

**ADDIS ABABA UNIVERSITY
SCHOOL OF GRADUATE STUDIES
COLLEGE OF SOCIAL SCIENCES
DEPARTMENT OF SOCIAL ANTHROPOLOGY**

**Migration Decisions and Experiences: A Study of Migrants
from *Sekela Woreda (West Gojjam)* to Addis Ababa**

**In Partial Fulfillment of the Requirements for the Award of
Master of Arts Degree in Social Anthropology**

**By: Fikremariam Yoseph H/Mariam
ID No.GSE/1348/05**

Advisor: Dr. Fekadu Adugna

**JULY, 2016
ADDIS ABABA**

ADDIS ABABA UNIVERSITY
SCHOOL OF GRADUATE STUDIES
COLLEGE OF SOCIAL SCIENCES
DEPARTMENT OF SOCIAL ANTHROPOLOGY

**Migration Decisions and Experiences: A Study of Migrants from *Sekela*
*Woreda (West Gojjam) to Addis Ababa***

By: Fikremariam Yoseph H/Mariam

Approved by Board of Examiners:

Advisor

Signature

Examiner

Signature

Examiner

Signature

Declaration

I, Fikremariam Yoseph, declare that this thesis is my original work and has never been presented for a degree in any other university and that all sources of materials used for this thesis have been duly acknowledged.

Approved by:

Fikremariam Yoseph

Candidate

Confirmed by:

Dr. Fekadu Adugna

Advisor

Signature: _____

Signature: _____

Date: _____

Date: _____

Acknowledgements

First and foremost, I praise God who works everything for his own ends and granting me the capability to proceed.

I would also thank my advisor Dr Fikadu Adugna for his guidance and valuable feedback he provides me with.

I want also to express special thanks to the respondents, who spent their valuable time and shared their knowledge and experiences with me. Last but not least, I want to thank my wife, Meskerem Shenkute, my daughter Haleluya and my family and friends for their patience and lovely support.

Table of Contents

<i>Contents</i>	<i>Page</i>
Acknowledgements.....	i
Table of Contents.....	ii
List of Tables.....	v
List of Figures.....	v
Acronyms and Abbreviations.....	vii
Abstract.....	viii
CHAPTER ONE.....	ix
Introduction.....	ix
1.1. Background of the Study.....	ix
1.2. Statement of the Problem.....	1
1.3. Objectives of the Research.....	3
1.3.1. General Objective.....	3
1.3.2. Specific objectives.....	3
1.4. Research Questions.....	3
1.5. Research Approach And Methods.....	4
1.5.1. Methods of Data Collection.....	4
1.5.1.1. Primary Data Collection Methods.....	4
1.5.1.2. Secondary Source of Data.....	5
1.5.2. Methods of Data Analysis.....	5
1.6. Significance of the study.....	6
1.7. Scope and Limitation of The Study.....	6
1.7.1. Scope of the Study.....	6
1.7.2. Limitation of the Study.....	6
1.8. Organization Of The Study.....	6
CHAPTER TWO.....	Error! Bookmark not defined.
Literature Review.....	8
2.1. Theoretical approaches to migration decision-making research revised.....	8
2.1.1. The Lewis Dual Sector Model.....	8
2.1.2. Todaro Model on Migration.....	9
2.1.3. Structuralist Theory.....	10
2.1.4. Social Network Theory.....	11
2.1.5. Migration as a Livelihood Strategy.....	12

2.2. Conceptual Framework

2.3. Empirical Studies	13
CHAPTER THREE	15
<i>Sekela Woreda</i> , Geographical and Socioeconomic Information	15
3.1. Geographical Overview	15
3.2. Climatic Conditions	16
3.3. Demographic Characteristics	17
3.4. Livelihood Bases	17
3.5. Social Infrastructure	18
CHAPTER FOUR	19
Background Characteristics of the Migrants	19
4.1. Who are the Migrants	19
4.1.1. Age of migrants	19
4.1.2. Highest level of schooling completed	20
4.1.3. Cross Tabulation of Age and Education	21
4.1.4. The Average size of the families the Migrants came from	22
4.1.5. Age of migrants on the first move to Addis Ababa	23
4.1.6. Migration Trend	23
CHAPTER FIVE	25
Decision making	25
5.1. Individual and Household Migration Decision Making	25
5.2. What Influence The Decision	Error! Bookmark not defined.
5.2.1. Job Availability	26
5.2.2. Wage difference	27
5.2.3. Landlessness	27
5.2.4. Losses of both or either parents	29
5.3. Communication/Information	29
5.4. Who influence The Decision	31
5.4.1. Self	32
5.4.2. Family/Relatives	33
5.4.3. Friends	34
CHAPTER SIX	35
Experiences of migrants in Addis Ababa: Expectations and Realities	35
6.1. Arrival In Addis Ababa	35
6.2. Support From Relatives and friends in Addis Ababa	36

6.3. Work characteristics of migrants.....	37
6.3.1. Mode of work/payment.....	37
6.3.2. Work experience in the village and other place in Ethiopia	40
6.3.3. Duration of working away from village.....	41
6.3.4. Work experience in different jobs in Addis Ababa	42
6.3.5. Job Conditions	42
6.4. Living Conditions.....	43
6.4.1. Housing characteristics	44
6.4.2. Household possessions.....	44
6.4.3. Ownership of agricultural land	45
6.5. Accommodation In Addis Ababa	45
6.5.1. Mode of payment of house rent in Addis Ababa.....	47
6.5.2. Cost of living and daily expenses in Addis Ababa	47
6.5.3. Food and Nutrition	48
6.5.4. Migrants' Savings and Expenditure	49
6.5.5. Experience Of Migrants :Expectation And Realities.....	49
6.6. The mechanism of remittance use and allocation	51
6.6.1. Migrants' plans for the money they make in Addis Ababa.....	51
6.6.2. The means of sending remittance	52
6.7.Plans for the future.....	60
6.7.1.Plans for staying in Addis Ababa.....	60
6.7.2.Migrants' long-term aims and goals.....	61
CHAPTER SEVEN	57
Summary and Conclusions	57
7.1. Introduction	57
7.2. Summary	57
7.3. Conclusion.....	59
References.....	60
Appendices.....	64
Appendix I- Interview Questions	
Appendix II Profiles Of Research Participants	

List of Table

Table 4.1. Age of migrants.....	19
Table 4.2. The size of the families the Migrants came from.....	22
Table 4.3. Age at first movement from village for work in Addis Ababa.....	23
Table 6.1. How did rural migrants find their current jobs in Addis Ababa.....	38
Table 6.2. Work Characteristics.....	39
Table 6.3. Work experience in the village and other place in Ethiopia.....	42
Table 6.4. Duration of working away from village	43
Table 6.5. Housing characteristics of migrants	45
Table 6.6 . Percentage of households possessing various household Items	46
Table 6.7 . Ownership of agricultural land in origin among migrant laborers in Addis Ababa	47
Table 6.8. Mode of payment of housing rental	48
Table 6.9. Minimum, maximum, and average daily expenses of food	49
Table 6.10. Migrants' evaluation of their migratory experience in Addis Ababa	51
Table 6.11. Migrants' plans for the money they make in Addis Ababa	53
Table 6.12. Migrants' intentions to stay in Addis Ababa or return to the village.....	55
Table 6.13. Migrants' long-term aims and goals	57

List of Figures

Figure 2.1. Conceptual Framework	9
Figure 3.1. Location Maps Of West Gojjam Zone In Amhara Region	17
Figure 3.2. Location Map of the Study Woreda	18
Figure 4.1. Educational Level.....	20
Figure 4.2. Cross Tabulation of Age and Education.....	21
Figure 4.3. Migration with Time Range of the Study	24
Figure 5.1. Graphical Presentation of Factors in rural urban migration	26

Figure 5.2. Graphical Presentation of migrants family who own land and not	29
Figure 5.3. Graphical Presentation of who influence in decision making	33
Figure 6.1. Graphical presentation of visiting permanently settled relative in Addis Ababa	37
Figure 6.2. Graphical presentation of job condition in Addis Ababa	44
Figure 6.3. Graphical presentation of migrants room partner	47
Figure 6.4. Graphical presentation of how migrants send money to their families and relatives in the village of origin	54

Acronyms and Abbreviations

AA: Addis Ababa

CSA: Central Statistical Agency

FGD: Focus Group Discussion

HH: Household

ICPS: Inter Censual Population Survey

Abstract

The main objective of the study is to examine the socio-cultural context in which the decision to migrate are made and migrants experience focusing from Sekela Woreda to Addis Ababa. More specifically, the study attempted to identify kind of ties migrants maintain at the destination and previous place of residence as well as examine what factor initiates the aspiration to migrate and who influence the migration. To attain these objectives, the study accessed both primary and secondary data sources. The primary data was collected in the field occupied a central place in my study. My fieldwork was period divided into (i) in-depth interviews with 30 migrants and (ii) one focus group meetings with five participants. The actual sample size varied on the number of migrants available in each neighbor located at Lafto, Mebrat hile, and Kera areas but a total of 30 migrants have been participated. The study found that Migrants made a decision for moving to Addis Ababa due to a social network to enhance economic wellbeing which encompasses employment and better wage. The ability to adopt migration as an alternatives was affected by the degree of social inclusion/exclusion, reflected in access to someone they know at their destinations. These networks channel migrants to specific selective jobs in the city and in turn force migrants to forge Kinship/Origin group networks. Since the network is heavily Kinship/Origin based, it is restricted to a narrow scope of contacts often within a certain sector of the economy, it offers migrants few social connections and therefore limits their upward social mobility.

CHAPTER ONE

Introduction

1.1. Background of the Study

The phenomenon of migration is as old as the existence of human being on earth. Sosina and Holden (2014) cite the works of Inter Censual Population Survey (2013) shows the current level of migration trend. According to Sosina and Holden (2014), 49% of the current urban populations in Ethiopia are first generation migrants. A closer examination of the migration stream shows that, among all migrants in Ethiopia, rural to urban migrants account for 33%. The rest are migrants between urban areas 19% and those who migrate from urban to rural areas 11%. This indicates that historically there has been more movement of people within rural areas than between rural and urban areas or within urban areas. But the shift in recent years towards more rural-urban migration is also very clear from the data. Among recent migrants, rural to urban migrants account for 39% while the rural to rural migrants account for only 27%. Addis Ababa is the most favored destination for migrants. According to Central Statistic Agency (2013), youth are the most mobile section of the society and account for 60% of the recent migrants.

The focus of this research thesis is youth migrants from *Sekela Woreda, West Gojjam* to Addis Ababa. Based on the 2007 Census conducted by the Central Statistical Agency of Ethiopia (CSA), this Zone has a total population of 2,106,596, of whom 1,058,272 are men and 1,048,324 women; with an area of 13,311.94 square kilometers. A total of 480,255 households were counted in this zone, which results in an average of 4.39 persons to household and 466,491 housing units. According to the World Bank Memorandum (2004), the average rural household has 1.1 hectare of land (compared to the national average of 1.01 hectare of land and an average of 0.75 for the Amhara Region) and the equivalent of 0.7 heads of livestock. 19.5% of the population is in non-farm related jobs, compared to the national average of 25% and a regional average of 21%. 61% of all eligible children are enrolled in primary school, and 11% in secondary schools.

It is common to see group of 10 to 15 teenage boys wearing green outfit with scarf usually around taxi stand to carry passengers' goods or travel from place to place in search for people who want to try their luck by buying one of the lottery ticket they sell.

Migration studies are useful in providing an overall picture of migration trends and patterns. The actual dynamics of the decision-making process at the individual and household levels have been inadequately addressed. The failure of neo-classical economic approaches employed in migration studies to put the migration decision into its socio-cultural context and to acknowledge the importance of social network in the decision-making process constitute a simplistic view of what actually happens at the initial stage of migration processes. However, migration decision-making is a complex process that involves a great deal of conflicts, compromises and negotiations between household members and is influenced by family, friend ties in the origin and destination place.

If migration-related policies are to be effective, they must affect the decision making of individuals and household (Harbison, 1981). Understanding how the decision to move is made at the individual and household levels is critical to predicting future trends and patterns as well as informing migration-related policies.

The decision to move is often the result of deliberations over an extended period of time, implying a careful weighing of pros and cons (Sell and De Jong, 1978). It reflects not only individual motives, economic or social, but also how the migrant sees him/herself in relation to others, his/her socio-cultural background. Given the crucial role of family in the social life in Ethiopia, it is impossible to analyze migration decision making in isolation of its socio-cultural background and family relations. Winkels (2004) has made one of the very first attempts to put migration decision making into the context by studying how migrant networks influence the motivation for, and patterns of migration.

1.2. Statement of the Problem

People naturally prefer to stay in a locality where they have been raised up and lived in the ethnic community with whose members they share the language and culture, rather than find themselves among strangers. One of the reason men and women move from one area to another is in face of unfavorable circumstances at their own end and desirable outcome at the proposed

destination. The problem of poverty and lack of opportunities in rural areas are also presented and identified as push factors, while urban job opportunities is the pull factor.

It is a common phenomenon that rural urban migrant workers moved in large scale to urban areas in the processes of industrialization and urbanization, and it could be proved by the previous experience of developed countries. In Europe, the period of the 18th century was marked by a rural/country side to urban areas migration. There are different reasons as to why people migrate into urban area. Since urban areas are known to be places where money, services, wealth and opportunities are centralized, many migrants move from rural to urban for reason of seeking fortunes and social mobility (Jansen, 1970).

Another cause of rural-urban migration is urban bias. Government policies supporting disproportionate increases in wage rates and employment opportunities in the urban areas contribute to imbalances in the rural urban landscape. Migration should be seen as an equilibrating response to disequilibrium existing in the economy. As long as there are gaps in rural-urban employment opportunities caused by urban bias, there will be migration (McCatty, 2004).

Birhan (2011) stated rural push factors are stronger than urban pull factors. According to Birhan the reasons for migration are drought, famines, lack of alternative employment, lack of investment and economic growth. On the other hand, migrants' perceptions of the destination town are highly exaggerated. Belay (2011) found out that the migration rate is higher for those age group belong 15-20 years. In regards to sex, marital status, parent economic condition, family size and head of household the migrant are single, and they are from families of larger size, poor economic condition & female headed households. Alula and Feleke (2005) findings show that pattern of migration is rural to urban rather than rural to rural and urban to rural. The reason is due to poverty in rural areas and increased construction works in urban areas.

The above mentioned causes of action such as the process of industrialization, and urbanization, urban bias development plan and poverty have some but not equal efficiency for the desired objective(s) that is the decision to migrate and migrants experiences .To get alternative insights for the reasons why migration takes place it is essential to understand who influence the decision to migrate . Therefore, the role self, family/relatives and friends play on migration decision making as well as migrants' work and life in the cities would be the focus of this research.

This research has been carried out among migrants from a single rural point of origin, which is from *Sekela Woreda, West Gojjam*. This approach assumes that out-migration from a single community sheds light on cultural and social priorities of migrants, and measures urban influences on specific hinterland areas. Such investigations will yield significant information on migrants as well as on the general relationship between rural-urban migrations.

Finally, the research can be limited to a single rural community of origin and a single urban destination. Research of this kind is generally carried out in two stages: first conducts ethnography in the rural community; subsequently the researcher follows a small group of migrants to a specific city. However, this study investigated migrant groups at the destination only.

1.3. Objectives of the Research

1.3.1. General Objective

The general objective of the study was to assess the socio-cultural context in which the decision to migrate are made and migrant's work and life at the destination.

1.3.2. Specific objectives

- To identify who influence the migrants' decision to migrate.
- To identify kind of ties migrants maintain at the destination.
- To identify kind of ties migrants maintain at origin region.
- To examine migrant's experiences at the destinations.

1.4. Research Questions

- Who influence the migrants?
- What kind of ties migrants maintain to origin and destination?
- How migrant networks form, and influence migration streams as well as migrant experiences?
- What are the migrant's experience?

