	100.0	34	100.0	103	100.0		

However, the overall assistance provided by already settled relatives or friends is very low compared to the problems they confront in their destination especially during the initial period of adjustment and adaptation. Only 33.6 percent of the migrants responded that they had no serious problem at the time of their arrival to Kombolcha, whereas the overwhelming majority (66.4 percent) encountered many problems (see table 5.2).

Among the many problems migrants encounter at their initial period of adaptation and adjustment, the problem of getting shelter or accommodation was ranking first, followed by the problem of obtaining job. However, obtaining food and related items as well as the provision of social services were not the most pressing problems for the majority of the in-migrants (see table 5.2).

Table 5.2: Problems Faced by Migrants Immediately after Arrival in Kombolcha

Problems Encountered	Rural		Urban		All In-Migrants	
	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%
No difficulty	64	31.7	47	36.7	111	33.6
Shelter	87	43.1	55	43.0	142	43.0
Food and Related Consumer Items	14	6.9	5	3.9	19	5.8
Social Services	9	4.5	4	3.1	13	3.9
Problem of Obtaining Job	28	13.9	17	13.3	45	13.6
Total	202	100.0	128	100.0	330	100.0

According to the report of employed migrants, a significant proportion of them (59.4 percent) had secure jobs without waiting or have started work immediately at their arrival. This is partly because a larger number of them were government employees who moved to the town because of job transfer or individuals who have come to start a new business or have extended an existing one. A substantial proportion, 25.2 percent, of them have waited for less than 3 years to obtain job. The minority, 10.4 percent, have stayed unemployed for three or more years (see table 5.3).

The comparison of migrants of urban and rural origin by duration of waiting to secure job indicates that migrants of rural origin obtain job within a relatively short period of time compared to migrants of urban origin (see table 5.3). One possible explanation for such disparity could be attributed to the fact that rural out-migrants, as they are usually unskilled and more poverty stricken, have no alternative to taking up any job that comes their way.

Table 5.3: Distribution of Employed Migrants by the Duration of Stay Unemployed and Place of Birth

Year	Rural		Urban		All In-migrants	
	No	%	No	%	No	%
Without Waiting	76	61.8	44	55.7	120	59.4
Less than 1	18	14.6	15	19.0	33	16.3
1-2	12	9.8	6	7.6	18	8.9
3-4	7	5.7	6	7.6	13	6.4
More than 5	6	4.9	2	2.5	8	4.0
Not stated	4	3.3	6	7.6	10	5.0
Total	123	100.0	79	100.0	202	100.0

5.3 Current Level of Educational Attainment of Migrants and Non-Migrants

ሦላሳ ሽሶሽሶ ቋቋ ስቂሾ ሾሽሻሻሶሽሶቋቋሶቆ ሻቂሶ-ሰሶሻሽሾ-ሰቃሶሽሶቃሻሶ ቋቋ ቁቃቁ-ሰሶቋሽሶ ቃቋ ሻቂሶሰሽሾ-ሰ ቀቋሻ-ሰ ቃቋሽሶቃሻሶሽሾ ስቂሶሽ 72.7 ሰሾ-ሰሻሾቋሽ ቋቋ ስቂሾ ቃቋ-ቁቃቁ-ሰሶቋሽሶ ሾሾ-ሰሾ ቆቃሽሾ-ሰሶሽሾ ሾቂሾቋ ስቂሾቱ ቁቋ-ሽሾሽ ስቋ ሕቋቁሽቋቆሻቂሶ. ሐቋሾሾ-ሽሾ-ሰ ሶቀሽሾ-ሰ ስቂሾቃ-ሰ ቁቃቁ-ሰሶሽሶቋቋ ስቋ ስቂሾ ሰሻሻሽ-ቱ ሶ-ሰሾሶ ስቂሾ ቆቃሽሾ-ሰሶሻሽ-ቱ ሰሶሽሾ ቋቋ ቁቃቁ-ሰሶቋሽሶ ቂሶሽ ቃቋሻ-ሰሾሶሾሽ ስቋ 84.8 ሰሾ-ሰሻሾቋሽ (ሶሾሾ ስሶሻቆሾ 5.4). ሦላቃሶ ቃቋሽሶቃሻሶሽሾ ስቂሶሽ ቁቃቁ-ሰሶሽሶቋቋ ቃቋ-ሽቋቆ-ሽሾሶ ቋቋሽ ቋቋቆቱ ሰሾቆሾሻሽሶቋቋ ቋቋ ሾሽሻሻሶሽሾሽ ሰሾ-ሰሶቋቂሶ ቀ-ሰቋቁ ስቂሾቃ-ሰ ቋ-ሰቃቁቃቋ ሻሻሽ ሶቆሶቋ ስቂሾ ቃቁ-ሰ-ሰቋ-ሽሾቁሾቋሽ ቋቋ ስቂሾ ሾሽሻሻሶሽሶቋቋሶቆ ቆሾ-ሽሾቆ ቋቋ ቁቃቁ-ሰሶቋሽሶ ሶሽ ስቂሾ ስቂሾቃ-ሰ ሻ-ሰሻሶቋ ሻሾሰሽሶቋሶሽሶቋቋ.

Moreover, the migrants residing in the town have achieved better rate of literacy and level of educational attainment than the non-migrants except in the secondary level of schooling (see table 5.4). This is somewhat different from the findings of other studies on the comparison of the educational level of migrants and non-migrants. For instance, in Latin American cities such as Buenos Aires, Mexico City, Monterey etc, migrants have lower educational attainment than non-migrants (Balan, 1969 cited in USA National Academy of Sciences, 1971:30).

However, a comparison of migrants by their origin indicates that rural-born migrants still have low literacy rate and level of educational attainment at all levels except in the primary level of schooling than migrants of urban origin (see table 5.4).

Table 5.4: Distribution of Respondents by their Current Level of Educational Attainment, Migration Status and Place of Birth

Educational Attainment	Migrants						Non-migrants		All	
	Rural		Urban		Total		No.	%	No.	%
	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%				
Illiterate	36	17.8	14	10.9	50	15.2	35	17.3	85	16.0
Write and Read	41	20.3	20	15.6	61	18.5	43	21.3	104	19.5
Primary (1-8)	78	38.6	35	27.3	113	34.2	62	30.7	175	32.9
Secondary (9-12)	35	17.3	41	32.0	76	23.0	51	25.2	127	23.9
Above Secondary	12	5.9	18	14.1	30	9.1	10	5.0	40	7.5
Note Stated	-	-	-	-	-	-	1	0.5	1	0.2
Total	202	100.0	128	100.0	330	100.0	202	100.0	532	100.0

5.3 Fertility Level and Household Size of Migrants and Non-Migrants

As indicated in table 5.5 the average number of children born to a female migrant household head up to the time of the survey is about 2.66 compared to 2.68 for the non-migrant female household head. In other words, the levels of fertility among migrant and non-migrant women have no marked variation.

The comparison of fertility level of migrants by their origin shows slight variation. Female migrants of rural origin have slightly higher fertility level, 2.7 than female migrants of urban origin, 2.6 (see table 5.5). However, the level of fertility among female migrants of rural origin is much lower than the total fertility rate for the rural areas of the country, 4.6 children per-woman of child bearing age in 1994. This is because rural-urban migration reduces the level of fertility among migrants by increasing their exposure to family planning such as the use of contraceptives (Shrivastava, 1994:168; Billsborrow et.al, 1984:27 etc.).

Table 5.5: Distribution of Female Migrants by Number of Children Born, Migration Status and Place of Birth

Number of Children	Migrants						Non-Migrants		All	
	Rural		Urban		Total					
	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%
0	8	8.9	10	14.9	18	11.5	17	18.1	35	13.9
1-2	36	40.0	26	38.8	62	39.5	29	30.9	91	36.3
3-4	32	35.6	18	26.9	50	31.8	28	29.8	78	31.1
5-6	10	11.1	9	13.4	19	12.1	17	18.1	36	14.3
7-8	2	2.2	2	3.0	4	2.5	3	3.2	7	2.8
9 and above	2	2.2	-	-	2	1.3	-	-	2	0.8
Not Stated	-	-	2	3.0	2	1.3	-	-	2	0.8
Total	90	100.0	67	100.0	157	100.0	94	100.0	251	100.0
Average Number of Children	2.73		2.55		2.66		2.68		2.67	

According to this survey, the average household size for migrant households is about 4.80 compared to 4.72 for the non-migrant households. Therefore, there is no significant variation in terms of the average number of persons per-household for both groups (see table 5.6). This may be attributed to the low level of chain migration particularly among migrants for urban origin and the exposure of migrants to the urban milieu of low family size.

Comparison of migrants of rural and urban origin indicates that migrants of rural origin and urban origin have relatively equal number of persons per-household, 5.0 and 4.78 persons per-household, respectively (see table 5.6). In spite of the low fertility level, both migrants and non-migrant households have average household size equal to the average for the whole rural areas of the country, 4.8 in 1994 (CSA, 1998, Vol. 1: 51).

Table 5.6: Distribution of Respondents by Household Size, Migration Status and Place of Birth

Household Size	Migrants						Non-Migrants		All	
	Rural		Urban		Total		No.	%	No.	%
	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%				
1	10	5.0	13	10.2	23	7.0	14	6.9	37	7.0
2-3	42	20.8	34	26.6	76	23.0	48	23.8	124	23.3
4-5	70	34.6	40	31.3	110	33.3	66	32.8	176	33.1
6-7	54	26.7	29	22.7	83	25.2	50	24.8	133	25.0
8-9	18	8.9	10	7.8	28	8.5	18	8.9	46	8.6
10 and above	6	3.0	2	1.6	8	2.4	5	2.5	13	2.4
Not Stated	2	1.0	-	-	2	0.6	1	0.5	3	0.6
Total	202	100.0	128	100.0	330	100.0	202	100.0	532	100.0
Average Household Size	5.00		4.50		4.80		4.72		4.77	

5.3 Employment Condition and Income Level of Migrants and Non-Migrants

At the time of the survey 8.5 percent of the migrants and 2.0 percent of the non-migrants were unemployed (see table 5.7). In other words, the unemployment rate for migrants is higher than non-migrants. Thus, irrespective of the employment status and sectors, non-migrants are more likely to participate in the labour force to a greater extent than migrants in the town.

