



COLLEGE OF DEVELOPMENT STUDIES

CENTER FOR RURAL LIVELIHOODS AND DEVELOPMENT

Drivers of Rural Out-Migration and Its Effects on Livelihoods of Migrants and Migrant-Sending Households in Ahferom Woreda, Tigray National Regional State, Ethiopia

By

Teklemuz Gebreyohanns

June, 2025

Addis Ababa, Ethiopia



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By

Teklemuz Gebereyohanns

Advisor

Matebu Tadesse (PhD)

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June, 2025
Addis Ababa, Ethiopia

DECLARATION

I, Teklemuz Gebreyohanns, declare that this thesis is the result of my original research work. It has not been submitted previously for fulfillment of academic qualification in any tertiary institution. Furthermore, all sources of materials used in the thesis have been properly acknowledged.

Teklemuz Gebreyohanns,

June, 2025

I, the undersigned testify that the Thesis titled, “Drivers of Rural Out-Migration and its effects on Livelihoods of Migrants and Migrant-Sending Households in Ahferom Woreda, Tigray National Regional State, Ethiopia,” submitted by Teklemuz Gebreyohanns to the Graduate Program of the College of Development Studies, Addis Ababa University, in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of Master of Arts in Rural Livelihoods and Development Studies, is conducted by the candidate under my supervision. To the best of my knowledge, this project has not been submitted elsewhere for the fulfillment of any degree or diploma.

Matebu Tadesse (PhD)

June, 2025



ADDIS ABABA UNIVERSITY

SCHOOL OF GRADUATE STUDIES

This is to testify that this thesis, prepared by Teklemuz Gebreyohanns, titled, “Drivers of Rural Out-Migration and its effects on Livelihoods of Migrants and Migrant-Sending Households in Ahferom Woreda, Tigray National Regional State, Ethiopia.” The thesis, submitted in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of Master of Arts in Rural Livelihoods and Development Studies complies with the regulations of Addis Ababa University and meets the accepted standards with respect to originality and quality.

Board of Examiners

Advisor: _____
Name Signature Date



Internal Examiner: _____
Name Signature Date

External Examiner: _____
Name Signature Date

Chair of the Centre or Graduate Program Coordinator

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Acronyms

CDR	Community Development Research
COVID 19	Corona Virus Diseases 2019
EEM	Economic Effects of Migration
EPRDF	Ethiopian People’s Revolutionary Democratic Front
FGD	Focus Group Discussion
HBH	Hemoglobin H Disease
ILO	International Labor Organization
IOM	International Organization for Migration
IRRM	Irregular Rural Migration
KSA	Kingdom of Saudi Arabia
LDR	Livelihood Development Research
MoLSA	Ministry of Labor and Social Affairs
REM	Rural Economic Migration
RUM	Rural Urban Migration
RUMS	Rural Out-Migration Study
UN	United Nations
UNDESA	United Nations Department of Economic and Social Affairs
UNHCR	United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees
YEM	Youth Employment Migration

Abstract

Rural outmigration has become a significant phenomenon in Ethiopia, particularly in Ahferom Woreda, Tigray National Regional State. This study examines the drivers, effects, and livelihood outcomes of outmigration for both migrants and their sending households. Conducted in Idaga Arbi, Gerhusrnay, and Semhal kebeles, data was collected from 350 households using surveys, interviews, observations, focus group discussions, and document reviews. Findings indicate that economic hardship, unemployment, and socio-political instability are the primary drivers of migration, leading individuals to urban centers within Ethiopia and international destinations. While migration provides financial relief through remittances, it also results in family separation, increased dependency on remittances, and potential declines in agricultural productivity and social well-being. The study highlights the dual effects of migration, balancing economic benefits with social costs. It recommends that the Woreda administration implement development strategies to address migration drivers, promote sustainable agriculture, and engage youth in entrepreneurship. This research contributes to the literature on rural outmigration in Ethiopia, offering insights for policymakers, planners, and community leaders to develop effective migration-related interventions.

Keywords: livelihoods, migrants, migrant-sending households, migration drivers, migration effects, rural outmigration

Chapter One

Introduction

1.1. Background of the Study

In the course of time, migration has become one of the socio-economic realities of humans. Because of globalization, technological advancements, and other pull and push factors, these days people travel abroad more frequently than during earlier times (Aksu, 2022). Accordingly, the total number of international migrants increased from 195 million in 2005 to 271.6 million in 2019 (UNDESA, 2019). Between 2000 and 2020, the share of international migrants increased from 2.8% to 3.6% of the world's population, and remittances from international migrants reached US\$751 billion in 2020 (UNDESA, 2021). Ethiopians residing abroad mostly in Saudi Arabia, Kuwait, and Dubai have been a larger part of the worldwide migrant population over time, rising from 662,444 in 2000 to 1,072,949 in 2015 (Dessalegn et al., 2023). CSA (2021) estimated that two million Ethiopians live and work abroad; however, considering the current increase in outmigration, this estimate may be significantly low.

Rural outmigration, particularly in developing countries such as Ethiopia, is a common phenomenon that affects the continent's development process (Kassa, 2016), with most migrants moving from rural to urban non-agricultural sectors or from poor to rich countries (UNDESA, 2021). In Ethiopia, rural-to-urban migration increased from 24% in 2005 to 33% in 2013. A recent survey indicates that, (excluding Tigray because of the civil war then), 29% of individuals move from rural to urban areas in the country (UNDESA, 2021).

Regarding benefits, rural outmigration helps to escape poor living conditions, reduce resource pressure, support rural areas, and transfer skills while also playing a crucial role in agro-food systems (Serraj & Pingali, 2019; Vos & Nguyen, 2022). McDowell & Haan (2017) discusses the connection between migration and sustainable livelihoods, arguing that development literature often assumes sedentary patterns are the norm. It suggests that migration is a common livelihood strategy, often combined with other strategies, and is a two-way process. It highlights the complex institutional factors determining migration access and benefits.

Research in Ethiopia suggests that rural-urban migration is an alternative livelihood option for rural people, alleviating food shortages and supplementing their livelihoods, which are fragile due to limited income and landlessness (Baker, 2012; Eshetu et al., 2023). Several studies have found that rural outmigration positively affects the livelihood of rural households (Eshetu et al., 2023; Tadesse et al., 2021). Particularly, studies in Ethiopia indicate that rural outmigration contributes to rural livelihoods (Tadesse et al., 2021). In contrast, Christiaensen et al. (2019) stated that rural migrants face high unemployment, low wages, and inadequate facilities in rural areas, whereas urban migrants benefit from job opportunities, high wages, decent work, and better access to expanded infrastructure.

While rural-to-rural migration stands out as the predominant form of migration in Ethiopia (Ayele & Degefa, 2022), past research has failed to recognize the untapped potential of rural-rural migration to the agricultural economy. In the Tigray region, where complex challenges such as conflicts and droughts intersect, there is a significant dearth of research that comprehensively examines the drivers and effects of rural out migration. Addressing this gap is crucial to increase understanding of those aspects of rural outmigration, and the resilience of communities facing multifaceted challenges in these rural settings. Therefore, this study aims to assess Drivers of Rural Out-Migration and its effects on Livelihoods of Migrants and Migrant-Sending Households in Ahferom Woreda, Tigray National Regional State, Ethiopia.

1.2. Statement of the Problem

Migration is a complex and multifaceted phenomenon with demographic, economic, political, and social dimensions that significantly affect populations across Sub-Saharan Africa, Asia, and Latin America (Tegegne & Penker, 2016). In the 21st century, rural outmigration has emerged as a particularly pressing issue in developing countries, including Ethiopia, where urbanization has risen to 22.1% while the rural population still accounts for approximately 77.9% of the total population (Arias et al., 2024). This demographic shift is largely driven by persistent socio-economic challenges such as agricultural failure, unemployment, land scarcity, desertification, limited access to healthcare and education, natural disasters, and political instability (Xie & Lu, 2017; Teshome et al., 2017; Zewdu, 2018). In Tigray, these hardships have compelled many rural households to pursue migration both internal and international as a key livelihood strategy,

often seeking work opportunities in urban centers or abroad, including to Middle East (Ayalew, 2019; Hermans & Garbe, 2019).

Extensive research on the broader effect of migration, most studies have primarily focused on international migration and its economic benefits, such as remittances and their role in enhancing household income, consumption, and asset accumulation (Girmachew, 2014; Kassa, 2016). However, there remains a significant gap in understanding the effects of internal rural outmigration particularly among youth and its implications for the livelihoods of both migrants and their sending communities. The existing literature overlooks region-specific contexts and fails to adequately explore the social and economic effects migration causes including rural settings.

To address this gap, the present study aims to investigate the drivers of rural outmigration and assess its effects on the livelihoods of migrants and migrant-sending households in Ahferom Woreda, Tigray National Regional State, Ethiopia. By focusing on both the causes and effects of out-migration in this specific locality, the research aims to provide context-sensitive insights that can inform policy interventions aimed at improving rural resilience and development.

1.3. Objectives of the Study

1.3.1. General Objective

The general objective of this study was to assess Drivers of Rural Out-Migration and its effects on Livelihoods of Migrants and Migrant-Sending Households in Ahferom Woreda, Tigray National Regional State, Ethiopia.

1.3.2. Specific Objectives

More specifically, this study aims to:

- ✓ identify the drivers of rural outmigration;
- ✓ quantify the magnitude of rural outmigration; and
- ✓ Examine the effects of rural out-migration on the livelihoods of migrants and migrant-sending households in Ahferom Woreda.

1.4. Research Questions

The central question of this study centered on the Drivers of Rural Out-Migration and its effects on Livelihoods of Migrants and Migrant-Sending Households in Ahferom Woreda, Tigray National Regional State, Ethiopia.

The following research sub-questions were used to guide the study.

1. Why do rural people migrate from their origin in Ahferom Woreda?
2. Where are the destinations of the migrants from Ahferom Woreda?
3. How does rural outmigration affect agricultural productivity and land use in the rural areas of Ahferom woreda?
4. What are the effects of rural outmigration on the livelihoods (economic including agricultural productivity), and social aspects of migrants and migrant-sending household's, including their access to housing, health care, and education in Ahferom woreda?

1.5. Limitations of the Study

This study had some limitations. One was that, due to the previous three years of war in the region, nearly all communities in the study region are currently in poor economic condition. The public is passionately seeking special assistance from the government and NGOs. Thus, during the data collection process, they were hesitating to provide information.

Secondly, due to the conflict's greater impact on the people and the proximity of the study area to Eretria, people were unwilling to engage in the study due to political concerns. The researcher also faced difficulties because some of the study sites lack roads and telecom infrastructure, which are important for data collection, resulting in a longer study period and transportation issues. That was a bit difficult given the financial limitations of adequately financing the study.

To offset those limitations, the researcher started the data collection in good time and approached the participants through local trained facilitators.

1.6. Significance of the Study

Several academics (Abel & Yoseph, 2023; Hermans & Garbe, 2019) claim that migration is a strategy used in rural Ethiopia to find alternate sources of income when faced with climatic shocks such as droughts. Studies conducted in northern Ethiopian regions have also shown that a lack of farmland, landlessness, and inadequate means of subsistence are the main reasons for rural outmigration (Asfaw et al., 2010). In Ethiopia, migration serves as a coping mechanism for the rural population's economic growth as well as for poverty, unemployment, and landlessness. Similarly, in Tigray, rural outmigration to other rural, urban, and foreign places is common (Hermans & Garbe, 2019).

In terms of studies on migration in Ethiopia and other emerging and agricultural countries, this issue still needs more attention. Therefore, this study helps to close the knowledge gap on migration and its effects. Because rural outmigration has an effects on geographical, social, cultural, and economic aspects, it is important to provide information about rural outmigration workers in the formal and informal sectors, information that directly relates to planning and implementation agencies and other institutions. This study examines the effect of rural outmigration on migration-sending households' socio-economic status and overall livelihoods. In addition to this, it also examined the pull and push factors that make rural people, especially adolescents, migrate to other national and international areas. At the end of this study, the positive and negative effects of migration are clearly identified, which is significant not only for geographers but also for sociologists, policymakers, planners, public administrators, and other fields of population studies. Rural migration is considered a socioeconomic and cultural phenomenon related to population issues. This paper provides a comprehensive study of various aspects of migration, including its causes and consequences.

1.7. Scope of the Study

The scope of this research paper focuses on investigating rural outmigration and its effects on the livelihoods of migrants and migrant-sending rural households in Ahferom Woreda, Tigray National Regional State, Ethiopia. The study analyzed the current migration trends in Ahferom Woreda and assessed how these migrations contribute to the livelihoods of rural households. Specifically, the research examined the role of remittances in household income, agricultural

productivity, education, healthcare, and other livelihood aspects of migrants as well as migrant-sending households in the rural areas of Ahferom Woreda.

Methodologically, the study primarily utilized household survey questionnaires and key informant interviews for data collection. Geographically, the findings were limited to Ahferom Woreda, although the implications can be extended to similar districts. The research was focused on the socio-economic dimensions of outmigration, aiming to provide valuable insights for policymakers and development practitioners in the region.

1.8. Ethical Considerations

This research took appropriate ethical considerations to protect participants from harm and maintain confidentiality in process which are critical to this study. Therefore, while conducting research, the researcher considered sensitive topics related to individuals, groups, religions, languages, traditions, ethnicity, and other fields. Their confidentiality maintained throughout their participation. Additionally, the questionnaire was kept voluntary and confidential, privacy of the respondents observed. To ensure their confidentiality, the names of the subjects who were referenced in this study for further clarity have been intentionally changed. Related with that, the reviewed journals and articles are properly quoted and acknowledged.

Chapter Two

Literature Review

2.1. Conceptual Review

Migration: According to De Haas (2012), migration refers to the movement of individuals or groups of people from one place to another, typically across regional, national, or international boundaries. This movement can be temporary or permanent and may involve individuals or entire communities. Migration can occur for various reasons, including economic opportunities, political factors, environmental changes, and personal circumstances.

Rural Outmigration: This term describes the movement of people from rural to urban areas or abroad (Davey et al., 2014). Rural outmigration includes internal migration (village to village and village to city) and international migration (Skeldon, 2017). This phenomenon is observed in many countries, especially developing ones where urbanization is progressing rapidly (Davey et al., 2014). According to Davey et al. (2014), in Western cultures, the rural population has been declining due to migration since the Industrial and Agricultural Revolutions. This phenomenon of high mobility among young people is one of the most serious problems facing rural communities, and it can occur for many reasons, such as the need for survival and economic development (Deller et al., 2019). Migration for survival is often the result of natural disasters, war, persecution, or other life-threatening situations. People who migrate to survive often leave their homes and seek refuge in other regions or countries. The goal of improving one's economic prospects propels migration for economic development. People who migrate for economic reasons often move to countries with better job opportunities, higher wages, or better living conditions (Deller et al., 2019).

Rural to Rural Migration: Rural-to-rural migration is the movement of individuals or families from one rural area to a more favorable other rural area to live and work there, seeking new economic opportunities or improved living conditions, often influenced by factors within rural settings (Bundervoet, 2018). Rural-to-rural migration in Ethiopia remains the leading pattern, offering opportunities to escape poor living conditions, reduce resource pressure, and support rural areas through skill transfer and remittances (CSA, 2021; Kibrom et al., 2015). However,

rural-rural migration is underrepresented in development discourses, requiring further studies to understand its impact on agricultural and rural development (Abate and Alemu, 2023).

Rural-to-Urban Migration: Rural-urban migration is the movement of people from rural agrarian to urban non-agrarian areas. Large-scale mechanized agriculture, restricted financing availability, and antiquated equipment hinder smallholder farmers' capacity to adjust to drought and rural climate variability (Abeje, 2021; Gibson & Gurmu, 2012). According to a World Bank report, international migration has important development implications for both sending and receiving countries. For sending countries, migration and related remittances contribute to economic development by increasing incomes, reducing poverty, and improving health and education outcomes. However, these benefits can come with significant social costs for emigrants and their families.

Rural livelihoods: Rural livelihood refers to the means and strategies by which people in rural areas secure their basic needs, including food, income, shelter, and social well-being. Livelihood is defined as a set of activities essentially for everyday life that are conducted over one's life span (Wondim, 2019).

Conway, G. (2022), also defines it as the diverse set of activities and resources through which individuals and households in rural areas secure their basic necessities and improve their overall well-being. This may include agricultural practices, non-farm employment, entrepreneurship, and other strategies to sustain and enhance livelihoods in rural communities.

2.2. Drivers of Rural Out-Migration

Migration is driven by push-pull factors, which include economic, political, cultural, and environmental forces (Afifi, 2011; Dokubo et al., 2023). Push factors include the unavailability of livelihood opportunities, poverty, rapid population growth which tightens competitions for livelihood opportunities, poor living conditions, and natural disasters including desertification and flood. Pull factors, on the other hand, are factors which attract people to a location by offering better job opportunities or employment, better living conditions, job availability, political freedom, social services like education and healthcare, transportation, relationships, and safety and security. Pull factors are benefits persons expects to receive when they move, and they are often referred to as the youthful “bright lights” syndrome (Mueller et al., 2018; Teshome D.

Kanko, 2017; Vero, 2021). Cities with these forms of capital are centers of various attractions, including relatively high wages, the development of soft and hard infrastructure linking urban facilities and services, and the expansion of urban cultural expressions and lifestyles (Dokubo et al., 2023). In developing countries, push factors are more prevalent than pull factors as reasons for migration. The economic basis of rural areas is agriculture, and low productivity and unfavorable conditions are forcing rural youths to migrate to cities and towns (Abeje, A. 2021). Lack of good governance and democratic practice can also lead to instability and forced migration (Mitchell, et al., 2021).

2.3. Theoretical Perspectives about Migration

From the different theories of migration Historical-Structural Theory, Relative Deprivation Theory, Network Theory of Migration, Dual Labor Market Theory and Neoclassical Economic Theory are selected. As each theory has its own limitation, they are supportive to each other in order to fulfill a meaning full analysis and interpretation of this research.