1.5. Research Approach and Methods

The research has been carried out at *Lafto*, *Mebrat hile*, and *Kera* areas located in Addis Ababa. The researcher made focus on the social and cultural context in which the decision to migrate are made and its consequences. The reason for the research was the assumption that rural urban migration tend to involve household decision making, kinship bond and obligation, as well as to assess the cultural norms and social arrangements surrounding the decision to migrate. The decision to migrate and experience of these migrants outside their place of birth worth a study.

In developing the knowledge about migration, it was the researcher belief that the nature of the reality or the social phenomena surrounding migrants decision are created from the network the migrants built and consequent action of migrants. Thus, an in depth interviews and focus group discussion were conducted in person to examine a concise but comprehensive way the main issues involved in researching migratory phenomena through qualitative study.

The 30 migrants were selected based on judgmental or purposive sampling procedure in a way to ensure the quality of the participants' ability to provide the desired information about self and social setting.

The selection of 30 out of 50-60 migrants undertook based on the assessment of how many migrants hang out in each neighborhoods or migrants stand about that is *Lafto*, *Mebrat hile*, and *Kera*. After that, the researcher engaged in screening how many of them supposed to be under parents control and in school age at least by the time they decided to migrate.

The reason for the choice of this approach was on the assumption that migration studies using positivist approaches along with the associated qualitative method in rural urban migration studies can generate the information about social reality in all its epistemological and ontological depth.

1.5.1. Methods of Data Collection

1.5.1.1. Primary Data Collection Methods

The primary data collected in the field occupied a central place in this study. The fieldwork period was divided into (i) an in-depth interviews with 30 migrants and (ii) one focus group discussions with five participants.

The main objective of the interviews with migrants was to understand who the migrants are and how they experience decision-making prior to their move as well as how they perceive migration's impacts on their life afterward. The actual sample size varied on the number of migrants available in each neighbor that is *Lafto, Mebrat hile, and Kera* but a total of 30 migrants have been participated. The interviews followed a free conversational style using a checklist of key issues in order to ensure that all needed information has been collected.

In the first round of the interview with migrants, the researcher conducted an interview with youth participants. The interview questions used for this activity included basic questions about the household assets, especially arable land, and sources of income in both their birth places and destinations. For this, in-depth interviews were used to understand the migrant's background and decision-making context. The aim of organizing focus groups meetings was to explore in more detail the decision making process and their experience after migration. The sessions have been held with five participants. Participants were migrants from *Sekela Woreda, West Gojjam Amhara Region*.

1.5.1.2. Secondary Source Of Data

Secondary data has been used from different research strands such as prior documentation, government report including books, previous research, census, historical data and information as well as other related data base like web information. These wealth of previous work served as a base line with which the prior data compared to the ethnographic reality on the ground.

1.5.2. Methods of Data Analysis

To understand the research problem and to allow future studies and examination, what is collected using in depth interview and Focus Group Discussion were analyzed through qualitative method by quantifying the relationship between the variables using descriptive statistic and labeling/quoting a unit of data that is either in a sentence, a number of sentences or a complete paragraph with the appropriate category (or categories) to reducing and rearranging the data into a more manageable and comprehensive form and finally to develop valid and well grounded conclusion.

1.6. Significance of the study

To place the contribution of this study within the field of migration theory, several relevant dimension of migration research has been reviewed. The first is the research will serve as an input for further study in the area of decision making processes in migration as well as migrants experiences in Addis Ababa. In a broader sense, the study will show how having a network or interpersonal ties initiate the actions of decision making and easy the adjustment processes at the destination.

Numerous studies have now documented the fact that the least developed world rates of rural urban migration continue and in the case of Ethiopia significant number of the migrants are youth who are supposed to live and/or get support of parents. Thus, examining how migration scholars have conceptualized youth migrants and how these youth actively engage in the decisions that concern their lives, how they view migration and the ways they act upon their world.

1.7.Scope and Limitation of The Study

1.7.1.Scope of the study

In this study, the researcher have investigated the socio-cultural context in which the decision to migrate are made from *Sekela Woreda* to Addis Ababa and their experience in Addis Ababa. These migrants mainly hang out around *Lafto*, *Mebrathile*, and *Kera* areas. The respondents of this study consisted of 30 interviewees and five FGD participants who have moved from *Sekela Woreda*, West Gojjam to Addis Ababa in different period of time

1.7.2.Limitation of the Study

The study was limited to a single rural community of origin and a single urban destination. Research of this kind is generally carried out in two stages: first conducts ethnography in the rural community; subsequently the researcher follows a small group of migrants to a specific city. However, this study investigated migrant groups at the destination only .On top of this; translation was the problem as the researcher had to translate what the participants stated in Amharic into English.

1.8. Organization of The Study

This thesis is organized into seven different main chapters and other supplementary components. The first chapter focuses on the introductory parts of the study. It includes background of the

study, problem statement, study objectives, research questions, methods used to collect and analyze the relevant data, scope, limitation and significance of the study. The second chapter reviews relevant conceptual, theoretical and empirical frameworks regarding migration . The third chapter is all about the description of the study area and the people. It describes the study area's geographical location, climatic conditions, demographic characteristics, infrastructural developments and other relevant elements. The other three chapters are the findings and discussion parts of the thesis. Chapter four deals with background characteristics. Besides, chapter five focuses on the processes of decision making. Chapter six elaborates migrants' experiences in Addis Ababa. The final chapter summarizes the key findings of the study and draws concluding remarks. In addition to the main chapters, this thesis includes acknowledgements, abstract, references, appendices (fieldwork guiding questions), tables and maps.

CHAPTER TWO

Literature Review

2.1. Theoretical approaches to migration decision-making research revised

The five model analyzed in this literature review part provide a theoretical basis for an understanding of rural-urban migration. These models are: (1) Lewis Dual Sector Model which states that migration occurs between an industrial sector and an agricultural sector, (2) The Todaro Model which provides a theoretical argument, that migration is an economical decision where the individual or household decides to move if there is a higher expected income in the urban areas;(3) Structuralist theories which stressing the importance of structural and systemic factors in decision-making at the expense of agency ,(4) Social network theory which highlights the importance of networks in migration (5) Livelihood approach which underlies that poor cannot only be reduced to passive victims but try to actively improve their livelihoods within the constraining conditions they live in.

2.1.1.The Lewis Dual Sector Model

The first theoretical work involving rural to urban migration is the Lewis 1954 model of development which explain the transition from a stagnating economy based on a traditional rural sector to a growing economy driven by the development of a modern urban sector (McCatty ,2004).

According to McCatty (2004), the Lewis Dual Sector model has two main sectors: An agricultural/rural sector characterized by low demand for labor, and an urban/industrial sector which has a high demand for labor.

As pointed out by McCatty (2004), Lewis assumed the agricultural sector to be purely subsistence characterized by surplus labor, low productivity, low incomes, and considerable underemployment. Some portions of the rural labor force were assumed to be redundant or surplus in nature, contributing nothing to output.

Lewis (1954) believes that in many underdeveloped countries an unlimited supply of labor is available at a subsistence wage. Economic development takes place when capital accumulates as a result of the withdrawal of surplus labor from the subsistence sector to the capitalist sector.

As pointed out by McCatty (2004) the Lewis Dual Sector model basically states that there is the existence of excess labor in the rural agricultural sector; therefore people migrate to the industrial sector to obtain employment. Besides, the urban manufacturing sector demands labor transfer so as to increase its productivity.

The Lewis model can be criticized in the context of its inapplicability to developing countries like Ethiopia. First, the model implicitly assumes that the rate of rural to urban labor migration would be 'proportional' to the rate of urban capital accumulation. Thus the faster the rate of capital accumulation the greater the growth of the modern sector and job creation and thus the greater the rate of rural-urban migration. But what the model did not take into consideration was the fact that rural urban migration in developing country like Ethiopia is not match the economic growth of the town to provide social service and job. As a result migrants end up in informal sectors.

2.1.2. Todaro model on migration

Todaro sees migration as an economic process and an individual act – a movement of individuals to maximize returns on their labor. Todaro (2003) is among the prominent proponents of this view that rural-urban migration proceeds in response to urban-rural differences in expected earnings and rural migrants behave as maximisers of expected utility. The decision to move is viewed as an individual rational act with the urban employment rate acting as an equilibrating force on such migration (Todaro, 2003).

The Todaro model has a number of relevance with regard to wages, incomes, rural development and industrialization in Developing Countries like Ethiopia . Since migration is shown to occur in response to expected income it is essential that urban and rural imbalances in economic opportunity could lead to migration.

Despite the widespread influence of the Todaro model on migration research, it has been criticized for considering the prospective rural migrants as isolated rational agents without taking into account the social networks around them, especially the household and wider family

networks (Curran and Saguy, 2001).

Individuals do not exist in isolation of each other but they all belong to certain social groups, networks, institutions, communities and households. Their living together is made possible by widely accepted rules, written and informal, in society (de Haan et al., 2002:39). These rules not only structure people's behavior but also reflect their views and perceptions.

It is necessary to acknowledge the economic approaches' valuable insights into individual autonomy and choices in decision-making but their failure to put decision-making into a socio-cultural context, especially in the context of family and other social networks, and a lack of interest in what determines individual desire led to criticisms of their analyses being oversimplistic and individualistic that cannot help to explain actual movements or predict future ones (Kabeer, 2000).

2.1.3. Structuralist Theory

Methodological individualism approach over-emphasizes human agency in decision making processes, the structuralist theory goes to another extreme by emphasizing the importance of structural and systemic factors in decision-making at the expense of agency. The different approach to the methodological individualism to migration is the structural approach in both its Marxist and non-Marxist version.

Marxist studies of migration have in common with the non Marxist structural approaches that they analyses and explain migration primarily at the level of social structure regardless of the motivation and perception of individual who are actual or potential migrants. The distinction between the Marxist and non Marxist structural thinking, therefore, lies in a different theory of social structure. Marxism interpret migration as the cause of the expansion of capitalism and stresses that migration will ultimately lead to the separation of migrant from their rural means of livelihood (Gerold-Scheepers and Van Binsbergen, 1977).

On the other hand, non Marxist approach stress pattern of social relationship in creating broad distinct group within a society, these group interact with one another , and through cooperation produce an integrated and self perpetuating society. Migration then appear as one of the ways in which interaction between group of people take place to perform various functions for group involved (Gerold-Scheepers and Van Binsbergen,1977).

The stress on structure, however, blurs the role of human agency in decision-making processes and emphasizes instead the significance of cultural and social influence on individual choice. Thus, sole focus on structural factors makes inadequate the structuralist theory to explain the dynamics and patterns of migration.

2.1.4. Social Network Theory

Social Network Theory highlights the importance of networks in migration. A significant body of literature shows that social networks can play leading role in explaining decision-making in the migration process .Once established, networks can lead to so-called chain migration and thus stimulate and perpetuate the migration process (Boyd 1989, Gurak and Caces 1992).

Networks can facilitate the decision whether to move or not. During their journey migrants ask for help from different individuals within the migration network, like family, friends, etc. According to Granovetter (1973), members of an ethnic network are supposed to be linked through a feeling of a common origin which is, in a way, a stronger tie than a functional binding. Strong ties which are common between or among neighbors, communities and families, are equally necessary for the functioning and the maintenance of a network.

On the other hand, the information flow is more warranted in close networks than in loose ones because members know and trust each other. Analyzing the importance of every single member for the functioning of the network, one can state that small networks are more dependent on individuals and large ones more on the fulfillment of the social roles provided (Simmel,1983).

To sum up, the Social Network Approach sets aside assumptions that the size of the migratory flow between region is solely related to wage differentials or employment rates because, whatever effects these variables have in promoting or inhibiting migration, they are progressively overshadowed by the risks of movement (Massey et al., 1998).

Furthermore, this approach could explain the phenomenon of ethnic niches in the labor market due to the labeling of certain jobs as migrant jobs . Nevertheless once migratory flow has become established, it becomes less selective in socio-economic terms and more representative of the sending community or society (Massey 1998:50).

2.1.5. Migration as a Livelihood Strategy

According to De Haas (2010), livelihood strategy has evolved as of the late 1970s among geographers, anthropologists, and sociologists who conduct research in developing countries. This made them argue that the poor cannot only be reduced to passive victims of global capitalist forces but try to actively improve their livelihoods within the constraining conditions they live in.

Ellis (1998), defined livelihood strategy as a strategic or deliberate choice of a combination of activities by households and their individual members to maintain, secure, and improve their livelihoods. This particular choice is based on access to assets, perceptions of opportunities, as well as aspirations of actors. Since these differ from household to household and from individual to individual, livelihood strategies tend to be so heterogeneous.

According to Bebbington (1999), migration has been increasingly recognized as one of the main elements of the strategies households employ to diversify, secure, and, improve their livelihoods. Empirical work suggested that migration is often a deliberate decision to improve livelihoods, enable investments and help to reduce fluctuations in the family income that often used to be largely dependent on climatic vagaries (De Haan et al., 2000, McDowell and DeHaan, 1997).

2.2. Conceptual Framework

The decision to migrate and migrant's experience at the destination can be seen in two ways: positive and negative. In one hand, if the increasing migrants accompanied by equal or greater economic growth both migrants and receiving community would benefit. On the other hand, increased number of people because of rural urban migration certainly puts pressure on available job opportunities and better wage has brought problems in urban areas. The most visible impact of growing migration is probably the rise in squatter settlements in main urban centers.

Individual and household ambition for migration trigger among other things by push factor at home that repel; examples include poverty, lack of jobs, unemployment etc. and pull factor refers to those conditions found elsewhere that attract migrants. There are many factors that cause voluntary rural-urban migration, such as urban job opportunities, better wage opportunities etc. Social networks as sources of information play a vital role in migration decision-making process as they exist in the form of interpersonal links that connect not only migrants from the

same region but also former migrants and non-migrants both in the place of origin and destination place (Massey *et.al.*, 1993: 448).

Classification of the decision making process

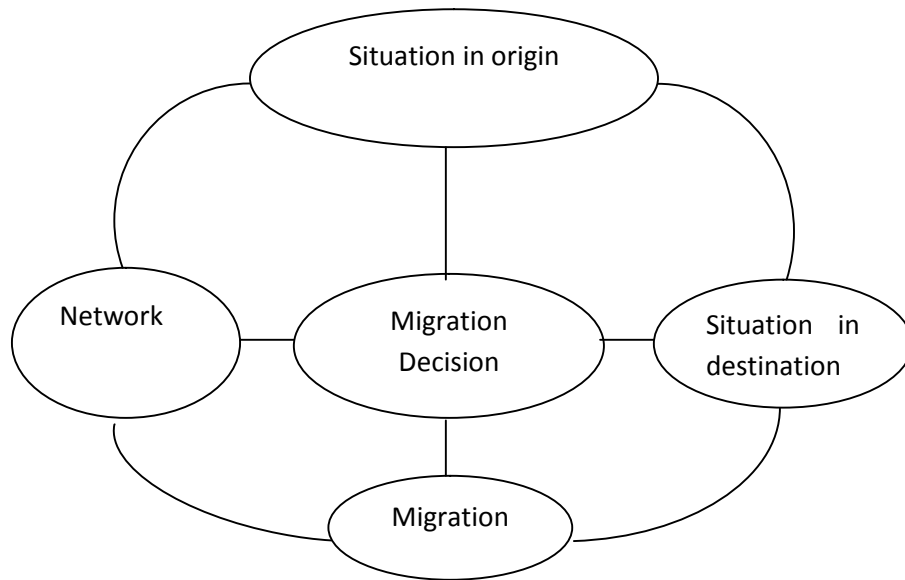


Figure2.1 Conceptual Framework

Source: Own Compilation

Thus, the factors that initiate the ambition to migrate may vary, however individual, family or friends may influence the decision to migrate as the cost of migration is reduced economically as migrants help each other to find jobs and accommodation. Socially, there is already an existing circle of friends where migrants can draw on to learn the culture of their destination area, to find work areas and accommodation . Psychologically networks help to maintain a feeling of solidarity among migrants when they are abused or exploited.