Furthermore, the survey reveals that the unemployment rate for migrants of rural origin, 10.4 percent, is higher than for migrants of urban origin, 5.5 percent (see table 5.7). This is partly because rural-urban migrants are less educated and skilled than the urban-urban migrants (refer to table 5.4).

Table 5.7: Distribution of Households by Activity Status, Migration Status and Place of Birth

Activity Status	Migrants						Non-Migrants		All	
	Rural		Urban		Total		No.	%	No.	%
	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%				
Employed	123	60.9	79	61.7	202	61.2	148	73.3	350	65.8
Unemployed	21	10.4	7	5.5	28	8.5	4	2.0	32	6.0
Student	1	0.5	4	3.1	5	1.5	5	2.5	10	1.9
Pensioned	30	14.9	9	7.0	39	11.8	23	11.4	62	11.7
Housewife	25	12.4	29	22.7	54	16.4	21	10.4	75	14.1
Not Stated	2	1.0	-	-	2	0.6	1	0.5	3	0.6
Total	202	100.0	128	100.0	330	100.0	202	100.0	532	100.0

As indicated in table 5.8, there is marked variation in the employment status among migrants and non-migrants. The majority, 50.0 percent of the employed migrants are government employees. In contrast most of the employed non-migrants, 42.6 percent, are self employed. Thus, migrants in Kombolcha have high participation rate in the formal sector particularly in government employment than non-migrants. This is because migrants in general and the urban-urban migrants in particular have better level of educational attainment than non-migrants.

The participation of rural-born migrants in government employment, 45.5 percent, is lower than urban-urban migrants. In contrast, the participation of migrants of rural origin in self-employment, 37.0 percent, is high compared to migrants of urban origin, 19.0 percent (see table 5.8). In other words, rural-born migrants are less capable of getting government employment due to their low level of educational attainment than their urban counter parts.

Table 5.8: Distribution of Employed Households by Employment Status, Migration Status and place of Birth

Employment Status	Migrants						Non-Migrants		All	
	Rural		Urban		Total		No.	%	No.	%
	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%				
Self Employed	46	37.4	15	19.0	61	30.2	63	42.6	124	35.4
Gove't. Employed	56	45.5	45	57.0	101	50.0	48	32.4	149	42.6
N.G.O. Employed	20	16.3	14	17.7	34	16.8	32	21.6	66	18.9
Employer	1	0.8	5	6.3	6	3.0	2	1.4	8	2.3
Noted Stated	-	-	-	-	-	-	3	2.1	3	0.9
Total	123	100.0	79	100.0	202	100.0	148	100.0	350	100.0

As to their sector of employment, about 47.0 percent of the migrants are employed in tertiary sector compared to 39.9 percent for the non-migrants. In other words, migrants are involved more in the tertiary sector than non-migrants. However, the participation of migrants and non-migrants in the secondary sector is almost equal (see table 5.9).

There is a significant difference among migrants of rural and urban origin in terms of sector of employment. The majority of the rural-born migrants, 53.7 percent are engaged in the tertiary sector. In contrast most urban-born migrants, 53.2 percent are employed in the secondary sector.

As it has been indicated in chapter four, most of the migrants in general and migrants of rural origin in particular were employed in the agriculture sector before their migration to Kombolcha. However, at present, the proportion of both rural-urban and urban-urban migrants in the primary sector such as agriculture and quarrying is less than 8.0 percent (see table 5.9). Thus rural-urban migration changes not only the educational level of migrants but also the sector of employment.

Table 5.9: Distribution of Employed Households by Economic Sector, Migration Status and Place of Birth

Occupational Sectors	Migrants						Non-Migrants		All	
	Rural		Urban		Total		No.	%	No.	%
	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%				
Primary	9	7.3	2	2.5	11	5.4	14	9.5	25	7.1
Secondary	45	36.6	42	53.2	87	43.1	61	41.2	148	42.3
Tertiary	66	53.7	29	36.7	95	47.0	59	39.9	154	44.0
Not Stated	3	2.4	6	7.6	9	4.5	14	9.5	23	6.6
Total	123	100.0	79	100.0	202	100.0	148	100.0	350	100.0

As indicated in table 5.10, 69.8 percent of the migrant and 62.8 percent of the non-migrant household heads reported to have managed to secure permanent jobs. Therefore, greater number of the employed migrants are engaged in permanent jobs than those born in Kombolcha. Furthermore, migrants of urban origin have better access to permanent employment than migrants of rural origin.

Temporary and casual economic activities also constitute a substantial proportion of the employed migrants and non-migrants, 23.8 and 25.0 percent, respectively. Thus, the participation of migrants and non-migrants in temporary and casual economic activities has no great variation. Greater number of rural-urban migrants, 29.3 percent, are in the temporary and casual works compared to 19.0 percent for urban-urban migrants (see table 5.10).

Table 5.10: Distribution of Employed Households by Nature of Employment, Migration Status and Place of Birth

Nature of Employment	Migrants						Non-Migrants		All	
	Rural		Urban		Total		No.	%	No.	%
	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%				
Permanent	81	65.9	60	75.9	141	69.8	93	62.8	234	66.9
Temporary	16	13.0	8	10.1	24	11.9	16	10.8	40	11.4
Seasonal	4	3.3	7	8.9	11	5.4	14	9.5	25	7.1
Casual	20	16.3	4	5.1	24	11.9	21	14.2	45	12.9
Not Stated	2	1.6	-	-	2	1.0	4	2.7	6	1.7
Total	123	100.0	79	100.0	202	100.0	148	100.0	350	100.0

Generally, it is very difficult to obtain adequate information about income in developing countries like Ethiopia. Particularly, the income data for those who run

their own businesses are unreliable. Despite this limitation, attempts are made to study the income level of the sample households.

The impressionistic survey information shows that about two thirds (74.6 percent) of the sample households obtain an average monthly income of less than 501 Birr. Only a small proportion (16.2 percent) of the sample residents earn a monthly income of more than 501 Birr (see table 5.11).

Table 5.11: Distribution of Respondents by Average Monthly Income, Migration Status and Place of Birth

Amount of Monthly Income (Birr)	Migrants						Non-Migrants		All	
	Rural		Urban		Total					
	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%
Less than 100	36	17.8	16	12.5	52	15.8	32	15.8	84	15.8
100-200	54	26.7	19	14.8	73	22.1	53	26.2	126	23.7
201-300	32	15.8	16	12.5	48	14.5	26	12.9	74	13.9
301-400	22	10.9	17	13.3	39	11.8	27	13.4	66	12.4
401-500	12	5.9	10	7.8	22	6.7	25	12.4	47	8.8
501-600	11	5.4	14	10.9	25	7.6	9	4.5	34	6.4
601-700	8	4.0	5	3.9	13	3.9	8	4.0	21	3.9
More than 700	12	5.9	17	13.3	29	8.8	2	1.0	31	5.8
Not Stated	15	7.4	14	10.9	29	8.8	20	9.9	49	9.2
Total	202	100.0	128	100.0	330	100.0	202	100.0	532	100.0

As indicated in table 5.11, the average monthly income of the non-migrant residents of the town is lower than the migrants. Only 9.4 percent of them earn a monthly income of more than 501 Birr compared to 20.3 percent of the migrants in the same income category. This is because non-migrants are less educated and substantial proportion of them are self-employed in the low income generating jobs.

There is significant variation in the income level of the migrants of rural and urban origin. The monthly income of rural-born migrants is lower than the urban born migrants. In other words, only 15.3 percent of the rural-born households earn more

than 501 Birr monthly compared to 28.1 percent for the urban-born migrants. Therefore, migrants of urban origin achieve higher income level than the rural-born migrants and non-migrants (see table 5.11). This is because urban-born migrants have relatively better level of educational attainment and most of them are engaged in the formal sector particularly in government employment (refer to table 5.8).

5.5 Access of Migrants and Non-Migrants to Housing Facilities and Amenities

5.5.1 Ownership and Adequacy of Housing Units

Comparison of migrants and non-migrants by type of housing tenure indicates that the percentage share for non-migrant household heads with owner occupancy, 51.5 percent, is higher than the migrants household heads, 37.9 percent. In other words, the majority of the migrants in the town, 60.9 percent dwell in rented houses compared to that of the non-migrants, 46.5 percent (see table 5.12).

The data in table 5.12, further show that as much as 44.1 percent of the migrants of rural origin have their own dwellings compared to 28.1 percent for migrants of urban origin. Though migrant households in general and urban-born migrants in particular have better income than non-migrants, most of them are living in rented houses compared to non-migrants. This might be as a result of their short stay in the town or due to their intention either to return to their origin or to leave Kombalcha for other urban areas.

Table 5.12: Distribution of Households by type of Housing Tenure, Migration Status and Place of Birth

Housing Tenure	Migrants						Non-Migrants	
	Rural		Urban		Total			
	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%
Owned	89	44.1	36	28.1	125	37.9	104	51.5
Rented	110	54.5	91	71.1	201	60.9	94	46.5
Rent Fee	3	1.5	1	0.8	4	1.2	3	1.5
Not Stated	-	-	-	-	-	-	1	0.5
Total	202	100.0	128	100.0	330	100.0	202	100.0

The data in table 5.13, show that the proportion of migrant households who live in dwellings of less than three rooms, 63.6 percent, are relatively larger than non-migrants, 58.4 percent. In other words, the percentage of non-migrants who live in dwellings of more than two rooms, 35.8 percent is lower than non-migrants, 40.1 percent. Therefore, non-migrants live in dwellings with more number of rooms than migrant households. This is because most of the natives live in their own houses. However, there is no significant variation in the average number of persons per-room among migrant and non-migrant households in the town.

Among migrants, migrants of rural origin live in dwellings with more number of rooms compared to migrants of urban origin. More than 37.1 percent of migrants households of rural origin have dwellings with more than two rooms compared to 33.6 percent for migrants of urban origin. This is because, relatively more number of rural-urban migrants live in their own houses than the urban-urban migrants (refer to table 5.12). However, the average number of persons per-room is almost similar for the two migrant groups (see table 5.13).