2.3.1. Historical-Structural Theory

Historical-structural approaches provide an important perspective for understanding migration phenomena. Historical-structural approaches to the study of migration can be found in several theories, such as dependency theory and world systems theory, as highlighted by (Al-Khudairy, 2024). From a historical-structural perspective, migration is a component of larger structural change processes that include political and socioeconomic changes. Studies based on historical structural analysis conceptualize rural-urban migration in terms of specific historical conditions and changes in the relative economic structure of rural and urban areas (de Sherbinin et al., 2022). Nzima et al. (2017) stated that migration analysis along the historical-structural approach aims to explain migration as a structural consequence of market expansion within the international political hierarchy. According to Nzima et al. (2017), this perspective views international migration due to the creation of capitalist markets, the expansion of the global economy into peripheral regions, and the chaos and disruption that arise from the resulting processes of capitalist growth. Even Historical-structural theories have some limitations like negligence capacity of individual agents and variation across contexts (Trucco et al. 2022); it will cover by the other theories below.

2.3.2. Relative Deprivation Theory

Relative deprivation theory argues that understanding the economic differences between neighbors and other homes where migrants send their children is essential for successful migration. There are more incentives to move to areas of greater economic inequality. Migration is therefore not simply the result of individual decision-making processes but rather of larger structural processes. This considers that migration is undertaken with the aim of reducing risk and maximizing income (Nzima et al., 2017). Decisions about migration are made collectively by family members rather than by individuals. This theory argues that the drivers of migration are risk sharing and return maximization. The basic unit of decision-making is the household, not the individual. They invest in human capital development and make the most of that effort. In this way, emigrants can use their newfound wealth to provide their children with a better education and homes. Successful, emigrants can serve as an example to other potential emigrants who hope to achieve similar levels of success as their neighbors (Leo, A. 2020). The main criticism of this theory is low perfection of measurements during comparison (Power, et al., 2020).

2.3.3. Network Theory of Migration

Network theory of migration 2022, highlights how social networks can facilitate the migration process. It contends that emigrant networks connect emigrants, former emigrants, and non-emigrants across geographic boundaries through kinship, friendship, and community. It also facilitates migration by reducing the costs and risks associated with mobility. In addition to sponsorship and support, it provides a basis for information dissemination. Social networks have a multiplier effect that can create migration chains, as migration becomes self-perpetuating once the number of network connections at a transfer location reaches a certain threshold (Dessalegn et al., 2023). Therefore, social networks play an important role in shaping migration strategies and decisions.

2.3.4. Dual Labor Market Theory

The dual labor market theory states that in more developed countries, pull factors are primarily responsible for encouraging migration (Poenaru, A. G. 2020). According to this idea, there are two types of labor markets in these industrialized nations: the main market, which employs

people with advanced training, and the labor-intensive secondary market, which employs people with lower skill levels. This hypothesis holds that migration from less developed to more developed countries is driven by the pull of a labor shortage in the secondary market of rich countries. Due to the lack of mobility in these jobs, native laborers are unwilling to fill the lowest positions in the labor market, necessitating the need for migrant workers. In addition, the initial labor shortage raises wages, which increases the attraction of migrating.

2.3.5. Neoclassical Economic Theory

Neoclassical economic theory (Todaro. and Smith. 2011) states that labor mobility is a human decision-making technique for income maximization. This approach contends that the expectation of income has a major effect on people's decisions to travel overseas. According to this migration theory, the wage gap between two geographic regions is the primary driver of labor movements. Geographic labor supply and demand are usually related to wage differences. High relative pay characterizes regions with a labor shortage but an excess of capital, whereas low relative pay characterizes regions with a labor surplus but a capital shortage. Workers typically move from low-wage areas to high-wage areas. Changes in sending and receiving countries are often associated with labor migration (Dorn, D., 2021).

Researchers believe that no single factor can fully explain the reasons for labor migration. Rather, various factors acting concurrently or at varying degrees may influence migration decisions and procedures. The different causal factors associated with the theoretical positions mentioned above are likely to manifest themselves in different forms and to different degrees in labor migration choices, processes, and practices. This study considers that the consequences of migration for migrants and migrant-sending communities, households, and remaining family members can be complex and include a wide range of consequences. Thus, the investigation can be informed by pulling together different postulates from the different theoretical perspectives.

2.4. Empirical Literature

Previous studies have shown that participation in migration has both positive and negative effects on the well-being of rural households. Previous studies (MoraRivera & van Gameren, 2021; Nuñez & Osorio-Caballero, 2021; Obi et al., 2020; Stampini et al., 2021) have reported that emigrations has a major impact on happiness and, a positive relationship with the growing

numbers of emigrants. Montefusco et al. (2021) found that households receiving remittances had higher consumption than households without remittances. Conversely, Mora-Rivera and van Gameren (2021) found that domestic remittances alone are not sufficient to provide food security to households receiving remittances. These studies do not consider the well-being of emigrant parents left behind and the labor lost to agricultural activities.

On the other hand, some previous studies on the relationship between migration from rural areas and the introduction of agricultural technology (Mwungu et al., 2018; Tesfaye & Tirivayi, 2020) found positive and important relationships. Additionally, Tshikala et al. (2019) found a clear and significant relationship between agricultural technology adoption and migrant remittances. Nevertheless, a study by Mebratie et al. (2019) on the effects of rural-urban migration on agricultural investment found that participation in rural migration leads to higher pesticide and livestock costs. According to Edmore and Sharai (2023), in a study from Albania and Bulgaria, parental migration had more negative than positive effects on children left behind. According to Hidayati (2020), remittances and international migration have influenced agricultural production practices. Remittances can increase the availability of capital and enable farmers to use advanced technology to increase production.

Harvey et al. (2017) investigated the impact of migration on household well-being, technology adoption, and natural resource conservation in Nepal using cross-sectional data and a three-stage least squares estimation method. The results show that remittances and migration reduce the number of natural resource conservation practices adopted by farmers. Similarly, Yaya et al. (2021) used cross-sectional data to examine the impact of remittances on technology adoption in Ethiopia and, concluded that remittances significantly reduced the adoption of agricultural technology in Ethiopia.

Remittances have a positive impact on human capital development through education and health promotion (Huay et al., 2019; Hussain et al., 2022). These studies show that remittances lead to increased investment in education, increased enrollment, and reduced child labor in Pakistan, the Philippines, Mexico, and Ethiopia. Higher remittance rates in communities lead to better health and schooling, while research in Ethiopia shows that remittances help students retain their education. Markova (2010) supports this viewpoint, arguing that Bulgaria has a high school dropout rate for children with emigrant parents. In other cases, children are reported to have been

left with grandmothers or other relatives who became easily spoiled and undisciplined because they did not obey their elderly grandparents and other relatives who acted as guardians. These children start smoking and drinking, and eventually drop out of school altogether.

According to Tezcan (2021), parental involvement in migration brings about significant changes in grandparents' duties and responsibilities. Grandparents are responsible for the upbringing and care of children. Additional duties and responsibilities place increased physical, psychological, and moral pressure on grandparents. Spinelli et al, (2020) argued that children living in transnational families generally experience higher levels of psychological distress than children living at home with their parents. Children tend to suffer psychologically, especially if their mothers migrate, leaving them behind (Tezcan, 2021). Amfo et al. (2022) study on rural Morocco revealed that international migration households enjoyed better living standards on average in terms of housing, sanitation, access to piped water. The Research findings further revealed that the proportion of extremely poor households was far higher among non-migrants. According to Amfo et al. (2022), international migration has negative effects on left-behind women. As marriages divorced, the number of female-headed families in Morocco increased, according to the findings, which also showed that migration was usually viewed as a key contributing factor.

According to Ndlovu and Tigere (2018), remittances from Zimbabwean migrants in South Africa have a significant impact on households in the Marawi region, contributing to improved living standards and community livelihoods. It also argued that most remittances were used for basic needs but had little impact on community-level development. According to (Su Y, et al., 2022), a household survey conducted in officially poor counties in China provided the data for this study. The study found that immigrant households had fewer children, less land, more members, higher levels of education, and were more isolated from markets. Migrant workers earn more than those who remain on the farm. However, the extent to which emigrants reduce poverty depends on the amount of money they send back home. Even though their incomes are much lower than those of other population groups, emigrants from the poorest households send a large proportion of their income back to their hometowns. Low levels of education, children at home, the need for agricultural labor, and a lack of information are among the factors seen as barriers to all potential emigrants, but they are the biggest impediments for poor households.

Research also shows that remittances can be an important source of income during crises (Lundy & Darkwah, 2018; Obi et al., 2020) and an effective mechanism to support the recovery of affected people (Mohapatra et al., 2012). Numerous case studies have highlighted the importance of remittances during and after disasters, including in Pakistan (Ghorpade, Y. 2017), the Philippines (Su & Lim Mangada, 2018), Sri Lanka (Walsh & Haregatte, 2019), and Nepal (Tachibana et al., 2019). Pairama & Le Dé, (2018), emphasizes that remittances are particularly important in times of disaster for small island developing states, including PICs. For example, in 2006, Tonga experienced several hurricanes and a magnitude 8.0/15 km-deep earthquake. In the year following the disaster, Tongan migrants sent large amounts of remittances, equivalent to a 33% increase in the country's GDP (Nurse, 2019). Compared with support from governments and non-governmental organizations (NGOs), remittances have become an important source of recovery income (Su, 2022). Many low-income nations lack sufficient public or private institutions for compensating for fatalities and property damage (Su, 2022). Emigrant families, therefore, often play an important role in relief and reconstruction efforts. Migrants often can respond to disasters quicker than governments and NGOs that provide aid (Ghorpade, 2017). This allows households receiving remittances to meet security requirements faster and recover better than households with limited or no access to this source of support (Ghorpade, 2017). After the 2005 Pakistan earthquake, (Mohapatra, 2020) found that households that received regular remittances were able to repair and rebuild their homes faster and had better access to the health care system than households that did not receive remittances. The authors concluded that remittance recipients were more resilient than non-recipients and often had to sell assets to pay for treatment.

According to the above literature, various researchers have studied the role of migration in disasters around the world. Results vary depending on the type and situation of disasters, such as conflicts. Therefore, as this study area has experienced disasters such as war, drought, and locust plague over a three-year period, the role of these challenges in migration decision-making and out-migration for rural migrants who support household livelihoods is important. The seemingly contradictory results above seem to suggest that the socioeconomic effect of rural outmigration may vary depending on geographic location.

2.5. Conceptual Framework of the Study

Various theories have made assumptions about the factors that influence migration, their effects, and the decisions made by migrants to migrate. For this study, the researcher developed his own conceptual framework to explain the study process. This study investigates the determinants of rural outmigration that push migrants to migrate. These determinants may be voluntary or non-voluntary factors. Then, they decide to migrate to other places that they prefer. There may be different livelihood outcomes because of migration. The main livelihood outcomes are social (education, housing, land use, health, gender, cultural change), economic (remittance, job, wage, etc.), and Institutional effect (Governance and Policies, Employment Opportunities, Social Services, Financial Institutions). These outcomes of rural outmigration can have positive or negative livelihood effects on migrated members, households, and the community.

Therefore, the framework below is used for this study as an analytical framework to examine the causes of rural outmigration and how it can affect rural outmigration and migrant-sending households.

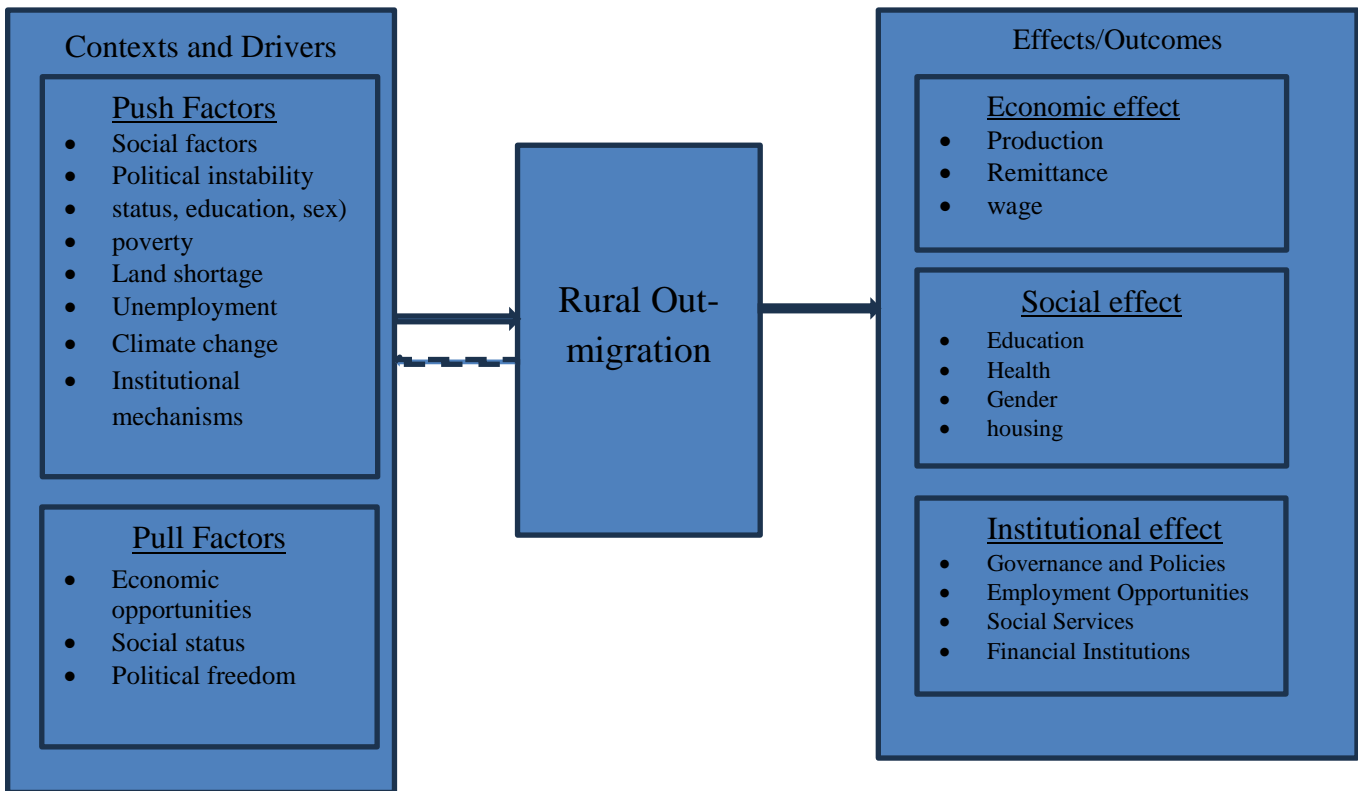


Figure 2.1 Conceptual framework of the Study
Source: Researcher's own construction, 2025

Chapter Three Methodology

3.1. Description of the Study Area

Ahferom Wereda is one of the largest woredas in the national regional state of Tigray. It is located in the central zone of Tigray region of Ethiopia. It borders with Weri Lehe to the south, Adwa to the southwest, Merib Lehe to the west, Eritrea to the north, and Ganta Afeshum to the east. The administrative center of the Wereda is Enticho, located at 14.3333° N and 39.1667°E and 182 kms from Mekelle and 1,104 km from Addis Ababa. There are other cities like Belaho, Gerhusernai, and Edaga Arbi in Ahferom.

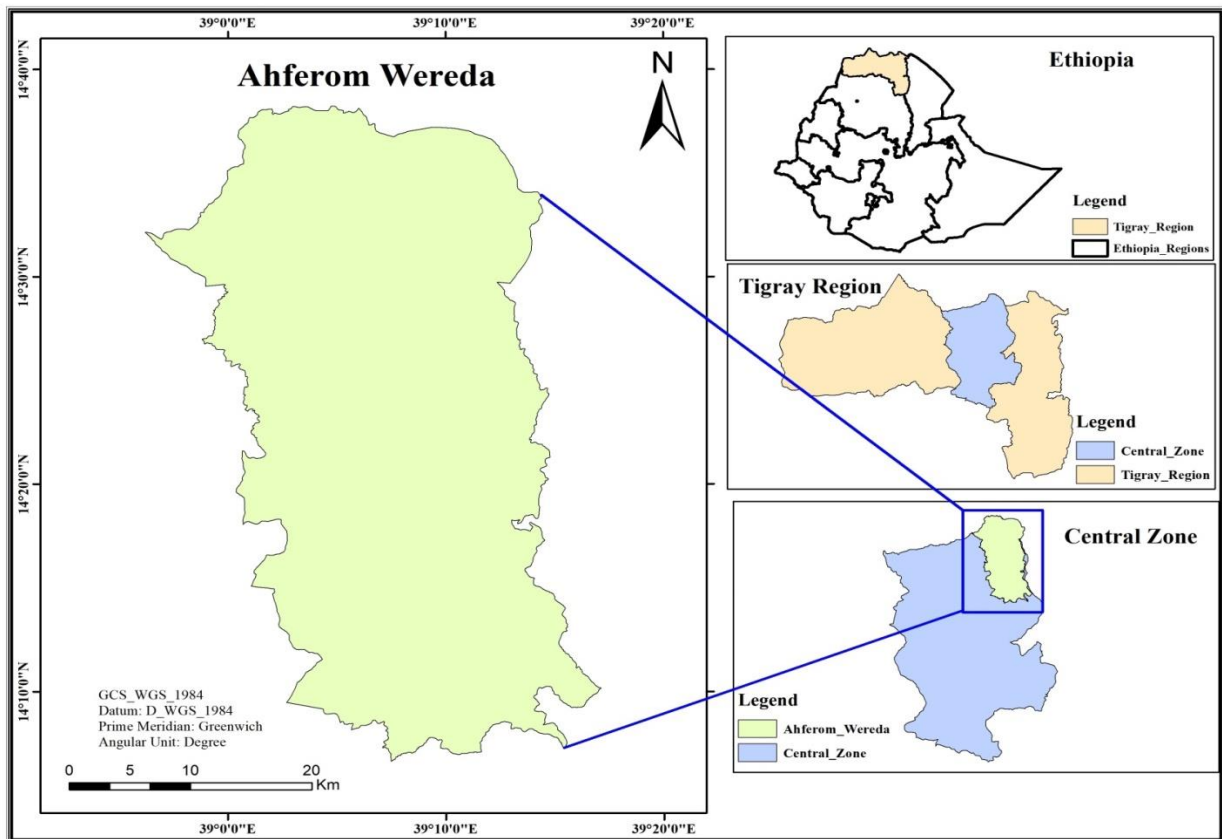


Figure 3.1 Map of the study area

3.2. Demographic Characteristics in the Study Area

The population of Ahferom Woreda is 205,321 with 99,136 males and 106,185 females in 2017 (Central Statistical Agency of Ethiopia, 2017). Of the total population, 38,825(19%) live in

urban and 166,496 (81%) live in rural areas. The area of Ahferom Woreda is 2,367.84 square kilometers and it has a population density of 73.36 persons per square kilometer, which is higher than the regional average of 56.29 people per square kilometer. This woreda has 37,483 houses and 38,934 households, with an average of 4.46 people per household. Of the total population, 2.22% are Muslims, and the majority 97.76%, are Ethiopian Orthodox Tewahido Christians.