I find my approach closer to the role of social network play in decision-making . However, it is useful to revisit Lewis Dual Sector Model, Todaro Model on migration, structuralist theories on migration, and Livelihood approach which have been dominating migration research for decades.

2.3. The Empirical Studies

“.....the decision to migrate depends on a wide range of factors. The continuing flow of migrants to increasingly densely populated urban areas has generated

considerable interest in the study of those factors. However, it is not easy to assess the influences of the factors affecting the decision to migrate and the choice of destinations because migration varies in type, composition and direction.”(UN, 1984:84).

Despite difference on the theories of rural-urban migration, the trend is still happening in many developing countries. In this sub-section some of the common factors for decision making, and/or rural-urban migrations are outlined in light of empirical findings in different literature.

According to Eshetu (1970), the development of urban centers at the cost of the rural areas resulted in rural stagnation and increased poverty, forcing the people to leave their villages. Thus, the rural push due to the prevailing poverty conditions in the rural areas and not the urban pull or attractions that has been the main force for migration .

As far as the push factors concerned, different studies in Ethiopia specified that lack of rural employment opportunities, seasonality of agricultural work, inadequacy or lack of social and economic services, and natural disasters such as drought caused frequent crop damages and failure, ecological degradation and poverty in rural areas were the main forces for rural out migration (Ezra, 2001; Andargachew, 1992; Sileshi,1978; Mulenbach, 1976; Kloos,1982).

Kebede (1984) stated that the rural push factors have been strong forces in the movement of people from the rural to urban areas of Ethiopia than the urban pull factors. People migrate to improve their economic well-being when they are unable to satisfy their aspiration within the existing opportunity.

Kinfe (2003) pointed out the role of information in facilitating migration . Thus, access of information from relatives in the urban areas, returnee migrants or through mass medias would play a major role in rural-urban migration.

According to De Haas (2000), poverty is not necessarily the main cause of migration, and poverty migration links are complex and context-specific. The contributions of migration to reducing poverty are equally complicated. It is assumed that migration keeps the home area in poverty, but poverty could be worse if migration opportunities did not exist. The option of migrating is not available to all poor people, least of all the chronically and severely poor.

According to Waddington and sabates-wheeler(2003),the ability to adopt migration as a livelihood strategy is affected by the degree of social inclusion/exclusion. Many non-moving

individuals and households from a sending area are unable, unless ‘forced’, to choose migration to increase their circumstances due to prohibitive economic, social and psychological costs .

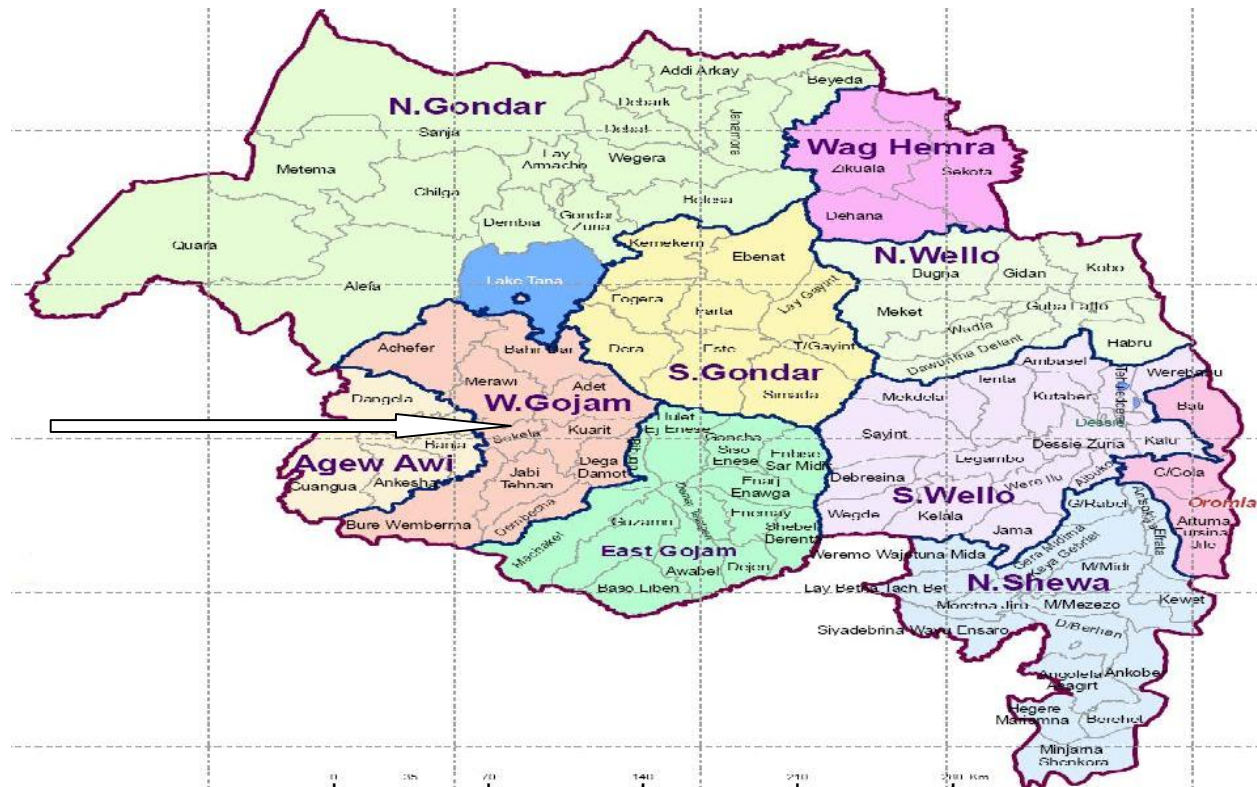
CHAPTER THREE

Sekela Wereda, Geographical and Socioeconomic Information

3.1. Geographical Overview

This study was conducted on migrants in Addis Ababa who came from *Sekela Woreda* of *West Gojjam*, Amhara Regional state of Ethiopia (See Location of Map below). *Sekela Woreda* is located at 459 km North West of Addis Ababa, the capital city of Ethiopia. It is located 160 km South East of Bahir Dar, the capital of Amhara National Regional State.

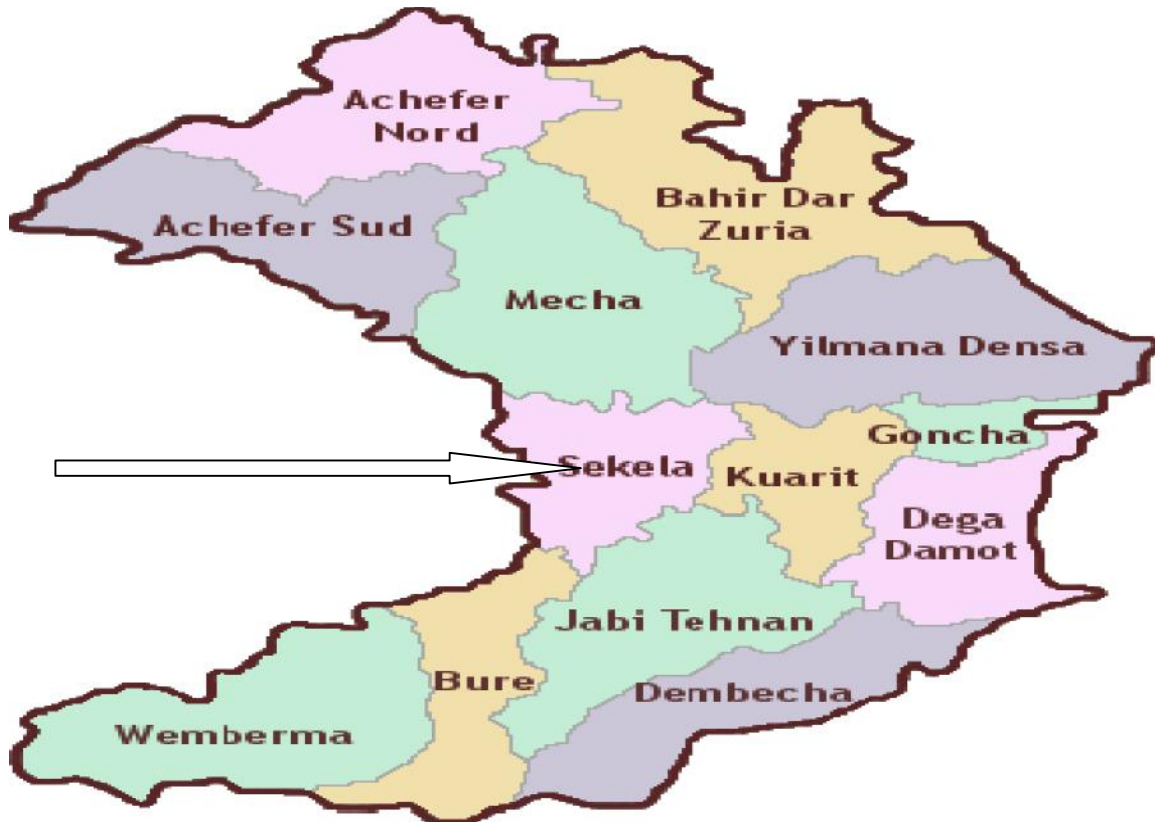
Figure 3.1: Location Maps Of West Gojjam Zone In Amhara Region



Source: Administrative Maps of Zones in Amhara Region (2006)

Topographically, *Sekela Woreda* is located at an elevation of 3062 meter above sea level. It is bordered on the southwest by *Bure Woreda*, on the west by *Awi Zone*, on the north by *Mecha Woreda*, on the northeast by *Yilmana Densa Woreda*, on the east by *Quarit Woreda* and on the southeast by *Jabi Tehnan Woreda*. The administrative center of *Sekela Woreda* is *Gish Abay* town (See Location Map below).

Figure 3.2: Location map of the Study Woreda



Source: *Sekela Woredas Maps in West Gojjam (2006)*

3.2. Climatic Conditions

Based on the traditional agro climatic zonation *Sekela Woreda* is characterized by 70% highland, 18% midland and 12 % lowland agro-ecological zones. Besides, the geographical location of the Woreda is also identified as 65% mountainous, 10% plateau and 25% of the area is valley. The average annual rainfall of the *Sekela Woreda* ranges from 1600mm to 1800mm and the mean annual rainfall ranges from 1,000mm to 2,000mm.

Agricultural activities are highly dependent on Kiremt (summer) rain which falls from June to September. But some households use irrigation, particularly for potato production.

3.3. Demographic Characteristics

According to CSA (2007), *Sekela Woreda* consists of 1 urban and 26 rural *Kebeles* with a total population of 138,691. With an area of 768.83 square km, it has a population density of 180.39 persons per square km, which is greater than the Zone average of 158.25 persons per square km. Only 4.89% of the total *Sekela Woreda* populations are urban residents and the majorities (95.11%) of the *Woreda* populations are rural residents. Besides, from 49.76% male population of the *Woreda*, 47.31% of them are living in rural areas and the remaining 2.45% are urban residents. In addition to that, from the 50.24% female populations of the *Woreda*, 47.79% of them are living in the rural areas and the other 2.44% are urban residents (CSA ,2007).

According to Central Statistical Agency of Ethiopia (2007), almost all populations of the *Sekela Woreda* are Amhara ethnic groups and 99.95% of them are Amharic language speakers. The remaining 0.05% populations are speakers of other languages such as *Agew, Tegregna, Oromifa* and others. Furthermore, 99.96% of the populations in *Sekela Woreda* are followers of Orthodox Christianity religion. The remaining 0.02%, 0.015% and 0.005% of the *Woreda* populations are Muslims, Protestants and other religions respectively.

2.4. Livelihood Bases

The economic base of *Sekela Woreda* population is crop production with mixed animal rearing. They are also involved in other off-farm activities. According to Muluneh (2015) who cite the *Sekela Woreda* Communication Office (2013), 98% of the *Woreda* populations have involved in agricultural activities. The main crops cultivated in the central highland areas of the *Woreda* are barley and potato and the bulk of these are produced for household consumption. Besides, the dominant crop types cultivated in the south west areas of the *Woreda* are Maize, Finger Millet and *Teff*.

On the other hand, the remaining 2% populations are participating in other off-farming economic activities such as trade, handicraft, animal fattening, *Arekie* distilling and other activities. In addition to that, the *Woreda* also has plenty of animal wealth such as 115,920 livestock, 116,742 sheep and Goat, 39,277 hen, 527 modern, 14 transitional and 6,292 traditional beehives (*Sekela Woreda* Communication Office 2013, cited in Muluneh Anmut 2015).

3.5. Social Infrastructure

Regarding the health service coverage of the *Woreda*. In 2013, 29 health posts and seven health centers were found in the *Woreda*. Moreover, the *Woreda* nearly finished the construction of 4 health posts and 2 health centers in different *Kebeles* (*Sekela Woreda* Communication Office 2013,cited in Muluneh Animut,2015).

Besides, Muluneh (2015) citing *Sekela Woreda* Communication Office (2013) states that educational institutions have expanded in the *Woreda*. Currently, there are 64 primary schools, 2 secondary schools, 1 general secondary and preparatory school and 1 technical and vocational training institute in the *Woreda*.

According to CSA (2007), the majority (98.73%) of houses in the *Woreda* are constructed by using wood and mud materials. But some houses (1.13%) of the *Woreda* are constructed from wood only and the remaining 0.14% houses are constructed from different construction materials like stone, bricks, bamboo and others.

Among the urban population which is only 4.89% of *Sekela Woreda*, 56.06% of them use tap water. But, out of 95.11% of the rural population, the main source of water for about 57.4% is either river; lake or pond (CSA, 2008) .

CHAPTER FOUR

Background Characteristics of the Migrants

4.1. Who are the Migrants

Migration theory tells us that some people are more likely to migrate than are others. If the groups who are most likely to migrate to big cities can be identified, future urban growth, and the impact of various socio-economic changes on the volume and the direction of rural–urban movement, can be predicted to some extent. The chapter helps understand the basic socioeconomic characteristics of migrants in Addis Ababa.

In this chapter, the following questions were being asked: Who are those people who migrate from *Sekela Woreda ,West Gojjam Zone* to work in the informal sector in Addis Ababa? What are their demographic, educational and socio-economic characteristics? The background characteristics of the interviewee sample (30 cases) are given below.

4.1.1.Age of migrants

Table 4.1. Age of migrants

Background characteristic	Frequency	Percent
Age(in 5 years age groups)		
11-15	3	10
16-20	14	46.67
21-25	7	23.33
26-30	6	20
Mean		20.7 years

Source: Field work, (2015)

Migrants' ages range between 11 and 30 years old. Respondents who are 11-15 years old comprise only 10 percent of the surveyed population. About 46.67 percent are between 16 and 20 years old. The highest concentration of laborers is found in this age group . About 23.33 percent are between age 21 – 25 and 20 percent are between age 26-30 years. The mean age of

migrants (at the time of Interview) is 20.7 years old. It is quite clear that the young people tend to experience rural–urban migration more than old people.

The basic demographic characteristics of migrant laborers in Addis Ababa are quite closely matched by other roughly comparable surveys. To take just one specific example, migrants to *Woldiya* town have almost identical age distribution to that recorded in Table 4.1: in *Woldiya* 67.9 percent of all rural urban were aged 15–29, compared to 65.2 percent aged 14–29 for Addis Ababa (Birhan ,2011).