Table 5.13: Distribution of Respondents by Number of Rooms, Migration Status and Place of Birth

Number of Rooms	Migrants						Non-Migrants	
	Rural		Urban		Total		No.	%
	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%		
1	75	37.1	45	35.2	120	36.4	60	29.7
2	50	24.8	40	31.3	90	27.3	58	28.7
3	26	12.9	20	15.6	46	13.9	38	18.8
4	37	18.3	20	15.6	57	17.3	34	16.8
5	8	4.0	3	2.3	11	3.3	7	3.5
More than 5	4	2.0	-	-	4	1.2	2	1.0
Not Stated	2	1.0	-	-	2	0.6	3	1.5
Total	202	100.0	128	100.0	330	100.0	202	100.0
Average Number of Persons Per-Room	2.1		2.1		2.1		2.1	

5.5.2 Kitchen, Toilet and Bath Facilities

Housing facilities such as kitchen, toilet and bath are useful indicators in evaluating the living condition of migrant and non-migrant households. As indicated in table 5.14, the majority of migrants and non-migrants have access to kitchen facilities. In other words 79.1 percent of the migrant households and 73.8 percent of the non-migrants of the town have kitchen facilities either private or shared. However, the proportion of migrant households with kitchen facility either private or shared is slightly higher than non-migrants. Among migrants, rural-born migrants have better access to kitchen facilities than the urban-born migrants.

Households without toilet account for about 10.3 and 11.9 percent of the migrant and non-migrant sample households, respectively. In other words, there is no significant variation in the proportion of toilet less migrant and non-migrant households. However, relatively greater number of migrant households, 11.8 percent, have access to modern flush toilet (private or shared) than non-migrant

households, 6.9 percent. Urban-urban migrants have better access to modern flush toilet than both rural-born migrants and non-migrants (see table 5.14).

The proportion of households with no bathing facilities is 78.5 and 86.1 percent for the migrant and non-migrant households, respectively. Eventhough most of the respondents do not have bath facilities the situation is relatively worse for non-migrant households. Again, urban-urban migrants have better access to bath facilities than both rural-urban migrants and non-migrants living in the town (see table 5.14).

Though more non-migrant households live in their own houses compared to the migrants, they have less access to kitchen, modern toilet and bath facilities. Therefore, non-migrants live in poorer quality houses than migrants in the town.

Table 5.14: Distribution of Households by Availability of Kitchen, Type of Toilet and Bath Facilities

Availability of Kitchen Facilities	Migrants						Non-Migrants		All	
	Rural		Urban		Total		No.	%	No.	%
	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%				
Yes	164	81.2	97	75.8	261	79.1	149	73.8	410	77.1
No	36	17.8	28	21.9	64	19.4	50	24.8	114	21.4
Not Stated	2	1.0	3	2.3	5	1.5	3	1.5	8	1.5
Total	202	100.0	128	100.0	330	100.0	202	100.0	532	100.0

Availability and Types of Toilet Facilities

Modern Flush (Private)	11	5.4	12	9.4	23	7.0	6	3.0	29	5.5
Moden Flush Shared	7	3.5	9	7.0	16	4.8	8	4.0	24	4.5
Dry-pit (private)	87	43.1	38	29.7	125	37.9	87	43.1	212	39.8
Dry-pit (shared)	75	37.1	55	43.0	130	39.4	76	37.6	206	38.7
Have no toilet	22	10.9	12	9.4	34	10.3	24	11.9	58	10.9
Not Stated	-	-	2	1.6	2	0.6	1	0.5	3	0.6
Total	202	100.0	128	100.0	330	100.0	202	100.0	532	100.0

Availability and Type of Bath Facilities

Have no bathing facility	164	81.2	95	74.2	259	78.5	174	86.1	433	81.4
Bath tube (private)	5	2.5	1	0.8	6	1.8	3	1.5	9	1.7
Bath tube (shared)	2	1.0	1	0.8	3	0.9	1	0.5	4	0.8

Shower (private)	16	7.9	17	13.3	33	10.0	12	5.9	45	8.5
Shower (shared)	15	7.4	13	10.2	28	8.5	10	5.0	38	7.1
Not Stated	-	-	1	0.8	1	0.3	2	1.0	3	0.6
Total	202	100.0	128	100.0	330	100.0	202	100.0	532	100.0

5.5.3 Access of Migrants and Non-Migrants to Water and Electricity Services

According to the data in table 5.15, almost all of the surveyed migrants, 99.4 percent and non-migrant households, 99.5 percent, in the town have access to piped water supply. However, the majority of both migrants, 59.4 percent and non-migrants, 57.4 percent do not have their own water meters. There is no marked variation between migrant and non-migrant households in regard to the ownership of water meters or access to piped water supply.

There is also a similar distribution of rural-urban and urban-urban migrant households in the study area in terms of access to water meters or piped water supply. Moreover, the percentage of rural born and urban-born migrants who have their own water meters is equal, 40.6 percent. However, the percentage of urban-born migrants who use shared water meters, 29.7, larger than rural-born migrants, 18.3 percent. Moreover, the percentage of rural-born migrant households who fetch water from public fountain or "Bono," 20.8, are larger than urban-born migrants, 11.7 percent (see table 5.15).

Table 5.15,. further reveals that almost all of the migrants, 99.1 percent and non-migrant households, 98.5 percent, have access to the utilization of electricity as a source of lighting. There is no marked difference among migrant and non-migrant households in terms of ownership of electricity meters or in the utilization of electricity as a source of lighting.

Table 5.15 Distribution of Households by Their Source of water Supply and Lighting, Migration Status and Place of Birth

Source of Water Supply	Migrants						Non-Migrants		All	
	Rural		Urban		Total					
	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%
Own Metre	82	40.6	52	40.6	134	40.6	86	42.6	220	41.4
Shared Metre	37	18.3	38	29.7	75	22.7	46	22.8	121	22.7
Public Tap	42	20.8	15	11.7	57	17.3	36	17.8	93	17.5
From Other households	39	19.3	23	18.0	62	18.8	33	16.3	95	17.9
Others	2	1.0	-	-	2	0.6	1	0.5	3	0.6
Total	202	100.0	128	100.0	330	100.0	202	100.0	532	100.0

Utilization of Electricity

Own Metre	106	52.5	68	53.1	174	52.7	103	51.0	277	52.1
Shared Metre	67	33.2	49	38.3	116	35.2	71	35.1	187	35.2
From Other Households	26	12.9	11	8.6	37	11.2	25	12.4	62	11.7
Does not use Electricity	3	1.5	-	-	3	0.9	3	1.5	6	1.1
Total	202	100.0	128	100.0	330	100.0	202	100.0	532	100.0

The number of migrant households of rural and urban origin who have their own electricity meter are almost equal, 52.5 and 53.1 percent, respectively. However, relatively greater number of rural-born migrant households, 12.9 percent, purchase electricity from other households than urban-born migrant households, 8.6 percent. On the other hand, the users of shared electricity meter are more among migrant households of urban origin, 38.3 percent, than migrant households of rural origin, 33.2 percent (see table 5.15).

In general, the presence of greater number of rural-born migrants who purchase water from public fountain (Bono) and electricity from other households

than urban-born migrants in the town is an indication of low living condition and income level of migrants of rural origin compared to migrants of urban origin.

5.5.4 Ownership of Durable Consumer items

The availability of some durable consumer items is another indicator of the living conditions of migrants and non-migrants. Most of the migrants, 71.5 percent and the non-migrants, 80.7 percent are the owners of radio sets. Only a small proportion of both groups possessing other durable consumer items were included in the survey (refer to table 5.16).

However, the ownership of durable consumer items in the town shows little variation among migrant and non-migrant households. The number of migrant households who own electric/gas stove, electric "metad" and television set are slightly higher than non-migrant households. The reverse is true in the possession of car and radio (refer to table 5.16).

Furthermore, the ownership of durable consumer items does not show marked variation among migrants of rural and urban origin except in the possession of gas/electric stove and electric "metad" (see table 5.16).

Table 5.16 Distribution of Households by Ownership of Durable Consumer Items, Migration Status and Place of Birth

Durable Consumer Items		Migrants						Non-Migrants	
		Rural		Urban		Total		No.	%
		No.	%	No.	%	No.	%		
Car	Yes	3	1.5	3	2.3	6	1.8	4	2.0
	No	199	98.5	125	97.7	324	98.2	198	98.0
	Total	202	100.0	128	100.0	330	100.0	202	100.0
Television	Yes	41	20.3	30	23.4	71	21.5	35	17.3
	No	161	79.7	98	76.6	259	78.5	167	82.7
	Total	202	100.0	128	100.0	330	100.0	202	100.0
Radio	Yes	146	72.3	90	70.3	236	71.5	163	80.7
	No	56	27.7	38	29.7	94	28.5	39	19.3
	Total	202	100.0	128	100.0	330	100.0	202	100.0
Plate (Electric	Yes	49	24.3	40	31.3	89	27.0	45	22.3
	No	153	75.4	88	68.8	241	73.0	157	77.7

Metad)	Total	202	100.0	128	100.0	330	100.0	202	100.0
	Yes	46	22.8	50	39.1	96	29.1	58	28.7
Gas/Electric-	No	156	77.2	78	60.9	234	70.9	144	71.3
Stove	Total	202	100.0	128	100.0	330	100.0	202	100.0

5.6 Current Problems of Migrants and Their Future Plan of Migration

As indicated in table 5.17, less than a quarter, 20.3 percent, of the migrant respondents reported that they have no serious problem in the town currently. However, the majority, 79.4 percent, said that they face many problems.

The two main difficulties being faced are the inadequate supply of consumer items and housing shortage. These two were the primary problem for 27.0 and 27.3 percent of the migrant households, respectively. Problems related to job such as the difficulty of obtaining urban formal job is another basic problem for 19.7 percent of the migrant households followed by inadequate social services and amenities, 5.5 percent (see table 5.17).

Currently the problem being faced by migrants is significantly different among female and male in-migrant household heads. Particularly problems related to job are more prevalent among female migrants in general and female migrant of rural origin in particular (see table 5.17) because of their low level of educational attainment (refer to table 5.4)

The difficulty of inadequate supply of consumer items is reflected more among migrants of rural origin than migrants of urban origin (see table 5.17). This is because rural born migrants have low monthly income than urban-born migrants (refer to table 5.11).

Not all migrants take up permanent residence in the city. For instance, most African rural-urban migrants return to their rural village after spending a substantial period in towns and these account large proportion of urban-rural migrants.