3.3. Site Selection

Ahferom Woreda was selected for this study because of the region's high rate of youth outmigration and drought-prone weather (Berhe, F. 2013; Niguse, W. 2018), which have an effect on the livelihoods of the people. The area's uneven terrain, dearth of infrastructure, high unemployment, and low incentive for non-farm and off-farm activities are also factors that affect local livelihoods. Migration is therefore frequently regarded as the best option. So, this study area purposively selected the wereda based on two reasons. First, there is a lack of rigorous research on the actual effects of outmigration on households that send migrants. The second is the researcher's familiarity of the study area, which facilitate easy access to the area and acquisition of data.

3.4. Data Types and Sources

To address the research issues, both primary and secondary data were collected for this study. Focus group discussion, key informant interviews, observation, and structured questionnaires were used to collect primary data, and the secondary data were collected by reviewing documents such as prior studies in the study area and related issues, governmental documents, bank reports, Ethiopia's national policies for migration, migration reports of the Ministry of Labor and Social Affairs (MoLSA), and others. The quantitative data helped to understand about remittance inflow, household/individual income, end use, saving, and investing levels, while qualitative data allowed for understanding people's perspectives on the effect of rural outmigration and remittances on their livelihoods.

3.5. Research Approach and Design

According to Kumar Nayak (2015), a research design is a comprehensive plan created to address particular research questions or test particular hypotheses. For this study, the researcher used a

mixed-method approach that combines techniques for gathering both quantitative and qualitative data for this study. The use of both qualitative and quantitative methodologies enables the researcher to thoroughly examine the issue and guarantee accuracy and dependability of the data. The goal of using mixed methods is to produce a comprehensive and deep understanding of intricate social processes through effective and useful approaches (Aitken & Herman, 2009). In addition, combining the two types of data and analysis helps to reduce the drawbacks of each strategy. Therefore, a convergent parallel mixed-methods design was used to maximize the extent and depth of this cross-sectional study. Using a cross-section of the population, this design is chosen to determine the prevalence of the phenomenon, the overall contexts, and attitudes shaping the problem. In addition, a descriptive and explanatory research design is used in this study. The explanatory design explained the problems, reasons for migration, and effects of migration on migrant-sending rural households. It also served to clarify the causes and effects of outmigration.

3.6. Sampling Techniques and Sample Size

Both probability and non-probability sampling strategies were used to select the study participants. Probability sampling allows that everyone in the population has an equal chance of being selected as a representative of the population (Lohr, S. L. 2021). The requirement to eliminate bias, when selecting population members justifies the use of probability sampling. This works better in populations with relatively similar characteristics. Purposive sampling was used to select participants in interviews and focus group discussions, which enable to best address the research questions by collecting data from people who have first-hand knowledge of about rural outmigration in the study area. The three kebeles, namely: Idaga arbi/ዕዳጋ ዓርቢ/, Gerhusnay/ገ/ስርፍይ/ and Semhal/ሰምሃል/ were deliberately selected based on their significant migration levels. To sample the survey participants, the researcher used stratified random sampling technique to select 350 participants out of 2800 households from these three kebeles. Because the researcher did not have a list of the migrants and migrant sending households, the best way to contact them was use snowball sampling. The migrants who are currently living abroad are contacted by snowball sampling and interviewed via Tell-phone. Depending on the sample size, the Yamane sample size formula (Yamane, T. 1967) was used to obtain the sample size.

$$n = \frac{N}{1+N(e)^2}, \text{ Where:}$$

N=Number of target population

n = sample size

e=5%=0.05; Margin of error, 5%

N=2800

$n=2800/1+2800(0.05*0.05) = 350$

Thus, the sample size is = 350

Finally, 350 household respondents were randomly selected to collect information for interviews and questionnaires.

3.7. Methods of Data Collection

To properly achieve the goal of the study, the researcher used various data collection methods such as questionnaires, interviews, observations, FGDs and document reviews.

3.7.1. Questionnaire

For this study, structured questionnaire containing open-ended and closed-ended items were distributed to participants. The purpose of employing a questionnaire was to minimize the bias of the interviewer by collecting information from a large number of respondents over a limited period of time. Besides, of the data collected from a large sample size, is expected to yield dependable results (Clarsen et al., 2020). The questionnaire was translated to the local language Tigrigna and distributed to participants. The researcher was supported by trained data collectors who distributed and gathered questionnaires from the participants. The assistants were helping to mainly illiterate participants by reading and explaining the questionnaire.

3.7.2. Interviews

Interviews can be an in-depth or key informant, structured, unstructured or semi-structured depending on the needs of a particular study. Since they allow the interviewer to gather in depth, detailed and specific information using few informants, interviews are perceived as popular methods of data collection (Solarino & Aguinis, 2021). Key informant interview is a commonly used source of data that effectively digs into people's thoughts, views, experiences and

aspirations (Lokot, 2021). In-depth interview is crucial data collection instrument to obtain information on highly complex and sensitive subject matters from particularly well-informed respondents in the study area (Baker and Charvat, 2016). Therefore, the study employed in-depth and key informant interviews using semi structured and unstructured mechanisms. The major intention of using in-depth and key informant interviews was to gather significant amount of information by using a few selected informants. Key informant and in-depth interviews with selected residents, administrator, and migrated peoples were conducted at Ahferom woreda.

3.7.3. Focus Group Discussion (FGD)

FGD is a methodology that enables a researcher to collect plenty of information from a group of individuals, allowing participants to expand on each other's responses (O. Nyumba et al., 2018). Nyumba et al. (2018) add that FGD is a carefully planned series of discussions designed to obtain perceptions on a defined area of interest in a permissive, non-threatening environment. Focus groups mostly have a moderator and 6 to 12 members. Collecting information from a group of people helps to develop a mutual understanding of a social phenomenon. It minimizes the shortcomings of individual interviews. In this study, three FGDs were conducted to capture the major driving factors and effects of rural outmigration. In order to achieve this, a FGD made up of 5–10 participants from both sexes with one moderator was organized. Those FGD members are selected from the research participants and key informants of the selected kebeles and woreda. The researcher used an electronic devices and notes to record the data.

3.7.4. Observation

Observation is a systematically planned and recorded data collection method that is subject to checks and controls on validity and reliability (Mirhosseini, 2020). Direct observation is essential to detecting contextual information in a natural setting. As Fix et al. (2022) mentioned contextual information is highly required to understand what the participants explain. Observation serves as an additional technique that could complement the information obtained through interviews and FGD. Therefore, this study employed non-participant observation to collect relevant information on visual drivers like drought, landlessness/size, and effects like housing. The intention of using observation for this study was to reduce bias from informants by discovering what is happening in a natural setting.

3.8. Method of Data Analysis

The analysis part is a critical stage where the raw data is cooked to give organized information based on which valid conclusions and recommendations of the study are made. To this end, thematic analysis was used to analyze the qualitative data collected from the group discussion and observation. Specifically, the drivers of migration and the effects of rural outmigration were qualitatively investigated. The researcher used narrative and descriptive processes to organize, edit, and thematically evaluate qualitative data. Additionally, numerical data was analyzed using descriptive statistics. Partially, the magnitude of rural migration, drivers of rural outmigration, and effects of rural outmigration were analyzed using descriptive analysis. Descriptive analysis, such as tables, frequencies, percentages, and averages, were produced by analyzing quantitative data using the Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) software Version 22. The coded data was entered, edited, and processed using SPSS.

Chapter Four

Result and Discussion

This chapter deals with the presentation and analysis of the data obtained through questionnaires, FGDs, interviews, and observations. The chapter is organized in four sections. The first section discusses the characteristics of the respondents, which include migrant members, sex, and age of the migrant-sending households. The second section presents results pertaining the destination of the migrants based on the data from the respondents. In the third section, the researcher discusses and describes the drivers of rural outmigration; and the fourth section focuses on results relating to the livelihood effects of rural outmigration on the migrants and migrant-sending rural households. Where required; tables and graphs are used to present the data in an organized manner.

4.1. Characteristics of the Respondents

4.1.1. Demographic Characteristics

4.1.1.1. Age of the Migrant members and Household heads

Research clearly shows that the majority of migrants are of working age: i.e. aged between 18 and 60. This is because working-age migrants have more aspirations about their future and thus decide to face both natural and manmade challenges which they expect to face on the ways to and at their destination, which often aligns with household risk-mitigation strategies. Furthermore, people of working age face disappointment and hopelessness when local opportunities are too limited to support their livelihood or that of their households. However, rural outmigration was witnessed among the under 18 minors and also among the senior citizens, the above 60 years old.

The age of the household head also influences the decision of children to migrate. As the household head's age increases, their productivity decreases, leading to a higher likelihood of encouraging their child to migrate. For detailed results, see Figures 4.1 and 4.2 below.

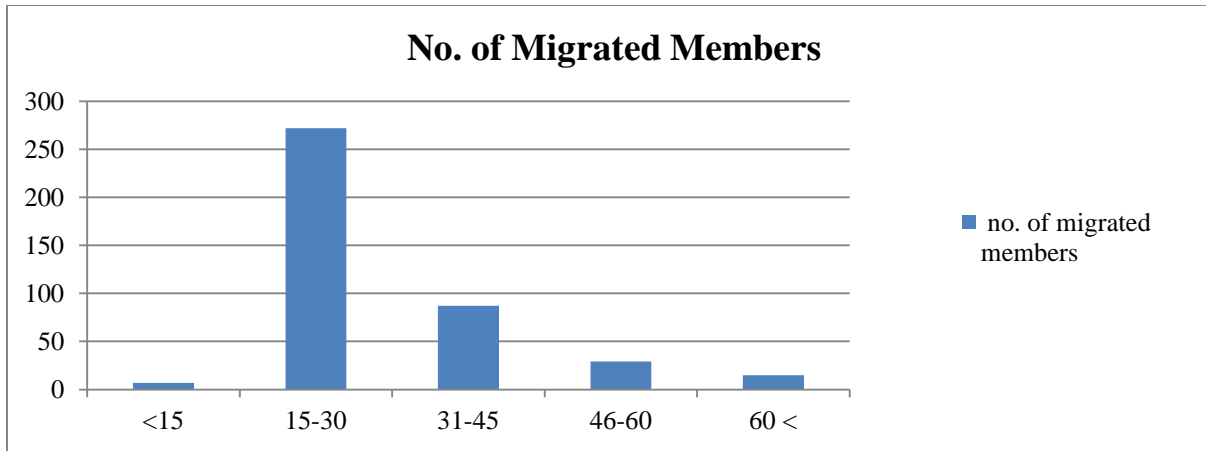


Figure 4.1 Age of migrated members

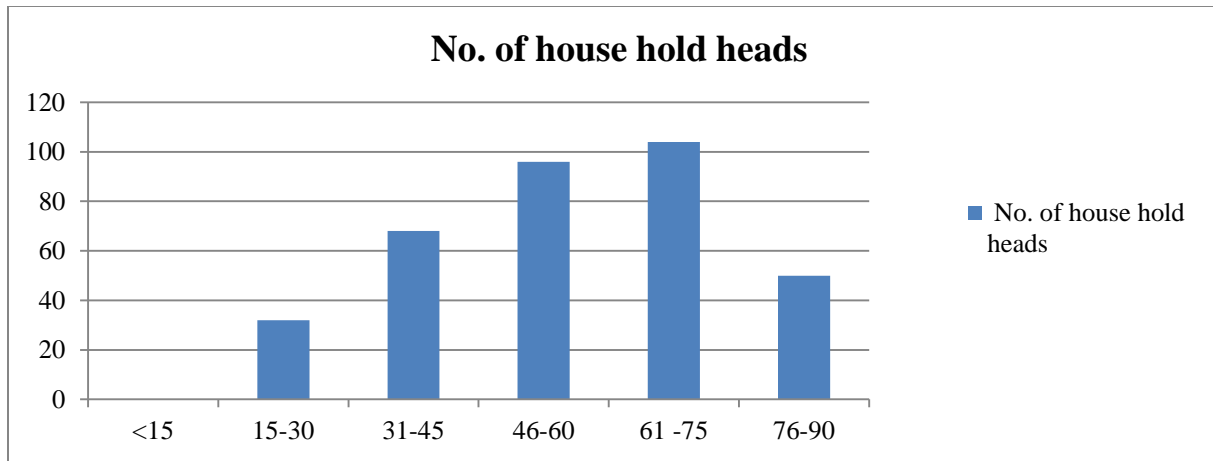


Figure 4.2 Age of house hold heads

As shown in Figure 4.1, Out of the 410 respondents, 272 (66.3%) are between the ages of 15 and 30. Figure 4.2, also shows that among 350 household heads, 104 (29.7%) are between the ages of 60 and 75. As the age of household heads increase, the number of migrants also rises. Therefore, both the age of the youth and the household heads influence migration decisions in Ahferom woreda.

4.1.1.2. Family Size of the Households

In terms of family size, the average household size is 5.97, with a maximum of 11 and a minimum of 2. The average family size of participants is above the average family size of rural households (5.3 persons) in Ethiopia (Mekonnen, a. 2022). High family size is, therefore, a

motivating factor for migration, as farmland size and agricultural production are limited. Larger proportions of the migrant sending households have 5-8 persons in their family (Figure 4.3).

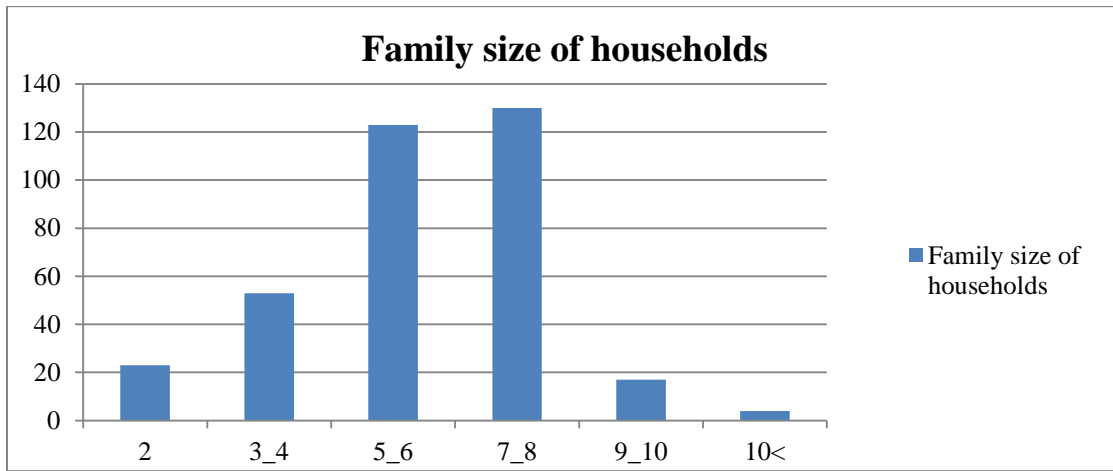


Figure 4.3 Family sizes of the households

4.1.1.3. Sex of migrants and household heads

Several descriptive studies suggest that women are less likely to migrate across country borders than men. They are also more sensitive to migration costs and more vulnerable to violence during the journey (Kirwin & Anderson, 2018). The findings of this study confirm that fewer women migrate from rural areas compared to men. However, the decision to send a family member to migrate is influenced by the sex of the household head. According to the data from this study, female-headed households are more likely to send their children to towns, abroad, or other agricultural work (as laborers) than male-headed households, often as a survival strategy or to seek support.

The key informants say,

“If we focus only on the female-headed households in Gerhusrnay kebele, almost all have migrant members. They push their young child to migrate and send remittances for home subsistence and agricultural inputs. Because they are living at a low standard of living compared with male-headed households.”

Table 4.1 illustrates that from the total of 350 selected migrant-sending households, 162 (46.3%) are female-headed households, and 188 (53.7%) are male-headed households. The data in the table also illustrates that from the total of 410 migrated members, 45.3% are females and 54.7%

are males. This proportion indicates that male migrants are more than female migrants. This finding is similar to the finding by Kusch minder & Siegel (2014), who found out that more males than females migrate out of rural areas.

Table 4.1 Sex of migrants and household heads

No		Frequency (N)						
1	Sex of the migrant members	Migration type	Male	percent	Female	percent	Total	Percent
		Rural-rural migrants	30	7.3	13	3.2	43	10.5
		Rural-to-urban migrants	108	26.3	75	18.3	183	44.6
		Abroad migrants	86	21	98	24	184	45
		Total	224	54.6	186	45.4	410	100
2	Sex of household heads		Male H.H.	percent	Female H.H.	percent	Total	Percent
			188	53.7	162	46.3	350	100

4.1.1.4. Types of Migration Reported

The data in Table 4.2 indicates that both internal and international migration is common in Ahferom woreda. Out of the total number of migrants, 213 (52%) are internal migrants, consisting of 40 (10%) and 173 (42 %) rural and urban migrants, respectively. The remaining 197 (48%) are international migrants, including 127 (31%) irregular migrants and 70 (17%) regular migrants.