4.1.2.Education Characteristics’

Regarding education, primary education is free in Ethiopia, but it also has an indirect cost for families who could otherwise engage their children in domestic work. Rural poor parents view children as an economic assets (Cain, 1977) and their attendance at school represents a deprivation of their earnings. Some parents cannot afford to send their children to school while others may be willing to sacrifice an extra income in order to provide education for their children. But if they dropped out of the school the decision to migrate for work is sometimes taken as an alternatives to school. This may happen in cases where the migrants has dropped out the school for different reasons.

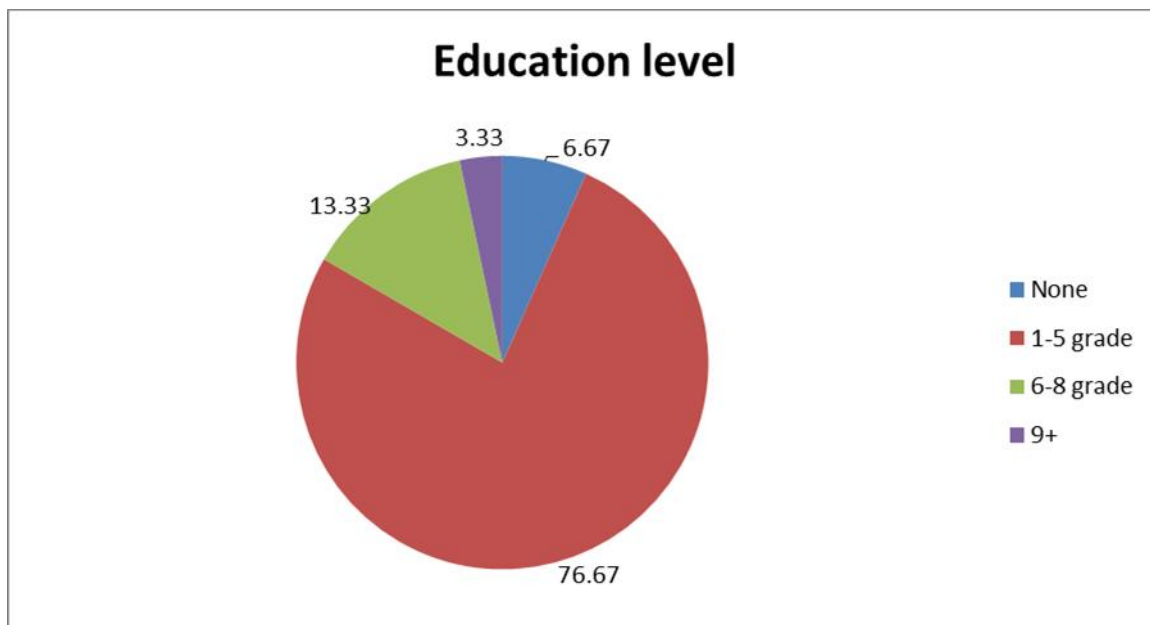


Figure 4.1: Education Level

Source: Fieldwork, (2015)

From the above graph it is found that educational background of the majority of the respondents (about 90 %) went to primary school thus can read and write while about 3.33 % complete high school and rest that is 6.67% have no formal education.

Amongst the rural–urban labor migrants who move from *Sekela Woreda* to Addis Ababa, those with lower educational standards constitute the overwhelming majority. The reasons mentioned by the migrants for their low level of educational status include unable to pass the exam and school drop-outs due to problems caused by family related issues. .One of the interviewee elaborated that the reason for school dropout and migration read as follow. “I am 19th years old and single. I have 5 sisters and 2 brothers. I dropped out the school at 3rd grade because I couldn’t pass the exam and as a result of this I repeated the class twice. I came from a large, landless family. And my migration to Addis Ababa is arranged by my parents.”

Another FGD participant who is 25 years old explained that that he has 3 sisters and two brothers. He had pre-migration visits to Addis Ababa, and he returned to continue his fourth grade to *Sekela*. Unfortunately, when he failed to pass the exam and repeated the class twice, he moved back again to Addis Ababa. So, the destination was not entirely strange to him. He picked up short periods of work in other places in *Birshaleko* but he found Addis Ababa generally better in terms of wage and availability of employment—even if the cost of living is high.

4.1.3. Cross Tabulation of Age and Education

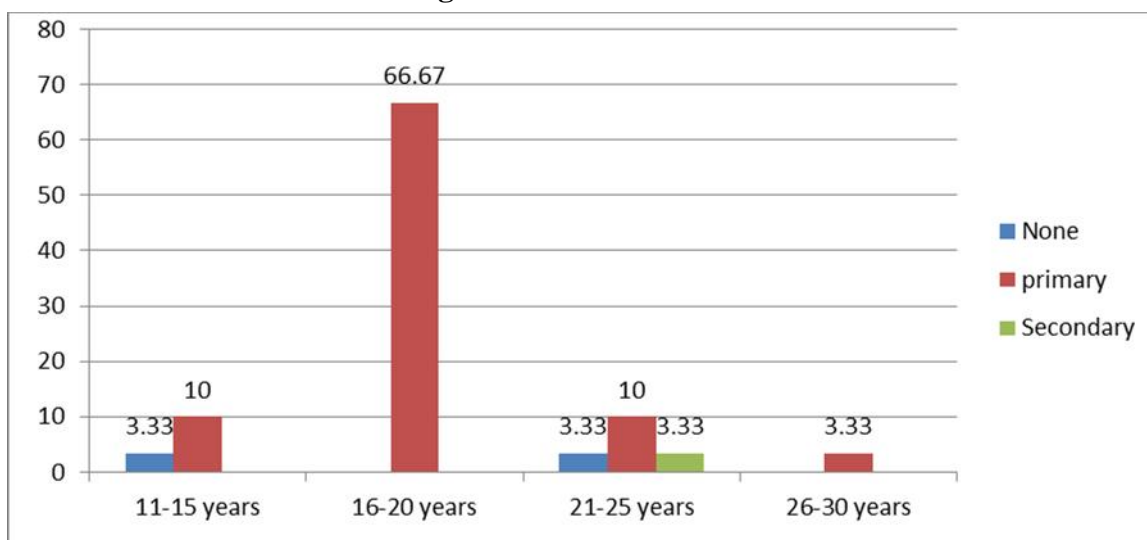


Figure 4.2: Cross Tabulation of Age and Education

Source: Fieldwork, (2015)

Next, is there a relation between age of migrants and education? The above graph may answer this question. After grouping educational status into three categories (no education, primary, and secondary school) and using five-year age groups, it is clear from the table that more than 66.67% of migrants found still in school age group, and even the remaining 33.33% of migrants by the time they migrated were supposed to be in school and/or under family. This shows that approval of migration¹ decision by family increase as children dropped out school and failed exam as well. In other word, those who detached from the basic institution such as school start their migration experience earlier.

4.1.4. The Average size of the families the Migrants came from

The family the interviewee came from ranges between 5 and 8 members with a mean of 6.06 individuals. According to the results of Ethiopian Statistical Agency (2007)the mean household size in *west Gojjam* was 4.39 individuals. This means that the surveyed migrants came from larger families (on average 6.06) than the average of the sending region. Table

4.2. The size of the families the Migrants came from

Place of Origin	Mean	Number
Sekela	6.06	30

Source: Fieldwork (2015)

Large family size is one of the reasons for living in poverty unless it is accompanied by equal or greater household income. Thus, migration is the alternative for poverty reduction because as eating hand get off from the household dishes its expense decrease. Poverty could be worse if migration opportunities did not exist. Income from migration may form a more important part of household income, as research in Ethiopia showed returnee may go straight into paying-off debts, or spent during annual festivals like *Meskel* in southern Ethiopia. Thus migration helps to reduce poverty, even though in many cases it does not radically improve living conditions

¹ A set of ideas or beliefs from which the decision to migrate is reached or on which decision to migrate are based.

4.1.5. Age of migrants on the first move to Addis Ababa

Age of Migrants on the first move reflects the start of the practical implementation of a set of decision-making and influencing factors.

Table 4.3 Age at first movement from village for work in Addis Ababa

Age Group	Frequency	Percent
11-15	13	43.33
16-20	12	40.00
21-25	5	13.33
26 -30	12	3.33
Mean \bar{x}/n		16.83
Total	30	100

Source: Fieldwork (2015)

Migrants started migration early in their life span, even as early as at the age of eleven. The modal concentration of cases is found between 11 and 30 years old, with the mean age of migrants at the first move being 16.83 years old (Table 4.5).

4.1.6. Migration Trend

The volume and trend of migration are determined by economic, social, physical, psychological, political, demographic, geographic and informational factors, as well as the impact of migration upon the rural and urban areas. People generally move from low-earning areas to high-earning areas. People may migrate from unproductive areas, areas having high pressure of population, and from areas where job opportunities are not sufficient. The uncertain economic condition and bleak economic prospects, as well government policies supporting disproportionate increases in wage rates and employment opportunities in the urban areas which contribute to imbalances in the rural urban landscape may initiate the ambition for migration. Migration should be seen as an equilibrating response to disequilibrium existing in the economy.

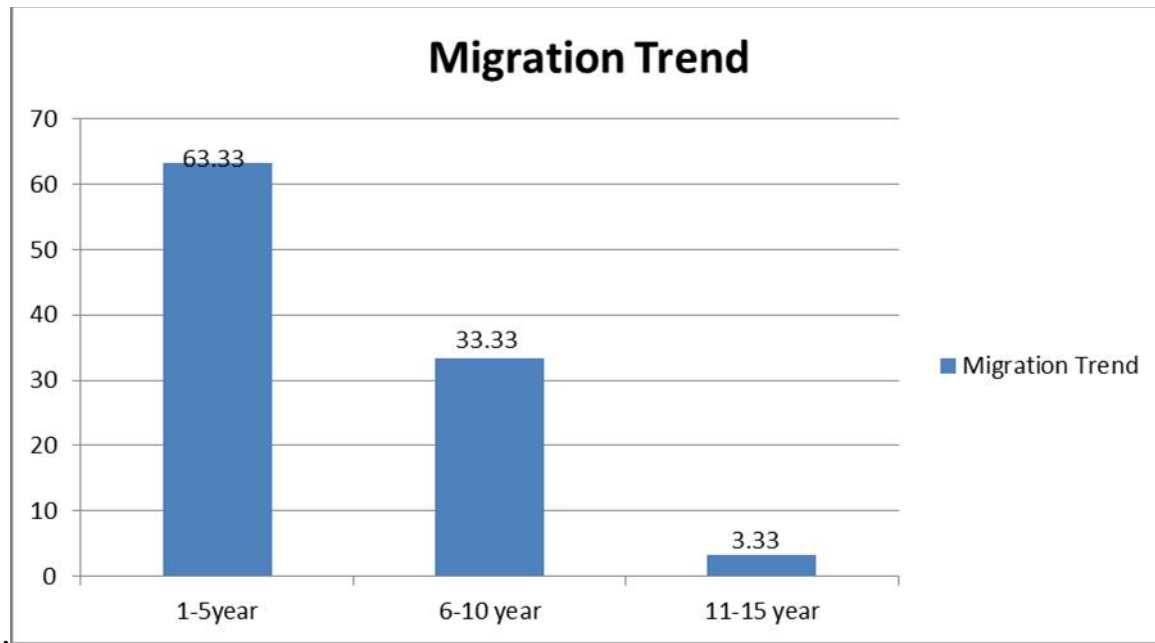


Figure 4.3: Migration with Time Range of the Study

Source: Field Survey, 2015

It is noticeable that migration trend has a dramatic relation with recent years. The above graph reveals that in the recent 1-5 years the trend is up warding. The migration range was down warding from 6-10 years. The lowest migration trend is seen from 11-15 years ago, migration trend were only 3.33%.

CHAPTER FIVE

Migration Decision Making Processes

5.1. Individual and Household Migration Decision Making

Individual migration decision-making can also be linked to Todaro (1969) which is an individual income maximization model. Individuals choose to move to locations where they can benefit. It is dependent on the expected values and utilities of the individual (Gubhaju and De Jong, 2009). Whereas household migration decision making theory argues that migration decisions of the household are based on a cost-benefit calculation of the unit, which also considers risk. Household decisions also depend on the demographic structure of the household, in particular, household size and household members. age-sex structure (Harbison, 1981).

5.2. Influencing Factors Behind Rural-Urban Migration

Every migrant have specific reason to take migration decisions. In this study it is called as influencing factors behind rural-urban migration. In most of the forms of rural-urban migration some factors work specifically as influencing factors. The factors mainly seen are shown in the

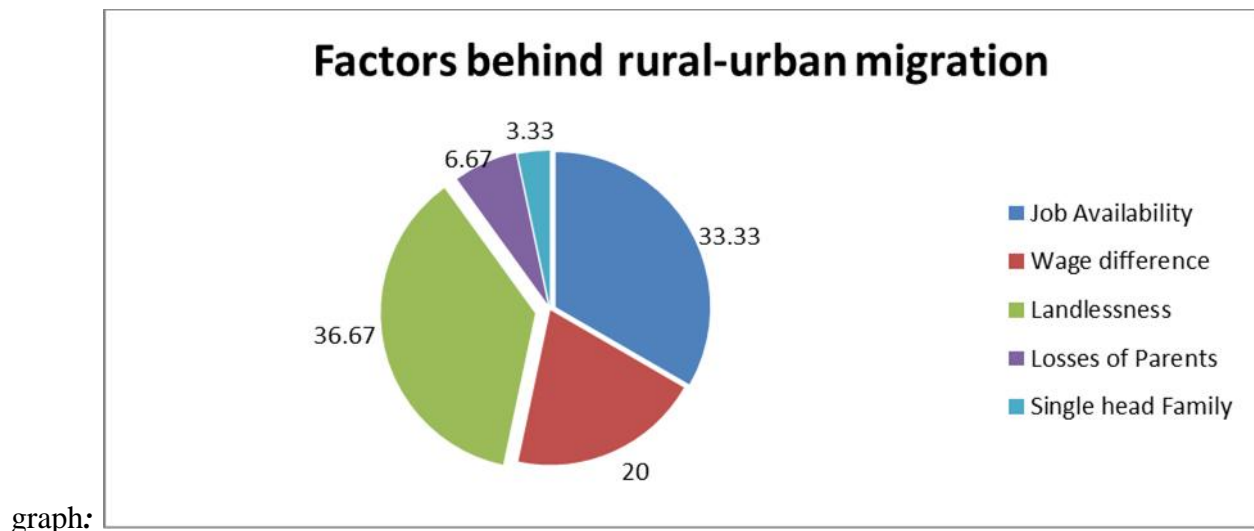


Figure 5.1: Graphical Presentation of Factors in rural urban migration

Source: Field Survey,(2015)

From the above graph, it can be seen that the highest range of migration usually triggered due to landlessness. Landlessness occupied first position i.e. 36.67% of total respondent. About 33.33% aspire for migration due to employment opportunity. About 20% people have migrated in

expectation of better income in Addis Ababa than *Sekela*. Most of them are bored of agriculture and/or find out any better opportunity in town. But somehow most do meet their expectation that is higher wage but high living cost make the reality different as most stated it. Again, the last but not the least about 10% come to Addis Ababa due to losses of both and/or either parents makes their life more hopeless and thus they decide to migrate to Addis Ababa for survival

5.2.1. Job Availability

When respondents were asked about whether they considered any other options before taking the decision to migrate to Addis Ababa, their answers reflected the rarity of alternatives available to them away from Addis Ababa. It seemed as if the decision of migration to Addis Ababa is the only solution to all of their problems. The main options were to stay in the village and accept seasonal work, or to continue to work the family's land.

One of the FGD participants elaborates the situation of employment in the village as follow. I am 25 years old and single. I have one young brother and three sisters. I dropped out from school at 5th grade following the death of my father and to support my younger siblings. Since my parents have not owned any land, I used to do casual works such as farming in my village. But the work was highly seasonal. Work opportunities are almost non-existent in the village. Even if I get the job, the wage is so small that can't be enough to cover my expenses as well as my siblings. I moved to Addis Ababa with the advice of friends from my village who told me about work opportunities in Addis Ababa. I traveled by bus and joined with them. I visited the village rather infrequently – to see one of my married sisters. The other three siblings live and work in Addis Ababa two of my sisters as house maid, and my brother work and live with me.