In the light of the difficulties they encounter now and considering the future improvement of their lives, more than half, 50.6 percent of the migrant residents in Kombolcha reported to have plans or hope of moving out of the town to another destination. Greater percentage of female migrants 57.3 percent, have a plan to leave Kombolcha than male migrants in the town, 44.5 percent. Urban-born female migrants in particular, 67.2 percent and migrants of urban origin in general 57.8 percent, have more aspiration to leave the town compared to 42.9 percent male and 50.0 percent female migrants of rural origin.

Eventhough more than half of the migrant household heads have a hope of leaving Kombolcha only 40.7 percent of them know the destination of their future migration.

As indicated in table 5.18, of those rural-urban migrants with a plan or hope of leaving Kombolcha and know the direction of their future migration only 20.7 percent have a desire to return to their rural birth place. The majority, 75.9 percent, have an interest to move to other urban areas. In general, the intention of rural-urban migrants to return home is very low particularly among rural-born female migrants. This is an indication of less attractiveness or worse living and working conditions of rural areas of the region and the country at large. Moreover, the level of urban-rural migration which is largely a return migration is low compared to most part of Africa.

Even, the percentage of urban-born migrants who have a plan to move to their urban-birth place is very low, 25.6 percent. The majority, 74.4 percent have a plan to move to other urban areas (see table 5.18). From this it is possible to infer that most urban-urban migrants in Kombolcha come from smaller towns with inadequate provision of modern urban amenities and facilities.

In African countries such as Ghana returning to village at retirement age is common (Browning, 1971) and this may be reflected in the low proportion of elderly people in African towns (Peil and Sada, 1985).

However, according to this survey, the overwhelming majority, 74.2 percent of the migrants of Kombolcha in general and the rural-born migrants in particular, 82.7 percent, do not have a plan to return to their birth place at the time of retirement (see table 5.19). As a result the proportion of migrant population in the town aged 60 years and above, 15.2 percent, is not lower than natives, 12.4 percent.

Table 5.19 Distribution of Migrants by Plan of Migration at Retirement Age

Plan of Migration	Rural		Urban		All In-Migrants	
	No	%	No.	%	No.	%
To Stay Here	167	82.7	78	60.9	245	74.2
To Return to the Place of Birth	28	13.9	31	24.2	59	17.9
To move to Another Place	5	2.5	19	14.8	24	7.3
Not Stated	2	1.0	-	-	2	0.6
Total	202	100.0	128	100.0	330	100.0

and relatives come to the town before them and previous visits are the most important sources of information. However, most of their moves are unplanned.

The majority of the migrants are in the most productive age. Migrants with rural origin came at younger ages than those from urban areas. Similarly, females enter into the migration stream at earlier ages than males.

Among migrants of rural origin male migrants outnumbered female migrants. However, among urban-urban migrants female migrants are greater than male migrants. Except male migrants of urban origin, the majority of the migrants were married when they moved to Kombolcha to settle permanently.

A greater number of migrants had some form of formal education at the time of their move to Kombolcha. More males than females and more urban-urban migrants than rural-urban migrants had formal education at the time of their in-migration.

The economic and non-economic reasons are almost equally important for the decisions to migrate. Rural-urban migrants migrate more for economic reasons than urban-urban migrants. Females migrate for non-economic reasons than males.

The search for job, job transfer and problems related to agriculture are found to be the most important economic reasons of migration. Among non-economic reasons, the need to join parents, friends and relatives and the search for urban services are the most important.

A substantial proportion of migrants, mostly those who came from rural areas had friends and relatives residing in the town prior to migration. Some of them provide assistance particularly in food and lodging in the initial period of adjustment

and adaptation. However, a significant proportion of migrants have encountered problems to adjust and settle themselves in the new environment. Acquiring shelter or accommodation has been the most common problem.

More than half of the employed migrants had secure jobs without waiting, or have started work immediately. A substantial proportion of them have waited for less than three years. However, the minority of the employed migrants have stayed unemployed for three or more years.

It may be due to their exposure to family planning and the urban milieu of low family size, migrants have almost equal level of fertility and average household size with that of non-migrants.

The unemployment rate for migrants in general and rural-urban migrants in particular is higher than non-migrants. However, the participation of migrants in the formal sector particularly in government employment is higher than non-migrants. Most of the non-migrants are self-employed. As to their sector of employment, relatively more of the migrants and non-migrants are employed in the tertiary sector. However, migrants are involved more in the tertiary sector than non-migrants. The participation of migrants and non-migrants in the secondary sector does not show marked variation.

The average monthly income of migrants is higher than that of non-migrants. This is because migrants have relatively better level of educational attainment and most of them are engaged in the formal sector particularly in government employment. However, most of them are living in rented houses and in dwellings with fewer number of rooms. Non-migrants have less access to kitchen, modern

toilet and bath facilities than migrants. In other words, non-migrants live in poorer quality houses than migrants in the town.

There is no marked variation between migrant and non-migrant households in regard to the ownership of water and electricity meters or access to piped water supply and utilization of electricity as a source of lighting. However, the ownership of durable consumer items in the town shows little variation among migrant and non-migrant households. The number of migrant households who own electric/gas stove, electric 'metad' and television sets are slightly higher than non-migrant households. The reverse is true in the possession of radio set and car.

Shortage of housing, inadequate supply of consumer items and the difficulty of obtaining urban formal job are among the major current problems of migrants in the town. However, most of the migrants, particularly migrants of rural origin do not have an intention or a plan to return to their place of birth even at retirement age. Instead, a substantial proportion of them have a plan to move to other urban areas. This is an indication of low level of return migration and urban-rural migration in Ethiopia. This is because rural living and working conditions are much worse compared to urban areas of the country.

6.2 Recommendations

1. The lack of remunerative income and job opportunities in rural areas have forced many people to move to the town. Providing non-agricultural job opportunities through the intensification of small scale industries in the rural areas can reduce the rural out migration substantially.
2. A large number of migrants move particularly from other weredas of south Wollo zone to the town in search of modern urban social services. Therefore, instead of concentrating the various elements of modernization in a few urban centers, the provision of different social services such as infrastructure, water and electricity services to the rural areas and other wereda centers of the zone will reduce the magnitude of rural-urban migration.
3. Increasing agricultural productivity through the provision of modern agricultural inputs and intensification of using irrigation projects would have a significant impact in minimizing the flow of people due to agricultural constraints.
4. Planned resettlement on voluntary basis, particularly from densely populated and severely degraded parts of the country or regions to sparsely populated and potentially rich areas is another solution in reducing the flow of people towards few urban centers.
5. To slow down the accelerated flow of young people especially from rural areas towards urban centers the government should create a favorable condition for the young and productive population to work and live in every part of the country.
6. Conducting research works on return migration, impact of migration on the origin and destination of migrants, reasons of rural out-migration etc. are important in

the overall effort of rural development activities, effective urban management and in the reduction of rural-urban migration.

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Appendix 1: Number and Percentage Distribution of the In-migrants to Kombolcha by Region, Place of Birth and Sex

Un-married	Migrants of Rural Origin						Migrants of Urban Origin						All In-migrants					
	Male		Female		Total		Male		Female		Total		Male		Female		Total	
	No	%	No	%	No	%	No	%	No	%	No	%	No	%	No	%	No	%
Amhara	100	89.3	84	93.3	184	91.1	40	65.6	52	77.6	92	71.9	140	80.9	136	86.6	276	83.6
Tigray	6	5.4	4	4.4	10	5.0	4	6.6	9	13.4	13	10.2	10	5.8	13	8.3	23	7.0
Addis Ababa	3	2.7	1	1.1	4	2.0	8	13.1	2	3.0	10	7.8	11	6.4	3	1.9	14	4.2
Oromiya	3	2.7	-	-	3	1.5	5	8.2	4	6.0	9	7.0	8	4.6	4	2.5	12	3.6
S.N.N.P.R.	-	-	1	1.1	1	0.5	1	1.6	-	-	1	0.8	1	0.6	1	0.6	2	0.6
Harari	-	-	-	-	-	-	1	1.6	-	-	1	0.8	1	0.6	-	-	1	0.3
Dire Dawa	-	-	-	-	-	-	1	1.6	-	-	1	0.8	1	0.6	-	-	1	0.3
Somali	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
B. Gumuz	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Gambella	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Afar	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Assab	-	-	-	-	-	-	1	1.6	-	-	1	0.8	1	0.6	-	-	1	0.3
Total	112	100.0	90	100.0	202	100.0	61	100.0	67	100.0	128	100.0	173	100.0	157	100.0	330	100.0

Appendix 2: Number and Percentage Distribution of Intra- Regional Migrants to Kombolcha by Administrative Zones, by Place of Birth and Sex

Zone	Migrants of Rural Origin						Migrants of Urban Origin						All In-migrants					
	Male		Female		Total		Male		Female		Total		Male		Female		Total	
	No	%	No	%	No	%	No	%	No	%	No	%	No	%	No	%	No	%
South Wollo	78	78.0	63	75.0	141	76.6	23	57.5	34	65.4	57	62.0	101	72.1	97	71.3	198	71.7
North Wollo	13	13.0	15	17.9	28	15.2	6	15.0	9	17.3	15	16.3	19	13.6	24	17.6	43	15.6
Waghumra	1	1.0	-	-	1	0.5	1	2.5	2	3.8	3	3.3	2	1.4	2	1.5	4	1.4
Oromiya	3	3.0	4	4.8	7	3.8	4	10.0	4	7.7	8	8.7	7	5.0	8	5.9	15	5.4
South Gondar	2	2.0	1	1.2	3	1.6	1	2.5	1	1.9	2	2.2	3	2.1	2	1.5	5	1.8
North Gondar	-	-	-	-	-	-	2	5.0	-	-	2	2.2	2	1.4	-	-	2	0.7
North Shewa	1	1.0	-	-	1	0.5	3	7.5	2	3.8	5	5.4	4	2.9	2	1.5	6	2.2
East Gojjam	1	1.0	-	-	1	0.5	-	-	-	-	-	-	1	0.7	-	-	1	0.4
West Gojjam	1	1.0	-	-	1	0.5	-	-	-	-	-	-	1	0.7	-	-	1	0.4
Bahir Dar	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Awi	-	-	1	1.2	1	0.5	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	1	0.7	1	0.4
Total	100	100.0	84	100.0	184	100.0	40	100.0	52	100.0	92	100.0	140	100.0	136	100.0	276	100.0