Table 4.2 Types of migrants

No.	Migration types		Male	Female	Total	Percent
1	Internal migrants	Rural migrant	28	12	40	10
		Urban migrant	103	70	173	42
2	International migrants	Regular	29	41	70	17
		Irregular	63	64	127	31
3	Total		223	187	410	100

4.1.1.5. Marital Status of migrants

As can be seen from Figure 4.4, from the total of 410 migrants, 174 (42.4%) of them were unmarried at the time of the data collection and 123 (30%) were divorced. Thus, unmarried

youth adults and divorcees are more active in migration. On the contrary, married persons are less motivated to migrate. This is partially because unmarried and divorced persons have relatively better freedom of decision-making compared with married persons. Also the qualitative narratives confirmed that it is mostly the unmarried and divorced persons often migrate.

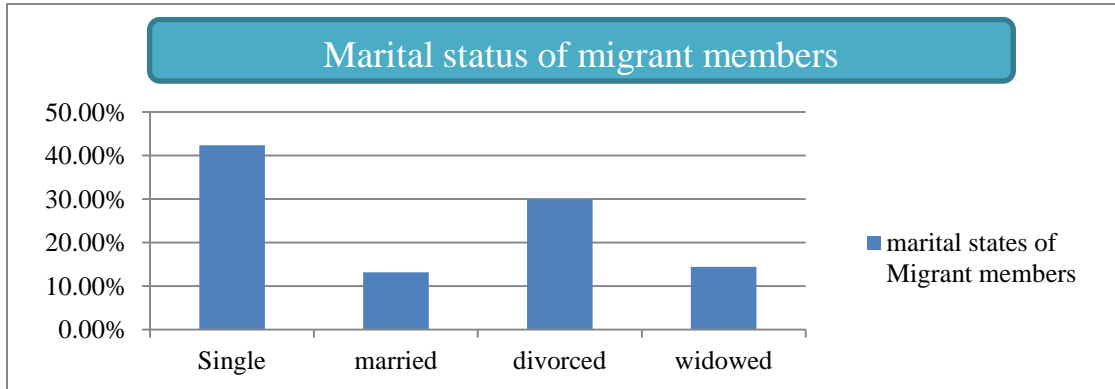


Figure 4.4 Marital Status of Migrant

4.2. Socio-economic Characteristics of Participants

4.2.1. Income of migrant-sending rural households

To study the determinant factors of migration, it is essential to investigate the income of the households in the study area. The survey result for the income of respondents indicates that out of 350 migrant-sending households, 30.3% have low gross monthly income of less than 4,000.00 ETB, 212 (60.6%) of them have gross monthly incomes that range from 4,000.00 to 10,000.00; the rest, 32 (9%), have gross monthly income of over 10,000.00 ETB. This data indicates that many of the respondents for this study get low income.

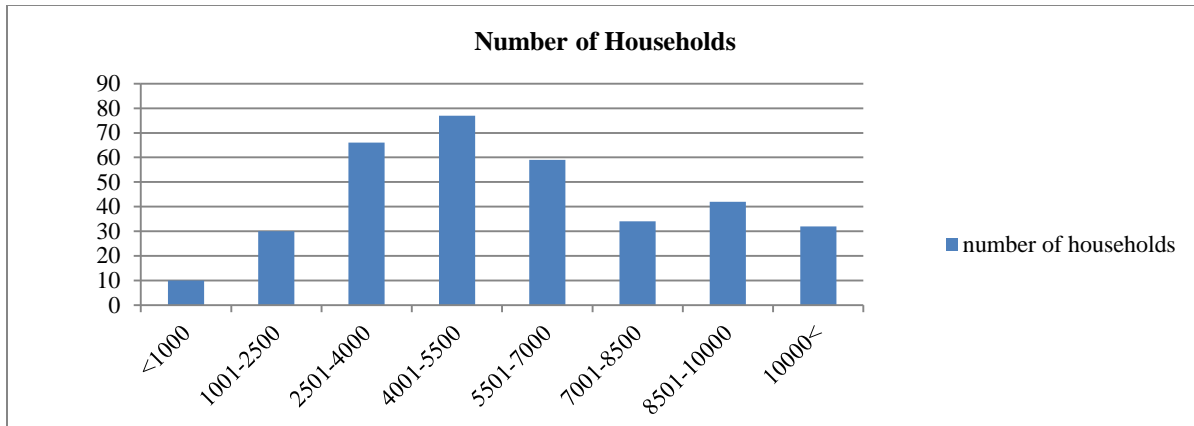


Figure 4.5 Income intervals of the migrant households

4.2.2. Educational level of the migrants and Household heads

Rural out-migrants have low levels of education. Low level of education means little options for legal migration (Cummings et al., 2015). Similarly, the results of this study showed that the majority of the migrant-sending households cannot read and write and the rest have low levels of education. As shown in figure 4.6, 154 (44%) of the households cannot read and write, 86 (24.5%) of them can write and read, 110 (31.4%) had attained education levels ranging from grade 1 up to grade 12, the rest 7 (2%) of them have bachelor’s and master’s degrees.

Whereas, 253 (61.7%) of the migrant members are above grade nine, of whom 51 (14.6%) hold bachelor’s degree and 11 (3.1%) master’s degree. The rest 157 (38.3%), had low levels of education with the majority of them cannot read and write, 15.6% of them could read and write, and 18.3% have achieved grade 8. This is because the receiving areas/countries prefer literate and skilled workforce. Thus, a higher level of educational achievement increases the likelihood to migrate (more obvious at international migration).

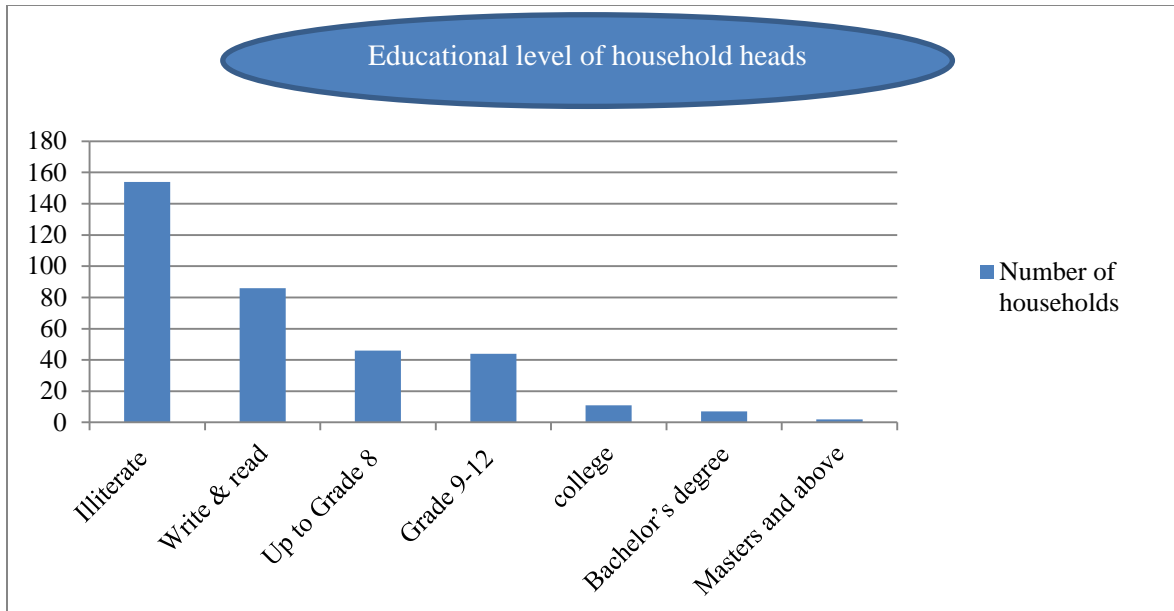


Figure 4.6 Educational levels of the household heads

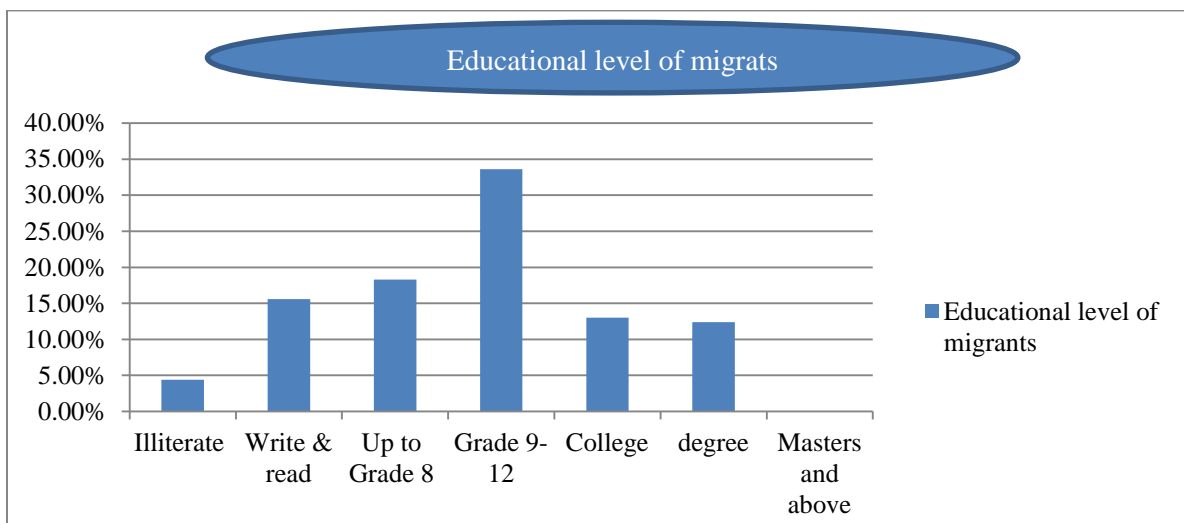


Figure 4.7 Educational levels of the migrants

4.2.3. Religion of Respondents

Among the 350 sampled households, 7(2%) of them are Muslim households, while 343 (98%) of them are Orthodox Christians. This is because the Muslim population is smaller than orthodox Christian in the rural area of Ahferom woreda.

4.3. The Destination of the Migrants

As can be seen from this survey, 213 (52%) of migrant respondents have migrated to Addis Ababa, local towns, and other rural areas within the country. Whereas the rest, 197 (48%), migrated overseas, including those to the Middle East, Europe, Africa, and other countries of the world.

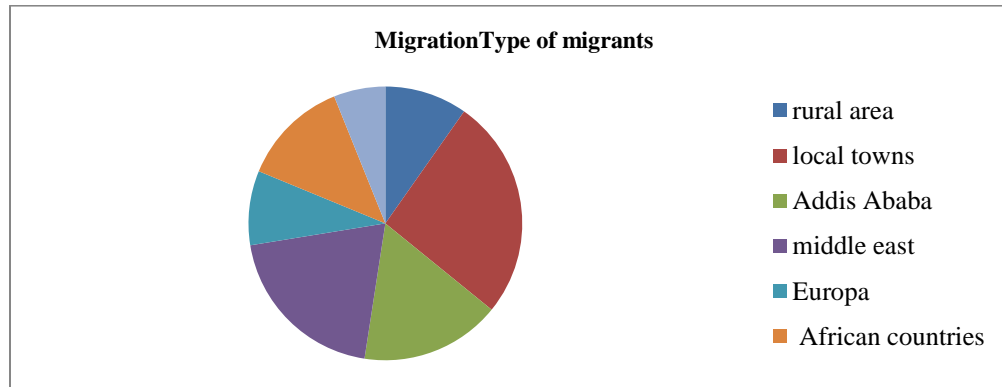


Figure 4.8 Destinations of the Migrants

The findings on destination countries abroad agree with what RMMS (2016) reported in previous studies. In those studies, Saudi Arabia is fourth among the six major migrant-receiving states after the USA, Germany, the Russian Federation, Canada, and France. The kingdom hosts 90% of the total 10 million workers in the Gulf countries (RMMS, 2016). Although the majority of migrant workers to KSA come from countries of South and Southeast Asia, a great number of migrants from Ethiopia also travel to the kingdom mainly for economic purposes (Omer, S. 2015). This pattern is witnessed also by the qualitative narratives shared in the present study. Most of the migrants and their families said the KSA is the main destination for the migrants from Ahferom area.

4.4. Drivers of Rural Out-migration in Ahferom Woreda

As shown in Table 4.3, migrants are motivated by economic factors such as unemployment, poverty, unfavorable microfinance conditions, and agricultural output failures. The youth in rural areas migrate for two main reasons. Similar to findings from prior studies (Peter, A. et al., 2024; Corbett, M., & Forsey, M. 2017), youth from poorer families in rural areas are primarily forced to migrate to survive. The second reason is economic advancement. These two factors are prevalent in Ahferom Woreda, where migration is seen as a viable alternative or the best source

of livelihood. This migration culture is strongly supported by an established migration network. Based on economic considerations, household members often decide and persuade their younger members to migrate. Additionally, the community, either intentionally or unintentionally, encourages youth migration. Political factors can also drive migration, particularly in areas with political sensitivities. Intentional or negligent administrative measures against individuals or youth can dampen their desire to remain in their areas. Table 4.3 below illustrates the main causes of migration, as reported by the interviewed rural households.

Table 4.3 drivers of Rural out Migration

No.	Drivers of migration	No. of migrants	Percent
1.	Climate and Environmental Factors	16	4
2.	Conflict and political issues	50	12.2
3.	Culture of migration	15	3
4.	Family and community pressure	39	9.5
5.	Income difference	23	5.6
6.	Low Agricultural production	87	21.2
7.	Network of migration	20	4.9
8.	Poverty	43	10.5
9.	Under employment	35	8.5
10.	Unemployment	63	15.4
11.	Unfavorable microfinance	19	4.6
12.	Total	410	100

These findings were confirmed by also the qualitative revelations as the study participants indicated farmland shortage and declining agricultural productivity, unemployment, and poverty as the main push factors that drive migration.

4.4.1. Economic Drivers of rural out migration

4.4.1.1. Unemployment and underemployment

At the national level, many youth who have completed high school or graduated from higher educational institutions remain unemployed (Mekonnen. 2021). Additionally; youth who cannot read and write or who have dropped out of school also face high levels of unemployment. As a result, many attempt to leave their place of origin in search of job opportunities, both within the country and abroad, often risking their lives in the process.

According to this survey, of the 410 migrants, 98 (23.9%) are categorized as unemployed or underemployed. This suggests that the unemployment and underemployment conditions of those

not seeking outmigration are relatively low, while those wishing to migrate (returnees and potential migrants) face higher unemployment rates. Thus, unemployment is a major factor driving youth outmigration. The economic and political systems lack of willingness or capacity to generate employment leads to stagnant local development, which fails to meet the employment needs of the youth. As a result, unemployed persons migrate out in search of opportunities elsewhere to meet their employment needs.

Hailu Berihun, a returnee, has been jobless for about three years after graduating from Mekele University in Electrical Engineering. He had no hope of getting employed after graduation. He thus revealed his decision and plan to migrate. He explains the reason why he has determined to migrate in an irregular route.

"I was committed to learning and had hope of getting employed in my field of study. As it is known, getting employed and providing support to my family is expected. But, now I am dependent on my family. After two years, I decided to migrate irregularly. After an exhausting and long journey via Djibouti, I Arrived Yemen and got arrested. They asked me to pay 80,000 ETB. My father sent me that money by selling two oxen, and they released me and I reached Saudi Arabia. I found my friends there and started an illegal job, which is drug trading. It was very profitable work, but after three months, we got arrested, were imprisoned for one year and sent back to Ethiopia. Now, I am jobless and my family had sold out their oxen to get me released from the Djibouti prison. My family is also not happy with me. This is not only my story; a number of my friends have the same story. If I would get any support for transport, I plan to go back to Saudi Arabia again, because I don't have any opportunity to live here (Hailu, 2024).

Another interviewee, a returnee from Qatar, explains her reason to migrate and the impact of it on herself and her family.

I have been working for four years as a teacher at an elementary school. My wage was not enough to live on. My family was supporting me. When our school closed because of the coronavirus lock down, I went to Qatar illegally. My family and friends paid a lot of money for my travel. In Qatar, my friend helped me to get a job as a house worker for five years. My salary was five times more than my former payment here. After three months, I started sending remittances to my family and paying back my friends' money. And also, during the conflict in Tigray, my family lost their property, including their animals. I supported them and saved their life. I am happy now."

Also her mother said, *“God sent our daughter to Qatar in order to save our lives. As you see, we have lost all our property. For the last three years, we were totally dependent on her remittance. And also now she bought and gave us this ox and that cow. We are happy now. God bless her.”*

Similarly, another key informant described the unemployment situation and desire of the youth for migrated to Idaga Robui town as follows:

“Idaga Robui is an old town without a master plan. The long-lived market day of the town (i.e., Saturday) was prohibited and transferred to the nearby town. The market was the major source of self-employment for youth like me. Although residents of the town have unofficially established another market day, there is still discouragement of the exchange of goods on this day. It was difficult for me to confidently engage in such economic circumstances. The other major problem in the town in terms of employment is the absence of private and public institutions which could create employment opportunities for the youth. Therefore, migration is the only desperate choice to satisfy my employment thirst.”

The above data indicate the prevalence of unemployment problems in the town caused by the absence of good will and lack of good governance in the town. People are suffering from unemployment; they are worried. On the contrary, across the sea there is an open employment opportunity. As the FGDs and key informant show, the destination is full of employment opportunities for the youth.