High levels of unemployment and poverty in rural areas due to the seasonal nature of job opportunities in the agricultural sector, and other aspects of the agrarian structure and rural life – such as the price of agricultural products and inputs – will also function as potential sources of ambition for migration. The variability of some of these elements at different times of the year - e.g. seasonal unemployment - may encourage migration

In addition to agrarian structure and rural life, government policies supporting disproportionate increases in wage rates and employment opportunities in the urban areas contribute to imbalances in the rural urban landscape. Migration should be seen as an equilibrating response to

disequilibrium existing in the economy. As long as there are gaps in rural-urban employment opportunities caused by urban bias, there will be migration (McCatty, 2004).

Linking those who mentioned that they had other options with their reasons for migration may explain that this group of migrants were not under pressure like others to generate income or get employed.

“I just want to live in Addis Ababa”, were some of the key factors nominated by the subgroup of respondents who felt that they had other options apart from the necessity to migrate.

5.2.2. Wage difference

In order to find out if there is a relation between wage difference and the flow of migration, the study showed that, all except one migrant know that there is wage difference between their previous and current place of residence.

However, one FGD participant said the decision of migrating is not available to all of us even if we know the wage difference until either relatives or friends invite us or assured us to welcome us up on arrival .

This implies that the ability to adopt migration is affected by the degree of social inclusion/exclusion.

Anybody who needs me to work for him/her can hire me with 8 Birr per day in my hometown. It is much less than here. One can find a job in my village, but for a lower income than here. Here, I can get a job for 40 to 60 Birr per day. It is much better than my hometown. When it is my best day, I can earn more than 100 Birr per day. My daily income here will be almost equivalent to my weekly income in the village .

In addition to the rarity and seasonality of job opportunities in *Sekela*, the wage difference is the most important encouraging factor in rural–urban migration. Laborers migrate to Addis Ababa to benefit from the difference in wages between rural and urban sectors

5.2.3. Landlessness

There are many reasons that lead to landlessness and excessive land fragmentation. Small plots of land divided among many members was said to lead to over-use of the soils leading to soil exhaustion and reduced productivity. As a result, many of these families are faced with food insecurity, low incomes and enhanced poverty.

Interestingly, migrants identified landlessness as a key factor that trapped them in poverty and led them to look for migration. Landlessness conceptualized in this context as having no ownership rights and /or excessive land fragmentation . Migrants indicated that having no or little land for cultivation exposes households to food insecurity. Little land means inability to expand production to feed the family and sell the surplus.

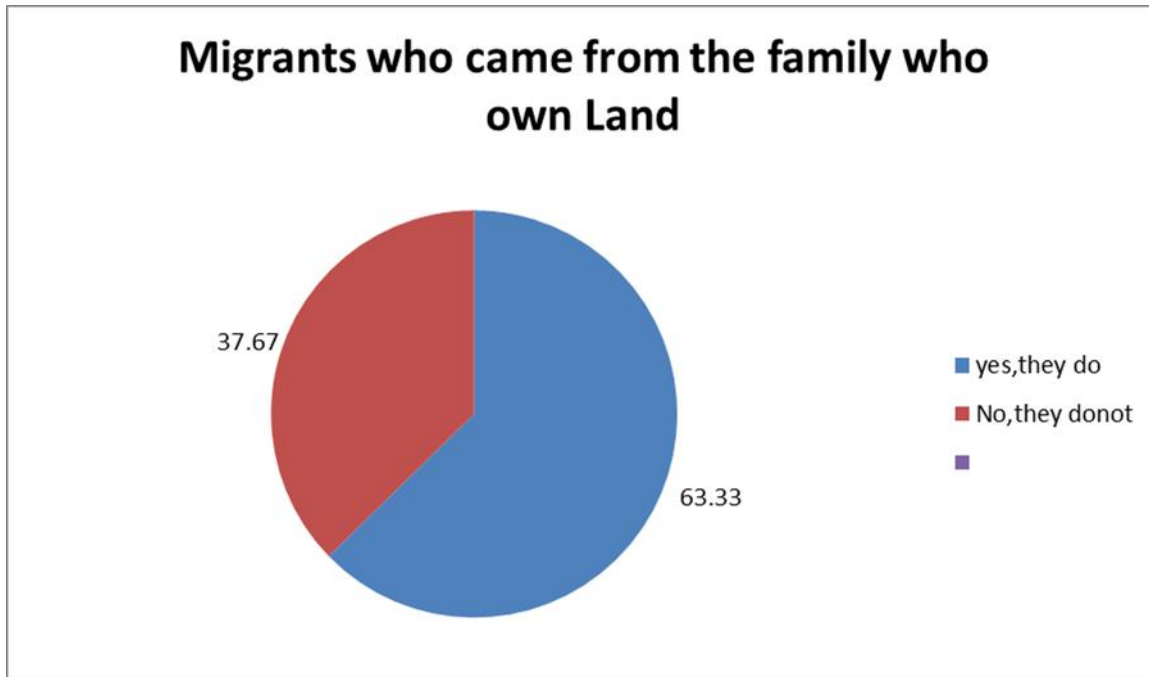


Figure 5.2: Graphical Presentation of migrants family who own land and not

Source: Field Survey, (2015)

From the above graph it is shown that landlessness is not a myth but a reality particularly among the chronically poor. Landlessness affecting 37.37 percent of the sampled population.

Possibilities of the chronically poor to move out of poverty diminish when they are faced with landlessness. Thus, landholding factors may initiate the aspiration to migrate. So migrants are able to take one or more of the following measures, depending on the circumstances they find themselves. One of the FGD participants explained that his parents are landless and couldn't send him to school because they do not have enough resources to meet their basic requirements. Thus, initially all member of the family looked for off-farm employment in the village and it was tough to get. As a result of this, all members of the family finally decided to migrate to Addis

Ababa. His parents live on begging for food and money to meet their basic needs. The rest of his siblings engage here in casual labor to earn a living.

The above example suggests that the chronically poor have little room to manoeuvre when they are faced with acute land shortages and/or landlessness.

5.2.4.Losses of both or either parents

Some study found that the loss of a parent was the most common reason for children decision to migrate .This study throws some light on the role of parental death in children's migration. In this study of youth migrants from *Sekela Woreda* to Addis Ababa, out of the 30 interviewed children, three of them fall into this category.

Some of these reported that they moved to Addis Ababa with their own initiative because of the desire to earn an income with which to support a widowed mother and/or siblings

One of the FGD participants narrated his own experience as follows: I am 25 years old and single. Both my parents are dead. I dropped out of school and followed my brother to Addis Ababa. My brother introduced me to his house- and work-mates, and helped me to find work in the construction sector. After the death of my father and mother, I visited the village rather infrequently – to see my married sisters, with one of whom I share part of the money I earn in Addis Ababa.

While we have emphasized, so far, that migration is an outgrowth of common economic and social processes in this study, there is evidence that family breakdown may be a factor in some children's migration. In this case migration implies family breakdown or family dysfunction.

Another FGD participant narrated his experience as follows: I am 18 years old and single. I was unable to attend school as my mother, who is divorced from my father, could not afford it. As I have plenty of idle time, I consulted with my mother to leave for Addis Ababa and received only half-hearted assent. Thus, I decided to move Addis Ababa by my own so as to find a job and earn an income with which to support my mother and/or siblings.

5.3. Communication/Information

Empirical studies revealed that actual migrants had first- or second-hand knowledge about the chosen destination while still at the point of origin. Pre-migration visits to the former were

common, so the destination was not entirely strange to them. Those who had made no prior visits to the target destination had learned about it from friends, relatives or from the mass media.

In response to the question how did migrants envisage their migration experience to Addis Ababa while they were in their villages and who talked to them about working in Addis Ababa, the following selected quotes shed some light on the picture of Addis Ababa as drawn in the mind and dreams of the migrants before the start of the migration process.

For instance, one of the FGD participants from *Sekela* had pre-migration visits to Addis Ababa, and he returned to take 8th grade national exam to *Sekela*. However, he failed the exam and he moved back to Addis Ababa so the destination was not entirely strange to him.

Those who had not made prior visits to the target destination had learned about it from friends or relatives and their statements is presented as follows:

Folks in my village used to travel to Addis Ababa. They told me that in Addis Ababa there are a contractor looking for some causal workers. Addis Ababa is better than our hometown. One can find work there. In addition to that like everybody in our village, I saw the returnee in our village. I wished to have enough clothes and stuff. We do not have such things in our village. One feels down when seeing one's mates wearing better outfits. That is why I made up my mind to travel and work in Addis Ababa. My sole goal in moving has been to get enough money for buying clothes, or even just to have some money in my pocket . I talked to my brother. He had been working here before I came. I asked him to take me with him, but he refused saying that I should stay in *Sekela* and continue my education. After a year while, I got a phone call from my friend who was working as a daily laborer. He invited me and promised to welcome me if I am ready. So I came to Addis Ababa. After I got here, I have managed to get my brother and another of my relative as well.

The above information portrays that migrants-to-migrants communication seems to be the prevailing pattern of information sharing. Earlier migrants tend to guide their younger family members and relatives. It is common to find brothers and groups of relatives all working in the same place at the research site. It is common also to find that all occupants of a particular place of work in Addis Ababa have come from the same village.

From the above quotes, and from various other discussions with migrants, the researcher found that most migrants were to some extent lured on by what they saw and heard from the returnee and partly from the inability of persons unfamiliar with the town to interpret correctly the

information they received. The deteriorating living conditions and rising unemployment in Addis Ababa overlooked by potential migrants to believe or imagine better conditions in Addis Ababa .

Migrants were asked about how and why they decided to come to Addis Ababa. About 93.33 percent stated they made a decision for moving to Addis Ababa due to relatives and /or friends support to enhance economic wellbeing which encompass, employment, better wage etc. Expectations of migrants before they left their previous place of residence for Addis Ababa mirrored these themes.

Some may not have wanted to migrate but the influence of friends and relatives acted as a pull factor while wage difference and rarity of availability of paid work as push factor. Some said that they had moved to Addis Ababa because of the change they witness on their friends in terms of clothes, money, etc

5.4. Who influence the Decision

The development of social networks plays a vital role in adjustment processes of newcomers to the destination areas, which in turn facilitates the process of labor circulation, allowing migrants to retain their primary social loyalty to their home areas of origin. Social networks provide information, shelter, and ease the absorption of new arrivals by introducing them to the available opportunities at the destination.

The facilitator variable refers to actual or expected help upon migrating to the new community, where kin, friends and co-villagers facilitate their arrival and settlement – housing, work, and so on. According to Faist (1997), networks are sets of interpersonal ties that connect migrants, former migrants, and non-migrants in places of origin and destination through social ties. It has been emphasized, when he says that the direction of migration has moved from being a linear, unidimensional, push-and-pull, cause-effect movement to a circular and interdependent phenomenon which is closely affected by, and in turn affects, a variety of social networks that are embedded in the migration process.

Social networks are regarded as a form of social capital which may diminish the risks and costs of migration . It is important to recognize that such networks are not just located in the place of destination to which a migrant moves, or confined to the place of migrant origin, but can stretch between the two, and thus provide the spatially elongated links that

enable rural urban migration to take place, and be maintained through often extended periods of time - such as a lifetime.

On the other hand, few did not even consider asking their parents, as they knew that they would not be granted permission, and other decided to move despite not receiving parental consent by following friends. Yet, some consulted their parents and received half-hearted assent, while in many other cases parents gave permission willingly, realizing that the prospects for their children in the village were extremely poor.

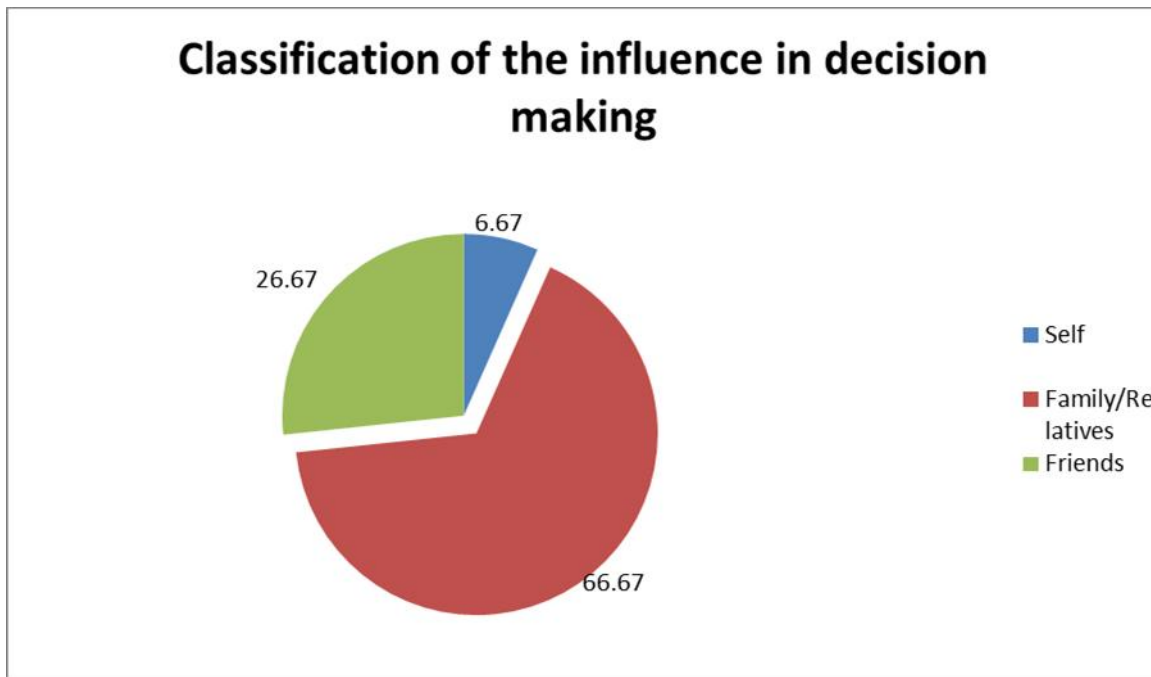


Figure 5.3: Graphical Presentation of who influence in decision making

Source: Field Survey,(2015)

As it can be seen from the above chart, most common influencing factor for decision making—as given by respondents – is family or relative . This reason comprises 66.67 percent of the reasons given by respondents. It is followed by friends which is 26.67 percent, and self accounts 6.67 percents.

5.4.1. Self

Todaro (1997) summed it up by saying that the factors influencing the decision to migrate are varied and complex. Emphasis has variously been placed, for example, on Social factor including the desire of migrants to break away from traditional constraints of social organizations. Cultural

factors; the allurements of the so-called 'bright city lights'. One of the migrants narrated his own experience as follows:

I did not even consider asking my parents, as I knew that they would not grant me a permission. When I arrived in Addis Ababa, I immediately took taxi to *Lafto* and join friends from my previous place of residence. I heard about it from many people from my village who traveled to and from Addis Ababa. I got to know a guy from *Sekela*. He generously allowed me to spend that night staying with him; he was a guard at *Lafto* condominium.

Another participant of FGD narrated his statement as follows: “I decided to move despite not receiving parental consent by following friends.”

5.4.2. Family/Relatives

Migrants who had networks at the destination place were more likely to be influenced by their families/relatives compared to the individual when making decision to migrate. This is similar to (Fawcett, 1989) study on the family relations and how it influences migration decision making where he found that family relationships have an enduring impact on migration. Migrants said that their relatives and/or friends living in Addis Ababa were very encouraging. Because, upon arrival relatives and/or friends are the one they look for immediately. (Focus Group Discussion, 27th September, 2015)

Abraham explained the reasons how he left for Addis Ababa is presented below:

Villagers repeatedly complained about my aggressive behavior to my parents, who punished me. One day, there was a group fight with the other village and although I was not involved, I was accused along with others. A family arbitration was convened. After that, my father advised me to leave the village. I took my father's advice and headed for Addis Ababa with a small amount of money given to me by my father to meet my cousin.