Appendix 3: Number and Percentage Distribution of Intra- Zonal Migrants of Kombolcha by Wereda, by Place of Birth and Sex

Wereda	Migrants of Rural Origin						Migrants of Urban Origin						All In-migrants					
	Male		Female		Total		Male		Female		Total		Male		Female		Total	
	No	%	No	%	No	%	No	%	No	%	No	%	No	%	No	%		
Dessie Zuria	21	26.9	15	23.8	36	25.5	5	21.7	6	17.6	11	19.3	26	25.7	21	21.6	47	23.7
Dessie Ketema	-	-	-	-	-	-	3	13.0	10	29.4	13	22.8	3	3.0	10	10.3	13	6.6
Kalu	21	26.9	20	31.7	41	29.1	4	17.4	7	20.6	11	19.3	25	24.8	27	27.8	52	26.3
Teuledere	10	12.8	3	4.8	13	9.2	-	-	2	5.9	2	3.5	10	9.9	5	5.2	15	7.6
Ambassel	7	9.0	9	14.3	16	11.3	4	17.4	-	-	4	7.0	11	10.9	9	9.3	20	10.1
Werebabo	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	1	2.9	1	1.8	-	-	1	1.0	1	0.5
Kutaber	-	-	2	3.2	2	1.4	-	-	1	2.9	1	1.8	-	-	3	3.1	3	1.5
Wereilu	1	1.3	2	3.2	3	2.1	1	4.3	2	5.9	3	5.3	2	2.0	4	4.1	6	3.0
Jamma	-	-	-	3.2	-	-	1	4.3	-	-	1	1.8	1	1.0	-	-	1	0.5
Legambo	2	2.6	2	6.3	4	2.8	2	8.7	1	2.9	3	5.3	4	4.0	3	3.1	7	3.5
Tenta	3	3.8	4	1.6	7	5.0	2	8.7	4	11.8	6	10.5	5	5.0	8	8.2	13	6.6
Mekdela	2	2.6	1	3.2	3	2.1	-	-	-	-	-	-	2	2.0	1	1.0	3	1.5
Kelala	5	6.4	1	-	6	4.3	-	-	-	-	-	-	5	5.0	1	1.0	6	3.0
Wegede	1	1.3	2	3.2	3	2.1	-	-	-	-	-	-	1	1.0	2	2.1	3	1.5
Debresina	1	1.3	-	-	1	0.7	1	4.3	-	-	1	1.8	2	2.0	-	-	2	1.0
Saiynt	2	2.6	-	-	2	1.4	-	-	-	-	-	-	2	2.0	-	-	2	1.0
Not Stated	2	2.6	2	3.2	4	2.8	-	-	-	-	-	-	2	2.0	2	2.1	4	2.0
Total	78	100.0	63	100.0	141	100.0	23	100.0	34	100.0	57	100.0	101	100.0	97	100.0	198	100.0

Table 4.7: Number and Percentage Distribution of In-migrants by age, Sex and Place of Birth

Age Group	Migrants of Rural Origin						Migrants of Urban Origin						All In-migrants					
	Male		Female		Total		Male		Female		Total		Male		Female		Total	
	No	%	No	%	No	%	No	%	No	%	No	%	No	%	No	%	No	%
0-9	1	0.9	6	6.7	7	3.5	-	-	3	4.5	3	2.3	1	0.6	9	5.7	10	3.0
10-19	17	15.2	26	28.9	43	21.3	-	-	19	28.4	19	14.8	17	9.8	45	28.7	62	18.8
20-29	49	43.8	35	38.9	84	41.6	9	14.8	36	53.7	45	35.2	58	33.5	71	45.2	129	39.1
30-39	32	28.6	17	18.9	49	24.3	18	29.5	7	10.4	25	19.5	50	28.9	24	15.3	74	22.4
40-49	5	4.5	5	5.6	10	5.0	18	29.5	2	3.0	20	15.6	23	13.3	7	4.5	30	9.1
50-59	5	4.5	-	-	5	2.5	8	13.1	-	-	8	6.3	13	7.5	-	-	13	3.9
60+	2	1.8	1	1.1	3	1.5	8	13.1	-	-	8	6.3	10	5.8	1	0.6	11	3.3
Not Stated	1	0.9	-	-	1	0.5	-	-	-	-	-	-	1	0.6	-	-	1	0.3
Total	112	100.0	90	100.0	202	100.0	61	100.0	67	100.0	128	100.0	173	100.0	157	100.0	330	100.0

Table 4.8: Marital Status at the time of Departure from their Birth Place

Marital Status	Migrants of Rural Origin						Migrants of Urban Origin						All In-migrants					
	Male		Female		Total		Male		Female		Total		Male		Female		Total	
	No	%	No	%	No	%	No	%	No	%	No	%	No	%	No	%		
Married	23	20.5	41	45.6	64	31.7	15	24.6	26	38.8	41	32.0	38	22.0	67	42.7	105	31.8
Un-married	78	69.6	38	42.2	116	57.4	39	63.9	35	52.2	74	57.8	117	67.6	73	46.5	190	57.6
Divorced	-	-	4	4.4	4	2.0	1	1.6	2	3.0	3	2.3	1	0.6	6	3.8	7	2.1
Widowed	1	0.9	1	1.1	2	1.0	-	-	-	-	-	-	1	0.6	1	0.6	2	0.6
Not Stated	10	8.9	6	6.7	16	7.9	6	9.8	4	6.0	10	7.8	16	9.2	10	6.4	26	7.9
Total	112	100.0	90	100.0	202	100.0	61	100.0	67	100.0	128	100.0	173	100.0	157	100.0	330	100.0

Table 4.9: Marital Status of Migrants at the Time of Arrival in Kombolcha

Marital Status	Migrants of Rural Origin						Migrants of Urban Origin						All In-migrants					
	Male		Female		Total		Male		Female		Total		Male		Female		Total	
	No	%	No	%	No	%	No	%	No	%	No	%	No	%	No	%		
Married	58	51.8	57	63.3	115	56.9	25	41.0	39	58.2	64	50.0	83	48.0	96	61.1	179	54.2
Un-married	50	44.6	23	25.6	73	36.1	33	54.1	25	37.3	58	45.3	83	48.0	48	30.6	131	40.0
Divorced	-	-	3	3.3	3	1.5	1	1.6	1	1.5	2	1.7	1	0.6	4	2.5	5	1.5
Widowed	-	-	5	5.6	5	2.5	-	-	1	1.5	1	0.8	-	-	6	3.8	6	1.8
Not Stated	4	3.6	2	2.2	6	3.0	2	3.3	1	1.5	3	2.3	6	3.5	3	1.9	9	2.7
Total	112	100.0	90	100.0	202	100.0	61	100.0	67	100.0	128	100.0	173	100.0	157	100.0	330	100.0

Table 4.10: Literacy Rate and Level of Educational Attainment of Migrants at their Place of Birth

Literacy and Educational Level	Migrants of Rural Origin						Migrants of Urban Origin						All In-migrants					
	Male		Female		Total		Male		Female		Total		Male		Female		Total	
	No	%	No	%	No	%	No	%	No	%	No	%	No	%	No	%		
Illiterate	28	25.0	49	54.4	77	38.1	13	21.3	22	32.8	35	27.3	41	23.7	71	45.2		
Read & Write	15	13.4	13	14.4	28	13.9	7	11.5	6	9.0	13	10.2	22	12.7	19	12.1		
Primary (1-8)	34	30.6	20	22.2	54	26.7	16	26.2	23	34.3	39	30.5	50	28.9	43	27.4		
Secondary (9-12)	21	18.6	2	2.2	23	11.4	17	27.9	14	20.9	31	24.2	38	22.0	16	10.2		
Above Secondary	8	7.1	-	-	8	4.0	7	11.5	-	-	7	5.5	15	8.7	-	-		
Note Stated	6	5.4	6	6.7	12	5.9	1	1.6	2	3.0	3	2.3	7	4.0	8	5.1		
Total	112	100.0	90	100.0	202	100.0	61	100.0	67	100.0	128	100.0	173	100.0	157	100.0		

Table 4.11: Literacy Rate and Level of Educational Attainment of Migrants at the Time of Arrival in Kombolcha

Literacy and Educational Level	Migrants of Rural Origin						Migrants of Urban Origin						All In-migrants					
	Male		Female		Total		Male		Female		Total		Male		Female		Total	
	No	%	No	%	No	%	No	%	No	%	No	%	No	%	No	%		
Illiterate	13	11.6	40	44.4	53	26.2	7	11.5	19	28.4	26	20.3	20	11.6	59	37.6		
Read & Write	18	16.1	20	22.2	38	18.8	8	13.1	5	7.5	13	10.2	26	15.0	25	15.9		
Primary (1-8)	40	35.7	23	25.6	63	31.2	12	19.7	24	35.8	36	28.1	52	30.1	47	29.9		
Secondary (9-12)	25	22.3	5	5.6	30	14.9	20	32.8	18	26.9	38	29.7	45	26.0	23	14.6		
Above Secondary	9	8.0	-	-	9	4.5	13	21.3	-	-	13	10.2	22	12.7	-	-		
Note Stated	7	6.3	2	2.2	9	4.5	1	1.6	1	1.5	2	1.6	8	4.6	3	1.9		
Total	112	100.0	90	100.0	202	100.0	61	100.0	67	100.0	128	100.0	173	100.0	157	100.0		

Appendix 1: Number and Percentage Distribution of the In-migrants to Kombolcha by Region, Place of Birth and Sex

Un-married	Migrants of Rural Origin						Migrants of Urban Origin						All In-migrants					
	Male		Female		Total		Male		Female		Total		Male		Female		Total	
	No	%	No	%	No	%	No	%	No	%	No	%	No	%	No	%	No	%
Amhara	100	89.3	84	93.3	184	91.1	40	65.6	52	77.6	92	71.9	140	80.9	136	86.6	276	83.6
Tigray	6	5.4	4	4.4	10	5.0	4	6.6	9	13.4	13	10.2	10	5.8	13	8.3	23	7.0
Addis Ababa	3	2.7	1	1.1	4	2.0	8	13.1	2	3.0	10	7.8	11	6.4	3	1.9	14	4.2
Oromiya	3	2.7	-	-	3	1.5	5	8.2	4	6.0	9	7.0	8	4.6	4	2.5	12	3.6
S.N.N.P.R.	-	-	1	1.1	1	0.5	1	1.6	-	-	1	0.8	1	0.6	1	0.6	2	0.6
Harari	-	-	-	-	-	-	1	1.6	-	-	1	0.8	1	0.6	-	-	1	0.3
Dire Dawa	-	-	-	-	-	-	1	1.6	-	-	1	0.8	1	0.6	-	-	1	0.3
Somali	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
B. Gumuz	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Gambella	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Afar	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Assab	-	-	-	-	-	-	1	1.6	-	-	1	0.8	1	0.6	-	-	1	0.3
Total	112	100.0	90	100.0	202	100.0	61	100.0	67	100.0	128	100.0	173	100.0	157	100.0	330	100.0