4.4.1.2. Poverty

As Table 4.3 indicates, from the total of 410 migrant members of the selected households, 43 (10.5%) of them are forced by the existence of poverty. There is a visible poverty in the selected three kebeles of the Ahferom woreda. The researcher has widely observed the living conditions of people in the woreda. According to this observation, most people seem to live in a difficult situation. The study area has an extremely dense slum area with poor living conditions. People have few employment opportunities due to the conflict and poor market. The NGO and governmental aid are not enough to generate income for the inhabitant. This has made people poorer than neighboring communities. The interviewee, who lives in Idaga Arbi, says,

“I have three migrated family members. My two sons migrated to Addis Ababa before 10 years. The main reason to migrate is my limited capacity to fulfill their needs. Then, by selling my ox, I sent them to Addis Ababa by dropping their school. After four years, they started to help me, and they sent Mebrhit to Dubai legally in

2009 E.C. I was born in Smret, which is a rural village. I was a farmer for more than 20 years. But now my sons bought a house at Idaga Arbi, and I started to live and work in this house. Not only this house, but they also sent me 120,000 birr to start this metalwork workshop. Now, my three younger children are students, and I have seven employed workers in this metalwork. I pay for school, health insurance, and other expenses. During the past conflict time, we were living by their remittance. Today, I am living a better life compared with my past time, and I am happy. Thanks to God!

Another participant who is currently living in the Selam Village Gerhusrnay kebele and is determined not to migrate again. She expressed the condition of her family before and after migration as follows:

I have worked in South Africa for six years. I have elevated the status of my household from poverty-stricken to better-off families. Before my migration, the economic condition of our family was miserable. There were times when children used to change their dresses rarely. We used to fail to eat three times a day. The needs of the family members were majorly restrained. We had poor housing. However, migration has changed this circumstance. Today, the household has better income with good housing, has proper expenditure for daily consumption, education, and health services, and is happier than before.

The existence of relative poverty has pushed the youth to prefer migration, which serves as a livelihood adaptation strategy. Coupled with a high number of dependents and weak local development, people are struck by poverty. Household members in this area migrate to different destinations in order to secure better economic opportunities for the household. Therefore, households decide to send someone from among themselves to survive from poverty and poverty-related challenges. For most of those households, migration paid off indeed. This goes with what has been documented in the literature. In about 25 developing countries, remittances constitute more than 10% of GDP, contributing to the improvement of food security, nutrition, education, health, well-being, and housing for millions of families (World Bank, 2016).

4.4.1.3. Income Differences

Wage disparity is one of the main factors influencing international migration. Table 4.3 illustrates that a significant disparity in household income (wages) between the origin and destination areas accounts for 23 (5.6%) of the migrants. The average monthly household income

of returnees is 19,306.00 Birr at the destination and 5,323.00 Birr at the origin. This suggests that there is a significant economic disparity among the respondents.

One interviewee explains the influence of wage differences between the places of origin and destination in choosing out-migration. She has terminated her high school education. She explains the reason for her migration as follows:

There is a significant difference between the domestic wage and wage in KSA. I have a brother who teaches in high school and a brother and a sister who are employed in governmental institutions. I am self-employed, owning a small cafe. All of us complain of low wages and income. Our income does not allow us to lead a proper life. We are always desirous about the wealth and success of returnees from KSA. We are jealous of returnees because they get higher wages without any kind of educational experiences. I have taken lessons from this that wages gained from migration are better than wages in our country. Accordingly, I and my two siblings have made up our minds to migrate to the Middle East.

Payment disparity between regular and irregular migrants convinces regular migrants to end up irregular. According to an interview with participants in Gerhusrnay and Idaga Arbi, most regular migrants earn about 8,000.00 Birr monthly, while irregular migrants gain about 27,000.00 Birr monthly, though with less freedom. Irregular migrants are out of the Kafala system so that they can change their employer any time they want and get relatively better payment compared to legally hired migrants. Besides, the information collected from the FGD and key informants shows the low wage rate for Ethiopian workers in Ethiopia has led to irregular migration.

Due to the low wage, there are governmental workers, including teachers, who have migrated irregularly to the Middle East countries. Asqual Belay from Idaga robui, currently in an irregular status, had entered the Kingdom through legal employment agencies. Similar to Asqual, there are a great number of Ethiopian migrants who escaped from their legal employers and changed their status from regularity into irregularity. Asqual explains the reason why she became irregular as follows:

Ethiopian and Saudi governments had jointly strived to fix this problem; but still escaping from employers has been a common problem in the Kingdom. Ethiopian migrants, mainly women, in a legal status end up irregular due to violation of their rights and high wage differences between regularly employed and irregularly hired. I had been working as a housemaid at lower than 8,000 Birr per month for two

years. My friends, on the contrary, escaped from their legal employer after spending about two and three months. They get 25,000 - 50,000 Birr monthly but have less freedom. There was a huge wage difference between me and my friends. They were able to remit better than me. Because of this, I decided, arranged situations, and escaped from my legal employer. Currently, being in an irregular status, I get 32,000 Birr per month and I am sending a better amount of remittance to my household members back home.

Therefore, the above data obviously show income differential is a major factor pulling the youth to go across the sea. There is a high income difference between working at home and at the destination. This has pulled people to migrate to the destination. Moreover, the existence of income difference between regular and irregular migrants motivated regular migrants to change their status to irregular migrants. Furthermore, working in low-paid jobs in some professions in Ethiopia has forced employees to search for better salaries in new areas in the country or outside.

4.4.1.4. Absence of Favorable Micro Finance

Microfinance loans are one source of money for local people to create self-employment locally. However, most of the youth in this study indicated that they do not take loans from microfinance institutions. Out of 410 migrant members from the selected households, only 19 (4.6%) reflected local microfinance favorable for taking a loan. The majority 286 (69.7%), of the migrants, do not take loans from microfinance institution.

Participants were asked why they do not take loans from the nearby microfinance institution. From the total of 286 migrants who do not take loan from microfinance, 83 (29%) including Islam) confirmed that the microfinance available is not interest-free. In Islam it is forbidden to take money or assets with interest. Therefore, those spiritual migrant members do not take money from the microfinance because interest is prohibited in their religion. The 20/80 loan, where the 20% is required as a matching fund, is the other challenge that prevents respondents from taking loans from the nearby microfinance institution. From the total of 286 respondents, 103 (36%) of them mentioned 20/80 as the most influencing challenge for not taking a loan.

The other reason behind not taking a loan from the microfinance institution is that the institution lends insufficient money. About 68 (23.8%) of migrant members do not take loans from the

institution due to insufficient loans. In addition to the above reasons, 32 (11.2%) migrant members do not take loans because of lack of information.

Coupled with success stories and experiences from households who have migrant members, people in Gerhu Srnay, Idaga Robui, and Idaga Arbi kebeles prefer migrating to other new areas to get enough money. One of them explains that:

Every day I hear success stories and experiences from households who have migrant members at KSA. Those households get startup money from remittances sent from their household members. The nearby microfinance is far from enough and not life-changing. The risky but good chance I have is to irregularly migrate and make money or send remittances for my wife and children”.

The result of the FGD conducted in Idaga Arbi kebele also indicated that most people in Idaga Arbi kebele do not have savings that can be used as a matching to take loans from the microfinance. Thus, they do not take loans, and instead people tend to migrate to Middle East countries.

4.4.1.5. Low Agricultural productivity

Ethiopia's rural economy is predominantly agrarian and since recent years constrained by agricultural land scarcity. Land scarcity is thus becoming a significant factor in migration. Landlessness, lack of arable land, and inadequate livelihood options are the main causes of migration. The government implemented land reform in 1975, but land allocation to young people has remained unchanged, leading to land scarcity and livelihood problems. Young people rely on parental inheritance, sibling competition, and education, which are often more expensive outside rural areas of Ahferom woreda, which is part of the central zone of Tigray, is one of the areas vulnerable to drought and low agricultural yields. There are unpredictable climatic conditions in the area. In addition, agricultural productivity has decreased due to climate change, soil erosion, and overdependence on chemicals. Because of this, agriculture faces frequent output failures.

According to the information gained from the Ahferom Woreda Agricultural Office, in harsh times, drought and flooding cause loss of substantial hectares of agricultural outputs. Coupled with high rural unemployment, failure in agricultural productivity forces the youth to migrate out to where they may make more money.

4.4.2. Social Drivers of rural out Migration

4.4.2.1. Culture of Migration

The culture of migration has been discussed by researchers as a significant determinant of international migration (de Haas, 2012). It is clearly depicted in Table 4.3 that 15 (3%) of migrated members of the selected households are motivated to out-migrate due to the existence of a widespread culture of migration. Tigray, in general, is highly involved in the culture of migration to internal as well as international, regular as well as irregular, ways. The study area, as part of the Tigray population, is also affected by irregular migration. The youth are both push and pull by different factors in the study area and the destination.

According to the FGD and key informants, there is a high level of culture of migration in the three selected Kebeles. Haji Ibrahim, one of the participants explains this as follow:

“The culture of migration has huge influence to decision to migrate on the youth. Here, we don’t have opportunities that absorb the interest of the youth. We have been neglected by the Woreda or regional administration. There is almost nothing that holds the youth except migration. On the other side, there is relatively better opportunity across the sea or to local towns. Family members push the youth to migrate and remit, comparing with their neighbors. There is a strong and partially reliable network of migration. For those who can afford money for the travel cost, it is easy to arrive at the destination mostly without danger. Thus, it has been common and recurrent to see or hear of the migration of the youth in groups. Particularly, returnee migrants are more eager to remigration.

Another participant narrates the culture of migration as follows:

My family doesn’t have enough income to feed the entire household. I don’t have a good job and fine social status here. All of my friends are in Addis Ababa and Saudi Arabia, living comparatively better lives. The community has a strong influence on me to migrate, as my friends in the area and I want to be free from being dependent on my family. Even the destination is not suitable to get a life partner or spouse.

Besides, the community known as the destination is freer than here. Then, I decided to migrate to Saudi Arabia. More importantly, the prevalence of migration networks facilitates my travel toward the dreamland. Those are all reasons that open the opportunity for the youth, like me, to make migration a preference.

The above data show the existence of an intense culture of migration to cities and overseas. As interviews and FGDs suggest, different factors have contributed to building this culture in and around the study area. These factors have forced people to search for a better opportunity abroad. According to the key informants, since thirty years ago, migration to the Middle Eastern countries has been selected as the best livelihood adaptation strategy in the area. Pushed by a lack of local development and supported by many entry opportunities to the Kingdom, households prefer to search for jobs. The community's culture is dominant, and migration is a common experience in the woreda.

4.4.2.2. Network of Migration

Around 73% of the world's population lacks adequate social protection, primarily in rural areas of developing countries (FAO, 2015). Social networks, including ethnicity, kinship ties, community links, and identity, however, play a crucial role in facilitating migration processes by providing information, creating awareness, and reducing costs.

Migration networks are social capital that connect migrants and non-migrants in origin and destination areas through ties of kinship, friendship, and shared community origin. The major advantage of networks is that they lower risks and costs of movement for potential migrants by making information and resources accessible (Cummings et al., 2015). They can help in finding shelter and jobs in the country of destination and provide necessary resources for the route.

As can be seen in Table 4.3, the prevalence of the network of migration beginning from the origin to the destination motivated 20 (4.9%) of the migrant members of the selected households to migrate. Similarly, the FGD results show that the network of migration has contributed to facilitating rural outmigration. A participant from Gerhusnay kebele says the following regarding the network of migration:

One important factor that helped me to arrive at Saudi Arabia is the prevalence of a network of migration. I have three family members working in Saudi Arabia. They were my sponsors for my journey via the sea route. They know people and

smugglers who facilitate and alleviate challenges during my travel. There was a network of smuggling starting from my origin to my destination. Although the journey was dangerous, the network has relieved the challenges that I had to face. The total information, the type of job at the destination, and the favorable system to migrate is from the former migrants of the same destination area/country.

Accordingly, a strong culture of migration has enabled people to establish networks of migration. The availability of a strong network of migration to the destination has motivated households to see out migration as an option. This finding is similar to several researchers' findings (RMMS, 2016; Seid, 2016), who found out that irregular migration from Ethiopia to the Gulf countries is supported by a strong network of migration.

4.4.2.3. Family and Community Pressure

Migration, as a crucial livelihood strategy, plays a great role for the sending households (Gebrehiwot et al., 2012). As a result of this role, households pressurize their youth members to migrate at any cost. Besides, the study by RMMS (2014) confirms that in migration-prone areas, community influences are the most common drivers of migration.

Pressures from family and the community have, therefore, roles in aggravating irregular migration. As can be seen in Table 4.3, from the total of 410 migrant members of the households, 39 (9.5%) are motivated to migrate due to pressures from family and/or the community. This result is similar to research done by Megersa, H., & Tafesse, T. (2024), who found that Ethiopian migrants to the Republic of South Africa are highly pressured by family and the community to migrate.

According to the qualitative result from key informants and FGDs, pressures by family and community are among the reasons for youth migration from their origin. Since there are rare opportunities for family livelihood, the overseas migrant members use migration as a copying strategy to counter livelihood challenges.

Alganesh G/wahd, aged 31(via phone), is a migrant currently working in Saudi Arabia. She explains the triggering factors for her migration. She mentioned family and community pressure as a reason for her migration:

After failing the National Grade 10 Exam, I remained totally dependent on my family. Similar to most of the other families in the Idaga Robui Kebele, my family has small

source of income. The community has a negative perception of the youth who are unemployed, unmarried, and dependent. The community believes that I have to contribute to my family by migrating to other areas, unless they will perceive me as worthless.

Furthermore, the researcher has deeply observed the family and community perception of people living in the study area. According to this observation, the family and the community have high expectations for migration. Due to success stories of migration, families and the community believe that the youth have to migrate in order to benefit at least the family and get better social status.

4.4.2.4. Instable political system

According to the data in Table 4.3, from the total of 410 migrant members of the households, 50 (12.2%) are pushed to migrate due to Conflict and political instabilities. The key informants and FGDs highlighted that an unstable and unsafe political environment also pushes the youth to migrate. Government policies and interventions, including rural development programs, land use policies, labor market regulations, and migration policies, can shape migration patterns and magnitudes.

Policies that promote economic development, job creation, and investment in rural areas may help to reduce outmigration by improving livelihood opportunities and quality of life for rural residents. Conversely, policies that neglect rural development or favor urban centers may exacerbate outmigration from rural areas.

After the end of the global conflict in the early 1990s, local conflicts led to instability, separatist movements, and migration. Millions of refugees and displaced persons sought safety, often involving governments, non-state actors, and gendered violence (Krause & Segadlo, 2021). The ability of governments to intervene and provide protection for potential victims is crucial in determining whether people are forced to flee or remain in their home communities (Hayes et al., 2016). As the key informants mention repeatedly, currently in the whole Tigray region, there is a weak political administrative system. This causes an unsafe life and investment. So, the youths are pushed to migrate not only for themselves but also for the survival of their family. The interviewee said the following about her sons:

My two sons came back from Dubai before one year after the Pretoria Agreement. And I told them to start work at Gerhusrnay. After working for six months as hotel owners, the total property of their hotel was looted. We feel bad, and they decided to migrate to Dubai again. This is the political failure because there is no legal body responsible for such issues of the community.

4.4.2.5. Climate and Environmental Factors

Droughts are significant drivers of land degradation, which in turn has adverse effects on resource-dependent rural populations and can potentially lead to livelihood losses and subsequent migration out of affected areas. The interviewee and key informants illustrate the pathways by which migration is affected by and responds to the climatic driver. Prolonged periods of drought can devastate agricultural productivity, leading to crop failures, livestock deaths, and water scarcity. This loss of livelihood can force rural residents to migrate in search of alternative sources of income and sustenance.

As can be seen in table 4.3, from the total of 410 migrant members of the households, 16 (4%) of them are motivated to migrate due to climate and environmental factors, mainly drought, variable rainfall, and soil acidification.

Commonly, the key informants of Idaga Arbi Kebele say that, for agricultural purposes, the households frequently return to the village during the rainy or harvest seasons. A common tactic used by many families to diversify their sources of income, adapt to livelihood needs or financial hardships, and diversify their way of life is temporary out-migration. This can take the form of brief relocations to more closely spaced rural villages or urban areas.

Acidification of soil is also another climatic factor mentioned by the participants that is caused by factors such as deforestation and improper land management that can degrade soil quality and impair agricultural productivity. When coupled with other environmental stressors, soil acidification can contribute to rural poverty and incentivize outmigration in search of more fertile land or alternative livelihood opportunities.

4.5. Direct effects of rural out migration on the migrant members

It is to be expected that outmigration has both positive and negative effects on the migrants and migrant-sending households as well. As presented in Table 4.4, out of 410 members of the sampled households, 172 (41.9%) of them are affected by one of the listed negative effects, like drug addiction (chat and cigarettes), violence, and infection with some diseases such as HIV/AIDS. Out of the 350 sampled rural households, 78 (22.3%) have a negative attitude toward outmigration mainly due to the negative effects sustained by migrant members.

Table 4.4 Direct effects of rural out migration on the migrant members

No.	variables	No. of migrants	% out of 100
1.	Affected by Transmitted Diseases	23	5.60
2.	Arrested	17	4.10
3.	Cheated their money	13	3.20
4.	Drug Addicted	5	1.20
5.	Miss job	19	4.60
6.	No Information	13	3.20
7.	Paralyzed	6	1.50
8.	Psychological Trauma	5	1.20
9.	Right violence	27	6.60
10.	School drop out	44	10.7
11.	Total	172	41.90

Women returnees face social discrimination in terms of getting a marriage partner due to a belief that they have been psychologically and sexually abused at their destination (Deregt & Tafesse, 2016). FGD results clearly showed that there is a negative perception of the community towards returnees from the Gulf countries. The community believes that returnees have psychological problems. As a result of this, returnees, in particular women, fail to get marital partners.