For example, Alelegn described his own experience as follows: “Upon arrival my cousin welcomed me at a bus station, took me to the clusters where relatives, friends, and people of similar village background are hanging out.”

In this way, the psychological costs of dislocation etc. are cushioned by social networks and other forms of social solidarity amongst the rural laborers in Addis Ababa.

5.4.3.Friends

Migrants who had no family or relatives at the destination place were more likely to be influenced by their friends. This is similar to (Ritchey, 1976) study on how social networks influence the decision to migrate and found that migration increases as the number of friends/relative in the place of destination increase. He also found that the social networks can facilitate migration because social contacts based in these networks may provide necessary support. One of the migrants explained as follows: “I think when friends return to the village the change is visible in terms of the clothes they wear and the money they spent. Thus, others would like to follow their foot step like a chain, like I followed my school friend.”(Focus Group Discussion, 27th September, 2015).

Migrants tended to stay in the same neighborhoods, for example they said there are more than 15 migrants from their previous place of residence. This helped them to continue their social circles, to maintain a feeling of solidarity, and help each other to find jobs and accommodation.

The cost of migration is reduced economically as migrants help each other to find jobs and accommodation. Socially there is already an existing circle of friends where migrants can draw on to learn the culture of their destination area, to find work areas and accommodation. Psychologically networks help to maintain a feeling of solidarity among migrants when they are abused or exploited.

The study participants confirmed in their own words that networks are important in deciding to migrate. The common features of the adjustment pattern among migrants are seeking help from blood-kin or folk-kin or friends in the new community. The help takes the form of finding residence, employment, and smoothing the acquaintance with the new community. The new migrants often reside with or close by older migrants from their original community.

The findings also support that networks facilitate migration by providing accommodation and information about jobs to potential migrants among other things.

CHAPTER SIX

Experiences of Migrants in Addis Ababa: Expectations and Realities

This chapter analyzes the experiences of migrants in Addis Ababa. The chapter deals with the details of such experiences including jobs, migrants' patterns of accommodation in Addis Ababa and the process of looking for work. At a more specific level, patterns of accommodation in Addis Ababa, type and mode of work (contract, daily basis, or task-based), number of working days per week, number of working hours per day, and other related work aspects were analyzed starting from examining the process of arrival and search for jobs and accommodation in the city.

6.1. Arrival In Addis Ababa

Migrants face a whole range of problems the moment they arrive in the city. The first is where to stay. The matter is important because many new arrivals are very young. Typically, they are teenagers. They need accommodation, while looking for a job. I asked my interview-subjects the following question: *When you first set foot here, where did you go? What did you do?* Here are some of the answers. Molalign described it as follow: “I came here with a friend of mine. He persuaded me to come with him. Since then, we shared a house and will sit at taxi roundabout to find a job opportunity. We have not moved away from this place for last three years.” (Alelign, 27th September, 2015).

Another interviewee explained that “for the first time, it was my brother who accompanied me. I was 15 years old at that time, and hardly knew anything, but currently live with other co-workers as my brother got married.” (Hailu, 18th July, 2015).

In the same way, another FGD participant stated that “I came to this place directly. Some people talked to me about it. Some of my relatives were living here when I came. I stayed with them” (Kefyalew, 27th September, 2015).

The above-mentioned narrations clearly indicated that friends and relatives in Addis Ababa – not permanent residents, but other unskilled labor migrants involved in temporary work are often able to facilitate the accommodation of newcomers. Further details on housing and living conditions of the migrants in Addis Ababa will follow.

5.2. Support From Relatives and friends in Addis Ababa

Almost all interviewees have either close or distant relatives in Addis Ababa. However, this study, perhaps surprisingly found that these permanent residents do not by and large take an active role to facilitate the migration process.

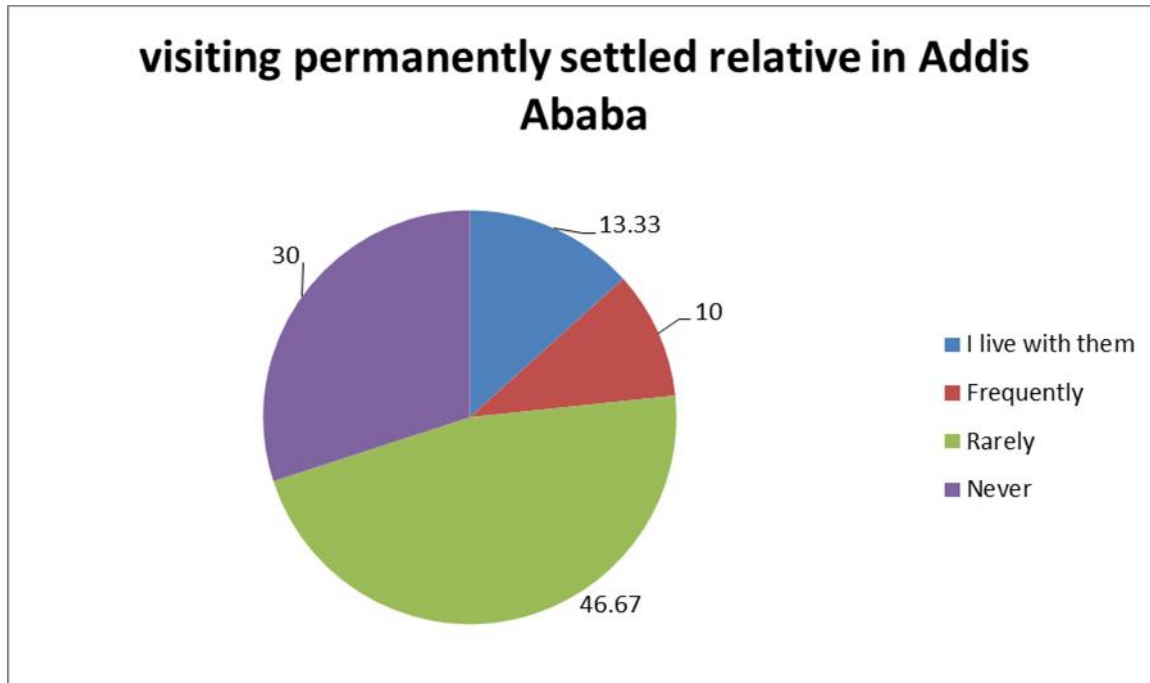


Figure 6.1: Graphical presentation of visiting permanently settled relative in Addis Ababa

Source: Field Survey, 2015

The above graph portrays that about 76.67 percent of the interviewees mentioned that they rarely or never visit their relatives in Addis Ababa who are permanently settled in the city. Some of them mentioned that these relative who are permanent-resident do not actually know that they are in Addis Ababa. A few of them said that they do not want them to know that they are in Addis Ababa.

Table 6.1. How did rural migrants find their current jobs in Addis Ababa

How did rural migrants find their current jobs in Addis Ababa	Frequency	Percent
² Relatives in Addis Ababa	16	53.33
Friends	14	47.67
Other	-	-
Total	30	100

Source: Fieldwork (2015)

In response to the question how the migrants did find their current job, the answer is indicated in Table 6.2. above. 53.33 percent of the migrants found jobs through their relatives in Addis Ababa. But relatives here mean laborers who work in Addis Ababa, not permanent resident relatives. Friends, individuals from their village but now lives in Addis Ababa, ranked second, accounting for about 47.67 percent of migrants. Current jobs were often found through friends from the village who were already working in Addis Ababa. They provide accommodation and an introduction to the labor market. An FGD participant informed me that “ permanent residents have better living conditions and more secure jobs than ours who work only in casual laboring and who frequently have no fixed abode –hence feel an element of shame because of the inferior position and are reluctant to visit them” (Belayneh, 27th September 2015) .

Once again, the relevance of kinship and friendship networks is confirmed – in finding work as well as initial accommodation. But we also note another interesting social phenomenon: these networks of social solidarity are largely confined to the migrant laborer class and do not extend to relatives and co-villagers who are permanently settled in Addis Ababa.

6.3. Work characteristics of migrants

6.3.1. Mode of work/payment

By mode of work mean that whether migrant work in a ³contract-based,⁴daily based, or⁵task-based. The number of migrants engaged in a monthly based contract are small. In fact, it is not

²Relatives in Addis Ababa here mean former migrants who have related by blood or marriage with the potential or recent migrants.

³contract-based means monthly paid,

⁴daily based means daily or weekly paid

surprising when talking to a group of unskilled migrants waiting for work in the street to find that not one of them works in a contract-based mode.

Table 6.2. Work Characteristics

Mode of work	Frequency	Percent
Contract-based	3	10
Task Based	25	83.33
Task- or daily-based (combined)	2	6.67
Number of working hours per day		
8	4	13.4
9	12	40
10	9	30
12	5	16.66
Mean 9.67		
Number of working days per week		
4	2	6.66
6	15	50
7	13	43.33
Mean 6.3		
Current wage per day on average (in Birr)		
31-40 Birr	15	50
41-50Birr	10	33.33
51-60 Birr	5	16.67
Above 60 Birr		
Mean 42.17		
Mode of receiving wages		
Daily	25	83.33
Weekly	2	6.67
Monthly	3	10

Source: Fieldwork (2015)

About 93.33 percent of migrants are ordinary laborers .Only 10 percent of migrants claimed that they have contract based occupation (3 cases out of 30 cases). As Table 6.3 shows, most respondents work on task based (83.33 percent). Migrants mentioned that the task based work is potentially more profitable than the daily-based. The daily-based work is for a fixed rate – usually – while the task based work is by bargaining and may lead to double the revenues of the

⁵task-based means paid upon completion of the task

daily-based worker. On the other hand, daily-based work guarantees a fixed income for that day only.

As per the interviewees, there are places which are considered focal points for searching job every day. Daily laborers are more likely to be offered for that day. Building contractors go to the nearest migrant gathering points and pick the number they need. Thus, they guarantee themselves an income for that day.

This is thus everyday business and a vicious circle. The migrants stress the physical toughness of construction work. As mentioned earlier, for some villages– or a group of villages – there are well-known permanent focal points representing a concentration of old migrants and transitional migrants who refuse to be fully absorbed by the Addis Ababa urban system. They live pretty much as if they are in their villages, keeping the same customs and lifestyles. In Addis Ababa, newly-migrated unskilled laborers live together in these suburbs and districts, which facilitate their accommodation and the finding of work opportunities for them. The most noteworthy examples of these migrant suburbs are *Kera, Mebrat hile and Lafto*. Many migrants who have migrated from *Sekela* have settled and resided in these areas and then established and expanded these suburbs as a kind of model of work areas in Addis Ababa. About half of them live in group of two or three and few with their relatives who work as a guard for condominium.

It is worth mentioning here that these stand about of migrants function as highly effective means of networking among the migrant workers, where they may see each other daily, and know about the latest news of their village. The stand about plays an important role in communications. Newcomers from the village of origin come directly to the area when they arrive in Addis Ababa. The Guard or small business or restaurant owner are key individuals in facilitating communication for the groups of workers' since they all know each other and the new comer.

Workers frequently leave oral messages for their workmates with them. In addition to oral messages, sometimes they leave work tools, and other things to be picked up by their coworkers. As mentioned earlier, this network also greatly facilitates communications with the origin village, since there is frequent travel contact by migrants moving back and forth.

Migrants form an association recognized by government to do such work on a task based mode in most cases, simply because such physically demanding tasks are difficult to carry out all day long which includes unloading and lifting packages of cement, sand, bricks, or tiles lifting

lighter loads, such as furniture and home equipment. Task-based workers are more likely to have more than one task per day.

Working hours per day for the interviewee population range between eight and twelve hours. Migrants who are working 12 hours represent 16.66 percent of the total migrants (Table 6.3). The average working time is 9.67 hours per day, 1.67 hours more than the common working hour in the formal sector. Task-based workers are likely to work more hours if they can find enough work to do.

Based on the experiences of FGD participants, migrant workers in task-based activities try to finish the task in the shortest time they can. This is to return back to their focal point to be ready for another task. However, in some cases, their colleagues prohibit them to go to another job if they themselves did not get any work since the early morning.

Workers who work four days or less per week comprise 6.66 percent only. The average working days per week is almost six (6.3 days to be exact). Most migrants receive their wage on a daily basis. Only two migrants out of my sample of 30 reported that they receive their wage monthly. Those two migrants work as guard and the interview is conducted in their work place, not in the focal points.

As pointed out by one FGD participant who work in other place before they move to Addis Ababa, the wage made per day was 8 Birr on average in the previous place of residence while mean wage per day in Addis Ababa is 42.17 per day.

This shows that the finding of this study is consistent with the previous research done by Todaro (2003). Accordingly, the decision to migrate is embedded in social network, the aspiration to migrate to Addis Ababa encompass to benefit from the difference in wages between rural and urban sectors.

6.3.2. Work experience in the village and other place in Ethiopia

Most migrants experienced work in their villages in the past. Most of them (73.33 percent) used to work for family in tending sheep, goat, and herd cattle and seasonally take part in family farm and other commercial farms. About three fourth of migrants work in their villages or places of origin, either for others or on families own farms.

Table 6.3. Work experience in the village and other place in Ethiopia

Work	Frequency	Percent
Work for family	22	73.33
Work in commercial farms	8	26.67
Total	30	100

Source: Fieldwork (2015)

Almost one quarter of them have had work experience in places other than Addis Ababa and their home villages before migrating to the city. They have worked in *Sheleko* (26.67 percent of this subset). Their work experience and tasks were in agriculture sector, unlike their current work in Addis Ababa. There, they used to work for commercial farming that used to hire them from their villages to work on for specific periods of time.

This type of work is temporary and cannot be guaranteed for a long time, since once the contract expires, unemployment may result. In addition to the rarity and seasonality of job opportunities, the village daily rate was way below the daily rate in Addis Ababa.

6.3.3. Duration of working away from village

Given the mean age of migrants (20.7 years) and the mean duration of working away from the home village (3.72 years), it is clear that the surveyed population has spent about one fifth of their life in a migratory status. Duration of working away from the village ranges between less than one year and 10 years as shown in (Table 6.5). Migrants who spent seven years or more comprise 13.33 percent of migrants.

Table 6.4 Duration of working away from village

Year groups	Number of migrants	Percent
0-3	15	50
4-6	11	36.66
7-10	4	13.33
Above 10	-	-
Mean 3.72 years		

Total	30	100.0
-------	----	-------

Source: Fieldwork (2015)

6.3.4. Work experience in different jobs in Addis Ababa

At the early stages of preparing the interview, the researcher thought that the work turnover of migrants would be high, with migrants moving from job to job frequently. From the field work investigations, however, the researcher found that most migrants tend to stick with one type of job for a long time. The original question to measure the professional development of the migrants through moving from lower level jobs to higher level jobs was then changed to mean the conditions or performance of various earlier jobs and the current job in Addis Ababa over time.

Only two migrants in the interview have worked in different jobs in Addis Ababa before. They comprise 6.67 percent of the surveyed population. The first has worked as lottery vendor, and then as daily laborer. The second as Minibus conductor and now as a guard. The following interview quote gives an example of a migrant who started as minibus conductor but then left it.

I traveled with a relative of mine to Addis Ababa. He used to work as taxi driver. I told him that I was thinking about going to Addis Ababa. He approved my plans. I accompanied him from our village to Addis Ababa and worked as a conductor for two days. I was paid 25 Birr per day, in addition to the food, but I was then badly treated by him. Moreover, working hours were too long: from 6 in the morning till 9 in the evening. Thus, I quitted the job and join other friends I knew from the village (Demelash, 2015).