Appendix 2: Number and Percentage Distribution of Intra- Regional Migrants to Kombolcha by Administrative Zones, by Place of Birth and Sex

Zone	Migrants of Rural Origin						Migrants of Urban Origin						All In-migrants					
	Male		Female		Total		Male		Female		Total		Male		Female		Total	
	No	%	No	%	No	%	No	%	No	%	No	%	No	%	No	%	No	%
South Wollo	78	78.0	63	75.0	141	76.6	23	57.5	34	65.4	57	62.0	101	72.1	97	71.3	198	71.7
North Wollo	13	13.0	15	17.9	28	15.2	6	15.0	9	17.3	15	16.3	19	13.6	24	17.6	43	15.6
Waghumra	1	1.0	-	-	1	0.5	1	2.5	2	3.8	3	3.3	2	1.4	2	1.5	4	1.4
Oromiya	3	3.0	4	4.8	7	3.8	4	10.0	4	7.7	8	8.7	7	5.0	8	5.9	15	5.4
South Gondar	2	2.0	1	1.2	3	1.6	1	2.5	1	1.9	2	2.2	3	2.1	2	1.5	5	1.8
North Gondar	-	-	-	-	-	-	2	5.0	-	-	2	2.2	2	1.4	-	-	2	0.7
North Shewa	1	1.0	-	-	1	0.5	3	7.5	2	3.8	5	5.4	4	2.9	2	1.5	6	2.2
East Gojjam	1	1.0	-	-	1	0.5	-	-	-	-	-	-	1	0.7	-	-	1	0.4
West Gojjam	1	1.0	-	-	1	0.5	-	-	-	-	-	-	1	0.7	-	-	1	0.4
Bahir Dar	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Awii	-	-	1	1.2	1	0.5	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	1	0.7	1	0.4
Total	100	100.0	84	100.0	184	100.0	40	100.0	52	100.0	92	100.0	140	100.0	136	100.0	276	100.0

Appendix 3: Number and Percentage Distribution of Intra- Zonal Migrants of Kombolcha by Wereda, by Place of Birth and Sex

Wereda	Migrants of Rural Origin						Migrants of Urban Origin						All In-migrants					
	Male		Female		Total		Male		Female		Total		Male		Female		Total	
	No	%	No	%	No	%	No	%	No	%	No	%	No	%	No	%		
Dessie Zuria	21	26.9	15	23.8	36	25.5	5	21.7	6	17.6	11	19.3	26	25.7	21	21.6	47	23.7
Dessie Ketema	-	-	-	-	-	-	3	13.0	10	29.4	13	22.8	3	3.0	10	10.3	13	6.6
Kalu	21	26.9	20	31.7	41	29.1	4	17.4	7	20.6	11	19.3	25	24.8	27	27.8	52	26.3
Teuledere	10	12.8	3	4.8	13	9.2	-	-	2	5.9	2	3.5	10	9.9	5	5.2	15	7.6
Ambassel	7	9.0	9	14.3	16	11.3	4	17.4	-	-	4	7.0	11	10.9	9	9.3	20	10.1
Werebabo	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	1	2.9	1	1.8	-	-	1	1.0	1	0.5
Kutaber	-	-	2	3.2	2	1.4	-	-	1	2.9	1	1.8	-	-	3	3.1	3	1.5
Wereilu	1	1.3	2	3.2	3	2.1	1	4.3	2	5.9	3	5.3	2	2.0	4	4.1	6	3.0
Jamma	-	-	-	3.2	-	-	1	4.3	-	-	1	1.8	1	1.0	-	-	1	0.5
Legambo	2	2.6	2	6.3	4	2.8	2	8.7	1	2.9	3	5.3	4	4.0	3	3.1	7	3.5
Tenta	3	3.8	4	1.6	7	5.0	2	8.7	4	11.8	6	10.5	5	5.0	8	8.2	13	6.6
Mekdela	2	2.6	1	3.2	3	2.1	-	-	-	-	-	-	2	2.0	1	1.0	3	1.5
Kelala	5	6.4	1	-	6	4.3	-	-	-	-	-	-	5	5.0	1	1.0	6	3.0
Wegede	1	1.3	2	3.2	3	2.1	-	-	-	-	-	-	1	1.0	2	2.1	3	1.5
Debresina	1	1.3	-	-	1	0.7	1	4.3	-	-	1	1.8	2	2.0	-	-	2	1.0
Saiynt	2	2.6	-	-	2	1.4	-	-	-	-	-	-	2	2.0	-	-	2	1.0
Not Stated	2	2.6	2	3.2	4	2.8	-	-	-	-	-	-	2	2.0	2	2.1	4	2.0
Total	78	100.0	63	100.0	141	100.0	23	100.0	34	100.0	57	100.0	101	100.0	97	100.0	198	100.0

Table 5.17 Distribution of Migrant Households by the Type of Problems they are Facing currently

Current Problem of Migrants	Rural						Urban						All					
	Male		Female		Total		Male		Female		Total		Male		Female		Total	
	No	%	No	%	No	%	No	%	No	%	No	%	No	%	No	%	No	%
No Prpblem	21	18.8	11	12.2	32	15.8	15	24.6	20	29.9	35	27.3	36	20.8	31	19.7	67	20.3
Housing Shortage	29	25.9	26	28.9	55	27.2	18	29.5	17	25.4	35	27.3	47	27.2	43	27.4	90	27.3
Problems Related to job	16	14.3	29	32.2	45	22.3	7	11.5	13	19.4	20	15.6	23	13.3	42	26.8	65	19.7
Inadequate Supply of Consumer Items Due to low Income	38	33.9	24	26.7	62	30.7	11	18.0	16	23.9	27	21.1	49	28.3	40	25.5	89	27.0
Inadequate Social Services and Amenities	7	6.3	-	-	7	3.5	10	16.4	1	1.5	11	8.6	17	9.8	1	0.6	18	5.5
Not Stated	1	0.9	-	-	1	0.5	-	-	-	-	-	-	1	0.6	-	-	1	0.3
Total	112	100.0	90	100.0	202	100.0	61	100.0	67	100.0	128	100.0	173	100.0	157	100.0	330	100.0

Table 5.18 Distribution of Migrants Who have a Plan to Leave Kombolcha by Direction of Future Migration

Direction of Migration	Rural						Urban						All					
	Male		Female		Total		Male		Female		Total		Male		Female		Total	
	No	%	No	%	No	%	No	%	No	%	No	%	No	%	No	%	No	%
To Rural Birth Place	5	26.3	1	10.0	6	20.7	-	-	-	-	-	-	5	14.7	1	2.9	6	8.8
To Urban-Birth place	-	-	-	-	-	-	3	20.0	7	29.2	10	25.6	3	8.8	7	20.6	10	14.7
To Another-rural Area	-	-	1	10.0	1	3.4	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	1	2.9	1	1.5
To antoher Urban Area	14	73.7	8	80.0	22	75.9	12	80.0	17	70.8	29	74.4	26	76.5	25	73.5	51	75.0
Total	19	100.0	10	100.0	29	100.0	15	100.0	24	100.0	39	100.0	34	100.0	34	100.0	68	100.0

Table 5.20 The characteristics of the Left Behind Family Members and Relatives in Their Rural Origin

Age	Sex		Relationship to the Head of Household					Health Conditions		Occupation							
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17
Less than 15	6	4	-	-	-	7	3	10	-	5	-	-	-	5	-	10	4.6
15 -19	11	5	-	-	-	-	16	15	1	7	-	-	-	8	1	16	7.3
20- 24	8	8	-	-	1	1	14	15	1	9	-	-	2	3	2	16	7.3
25 - 29	9	5	-	-	-	-	14	14	-	8	2	-	3	-	1	14	6.4
30 - 34	11	5	-	-	-	-	16	16	-	10	2	1	3	-	-	16	7.3
35 - 39	10	10	1	1	-	-	18	19	1	6	3	1	9	-	1	20	9.1
40 - 44	14	3	-	2	-	-	15	15	2	9	3	3	1	-	1	17	7.8
45 - 49	8	6	-	6	-	-	8	14	-	5	-	3	6	-	-	14	6.4
50 - 54	5	7	2	7	-	-	3	12	-	8	1	1	1	-	1	12	5.5
55- 59	5	3	4	3	-	-	1	7	1	5	-	-	2	-	1	8	3.7
60 - 64	8	9	6	6	-	-	5	17	-	11	-	1	4	-	1	17	7.8
Above 64	38	21	31	32	-	-	6	48	11	37	-	1	2	-	19	59	26.9
Total	133	86	44	47	1	8	119	202	17	120	11	11	33	16	28	219	100