In fact, qualitative reports have repeatedly showed that female migrants also face sexual assaults and associated risks both on their way and at the destination. Several rural out-migrants are thence vulnerable to acquiring venereal diseases like HIV/AIDS, other STDs, unwanted pregnancies and HBH. According to Muyonga, et al. (2023), the mobility of workers, particularly in irregular routes, increases the spread of communicable diseases such as HIV. The present study revealed that 23 (5.6%) out of the 410 participants were infected with either HIV-

AIDS or HBH. Thus, especially irregular migration is contributing to the spread of HIV/AIDS and HBH. Qualitative results from returnees indicate that many returnees suffer from segregation, the problem of reintegration, and infection. One of returnees who indicated her plan to migrate again said:

Life in Saudi Arabia had many good sides, though we were not treated well. Compared to living here, I had so many advantages living there. Most importantly, I was free. But here things are complicated. I suffered a lot to create a job in this politically tied town. The government had propagated supporting returnees reintegrate well. However, they simply mocked us. They do not want us to stay here. Therefore, I am planning to re-migrate soon.

... Regarding infection by diseases such as HIV/AIDS and HBH, I believe that many migrants who traveled by sea are infected by some dangerous diseases due to a lack of caution during the journey. Personally, the only caution I took in my first migration was taking contraceptive pills. To speak honestly, many female migrants like me do not take and use protection during voluntary or coercive sexual intercourse in the journey. I know that many people choose irregular migration partially due to the failure to pass medical examination required for the formal migration. For instance, I failed to migrate through legal routes due to infection by HBH. Because of that, I took the informal route and I faced sexual assault by foreigner's en-route. These factors made migrants like me affected by dangerous diseases during the journey.

In addition, irregular migrants fail to reintegrate with the community back home. This is mainly due to the belief that irregular migrants are exploited en route. As a result of this, they suffer from enjoying similar social status and respect with others. Such migrants fail to contribute to local development equally with others.

Besides, several youth have faced psychological problems, which encompass severe mental disorder. Migrants with psychological disorders are mostly dependent on their households. The qualitative result above indicates that there are many migrants who are infected with some serious diseases. This clearly implies that migration is producing highly infected returnees to the local community. This negatively affects the potential of local development in the town.

4.5.1. Costs of Migration

Rural outmigration, especially irregular oversea migration, is open to high financial costs due to vulnerability to several challenges. As mentioned earlier, irregular migrants to Middle Eastern

countries are desperate migrants. Most of the time, they are unable to access the legal route for many reasons. Banning of regular routes, academic incompetency, and infection with serious diseases are some of the reasons. These migrants are determined to spend money as much as possible to arrive at the specific destination. Monetary cost during irregular migration varies from time to time and between the two sexes.

FGD result showed high differences in amount of payments for migration. One of the participants recalled that his migration cost included expenditure for transport by car and ship; hotel, food, several smugglers, corruption and others. Five years ago he had paid about 45,000 Birr for the entire journey. This cost was smaller than the cost needed to migrate via regular migration. A month before the time of data collection for this study, the participant sent his sister through the sea route who spent 210,000 ETB for the whole journey though the journey was safer than before. This money is distributed among several members of the smuggling network.

Many migrants arrive safely, but there were some cases when migrants failed to arrive at the destination after spending a good amount of money. This happens when a migrant is hijacked by a group of gangs at the shores of Yemen. Such individuals are subject to a great amount of payment.

According to Seble (a household head at Idaga Robui), who is currently working in the Kingdom, irregular migrants via Djibouti and Yemen face challenges of hijacking and violation of many rights of migrants. She recalls how she went through this trouble as follows:

After one and a half days of tiresome navigation on the sea, I arrived at the shore of Yemen's coast via Bosaso. Immediately after we landed at the shore, migrants started to escape from a group of gangsters who were rushing towards us. I was extremely tired, so I was caught by the gangs. They are armed gangsters, the majority of whom speak Ethiopian languages. They forced me to satisfy their lust. But their major aim was money. They warned me to tell my households to send money as a ransom. At first I insisted on not telling my family, but after irresistible torture, I persuaded my sister in the Kingdom to pay eighty thousand Birr. She arranged smugglers who helped me arrive at my last destination. Together with the ransom, I spent 240,000.00 Birr.

Many migrants suffer from detention after spending a lot of money on the journey. According to FGD, some people are arrested immediately after landing in the Kingdom, while some others are caught while they are working for less than a month. Migrants like Mebrhit gain nothing except

loss of money in irregular migration. Mebrhit expresses that *although she spent about 100,000 Birr at route, she was caught before she got employed, and at the time of the data collection she was trying to pay back the debt for her journey.*

These qualitative results clearly indicate that out migration is forcing migrants to spend a good deal of money. Irregular migrants do not always succeed. After spending a high amount of money on the journey, they are caught before they start working. Such migrant-sending households do not enjoy the benefits gained from remittance; rather, they go bankrupt or get indebted. They take the potential money away from the locality. Spending of money on the journey affects the capacity of local people to work and invest in the origin. Therefore, migration affects local livelihoods by taking local money away and making migrants indebted.

4.5.2. Violation of Rights

Violation of rights during and after the journey is the most common story told in rural outmigration, especially irregular migration. Results alluded that in every irregular migration event, there are violations of rights ranging from minor bodily harms to dreadful deaths. Several studies have identified violations of rights of irregular migrants. The result of the FGD and interview for this study shows that a great number of irregular migrants from Ethiopia to KSA, especially through the sea, face challenges. Almost all of the respondents who arrived at KSA through the sea have said that they faced challenges en route. The sea route has been mentioned as the most risky route to the Kingdom.

The results of FGDs and interviews indicate that, it has been common to hear of the deaths of local migrants towards the Kingdom in containers, in the sea, in the desert, and at the destination. Sometimes these deaths are heard in more than two dozen at a time. One key informant from Idaga Arbi also describes the situation as follows.

Violation of rights, particularly for girls and women, starts from the day they left their home. Most women spend the first night with a private smuggler whom they trust to help them arrive at their destination. They are forced to give what they own, for he is the one trusted to support them in the entire journey. Willy-nilly, she spends nights and days with him and others until she arrives at her destination. The smuggler harasses her sexually. The group of smugglers confiscates female migrants from the private smuggler for sexual purposes. This anguish is accompanied by verbal abuse, physical violence, and

exhaustion. If she is lucky, she escapes the most horrific part of the journey via the sea. But she feels the death of the weak that is thrown into the sea. Immediately after the end of the sea route, she might be caught by a group of armed gangsters who kidnap migrants for ransom. Although most of the gangsters are Ethiopians, they don't have any pity for their poor countrywomen. She faces torture, beating, and sexual assault until the ransom arrives. After the ransom, her household members at KSA help her to arrive at the last destination. Unfortunately, the challenges do not end after arrival. She keeps her misery hidden, fearing sudden detention. Although being an irregular laborer helped her to enjoy relative freedom, she still faces deprivation of rights, for she is irregular. I have gone through the majority of the aforementioned problems.

It is not only the sea route that is accompanied by various challenges en route. Migrants who arrive at the destination regularly or through illegal agencies are also vulnerable to these problems. A migrant, often a girl, suffers several troubles with her employer. She also faces problems after escaping from the employer. Sofia, a returnee from Qatar, explains all the problems confronted after arrival.

I arrived in Qatar legally to get employed as a housemaid. I worked with my employer for a year and a half. It was hard for me to serve a big family. The family was also unfriendly to me. They do not give me my due rights. The wife of my employer was always nagging me for no reason. The younger son was the other challenge for me, for he harasses me. I did not report my case to the Ethiopian Embassy knowing that they were too negligent. One day, I was ordered to buy goods from the nearby supermarket. On my way, I came across an Ethiopian adult. I persuaded him to help me escape from my employer and he took me with him. Things were not fine after he took me to his house. As country folk, I beg him to help me get employment; but, he intentionally made me stay with him for a month. He sexually abused me for the whole month. One day, he forgot his mobile with me, and I got the chance to escape from him. I called a girl from his mobile that I believed is his relative or friend. Fortunately, she was his girlfriend. Instantly, she came and took me to her home. After a week I got employment.

It is possible to conclude from the above data that outmigration, mostly irregular migration, is exacerbating local development of the community in the study area. It is clearly known that local development encompasses quality of life and well-being of local people. Protection of rights of individuals is the prior target of every local development.

Rural out-migrations in the Kebeles have caused suffering of local migrants during and after the journey to the new area. The migrant youth have been victims of physical violence,

psychological problems, sexual assault, and death, which are against the principle of local development. Irregular migration has also struck migrant-sending households due to injury and loss of their migrant family members. Therefore, outmigration has highly affected the well-being of migrants and their households, thereby affecting local development.

4.5.3. School drop out

The youth compares the success of migrants with success attained from education. This comparison helps them to decide which success stories are better and deserve commitment. In this study area, due to a strong culture of migration, there are plenty of success stories of migrants to internal towns and other countries. The youth in the Kebeles compare the short success of migrants with a long time and limited success of educated people. Due to this, the youth make migrants as their role models. This reduces the hopes and interest of the youth in education.

As shown in Table 4.4, more than 10.7% of the 410 migrants migrated by dropping out of school. FGD and interview result, indicate that they do so aspiring better economic returns by migration. That is notwithstanding the potential abuses and traumas associated with migration. This finding is similar to research done by McKenzie & Rapoport (2011) and Bisrat et al. (2017), who found that out migration has significantly undermined youth staying in schooling and increased students' dropout rates in Mexico and Ethiopia, respectively.

Similarly, document review from the two schools in the study area shows that student dropouts and resignations of teachers for migration are common. This indicates that widespread culture of outmigration in the study area reduces the interest of people in education. This lack of interest in education causes deterioration of local development in the study area. Thus, rural outmigration negatively affects economic growth, well-being, freedom, quality of life, living standards, and productivity of the local peoples.

4.6. Effects of rural out migration on the livelihoods of rural households

Literature shows that the effect of the migration of labor on the households has remained a matter of dispute and is complex and context specific, as it depends on the characteristics of those who move and stay behind, the amount of money earned and remittances invested at home,

and the timing of movement that coincides with other activities (Kothari, 2004). Likewise, this study indicates that the migration from rural areas to other areas has a positive and negative effect on the households left behind.

Out of the total 350 selected households, 272 (77.7%) are happy to have a migrated member; only 78 (22.3%) of them are not happy with their migrated members.

Table 4.5 Attitudes of rural households towards rural out migration

No.	Attitude about migration	No. of respondents	Percent
1.	Positive	272	77.7
2.	Negative	78	22.3
3.	Total	350	100

The positive effect of rural out-migration of labor on household livelihoods is determined by the amount of remittance invested (in cash or kind) at home. It was pointed out that rural out-migration of labor enables people to repay fertilizer loans on time and cover the down payment for these loans, buy cattle, pay tax, cover the payment for land rent, construct a corrugated iron sheet-roofed house, buy modern clothes, cover festival expenditure, educate children, cover a family's medical expenditure, start a small business, and buy a water pump for irrigation. It also contributes to reducing the household food consumption at home, which in turn improves households' food security. According to the key informants, In Semhal and Gerehusnay kebeles, there are young men who have started their own small businesses in the small towns called Idaga Robui and Gerhusnay using the money they have earned from migration as well as money received from migrated members. There are also individuals who have bought a mill in groups with the money they have brought back from migration.

In addition to its positive role, out-migration of labor has negative effects on the households at places of origin. There are events in which migrants have brought back transmittable diseases, and the whole family has been affected by them (i.e. tuberculosis, giardiasis). Moreover, the out-migration of a family member creates a labor shortage and a burden of responsibilities on those families who stay behind. The other possible negative effect of the out-migration of labor, although it needs further detailed study, is that it aggravates the inequality between the migrant

and non-migrant households. In the rural-to-rural migration, this is mainly due to the fact that the migration option is more open to young people than women and the elderly. As a result, households that experience labor constraints and are headed by a female are not beneficiaries. The availability of labor becomes more critical when the out-migration of labor coincides with the peak labor-demanding time at the destination and the agricultural work at home. Hence, large family size becomes an advantage so as to ensure labor availability for agricultural tasks at home and to facilitate diversification into off-farm activities, which in turn may exacerbate the inequality between the migrant and non-migrant households. Also the participants in the qualitative study indicated both positive and negative effects of rural out-migration.

4.6.1. Effect of rural out Migration on income Generation

Remittance is responsive to income shortfalls and has the potential to augment household income. One of the prior needs of migrants is to get income at the destination. This income holding enables migrants to improve the quality of life of their households.

According to data from the returnees, participants' monthly household income is different in their countries of origin and destination. The average household income of non-migrants and potential migrants at the Kebeles is 4,386.00 Birr, with a minimum of 1,000.00 and a maximum of 10,000.00 Birr, whereas households with migrants earn an average income of 18,418.00 at the household level with a minimum of 6,000.00 and a maximum of 50,000.00 Birr. There is a great average difference in the income of participants at the town and at the destination. This clearly indicates that migration extremely increases the income of migrants. As the information gained from key informants, the income of irregular migrants in the Kingdom is higher than that of non-migrants and potential migrants at home and the income of regular migrants at the same destination.

The result of this study clearly indicates that migrants and their household members have benefited from remittances. This income has helped them to invest in household consumption, education of children, and health. It has also enabled them to create new jobs. Generally speaking, remittance has increased the influx of money into the town, which helped the local economy and the well-being of residents.

4.6.2. Effect of out migration on employment and Job Creation

Interview and FGD results indicate that rural outmigration provides migrants with jobs. Especially the women who migrated to KSA get employment as soon as they arrive. Thus, migration fills the gap of employment that the locality fails to provide. Employment opportunities enable migrants to accumulate a good amount of money that helps them create further jobs at home. The FGD results have expressed the role of remittance in income generation as very contributive. They stated that good income generation has enabled migrants or their households to venture into a new business on cash crop production. One of the participants has expressed his idea as follows:

Cash crop production needs an ownership of a good deal of money. The nearby microfinance is not able to provide a sufficient amount of money. Migrants or their households embark on such activities. My neighbor, for instance, has become a model for his success in cash crop production. He is currently supplying cash crops such as papaya and mango in the market. Thus, money from remittances has been very supportive in creating new jobs.

This shows that, the local development is supported by remittance through job creation in the town. According to the survey, from the total migrants, 153 (37.3%) create jobs for themselves, their households, or non-migrants by investing their money in new jobs like shopping, driving, land purchase and selling, diesel retail, and cafeteria expansion. Compared to non-migrants, migrant-sending households have shown high consumption for goods and services. They have also invested in education, health services, and agriculture. Today, new clinics have been expanded better than before. These economic activities have contributed to fostering local development. This is similar with Harvey et al. (2017) and Yaya et al. (2021) which found similar result on the impact of migration on household well-being, technology adoption, and natural resource conservation using cross-sectional data and a three-stage least squares estimation method.

4.6.3. Effects of migration on Education, Health and housing

From the total of 410 migrant members, 366 (89.3%) of them have funded to education and health for their household members. This helps to reduce drop-out of students due to lack of

money to fund learning materials and fees. Besides, high funding on water excavation, fertilizer, and buying modern tools.

According to key informant interviews, compared to non-migrant households, migrant-sending households have better capacity to spend money on education, better health services, and agriculture for their households. Thus, funding in education, health services, and agriculture has a current effect on the expansion of urbanization.

Regarding house construction, competition of migrants in new house construction is all important to urban development. The collected data shows that, from the total of 410 migrants, 287(70%) of them wish to have their own new houses for the purpose of dwelling, rent, and business.

The construction of new houses in small towns has significantly contributed to urbanization by availing rental space for businesses such as shops, cafeterias, and other commercial activities. This development not only generates rental income for local residents but also creates opportunities for businesses to access suitable premises. Additionally, the construction process itself offers employment opportunities for the youth, fostering job creation and supporting local economic development.

One of the key contributions of remittances to local development is their role in job creation and improving transportation infrastructure. These developments enhance the quality of life by enabling an improved lifestyle. The new jobs provide a stable income for many individuals, while improved transport services facilitate the daily activities of people in both urban and rural areas, bridging the gap between the two and fostering overall progress.

4.6.4. Migration and household Consumption

The key informants and FGD have indicated that households that have migrant members have improved consumption compared with non-migrant households. Therefore, returnees have high financial capacity and willingness to afford for prices of goods and services. On the other hand, non-migrant households have lower capacity of spending on consumption. This creates inequality of consumption between the households with and without migrant members. The participant has expressed the role of migration on consumption as positive. Desbele is a returnee who has worked in Metema City for about four years.

Before my first migration, my household had low consumption capability. The household was unable to pay for our daily expenditure. We used to suffer from shortage of money to buy dresses for holidays. The needs and wants of the household were very limited. We had an inferior position with respect to satisfying our needs in the community. After I have worked on agriculture at Metema, I started to send money to my family. Today the entire household is capable of getting dresses for holidays, slaughtering animals, and equally enjoying holidays similar to neighbors and the community. We purchase more goods today than ever before. The family budget has increased with the increase in demands for goods and services. There is better expenditure for health, education, and other basic consumptions. Sometimes, the family spends extravagantly to be equal with others (Alemu, 2024).

An increase in household expenditure for consumption has implications for inflating prices of goods and services. The inflow of money in the form of remittances may cause or exacerbate high inflation on the purchase of goods and services. Abera is a key informant, who is affected by inflation in the town. He expresses that he has lost purchasing capacity for goods due to high inflation caused by remittance.

I am from among non-migrant households who do not have access to remittance. I am competing with households that remit money to purchase commodities. Unlike migrant sending households my family has restricted expenditures. Remittance sending households have a culture of high spending on goods and services. Land purchasing, for instance, is dominated by migrant sending households. Due to high income, migrants spend high amount of money on purchasing land. This has helped sellers to increase money for items. On the contrary, non-migrant households suffer from inability to cope with inflation. Thus, remittance makes us vulnerable to inflation.