This show that migrants stand about serve as a retreat whenever one face disagreement with the employer in other sector of the economy. These networks channel migrants to Kinship/ Origin group networks. Because the network is heavily kinship/origin based. It offers migrants alternative and therefore smooth the shock result from temporary unemployment.

6.3.5. Job Conditions

Migrants were asked to evaluate their job conditions by selecting one statement out of the following three options: remained about the same, got better, or got worse.

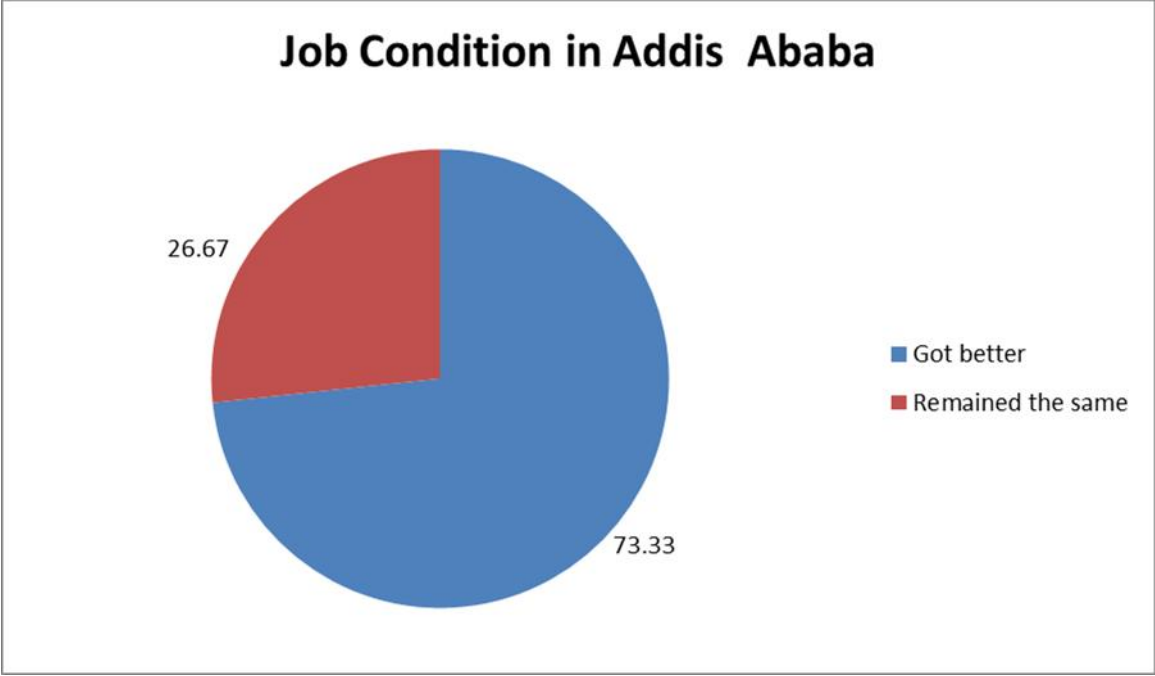


Figure 6.2: Graphical presentation of job condition in Addis Ababa

Source: Field Survey,(2015)

As shown in figure 6.2, almost 73.33 percent of migrant laborers mentioned that their job conditions got better. Some of FGD participants state that *the availability of job and higher wage as the reason for betterment of the current situation.*

About 26.67 said that work conditions remain the same. The main complaint for those who claimed that their work conditions deteriorated is the ever increasing living cost.

6.4. Living Conditions

The living conditions of the migrants at the destination Addis Ababa are analyzed in comparison to their expectation and realities. This analysis includes housing conditions, household possession, availability of public services (piped water, electricity, sewage disposal, etc.), both in the village and in Addis Ababa, and land ownership in the rural places of origin.

The comparison between living conditions in the places of origin and destination is a meaningful comparison to make. They may be resident in Addis Ababa for most of the years, but they tend to visit their place of origin regularly and still regard the village as their psychological base and family home. Hence they are members of two worlds, physically present in one

place but mentally rooted in another. Two geographical reference-points will be referred to when analyzing living conditions of migrants' that is *Sekela Woreda* and Addis Ababa.

6.4.1.Housing characteristics

In their place of origin, all Migrants lived in family owned houses. The case in cities is totally the opposite. Here, most migrants live in rented houses. As indicated in the interview, 100 percent of the study population live in family owned houses in their villages.

Table 6.5. Housing characteristics of migrants

The study population	Village	Addis Ababa
Electricity	NA	Yes
Piped water	NA	Yes

Source: Field Interview (2015)

The above table 6.7 shows that based on a multiple comparison which should be spelt out for clarity's sake. The study population gave answers both for their residences in their village of origin and in Addis Ababa; hence for these two columns in the table, the same respondents are involved. Access to electricity and piped water in *Sekela* is none, while migrants have access to electricity and piped water in Addis Ababa. In general, migrants enjoy electricity, and piped water than in their households in the villages; but migrants are notably worse off on these criteria than the rest of the permanent residents because there is restriction on use of tap water, and electricity. All FGD participants agreeably confirm that Here there is a restriction on use of tap water and electricity. For example, tap water is available at the morning and evening time. Similarly, we are not allowed to use electricity to cook food.

6.4.2.Household possessions

Tables 6.8 and 6.9 provide information on household ownership of durable goods, or possessions, and agricultural land. While about 70 percent of households own a radio, the percent drops to 26.67 in migrant laborers' households in Addis Ababa . Television is now the most prevailing mass-communication consumption good . None of the households own a television in the villages. In spite of the current improvement and expansion of telephone services, the percent of households with telephone lines is still low. About 26.67 percent of households are connected to the telephone network. One telephone line may be used by many

households. One interviewee stated me that “it is common to call your neighbors asking them to get someone from the home to come and speak to , or ask them to pass on a message.”

Table 6.6. Percentage of households possessing various household Items

Study population households	Village	Addis Ababa
Radio	21	8
Television	-	4
Telephone	8	16
Gas stove	7	9

Source: Fieldwork (2015)

Urban households are more likely to have certain household possessions than rural households. For example, 13.33 percent of households in Addis Ababa own a TV, compared with none in village. Migrants' households seem to be less than the average with respect to household possessions in general.

6.4.3. Ownership of agricultural land

It is to be expected, given the limited land owned by migrants' households, that none owns a land. All of them are landless. They do not own any, even small, piece of agricultural land in previous place of residence.

Table 6.7 Ownership of agricultural land in origin among migrant laborers in Addis Ababa

Ownership of agricultural	Frequency	Percent
No land	30	100
Total	30	100

Source: Field interview (2015)

6.5. Accommodation in Addis Ababa

The figure below portrays that the vast majority of migrants live with each other (86.67 percent). Migrant laborers seem to prefer to live together in groups and cheap places. Migrants from the same village/neighborhoods tend to live together. The study also found brothers who live

together. Living together makes it easy to keep the same social contacts and traditions of the village.

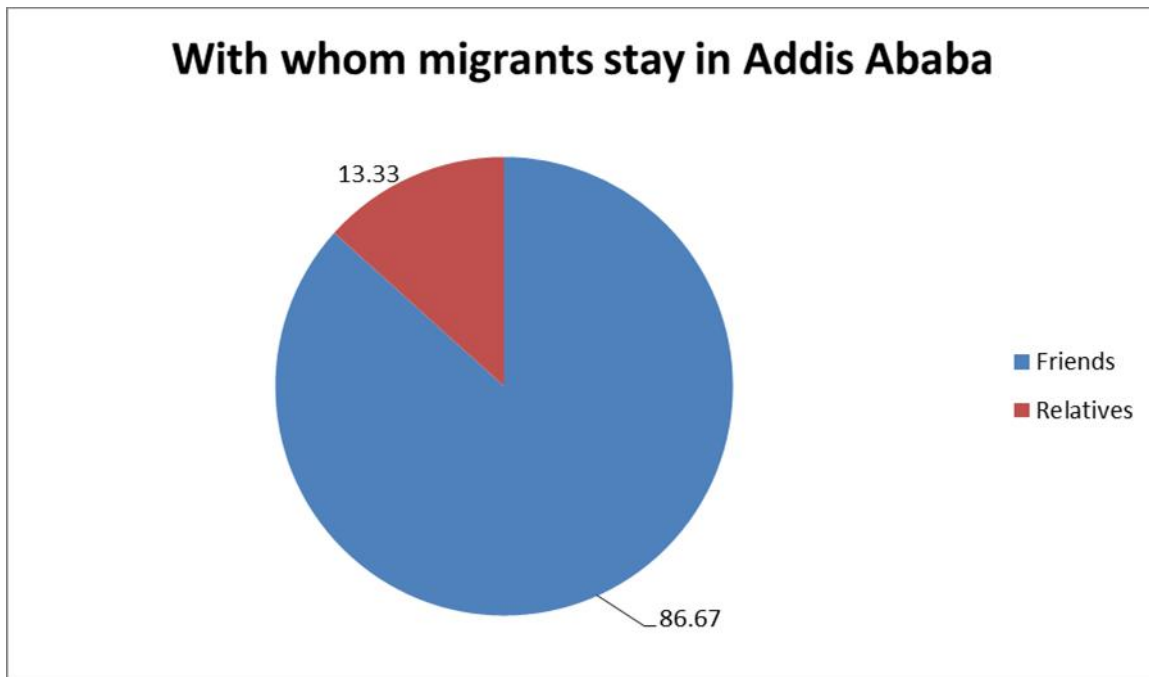


Figure 6.3.graphical presentation of migrants room partner

Source: Fieldwork, (2015)

It is also a defense mechanism to keep their essentially rural identity. Living together in groups makes migrants feel safer than living alone. Four workers (13.33 percent) live with families. As mentioned other modes of accommodation include living with condominium guards.

The number of persons who share the same sleeping room is one of the indicators of standard of living. The higher the number of persons who share the same bedroom the lower is the standard of living and vice versa. The mean number of persons per sleeping room among migrants in my main survey is 2.5, which is almost less than the mean of their own households in the village. Given the fact that migrants live in the cheapest and the worst accommodation in Addis Ababa, and the very poor dietary conditions – as I will mention later in this chapter – one can imagine how poor these migrants are.

6.5.1. Mode of payment of house rent in Addis Ababa

It is important to shed light on the mode of payment (Table 6.11). More than (86.67 percent) pay rent monthly to a home owner. The study found that 13.33 percent of the migrants reside for free. They pay nothing for housing as they lived with their relative who works as condominium guard.

Table 6.8. Mode of payment of housing rental

Mode of payment	Frequency	Percent
Nothing	4	13.33
Daily	-	-
Monthly	26	86.67
Total	30	100

Source: Fieldwork (2015)

Monthly-based rented rooms vary according to the monthly rate which ranges between 500 and 700 Birr per room – depending on the number of residents that are usually 2 to 3 get down. Fully equipped rooms are very rare. Out of the three rooms that visited by the researcher, the study found only one room with bed.

6.5.2. Cost of living and daily expenses in Addis Ababa

Respondents were asked to give an approximate figure for the amount of money that they spend to live in Addis Ababa per day in general, and then they were asked to give details of their daily expenses on food, and other items. Table 5.12 sets out some tabulated answers to these questions. The daily expenses range from 15 to 30 Birr with an average of 22.5 Birr. Average daily expenses for housing (16 birr) and food (22.5 Birr) makes the overall daily living cost equal to 38.50 Birr. This amount of money comprises about 91.29 percent of migrants' average daily income that is 42.17 percent. This means – roughly speaking – that migrants left on average with 8.7 percent of their daily income.

Table 6.9. Minimum, maximum, and average daily expenses of food

Daily expenses of food	Minimum	Maximum	Average
------------------------	---------	---------	---------

Food	15	30	22.5
Total daily expenses	15	30	22.5

Source: Fieldwork (2015)

Expenditure on food comprises the main bulk of migrants' expenditure while being in Addis Ababa. Migrants' expenditure on food is varied. It ranges between per day 15 to 30 birr with an average of 22.5 Birr. This average represents 58.44 percent of the total daily expenses that is 38 birr and 50/100cents .

6.5.3. Food and Nutrition

Because of the low level of their housing conditions in Addis Ababa migrant laborers tend to buy food from street vendors or their friend who own restaurant . I asked interviewees to list the type – and the quality and quantity – of food that they ate in the last three meals (breakfast, lunch, and dinner). The reason for asking such questions is not so much to achieve a precise analysis of their nutritional habits, but rather just to explore and investigate the general characteristics of their patterns of food consumption . When I asked migrant laborers about the last time that they ate meat while being in Addis Ababa they said that they do not often eat meat in order to save money. So what do they eat? The FGD may give more clarification about their eating habits. In the following quotes there is frequent reference .

When I have enough money, I head into a restaurant. When not, I just buy bread for 2.5 Birr, or I eat meat during holiday because when I get money it may be a fasting day. Moreover, I do not have enough money to order meat at restaurants. On top of this, before I eat anything here, I think about tomorrow. Even if my mouth waters to eat meat, or anything else, I ignore it for the sake of saving (*Belayneh, 27th September, 2015*).

One interviewee said “I behave depending on income. I mean that when I earn some money, and after providing all the immediate needs , I never deprive myself from anything I need. If I do not care about myself, I will definitely be gone”(Markos,2015). But some are satisfied with their extremely modest eating habits. Alelign said “No meat. I had bread for breakfast, and get lunch for 13 birr . As for dinner, it depend . Thank God, this is very satisfying to me.” Another interviewee said “ I eat meat once a month if it is not a fasting season said.” This show even though the nature of their work is very tough, still their food is very light. “For

breakfast, I usually go to a baker and get bread for 2.5 birr. As for lunch, I get something not more than one loaves of bread, and tea, if I do not have money.”(Demelash,2015). “The only way for me to get meat is to get it on a charity basis from a rich man houses after a certain event or during holidays, otherwise, we will never get close to it. It is expensive, as you can see”(Dawit,2015) .

It is worth mentioning that newcomers from the village and migrants returning from village visits always bring with them home-made food and honey from the village .The food is to be shared and the honey is to be sold. It is a good occasion for these hard-working migrants to share short happy times and eat food which reminds them of home and their families.

6.5.4.. Migrants' Savings and Expenditure

As was planned at the time of developing the interview, migrants were to be asked about the percent of their income that they save. Since the researcher have found that migrants did not fully recognize the meaning of the term percent, the researcher changed it to an absolute number and asked them to give an estimate of the amount of money that they save per month on average. This amount of money can then be easily compared to the average income per day in order to get the average percent of migrants' savings per month. Average daily expenses for housing (16 birr) and food (22.5 Birr) makes the overall daily living cost equal to 38.50 Birr. This amount of money comprises about 91.29 percent of migrants' average daily income that is 42.17 percent . This means – roughly speaking – that migrants can save up out of 8.7 percent of their daily income. Migrants recognize the value of their savings while working in Addis Ababa but they think that they could have been saving more money if the cost of living in Addis Ababa were not so expensive. Hence, they tend to do all they can to minimize their living costs in the city.

6.5.5.Experience Of Migrants :Expectation And Realities

Migrant laborers were asked to evaluate their life experience in Addis Ababa. Responses were coded and the results are presented in Table 6.13. What the researcher try to do in this table was to categorize the most common answers that were given . Summarizing and paraphrasing the statements that were often repeated across several interviews. Responses that come from the in-depth interviews are given below also. Migrants' evaluations can be divided into three groups: those who see that their migration experience is predominantly positive, those

who see it as mainly negative, and those who see both the positive and the negative sides of their experience. Among the positive responses come the appreciation of the good times that they spend in Addis Ababa (33.33 percent of the migrants). Migrants feel that Addis Ababa is *better than the village*. Migrants appreciate their stay in Addis Ababa because they can make their livelihood, and be able to do their duties towards their families.