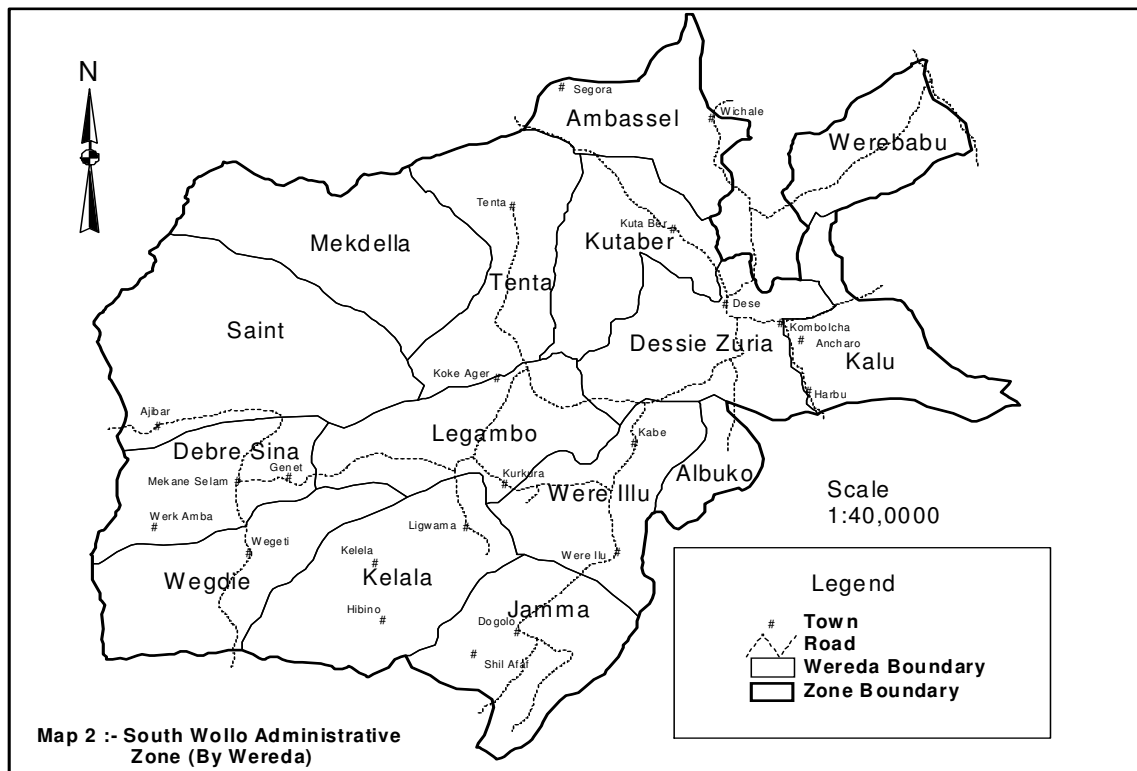
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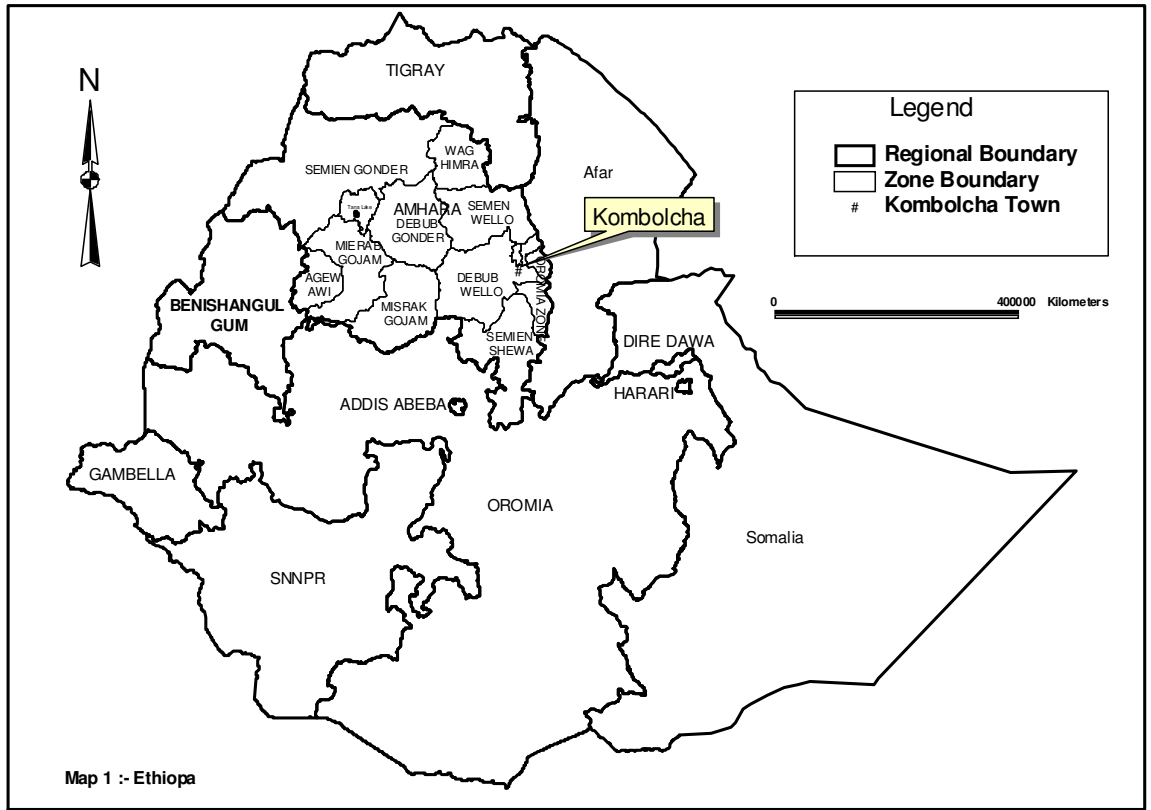
9 Unhealthy

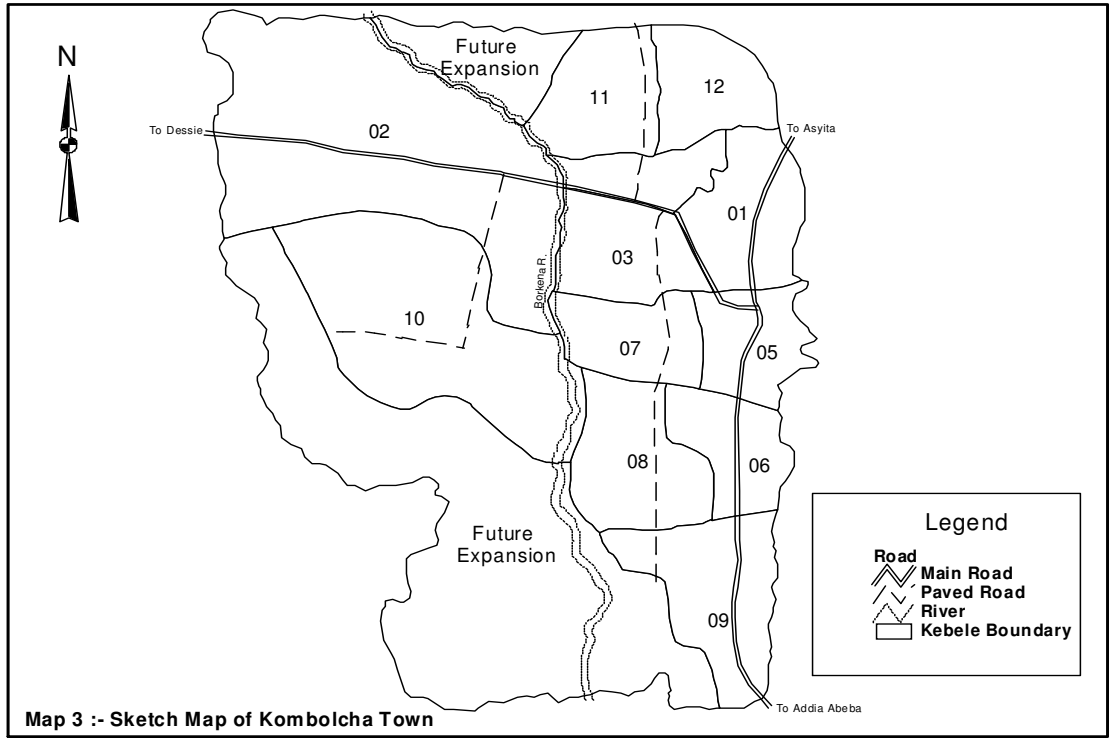
2	Female	10	Farmer
3	Father	11	Businessman
4	Mother	12	Employee
5	Wife/husband	13	Housewife
6	Child	14	Student
7	Other dependents	15	others
8	Full Helathy	16	Total
		17	percentage

Table 4.14 Number and percentage Distribution of Migrants by Sex, Origin and by Primary Reason of Migration

Reason of Migration	Rural						Urban						All					
	Male		Female		Total		Male		Female		Total		Male		Female		Total	
	No	%	No	%	No	%	No	%	No	%	No	%	No	%	No	%		
To join relatives, friends, poarents etc	12	10.7	23	25.6	35	17.3	5	8.2	24	35.8	29	22.7	17	9.8	47	29.9	64	19.4
To open or extend business	15	13.4	5	5.6	20	9.9	3	4.9	3	4.5	6	4.7	18	10.4	8	5.1	26	7.9
Agricultural constraints	14	12.5	12	13.2	26	12.9	5	8.2	4	6.0	9	7.0	19	11.0	16	10.2	35	10.6
In search of job	21	18.8	8	8.9	29	14.4	13	21.3	6	9.0	19	14.8	34	19.7	14	8.9	48	14.5
Job transfer	20	17.9	2	2.2	22	10.9	11	18.0	11	16.4	22	17.2	31	17.9	13	8.3	44	13.3
To seek modern social services	22	19.6	15	16.7	37	18.3	13	31.3	10	14.9	23	18.0	35	20.2	25	15.9	60	18.2
Ethio-Eritrean Conflict	-	-	5	5.6	5	2.5	2	3.3	6	9.0	8	6.3	2	1.2	17	7.0	13	3.9
Divorce and family pressure	1	0.9	6	6.7	7	3.5	-	-	-	-	-	-	1	0.6	6	3.8	7	2.1
Family Pressure	-	-	3	3.3	3	1.5	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	3	1.9	3	0.9
To seek good climate	2	1.8	2	2.2	4	2.0	3	4.9	1	1.5	4	3.1	5	2.9	3	1.9	8	2.4
Others	1	0.9	2	2.2	3	1.5	2	3.3	1	1.5	3	2.3	3	1.7	3	1.9	6	1.8
Not stated	2	3.6	7	7.8	11	5.4	4	6.6	1	1.5	5	3.9	8	4.6	8	5.1	16	4.8
Total	112	100.0	90	100.0	202	100.0	61	100.0	67	100.0	128	100.0	173	100.0	157	100.0	330	100.0







Map 3 :- Sketch Map of Kombolcha Town

Source - Kombolcha Woreda Administrative (2011) Un published.

**ADDIS ABABA UNIVERSITY
SCHOOL OF GRADUATE STUDIES
DEPARTMENT OF GEOGRAPHY**

This questionnaire is mainly designed to know the process and reasons of urban ward migration, and the demographic and socio-economic conditions of migrant and non-migrant households in Kombolcha.