As FGD results indicate, migrant-sending households are disposed to high consumption. This is mainly due to the unmanaged willingness of migrants to allow money to their families. Most migrants are extremely generous to their households. Besides, they put their money not in banks but in their households. This permits households to use migrants' saved money unwisely. Seada Muhammad, who is currently working in the *Saudi Arabia*, expresses her grievance against her families for using her money unwisely.

I have worked in Saudi Arabia for about six years. Although there are two sisters working here, I fund most of the family expenditure with little support from my sisters because I have limited my expenditure and enjoyment here. My household has developed the habit of extravagance after migration. Due to unlimited and unmanaged support from me, the household has high financial expectations and spending. This reduced my

financial saving ability. Unfortunately, many households consume migrants saved money intentionally or unintentionally. I had about two hundred thousand Birr kept under my family. Without my willingness, they spent all of it. This forced me to stay for more years here and save money again.

4.6.5. Migration and Labor Utilization

Migration can have significant effects, both positive and negative, influenced by factors such as the scale of migration, the characteristics of migrants, and the policies in place. As reported by participant households, rural outmigration affects the availability of labor for agricultural work. In Ahferom Woreda, which is experiencing rural outmigration, there is a labor shortage, resulting in decreased agricultural production if farmers cannot find suitable replacements. If the migrants are unable to send sufficient remittances, the remaining household members may be forced to sell animals or other assets to survive.

According to Anderson (2014), despite pressures from Europe, the US, and international organizations, the government of Ethiopia usually turned a deaf ear to the flows of overseas migration to the Gulf and other destinations for two reasons. First, it offers an alternative to the high levels of unemployment. Second, migrant remittances can promote local development through income generation, investment, and job creation. Thus, migration could relieve the potential of political discontent within the country. According to an interview with the town mayor, although they don't encourage migration, it is seen as an opportunity for the local administration, partially due to its ability to decrease the labor force.

Besides, results from key informants indicate that rural outmigration has supported the local community by generating employment abroad, thereby reducing the unemployed human power in the town. Belay Tadese, participant, explicates the indirect benefit of outmigration on local communities as follows:

The town suffers from high unemployment. The local government has little desire to create jobs for the youth. Several issues, like the absence of a town master plan and weak governance, have hampered the employability of the youth. Besides, the weak capability of residents has also hindered job creativity in the town. Thanks to migration, it has facilitated employment opportunities abroad, thereby depleting manpower at the town. This has helped the youth like me to enjoy self-employment opportunities.

The youth association lead of Ahferom woreda also says that,

Youth outmigration and labor depletion in this society is a significant challenge, marked by the migration of young individuals from rural areas to urban centers or abroad in search of better economic, educational, and social opportunities. This trend is driven by limited rural job prospects, low agricultural incomes, and a desire for modern lifestyles. As a result, these societies experience a depletion of labor, with fewer individuals available to engage in essential agricultural activities such as planting, weeding, and harvesting. This labor shortage often shifts the burden to elders and women, straining household and community structures. Moreover, agricultural productivity declines, leading to subsistence of farming or land abandonment, further threaten rural economies. Socially, the exodus of youth disrupts family units and erodes traditional community dynamics, while economically, it increases reliance on remittances, which are not always reinvested into agriculture.

The employed migrants have sent a good deal of money to their household members for daily investment for consumption, education, agriculture & health or in the form of cash. In addition to employment, migration has a great role in minimizing the risk of political disorder due to lack of unemployment. The collection of a high number of unemployed youth in the town may exacerbate political discontents. Therefore, migration has facilitated employment for the youth, thereby reducing the risk of political disturbance in the locality.

4.6.6. Migration and Agricultural Production

According to Marxist theory, migration in general is perceived as a process of labor extraction that results in a decline of agricultural productivity, including food production. However, the result of this study shows sometimes rural out-migration of labor has less effect on the agricultural output in the study area as migrants return home during the peak farming periods. For instance, during September, the majority of migrants go to the southern part of Tigray for teff harvesting and western areas, including Humera, for sesame and sorghum cutting. This coincides with the harvesting period at home.

Furthermore, those who migrated to Humera mentioned that their stay is typically short, allowing them to return home in time for the harvest. Additionally, since most migrants are young farmers who are either landless or have small household holdings that don't require a large labor force, the negative impacts of rural out-migration in Ahferom woreda are less severe. While the demand for labor during the migration period may be lower, it does not mean that agricultural

work stops entirely at home. According to the household survey, the responsibility of working on the fields of migrants often falls to other family members who remain behind. Some migrants leave money for their wives to hire daily laborers in case of a labor shortage.

According to key informants, they earn better payment from outmigration than what they would have obtained from agriculture at home. It was stated that seasonal migration is often undertaken after sowing, and the remaining agricultural work is undertaken by wives and other family members. Migrants with agricultural knowledge and experience may introduce new techniques, technologies, or crops to their destination areas, potentially increasing productivity. Conversely, if migrants have a lack of agricultural skills, there may be challenges in adapting to local farming practices, leading to reduced productivity or inefficiencies. Medhin Adeda is female household head affirms this:

I have two sons and one daughter. Our source of income to live was two timad of land. Abrha (the elder one) was working at the farm properly. We were getting up to six quintals per year before he migrated to Shire. The younger son can't continue with his brother's skill and knowledge, including the arrangement of farm materials. So, we contracted out our plots to other farmers for sharecropping. Now we accept only two quintals per year, which is not enough to live. Even if Abraham sent us some remittance, it can't cover the rest of the four Quintals.

The researcher also observed and interviewed individuals who were formerly working in other areas like Addis Ababa but now run their own businesses in their home villages. According to the participants of the FGD, it is with the money that is sent and brought by their children that they are ensuring their livelihoods.

4.6.7. Effects on livestock production

According to this study, outmigration significantly affects livestock production in rural areas, influencing both the scale and dynamics of farming and herding practices. The study participants indicated that rural outmigration causes shortage of household and community-level labor force needed for tending livestock and hence it negatively affected livestock production in the area.

The household heads also added that, rural outmigration induced reduction both in size and productivity of livestock. Most of the migrant-sending households also sell out their animals to sponsor their migrating family members; the shortage of labor led to reduction in care and management of livestock; and thus both the number and productivity of livestock reduced with

increases in migration trends. That is reported to be affecting the livelihoods of the households as livestock used to serve as vital sources of income, food security, and social status. That in turn reduces household's food security and resilience to shocks such as droughts and market fluctuation, where the migrants fail to send remittances to those households.

In fact, some of the key informants also indicated that outmigration created opportunities for livestock intensification and commercialization. As labor became scarcer, they said that they invest in technologies and practices that boost productivity and profitability, such as adopting improved breeds, improving feeding regimes, and engaging in value-added processing to capture higher returns from livestock products.

The returnee participants strongly noted that migration has a positive effect on livestock production as it avails the money needed for starting a livestock production business. Agricultural Bureau of Ahferom Worda, Ms. Aster Belay, added that a number of returnees have started their own small businesses in agriculture, like dairy production, poultry production, fattening, and apiculture activities in this woreda. She said over 50 returnees started agrobusinesses; the former starters are very successful in financial outputs. Many of those returnees turned out to be model farmers according to inventing and innovating new technologies.

Chapter Five

Conclusion and Recommendation

5.1. Summary and Conclusion

Rural outmigration has become a notable phenomenon in Ethiopia. Many migrants search for opportunities in urban centers within Ethiopia and international destinations, such as Saudi Arabia. Thus, this study examined the Drivers of Rural Out-Migration and its effects on Livelihoods of Migrants and Migrant-Sending Households in Ahferom Woreda, Tigray National Regional State, Ethiopia,' focusing on its drivers and effects, both on migrants and migrant-sending households. Mixed-methods approach was used to generate the data from migrants and households. It focused on identifying the key economic, social, and demographic drivers of migration and assessed the broader effects of these movements on local livelihoods.

The results showed that lack of reliable livelihood opportunities, unemployment, the resultant poverty, access to information about migration including availability of better income at destination, and high expectations to benefit from remittances are among the key drivers of rural outmigration from the study area. Family size, household income, educational levels of the migrants and the household heads, sex and marital status of household heads, as well as the age of both migrant members and household heads affect migration decisions of individuals and households.

Compared to non-migrants, returnees and potential migrants face higher rates of unemployment, which exacerbates the desire to migrate. These challenges force migrants to seek opportunities abroad to accumulate capital for starting businesses.

A deeply embedded further disseminates out migration in Ahferom Woreda. Community expectations, family pressures, and established migrant networks emboldened outmigration as a normal practice. Additionally, population pressures and limited local opportunities contribute to the out-migration trend.

Migration has both positive and negative effects on local livelihoods. On the positive side, remittances from migrants have become important sources of income to migrant sending households and that income encouraged job creation increased consumption, urbanization, and investments in education, health, and agriculture. Migrant remittances also enable the construction of homes and improvements in transportation infrastructure.

On the negative side, out migration poses severe risks on the migrants, including human rights violations such as sexual assault, physical abuse, withholding of passports, beating, psychological trauma and even death. Economically, the high costs of migration, including smuggling fees and travel expenses, drain household resources. The need to escape from poverty creates unrealistic economic expectations, leading some families to deprioritize education in favor of immediate financial gain.

In conclusion, rural out-migration in Ahferom Woreda is driven by economic hardship, unemployment, socio-political instability, and demographic factors such as household income, family size, and the educational and marital status of household heads. As migration contributes positively through remittances that boost income, urbanization, and investments in education and health, it also has challenges such as human rights violations, economic strain, and unrealistic expectations. The study underlines the need for targeted policies to address the root causes of migration and enhance its contributions for local development.

5.2. Recommendations

Though rural out-migration and its remittances can potentially be tools for household livelihood and local economic development, this is often contingent on the setting or contexts. Based on the findings and conclusion of the study the following recommendations are worthy to consider;

- The results of this study indicate that a number of international migrants, especially irregular migrants, pay more than 300,000 birr to their traffickers. The Ahferom Woreda administration has to devise viable economic opportunities and training support to encourage those migrants to use this money to pursue profitable businesses at home. They have to sensitize the youth on creating opportunity to start their own business individually or cooperatively with this money instead of paying for migration.
- The local administration has to improve rural youths' access to agricultural land and support them to diversify into farm and non-farm rural employment opportunities.
- Improving microfinance services is another important mechanism to encourage people to engage in local economic opportunities instead of taking outmigration as a solution. Microfinances can provide initial money for the youth to start new businesses. This can reduce the number of migrants who are pushed by lack of money to start-up small businesses, and support their household members. Besides, they have to find a way out for people who are incapable of borrowing money on interest due to prohibition by religion.
- Together with national and regional governments, the woreda needs to enhance employment opportunities for the youth adults who are eager and vulnerable to migrate. Together with other sectors, the local agriculture bureau has to provide special funding and mechanism to enhance productivity of the agriculture so as to generate income and employment.
- Finally, since this research is primarily conducted for academic purposes, it used a cross-sectional data to identify the drivers and effects of rural out-migration on the livelihoods of migrants and migrant-sending households. Therefore, the researcher recommends conducting further studies on the impact of rural out-migration on the livelihoods of migrant-sending households using a longitudinal approach.

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Appendix

Addis Ababa University

College of Development Studies

Postgraduate program in rural livelihoods and development

1. Questionnaire for the households

This is a questionnaire prepared to undertake a study entitled ‘Drivers and effects of Rural Out-Migration on the Livelihoods of migrants and Migrant-sending Households in Ahferom Woreda, Tigray National Regional State, Ethiopia’. The research is conducted purely for academic purpose and all the information given are confidential.

Dear Respondents:

I am a post graduate student in the Center for rural livelihoods and Development. Currently, I am undertaking this research in partial fulfillment for M.A in rural livelihoods and development given by Addis Ababa University. You are selected to be one of the participants in this study and I request you to give your genuine answer voluntarily. I assure you that no personal identity will be published or transferred to third party.

Interviewer’s Information

Interviewer’s Name _____ Date interviewed _____

Instructions

Please use √ mark for Choice Questions and write on the blank spaces on open ended questionnaires.

Code _____

1. Gender of household head: Male Female

2. Age of the household head: _____

3. Religion Islam Christianity

4. Number of family members _____

5. Educational level of the household head? Illiterate Up to grade 8 from 8 - 12
Degree and above

6. Number and sex of migrated members of the households _____

7. Where did s/he migrate? To other rural to urban to abroad

8. How would you categorize the magnitude of rural outmigration?

a) Low b) Moderate c) High d) Very high

9. Which of the following factors trigger the household member to migrate?

Poverty unemployment to get (better) job

Culture of migration Migrant networks

Crop Failure Family pressure (to help family members)

Community pressure Lack of interest free microfinance

10. Who persuade him/her to migrate?

Myself household members friend Other _____

11. What did your household gain from migration?

- Purchased land
- Secured household food security
- Got skills and professions
- children Educated
- funded fertilizers costs
- Owned Livestock
- Housing
- Saving
- financed household health care

- Job Creation
- Others

12. What did your household lose from migration?

- Household member interrupted education
- Household member Changed religion
- Household member became drug addict
- Agricultural Labor
- Absence of supporter for the elders
- Sale their animals to get money
- Burden on the elders to support children

13. Based on your observations, which age group is most affected by the magnitude of rural outmigration?

Below 15 years

16-30 years

31-45 years

4 -60 years

Above 60 years

All age groups are equally affected

14. Which of the following economic factors do you believe have the most impact on rural outmigration?

Low wages and income opportunities

Lack of diverse industries and job sectors

Limited access to credit and financial resources

Economic instability in the region

15. In your opinion, how does the magnitude of rural outmigration impact the local economy?

Positive effects

Negative effects

Neutral

Unsure

16. How does rural out-migration affect the income levels of migrant-sending households?

Decreases household income significantly

Decreases household income moderately

Has no significant impact on household income

Unsure

17. What effect does rural out-migration have on the agricultural productivity of migrant-sending households?

Decreases agricultural productivity significantly

Decreases agricultural productivity moderately

Has no significant impact on agricultural productivity

Unsure

18. In your view, how does rural out-migration impact the long-term sustainability and development prospects of migrant-sending rural areas?

Decreases sustainability and development prospects significantly

Decreases sustainability and development prospects moderately

Has no significant effect on sustainability and development prospects

Unsure

❖ **effect of out-Migration**

19. Your household yearly in come before migration? _____

20. Your household yearly income after migration? _____

21 What assets have you or your household member has owned after migration?

22. How many more assets do you have after the migration?

23. What type of change do you get after migration?

24. Did your children get better educational facilities?

25. Does s/he create a job for you or your household member at your origin?

Yes No

26. Have your household member financially supported your household to have access to a better healthcare?

Yes No

27. Did your household member help you to modernize your agriculture?

Yes No

28. Does migration has positively affected on the following issues? (Sign on your believe)

Better educational access

Better health

Freedom for women

Better income

Raised consumption

better self-employment

Better agricultural output

experience

29. Did your household member send collective money for school/hospital construction?

Yes

No

30. Does returnee suffer from social stigma? (Especially women)

Yes

No

Focus Group Discussion

❖ General

1. How do you understand the effect of outmigration?

2. What type of migration does practicing in this woreda? (Hint seasonal, regular, and irregular, to urban, to abroad or to other rural areas)

3. How do you describe the degree and extent of migration at ahferom woreda?

❖ drivers

4. What are the drivers of out migration at ahferom wereda?

5. Which drivers are more motivating the youth to migrate?

6. Do you think that, the school closing forces students to see migration as the only option? How?

❖ effects of out-migration

7. What measures have been taken on those who facilitate migration networks?

8. What do you think on the consequences of out migration on local development?

9. Have you observed positive impacts of migration on poverty, health, agriculture, urbanization, housing, inequality, education, consumption, investment?

10. Have you observed negative impacts of migration on poverty, health, inequality, education, local products consumption, agriculture?

11. Does remittance really change the lives of migrants, their household and the community? How?

12. How do you understand outmigration generally on the well-being, happiness and better lives of migrants, their households and the community?

13. Does remittance affect local development? How?

14. Who are the rural-rural, rural-urban and migrants to abroad migrants? What type of migrants are they? What they expect from? _____

Interviews

Key Informant Interview

Informed Consent Form For the interviewees: I hereby confirm that the interviewer has informed me about the nature, conduct, risks and benefits of the study. I have been told sufficient information about study, and have had enough opportunity to ask questions. I declare myself willing to participate in the study.

Participant's signature: _____ Date: _____

For the Researcher: I hereby confirm that I have informed the above participant about the nature, conduct, and risks of this study.

Interviewer's name: _____ signature: _____ Date: _____

This interview guide is full of open-ended and unstructured questions, thereby allowing participants to freely tell their stories.

❖ General

1. How do you describe the degree and extent of out migration at ahferom woreda?

❖ drivers

2. What are the major drivers of out migration at this woreda?

3. Why peoples migrate to other rural area?

4. What types of migrants are in this woreda?

❖ effects of out migration

5. What are the effects of migration on households and the community?

6. Have you observed positive effects of migration on poverty, health, agriculture, housing, inequality, education, consumption, investment?

7. Have you observed negative effects of migration on poverty, health, inequality, education, local products consumption and agriculture?

8. Are there achievements made by collective remittance on the community and locality? How?

9. Does the depletion of labor force due to migration affect local development?

10. How do you understand outmigration generally on the well-being, happiness and better lives of migrants, their households and the community?

11. What are the positive and negative effects of out migration for the migrants and their households of Rural-rural, Rural-urban, and Rural to abroad migrants.

አዲስ አበባ ዩኒቨርሲቲ

ናይ ሃገር በቀል ፅንፍትን ምርምርን ትምህርቲ ክፍሊ

ናይ ገጠር ልምዳትን መነባብርን ድሕረ-ምርቃ ፕሮግራም

1. ንስድራቤት ስደተኛታት ዝተዳለወ መጠይቕ

እዚ መጠይቕ ኣብ ገጠር ንዝግበሩ ፍልስታት መንቀሊኦምን ኣብ መነባብር ስደተኛታትን ስድራ ስደተኛታትን ዝህልዎም ሳዓብዮንን ኣብ ወረዳ ኣሕፈርም፣ ትግራይ፣ ኢትዮጵያን ብዝብል ርእሲ ንዝግበር መፅናዕቲ ዝተዳለወ እዩ። እዚ መፅናዕቲ ዝኮነሉ ሙሉእ ብሙሉእ ንትምህርታዊ ሓበሬታ ዝውዕል እዩ።

ዝኸበርኩም ተሳተፍቲ፤

ኣነ ኣብ ኣዲስ አበባ ዩኒቨርሲቲ ናይ ገጠር ልምዳትን መነባብርን ትምህርቲ ክፍሊ ናይ ድሕረ ምረቃ ተመሃራይ እዩ። እዚ ፅንፍት ዝገብር ዘለኹ ኣብ ኣዲስ አበባ ዩኒቨርሲቲ ብገጠር ልምዳትን መነባብርን ንካልኣይ ድግሪ (Master's Degree) ትምህርቲ ንምምላእ እዩ። ንስኹም ነዚ መጠይቕ ተሳታፊ ንክትኮኑ ተሓሪኹም ኣለኹም። ስለዚ ብፍቓድኩም ንመራቂ ፅሑፊይ ዝጠቓቑ ሓበሬታ ንክትህቡኒ ብትሕትና እላዎ። ንእትህቡኒ ሓበሬታ ኣቐዲመ እናመስገንኩ ምንም ዓይነት ውልቃዊ ማንነት ክሕተም ወይ ናብ ካልእ ሳልሳይ ኣካል ክመሓለፍ ከም ዘይክእል ከረጋግፀልኩም እፈቱ።

ናይ ተጠየቓቲ ሓበሬታ

ናይ ጠያቂ ሽም _____ ዝተጠየቐሉ ዕለት _____

መምርሒታት

ኣብ ዝተውሃቦም ሕቶ ንዝሓረይዎ መልሲ ንምምራፅ ✓ እዚ ምልክት ይጠቀሙ። ከምኡ እውን ንዝተውሃቦም ክፍቲ ሕቶ ኣብቲ ክፍቲ ቦታ መልሶም የቀምጡ።

ኮድ: _____

- 1. ናይ መራሒ ስድራ የታ ተባዕታይ ኣነስታይ
- 2. ዕድመ መራሒ ስድራ: _____
- 3. ሃይማኖት ሙስሊም ክርስቲያን ካልእ
- 4. በዝሒ ኣባላት ስድራ _____
- 5. ትምህርቲ ደረጃ ናይ መራሒ ስድራ? ዘይተምሃረ ክሳብ ክፍሊ 8 ካብ 8-12 ክፍሊ
- ስርትሬት ወይ ዲፕሎማ ድግሪ ወይ ካብ ድግሪ ንላዕሊ
- 6. ዝተሰደዱ ኣባላት በዝሒ _____
- 7. ናብይ ተሰዲዶም ኔርም/ ኣለው ናብ ገጠር ናብከተማ ናብ ወፃኢ ሃገር

8. መዕረፊአም ኣበይ ሃገር እዩ?

ሳውዲዳረብ ኢሚራት ኩዌት ኩታር ካልእ ሃገር _____

9. ነቲ ኣብ ሕቶ ቁዕሪ 8ተ ዝመረፀዎ ሃገር ንምንታይ መሪፃምዎ? ምኽንያቱ

ቀረባ ስለ ዝኾነ ጠንካራ ርክብ ስለ ዘለዎም ቦርደር ክፍቲ ስለ ዝኾነ

ዝሓሸ ቕፃፃር ስለ ዘለ ዘሓሸ ነፃነት ስለ ዘለ ካልኣት

10. ካብዞም ኣብ ታሕቲ ዝተዘርዘሩ ነጥብታት ንኣባልኩም ክስደት ዝገበር ኣየናይ እዩ::

ድኽነት ስራሕ ስእነት ንዝሓሸ ስራሕ ባህሊ ስደት ናይ ስደት ርክብ ምህርቲ

ሕርሻ ብዘይ ምህላወ ናይ ስድራ ፅዕንቶ ናይ ማሕበረ ሰብ ፅዕንቶ

11. ንክስደዱ ዘበረታተዎም መን እዩ? ባዕለይ ስድራ ቤት ኣዕርኹተይ

12. ናብ ኢትዮጵያ ብከመይ ተመሊሶም ?

ሃንደበት እስራት ናይ ስድራ ኩነታት ውዕሎም ስለ ዝወድኡ

ብሕማም ካልእ ምኽንያት

13. ዝተሰደደ ኣባል ብምህላወ እንታይ ጥቅሚ ረኺቦም?

- መሬት ዝእና
- ዝሓሸ ናይ ምግብ ኣቅረቦት
- ዝሓሸ ናይ ክእለትን ሞያን
- ዝሓሸ ትምህርቲ
- ናይ መዳበሪያ ክፍያ
- እንስሳ ክነጥሪ ክኢልና
- ዝሓሸ መንበሪ ዝላ ሰሪሕና
- ጥረ ቅርሻ ዓቕረና
- ዝሓሸ ናይ ጥዕና ኣገልገሎት
- ሰራሕ ጀሚረና
- ካልኣት

14. ስደተኛ ኣባል ብምህላውኩም እንታይ ኪሳራ ገጢሙኩም?

- ኣባላት ስድራ ትምህርቲ ኣቕሪፎም
- ኣባላት ስድራ እምነቶም ቀይሮም
- ኣባላት ስድራ ብሱስ ተጠቓዕቲ ኮይኖም
- ናይ ሕርሻ ሰራሕተኛ ተሳኢኑ
- ኣረጋውያን ሓጋዚ ስኢኖም
- ገንዘብ ንምርካብ እንስሳ ሸይቦም
- ሓላፍነት ኣረጋውያን ወሲኩ

15. ብትዕዘብቶም መሰረት ካብ ገጠር ብበዝሒ ዝስደት ክለ ዕድመ ኣየናይ እዩ?

ትሕቲ 15 ዓመት

ካብ 16-30 ዓመት

ካብ 31-45 ዓመት

ካብ 46-60 ዓመት

ልዕሊ 60 ዓመት

ኩሎም ክሊ ዕድመታት ብማዕረ ተጎዳኢቲ እዮም

16. ካብዞም ኣብ ታሕቲ ዘለው ኢኮኖሚያዊ መንቐልታት ኣብ ናይ ገጠር ስደት ዝግበዩ ለውጢ/ዕዕንቶ ዘለዎ ኣየናይ እዩ ኢሎም ይኣምኑ?

ትሑት ክፍሊትን ዝሓሸ ናይ እቶት ዕድልን

ሕዕረት ናይ ኢድስትሪ መማረፅን ናይ ስራሕ ሰክተርን

ውስን ልቓሕን ናይ ፋናንስ ምንጫን

ኢኮኖሚያዊ ዘይምርግጋኦ

17. ብናትኩም ኣመለካክታ ካብ ገጠር ዝግበር ፍልሰት/ስደት ብምብዙሑ ኣብቲ ከባቢ ዘስዕሩ ኢኮኖሚያዊ ዕዕንቶ?

ኣሉታዊ ዕዕንቶ

ዕዕንቶ የቡሉን

ኣዎንታዊ ዕዕንቶ

ርግፀኛ ኣይኮንኩን

18. ከመይ ገይሩ እዩ ካብ ገጠር ዝግበር ስደት ኣብ ስደተኛ ዝለኣኹ ስድራ ናይ ኣታዊ ለውጢ ዘምዕእ?

ኣታዊኦም ብጣዕሚ ብምቅናስ

ኣታዊኦም ብማእኸላይ ብምቅናስ

ኣብ ኣታዊኦም ለውጢ የቡሉን

ርግፀኛ ኣይኮንኩን

19. ብናትኩም ኣረዳድኣ ከምይ ገይሩ እዩ ካብ ገጠር ዝግበር ስደት ነዊሕን ዝተረጋገኸን ለውጢ ኣብ ስደተኛ ዝለኣኹ ስድራቤት ከምዕእ ዝኸእል።

ዝተረጋገኸን ቐፃልነትን ዕብዮት ብጣዕሚ ብምቅናስ

ዝተረጋገኸን ቐፃልነትን ዕብዮት ብማእኸላይ ብምቅናስ

ዝተረጋገኸን ቐፃልነትን ዕብዮት ኣይቅንስን

ርግፀኛ ኣይኮንኩን

ካብ ገጠር ዝግበር ስደት ዝህልዎ ሳዕብዩን

20. ናይ ስድራብትኩም ዓመታዊ እቶት ቅድሚ ስደት?

21. ናይ ስድራብትኩም ዓመታዊ እቶት ድሕሪ ስደት?

22. ስድራቤትኩም እንታይ ዓይነት ሃፍቲ/ኣሴት ካብ ስደት ከጥርዩ ክኢሎም?

23. ክንደይ ዝኣክል ተወሳኺ ሃፍቲ/ኣሴት ካብ ስደት ክተፍርዩ ክኢልኩም?

24. እንታይ ዓይነት ሃፍቲ/ኣሴት ካብ ስደት ክተፍርዩ ክኢልኩም?

25. ደቐኹም ዝሓሸ ናይ ትምህርቲ ናውቲ ረኺቦም ዶ?

26. ኣብ ከባቢኩም ንናይ ስድራ ኣባልኩም ናይ ስራሕ ዕድል ፈጠርኩም ዶ?

እወ ፈጠረ ኣይፈጠርኩን

27. ስድራቤትኩም ብዝገበርኩምሉ ገንዘብዎ ሓገዝ ዝሓሸ ናይ ጥዕና ኣገልግሎት/ ኣቕርቦት ረኺቡ ዶ?

እወ ረኺቡ ኣይረኸበን

28. ስደተኛ ኣባልኹም ዘመናዊ ዝኾነ ሕርሻ ንክህልወኹም ሓገዝኩም ዶ?

እወ ሓገዝና ኣይሓገዝናን

29. ስደት ኣብዞም ዝስዕቡ ነጥብታት ኣወንታዊ ለውጢ ኣምጺኡ ዶ? (ኣብ ዝኣመንኹምሉ ምልክት ግበሩ)

ዝሓሸ ትምህርታዊ ኣቕርቦት

ዝሓሸ ጥዕና ኣገልግሎት

ዝሓሸ ናይ ደቂ ኣነስትዮ ነፃነት

ዝሓሸ ኣታዊ

ዝሓሸ ውልቃዊ ቕፃፃር

ዝሓሸ ናይ ሕርሻ እታዎት

ዝሓሸ ልምዲ

ዝሓሸ መዓልታዊ ኣቕርቦት

30. ስደተኛ አባል ስድራቤትኩም ጥቅሉል ዝኾነ ገንዘብ (ንትምህርቲ ቤት ወይ ንሆስፒታል) መሀነሳ ዝኾውን ይልእኽ ዶ? እወ ይልእኽ ኣይልእኽን

31. ካብ ዝደት ዝተመለሰ ስደተኛ ብማሕበረ ሰብ ዕዕንቶ ይፈጥረሉ ዶ? እወ ይፈጥረሉ ኣይፈጥረሉን

ጉድለኣዊ ምይይጥ/ምርድዳእ

1. ካብ ገጠር ዝግበር ስደት ዝህልዎ ሳዕብዮን ከመይ ትርድእዎ?

2. ኣብዚ ወረዳ እንታይ ዓይነት ስደት ይግበር (ወቕታዊ፣ ሕጋዊ፣ ዘይሕጋዊ ፣ ናብ ከተማ ፣ ናብ ካለኣ ገጠር ከባቢ፣ ናብ ወፃኢ ሃገር)?

3. ኣብዚ ወረዳ ዝግበር ስደት መጠኑ ከመይ ትገልጹዎ?

❖ መንቐልታት ስደት

4. ኣብዚ ወረዳ ዝግበሩ ስደታት መንቐሊኦም እንታይ እዩ?

5. ካብዞም መንቐልታት ንወጣት ብዝበለፀ ዘደፋፍኡ ኣይኖት እዮም?

6. ትምህርቲቤታት ብምዕፃዎም መናእሰይ ወይ ተምሃሮ ስደት ከም ብሕታዊ መማረቢኦም ገደሮም ይርእዎ ኢልኮም ዶ ትኣምኑ? ከመይ?

❖ ስዓብዮናት ካብ ገጠር ዝግበሩ ስደት

7. ካብ ገጠር ዝግበሩ ስደታት ብምንታይ ትልክዕዎም (ናይ ስደት ምትእስሳር)

8. ኣብ ከባቢያዊ ዕብዮት ዘምዕኡ ስዓብዮን እንታይ እዩ ኢልኩም ትሓስቡ?

9. ስደት ኣብ ድኽነት ፣ጥዕና፣ ግብርና፣ ከተማ ዕብዮት፣ ናይ ገዛ ኣሰራርሓ፣ ማዕርነት፣ ትምህርቲ፣ መዓልታዊ ኣቅርቦትን እንሸሰትመትን ኣወንታዊ ለውጢ ዶ ታዓዝብኩም?

10. ስደት ኣብ ድኽነት ፣ጥዕና፣ ግብርና፣ ከተማ ዕብዮት፣ ናይ ገዛ ኣሰራርሓ፣ ማዕርነት፣ ትምህርቲ፣ መዓልታዊ ኣቅርቦትን እንሸሰትመትን ኣሉታዊ ለውጢ ዶ ታዓዝብኩም?

11. ካብ ስደተኛ ዝለኣክ ገንዘብ ኣብ መነባብሮ ስደተኛ፣ ስድራቤቱ ወይ ኣብቲ ማሕበረ ሰብ ርኡይ ለውጢ ዶ ኣለዎ? ከመይ?

12. ብጠቅላላ ካብ ገጠር ዝግበር ስደት ኣብ ድሕንነት፣ ሕጉስ መነባብሮ፣ ናይ ተሰዳታይን ስድራቤቱን ከምኡ እውን ኣብቲ ማሕበረሰብ ከመይ ትርድእዎ።

13. ካብ ስደተኛ ዝልኣኽ ገንዘብ ኣብ ከባቢያዊ ዕብዮት ጉድኣት /ለውጢ ኣለዎ ዶ?

ቃለ መጠይቅ

ንፋሱጣት ሰባት ዝግበር ቃለ መጠይቅ

ናይ ጠያቂ ስም _____ ፊርማ _____ ዕለት ___/___/___ ዓ/ም

እዚ ቃለ መጠይቅ ክፍቲ ዝኮነን ቅርጾም ዘይሓለውን ሕቶታት ዝሓዘ ኮይኑ ንተሳተፍቲ ብግልፂን ብነፃነትን ሓሳቦም ክገልፁ ዝፈቕድ እዩ።

❖ ሓፈሻዊ ሕቶታት

1. ካብ ገጠር ዝግበር ፍልሰት ኣብዚ ከባቢ ኣተሓሳሳቢ ጉዳይ ድዩ ? ከመይ ?

2. ኣብ ወረዳ ኣሕፈሮም መጠን ካብ ገጠር ዝግበር ስደት ከመይ ትገልፅዎ?

❖ መንቐልታት ካብ ገጠር ዝግበሩ ስደታት

3. ኣብዚ ወረዳ እቶም ዋና መንቐልታት ስደት እንታይ እንታይ እዮም?

4. ንምንታይ እዮም ኣብዚ ከባቢ ናብ ካሊኦ ገጠር ከባቢ ዝስደዱ?

5. ኣብዚ ከባቢ ዘሎ ስደት እንታይ ዓይነት (ካብ ገጠር ናብ ገጠር፣ ካብ ገጠር ናብ ከተማ፣ ካብ ገጠር ናብ ወፃኢ ሃገር)

❖ ሳዓብዮናት ካብ ገጠር ዝግበሩ ስደታት

6. ካብ ገጠር ዝግበር ስደት ኣብ ስድራቤትን ማሕበረ ሰብን እንታይ ስዓብዮን ኣለዎ?

7. ስደት ኣብ ድኽነት ፣ ጥዕና፣ ግብርና፣ ከተማ ዕብዮት፣ ናይ ገዛ ኣሰራርሓ፣ ማዕርነት፣ ትምህርቲ፣ መዓልታዊ ኣቅርቦትን እንሸሰት መትን ኣወንታዊ ለውጢ ዶ ታዓዝብኩም?

8. ስደት ኣብ ድኻነት ፣ጥዕና፣ ግብርና፣ ከተማ ዕብዮት፣ ናይ ገዛ ኣሰራርሓ፣ ማዕርነት፣ ትምህርቲ፣መዓልታዊ ኣቅርቦትን እንሸስትመትን ኣሉታዊ ለውጢ ዶ ታዓዝብኩም?

9. ብምክንያት ካብ ስደተኛ ዝተሰብሰበ ገንዘብ ኣብ ማሕበረ ሰብን ከባቢን ዝተሰርሑ ዕውታት ስራሕቲ ኣለው ዶ?

10. ብምክንያት ስደት መፍረያይ ሓየሊ ሰብ ዝተጎደእ ከባቢያዊ ልምዓት/ዕብዮት ኣሎ ዶ?

11. ብጠቅላላ ካብ ገጠር ዝግበር ስደት ኣብ ድሕንነት፣ ሕጉስ መነባብር፣ ናይ ተሰዳታይን ስድራቤቱን ከምኡ እውን ኣብቲ ማሕበረሰብ ከመይ ትርድእዎ?

12. ካብ ገጠር ዝግበር ስደት (ካብ ገጠር ናብ ገጠር፣ካብ ገጠር ናብ ከተማ፣ ካብ ገጠር ናብ ወፃኢ ሃገር) ኣብ ስደተኛን ስድራቤቱን ዘለዎ ኣሉታዊን ኣዎንታውን ለውጢ እንታይ እዩ?