Some of the questions in the questionnaire contain different alternatives. You can choose one or more according to the nature of the question and mark "X" in the space provided. If the alternatives are not provided, state your opinion or fill the dash.

Thank you

I. Patterns and Process of Migration

1. Place of Birth

Region _____ Zone _____ Wereda _____.

A) Rural _____ B) Urban _____.

2. When did you leave your place of birth (year)? _____.

3. When did you come to Kombolcha (year)? _____.

4. What is the distance between Kombolcha and your place of birth in Kms? _____.

5. Who was the decision maker in your leaving your place of birth or last place of residence?

a) Self _____ d) Relatives or friends _____

b) Family _____ e) Employer _____

c) Parent(s) _____ f) Other (specify) _____.

6. Have you ever lived at least for one year in any other town before you come to Kombolcha? (a) Yes _____ b) No _____.

7. If your response is "Yes" to question number 6, what is the total number of places lived before coming to Kombolcha?

a) 1 __ b) 2 __ c) 3 ____ d) 4 ____ e) 5 and more _____.

8. Was your coming to Kombolcha planned? a) Yes _____ b) No _____.

9. Did you have any relative or friend living in Kombolcha before you moved to live here? (a) Yes _____ b) No _____.

1. Did you have any information about Kombolcha, before you moved to live in the town? (a) Yes _____ b) No _____.
2. If your answer is "Yes", to question no, 10, what was the main sources of this information?
 - a) Previous visits of the town _____.
 - b) Mass media _____.
 - c) Contact with people who knew the town _____.
 - d) other (specify) _____.
3. Did any one from your place of birth or last place of residence come with you to Kombolcha? (a) Yes _____ b) No _____.
4. Did any one from your place of birth or last place of residence follow you to Kombolcha? (a) Yes _____ b) No _____.
5. How long is it since you last moved to live in this town? _____ years.

II. Demographic and Socio-Economic Conditions of Migrants Before Migration to Kombolcha

6. What was your age when you left your place of birth?

a) 0-9 _____	e) 40 - 49 _____
b) 10 - 19 _____	f) 50 - 59 _____
c) 20 - 29 _____	g) 60 - 64 _____
d) 30 - 39 _____	h) More than 64 _____
7. What was your marital status when you left your place of Birth?

a) Married _____	c) Widowed _____
b) Unmarried _____	d) Divorced _____
8. What was your level of education when you left your place of birth?

a) Illiterate _____	e) Senior Secondary (9-12) _____
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- b) Read and Write ____
- c) Elementary (1-6) ____
- d) Junior Secondary (7-8) ____
- f) 12 + Special Training _____
- g) College diploma _____
- h) Degree (Bachelor, Master, Doctor) _____

9. What was your age when you last moved to live in Kombolcha?

- a) 0-9 ____
- b) 10 - 19 _____
- c) 20 - 29 ____
- d) 30 - 39 ____
- e) 40 - 49 _____
- f) 50 - 59 _____
- g) 60 - 64 _____
- h) More than 64 _____

10. What was your marital status when you last moved to live in Kombolcha?

- a) Married _____
- b) Unmarried _____
- c) Widowed _____
- d) Divorced _____

11. What was your level of education when you last moved to live in Kombolcha?

- a) Illiterate ____
- b) Read and Write ____
- c) Elementary (1-6) ____
- d) Junior Secondary (7-8) ____
- e) Senior Secondary (9-12) ____
- f) 12 + Special Training _____
- g) College diploma _____
- h) Degree (Bachelor, Master, Doctor) _____

12. Before you came to Kombolcha you were:

- a) Employed _____
- b) Land lord/employer ____
- f) Pensioned/too old _____
- g) Student/small child ____

- c) Farmer/peasant _____
- d) Self - employed in
non-agricultural activity _____
- e) Un-employed _____
- h) Sick/disabled _____
- i) Housewife _____
- j) Other (Specify) _____

III. Causes of Migration

13. What was/were the main reason(s) to leave your origin and come to Kombolcha? (Indicate 1-3 in order of their importance).

- a) to join close relatives/friends/parents _____.
- b) in search of educational facilities _____.
- c) In search of job _____.
- d) job transfer _____.
- e) to open up/extend business _____.
- f) to get modern facilities _____.
- g) to get good climate _____.
- h) to get medical facilities _____.
- i) agricultural constraints (land scarcity, drought and crop failure, low
out put etc.) _____
- j) Ethio-Eritrean conflict _____.
- k) family death _____.
- l) family pressure _____.
- m) marriage _____.
- n) divorce _____.

IV. Problems Migrants Encountered During their Initial Period of Adjustment and Adaptation

1. Did any one of your relative or friend assist you to settle in the town?
(only for those migrants who had relatives or friends in Kombolcha before migration to the town). a) Yes _____. b) No _____.

2. If your answer to question No.23, is "Yes" what was the support that you get?

- a) helped to find job/employment _____.
- b) providing lodging and food _____.
- c) providing money _____.
- d) helped to find house _____.
- e) other (specify) _____.

3. After your arrival here in the town, what were the major difficulties that you have encountered?

- a) shelter _____.
- b) food and related consumer items _____.
- c) lack of social services such as school, medical facilities etc. _____.
- d) inability to find job _____.
- e) no difficulties were encountered _____.

4. If you are employed now, your delay in finding work was:

- a) no delay _____
- b) less than one year _____
- c) one year _____.
- d) two years _____
- e) three years _____.
- f) four years _____.
- g) five years _____.
- h) more than five years _____.

V. Current Demographic and Socio-Economic Conditions of Migrants and natives)Questions to be answered by both migrants and non-migrants)

5. Age

- a) 15 - 19 _____
- b) 20 - 24 _____
- c) 25 - 29 _____
- d) 30 - 34 _____
- e) 35 - 39 _____
- f) 40 - 44 _____
- g) 45 - 49 _____
- h) 50 - 54 _____
- i) 55 - 59 _____
- j) 60 - 64 _____
- k) 64 + _____

6. Sex a) Male _____ b) Female _____

7. Ethnicity

- a) Amhara _____
- b) Tigraway _____
- c) Oromo _____
- d) Gurage _____
- e) Other (Specify) _____.

8. Religion

- a) Orthodox _____
- b) Protestant _____
- c) Catholic _____
- d) Islam _____
- e) Other (Specify) _____

9. Marital Status

- a) Unmarried _____
- b) Married _____
- c) Divorced _____.
- d) Widowed _____.

10. Total number of household members.

- a) one _____
- b) two _____
- g) seven _____

- c) three ___ h) eight _____
- d) four ___ i) nine _____
- e) five ___ j) ten _____
- f) six ___ k) more than ten _____

11. Number of children ever born.

- a) none ___ f) six _____
- b) one ___ g) seven _____
- c) two ___ h) eight _____
- d) three ___ i) nine _____
- e) four ___ j) ten _____
- f) five ___ k) more than ten _____

12. Level of educational attainment

- a) Illiterate _____
- b) Read and Write _____
- c) Elementary (1-6) _____
- d) Junior Secondary (7-8) _____
- e) Senior Secondary (9-12) _____
- f) 12 + Special Training _____
- g) College diploma _____
- h) Degree (Bachelor, Master, Doctor) _____

13. What is your current monthly income?

- a) less than 100 birr ___ e) 501 - 600 birr _____
- b) 100 - 200 birr _____ f) 601 - 700 birr _____
- c) 201 - 300 birr _____ g) more than 700 birr _____
- d) 401 - 500 birr _____

14. What is your occupational status at present?

- a) Employed _____
- b) Un-employed _____
- d) Pensioned _____
- e) Housewife _____

c) Student _____ f) Other (Specify) _____

15. If you are employed, what is your employment status?

a) Own account worker _____.

b) Employed in private or non-governmental organization _____.

c) Government employee _____.

d) Employer (private) _____.

16. What is your present occupation?

a) Farming _____ f) Manufacturing _____

b) Animal husbandry _____ g) Construction _____

c) Quarrying _____ h) Public Service _____

d) Forestry _____ i) Trade _____

e) Fishing _____ J) Other (Specify) _____.

17. Nature of your present work:

a) Permanent _____ c) Temporary _____

b) Seasonal _____ d) Casual _____

18. Do you own the house you live in? a) Yes _____ b) No _____.

19. If your answer is "no" to question No. 38, what kind of arrangement have you made for living in it?

a) rent _____ b) dependent _____ c) Other (specify) _____.

20. If rented, the house belong to:

a) Kebele _____ d) Private individuals _____

b) Municipality _____ e) Other (specify) _____

c) Public housing agency _____

21. How many rooms does the house you live in have?

- a) one ___ c) three ___ e) five _____
 b) two ___ d) four ___ f) more than five _____

22. Does your house have a separate kitchen?

- a) Yes _____ b) No _____

23. Availability and type of toilet facilities:

- a) flush ___ b) dry - pit ___ c) none _____

24. If you have toilet is it

- a) shared _____ b) private _____

25. What type of bathing facility do you have?

- a) none _____ d) shower private _____

- b) bath tube private _____ e) shower shared _____

- c) bath tube shared _____

26. What is the regular and most accessible source of water for your household?

- a) own metre _____ c) public tap _____

- b) shared metre _____ d) other household _____

- e) other (specify) _____

27. How do you get your electricity supply?

- a) own metre _____ c) other household _____

- b) shared metre _____ d) don't have the service _____.

28. Do you have

	Yes	No
Car	_____	_____
Television	_____	_____

Radio Set _____

Electric "Metad" _____

Gas/electric stove _____

VI. Current Problems of Migrants and Their Future Plan of Migration

29. What is your present problem in the town?

- a) housing _____.
- b) job _____.
- c) getting consumers goods due to low income _____.
- d) inadequate social services and amenities _____.
- e) other (specify) _____.
- f) none _____.

30. Do you hope or plan to move out from Kombolcha?

- a) Yes _____ b) No _____.

31. If your response to question 52 is "Yes", do you know where you want to move to?

- a) Yes _____ b) No _____

32. If "Yes" to question 53, where do you want to move?

- a) to rural birth place _____.
- b) to the urban birth place _____.
- c) to another rural area _____.
- d) to another urban area _____.

33. What is your plan for your old age?

- a) to stay here _____.
- b) return to the place of birth _____.
- c) to move to another place _____.