Table 6.10. Migrants' evaluation of their migratory experience in Addis Ababa

Evaluation	Frequency	Percent
Positive		
Better than the village	10	33.33
Negative		
My experience in Addis Ababa is difficult because of living cost	3	10.00
Positive and negative		
Better than the village ,but living cost is high	17	56.67

Source: Fieldwork (2015)

However, it can be easily noticed from the negative evaluations of migrants' experience in Addis Ababa that there is no overriding reason for their dissatisfaction with their stay in Addis Ababa except living cost. Those who acknowledged the balance between the positive and the negative of their stay are many, but the researcher believe that they are more realistic than those who mentioned one side of the coin only. The bottom part of the table spells out the phrases that were most often used by those who took a more middle-of-the-road view of their Addis Ababa migration experience.

One of the interviewees, gives a typical summary of some of the good and bad points of being in Addis Ababa: “What is good is to find a job, and I am not feeling alone, as one consider the other like brother, what is bad is that the living cost is very expensive”(Belayneh,27th September,2015).

Kefyalew went on to elucidate in his own words about rural–urban migration occurring despite high living cost:

In my view, people come here because working opportunities are really scarce in their home . I can say that there are almost no opportunities for work

there. That is why they are forced to flock to Addis Ababa under the illusion that Addis Ababa is land of fortune. But you spend what you earn on house and food. As a result, changing clothes and buy household furniture become difficult.

Kefyalew in his own word relate his initial expectation and the reality on the ground that is better work opportunity with high living cost in Addis Ababa.

6.6.The mechanism of remittance use and allocation

In economic terms the most important aspect in rural–urban migration is the counter-flow of remitted money and goods that characterizes the migration stream. Such flows of wealth are undoubtedly important, not only to the families in rural areas but also to the migrants (Caldwell, 1969).

6.6.1.Migrants' plans for the money they make in Addis Ababa

As table 6.12 shows, a great proportion of migrants' money goes to satisfying their basic needs. The Majority declared that the main thing that they do with money that they earn is to buy basic needs and support themselves. The elder brother said to me about his younger migrant brother in Addis Ababa: “ I don't need anything from him. I just want him to satisfy his own needs and prepare himself for better life. Being responsible for his own expenses is an asset to me.”

Building a new house, or adding a new housing unit to the family's house, is regarded as the main catalyst to save money. Other plans are to hire and plow the land, buy home appliances and furniture (Table 6.14). Most send money to their relatives and families in *Sekela* during Easter and/or new year time while working in Addis Ababa as Easter the most celebrated festival and new year is the time in which the school open.

Table 6.11.Migrants' plans for the money they make in Addis Ababa

How they spent the money they earn	Percent	Number of migrants
Support family	19.23	15
Support myself	32.05	25
Build a (new) house	3.85	3
Hire and plow the land	6.41	5

Buy clothes, appliances and furniture	38.46	30
Total		78

Source: Fieldwork(2015)

* Numbers do not sum to 30 because of multiple responses; for the same reason the percentage column sums to more than 100.

It should be realized that in this discussion remittances is based solely on money being sent to the village by various channels. Therefore, the spatial relationship between distance and intensity of remittances reflects the less frequent visits migrants make to Villages. In reality, remittance also occur when migrants take their own money back when they make returning visits.

6.6.2.The means of sending remittance

The vast majority of migrants who send money to the village while working here send it with one of their fellow-village passengers to the village . This method is used by 56.67 percent of remitters. As mentioned before, it is easy to find someone who is visiting the village, for departures are continually taking place . This is due to the nature of migrant groups who like to work and live together in groups from the same family, village, or at least the same district . When they decide to send money they can easily find someone who is trustworthy to send money with to the village. Sending money with relatives ranked second with 6.67 percent of remitters. This medium and the previous one comprise together 63.34 percent of means of sending money to the village.

Some migrant laborers send money to the villages with the Bus drivers and minibuses, given the fact that the Bus stand about and telephone known by the families in the village. This method of remittance is almost costless, like the previously mentioned means. Sending money via the Bank account 26.67 percent for remitting money to the village.

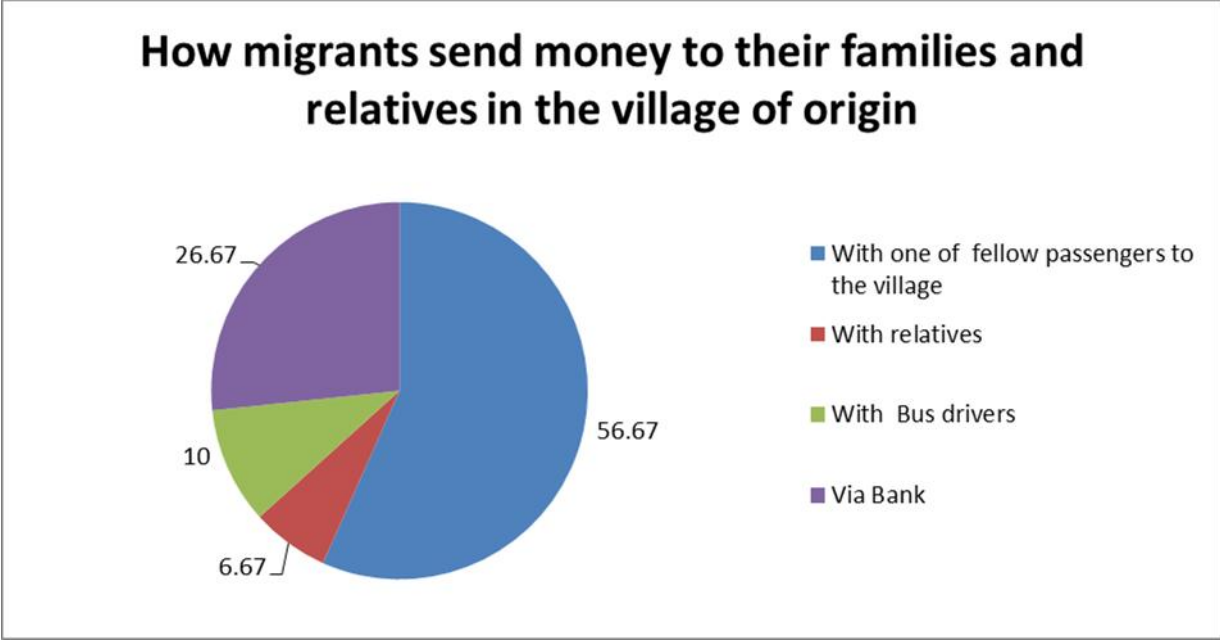


Figure 6.4.Graphical presentation of how migrants send money to their families and relatives in the village of origin

Source: Fieldwork,2015

Migrants do trust each other. Sending money with a returning visitor to the village is generally regarded as the safest way. Alelegn, summarized the relationships between migrants who come from the same village in his own words: “We are villagers, every one there knows about each other. Families are fully interrelated. When I give any person of my hometown an amount of money to deliver to my family, he goes and delivers it to them before he even goes to his own house. We look after each other.”

6.7. Plans for the future

The narrative so far has mainly looked at various facts and facets of migrants' lives and experiences recounted retrospectively and evaluative. In this section, the researcher explore migrants' future plans and their overall evaluation of their migratory experience. Particularly when dealing with future plans and the return to the village, The researcher will draw on extracts of conversations based on some of FGD participants.

6.7.1.Plans for staying in Addis Ababa

When leaving the village, few migrants envisage living the rest of their lives in the city. But, with the passage of years the position may change. Such has certainly been the case with

many migrants who initially leave with a temporary sojourn in mind but who then end up here. Some migrants who intend to return to the village may fail to do so because they postpone it for so long. Temporary versus permanent city ward migration is very important because of its eventual economic, and social implications. Urban economic conditions, as represented in the stability of demand for urban labor, partly determine the mix of temporary and permanent migrants. Rural factors such as social and economic conditions in agriculture may pre-commit many city ward migrants to return home sooner or later or to stay in the city for the rest of their lives. In addition, behavioral and psychological factors affect migrants' decisions regarding the length of their stay in town (Nelson, 1976). It is also important to bear in mind that migrants' intentions to stay in the city or to return home are not always realized. Plans may change, and even stable plans may not be realized, but migrants' behavior in the city is determined by their expectations, regardless of whether or not those expectations and plans are later fulfilled.

Table 6.12. Migrants' intentions to stay in Addis Ababa or return to the village

Town	Stay in Addis Ababa	Return to the village	Total
Sekela	27	3	30
Total	27	3	30

Source: Fieldwork (2015)

With respect to the study population and as shown in Table 5.17 three of them intend to return to the village, while the rest intend to stay in Addis Ababa. When they were asked about the expected duration of their stay in Addis Ababa, migrants who intend to return to the village failed to give time frames for their plans of return. Out of the 3 migrant laborers who intend to return, only one migrant set a time estimate for his return to the village. Duration before returning to the village ranges between five year and ten years. The remaining number of migrants gave non-numerical answers to this question, such as *it depends on circumstances*, or said they would return after achieving specific monetary goals or finding profitable or permanent jobs in the village. My personal feeling is that migrants keep in mind the intention to possibly return as a strategy to maintain their psychological balance while being in Addis Ababa, leaving room for hopeful improvements of economic conditions in

their village or town of origin. Implementation of their plans seems, however, to be much less realistic than they may believe.

From the interview extracts on this issue of staying in Addis Ababa or going back to the village or hometown, one can note two recurrent themes: a fervent hope, often unrealistic in practice, of returning and resettling in the village; and an abiding fatalism, or belief that such things are out of their hands.

Alelign is one of the majority who wants to return “ I would rather go back home than stay here in Addis Ababa. There I would be living amongst the people I know.”

Another FGD participant expressed rather similar views “I would go back. No-one can hate Addis Ababa, but living cost is very expensive.”

Meanwhile, in response to the question about staying in Addis Ababa or returning to the village combined fatalism with pragmatism: “Hope to do. It is God’s will that shall be done. Life is neither predictable nor controllable. It is only God who distributes work and livelihood. In Addis Ababa, at least, there is always a chance of work; one can stay jobless for two days and then work for one day...”

Table 6.12 also seem to suggest that migrants orientation to stay in Addis Ababa, I have no categorical explanation for this pattern except to suggest that migrants from those places which are most strongly connected to Addis Ababa through a more intense flow of labor migration are more likely to have an accurate perception of the very limited economic possibilities of a return to the village where poverty and unemployment are continuing structural features of rural life.

6.7.2.Migrants' long-term aims and goals

The aims of most migrant laborers that were surveyed are very modest. The utmost aim of migrants is to find a permanent source of income that can ensure sufficient resources to take care of themselves . The methods of achieving such income vary from one migrant to another but the aim is the same. The main source of a permanent income – as viewed by migrants – is to run their own business.

Molalign, again, had clear ideas about this, although one senses that his ideas are born out of hope rather than serious expectation of success: “Capital is the backbone to launch any business.

I pray to God to enable me to have my own business, such as a small grocery, or restaurant. My wishes for the future include having a small business of my own.”

Belay was also dreaming of a similar outcome “I am dreaming of making a business of my own in my hometown, a small shop by which I can do some trading. Also building a house.”

Migrants' aims other than or in addition to ensuring a permanent source of income are thus to build a house in the village, educate themselves, or just to ensure their daily livelihood.

Table 6.13. Migrants' long-term aims and goals

Response	Frequency	Percent
Run my own Business	13	30.96
Return to my village	3	7.15
Bringing my siblings here	19	45.24
Educate myself	7	16.67
Number of responses	42	100

Source: Fieldwork (2015)

* Numbers do not sum to 30 because of multiple responses

Table 6.18 portrays the basic, generalized categories of response to this question. The researcher realized that some of these people may not have long-term or even short-term plans for the future. They live their time as it is without thinking of the future and maybe without realizing that their behavior today may affect their behavior and opportunities in the future. This may be attributed, in part, to their low education level and their low status, professionally speaking.

CHAPTER SEVEN

Summary and Conclusions

7.1. Introduction

This chapter is divided into two sections. The first section summarizes the study. The second section involves the conclusions that can be drawn from the key findings.

7.2. Summary

The study set out to examine migrant ties at the destination and previous place of residence, what factors initiate the aspiration for migration ,who influences migration decision making and migrants work and life in general in Addis Ababa.

The conceptual framework used for this study was based on own compilation of migration decision making. The main source of data was primary data. The study used an in depth interview and Focus Group Discussion as a data collection tools .The result of the analysis show

- Current mean age for migrants is 20.7 years. About 90% of them began and dropped out elementary school, whereas 6.67 % did not go to school while 3.33% complete high school. All of them who stand about at Lafto, Mebrathaile, and kera areas migrate from the place that is *SekelaWoreda, WestGojjam*. Mean family sizes are 6.06, and mean age at first movement from the village is 16.83 year.
- Migrants make a decision for moving to Addis Ababa due to a social network to enhance economic wellbeing which encompasses employment, and better wage. Rural urban networks not only influence migration decision making , but also greatly influence migrants work and life in general at the destination. Migrant networks are heavily Kinship/ Origin based networks. These networks channel migrants to specific selective jobs in the city and in turn force migrants to forge Kinship/ Origin group networks. Because the network is heavily Kinship/ Origin based, it is restricted to a narrow scope of contacts, often within a certain sector of the economy, it offers migrants few social

connections and therefore limits their upward social mobility. kind of ties migrants maintain at the destination, and previous place of residence. Based on the objective; my research highlights the importance of visible links such as the migrants' ,former migrants and non migrants' parents, relatives and fellow villagers and shows that these links play an important role in facilitating and helping the network to function effectively. This way Psychological costs of dislocation are cushioned by social network.

- As shown in the conceptual framework the push and pull factors in this thesis initiate the aspiration for migration. Parents and/or relatives take the lion share of decision making role. The economic, social and psychological costs of dislocation are cushioned by social network. Such networks are not just located in the place of destination to which a migrant moves, or confined to the place of migrant origin, but can stretch between the two, but reinforced through remittance and other forms of communications and be maintained through often extended periods of time - such as a lifetime.
- Regarding occupation task based laborer account 83.33 %,only 6.67% work on contract based and the rest 10% combine both task based and daily based work. The mean income of the migrants is 42.17 per day. They work on average for 9.67 hour per day and more than 6 days per week .Those who have had working experience in other place in Ethiopia has opinioned that they have improved their situation comparing their past. Most of them have relative who are permanently live in Addis Ababa, but only 13.33 percent live with them, the rest visit occasionally. They spend 200 to 300 birr per month for housing,86.67% stay with coworkers, and have an access for electricity, piped water with a restriction. The mean daily expense is 22.5 Birr. For 73.33% their migration experience is better, while 26.67 stated that it remain the same.
- The families of most migrants that is 63.33 percent own land. But there is no access to electricity, piped water in the village. Almost all migrants live with family and dropped out school before they left for Addis Ababa. They were tending family sheep, goat, and cattle. A few seasonally took part in farming.
- Most of them confirm that they send money to family via Bank and/or exercise book, sugar so on through fellow passenger or relatives to village especially during epiphany and new year.

- 97% do not have a plan to return .Only 3% will go back their homeland when they will save a lots of money or get better opportunity in their origin. In long term 45.27% plan to bring their siblings,30.96 % run own business, and 16.67 % educate themselves.

7.3. Conclusion

In terms of size, larger families may require certain individuals to migrate to diversify the labor force participation of members of the household. At the time, Harbison(1981) also pointed out that ecological and socio-economic factors influenced migration decisions because if a household owns a large piece of land, it would require the assistance of all members to cultivate the land, making out-migration impossible. But if a household had a small piece of land and a large family, the economic needs of the household would take precedent and individual members may be nominated to migrate to support the household with the income they earn in urban areas (Harbison,1981).In case of *west Gojjam* the average land holding per family is 1.1 hectare, this is too small compared to the average size of household the migrants came from.

A significant body of literature shows that social networks can play leading role in explaining decision-making in the migration process (Boyd 1989, Gurak and Caces1992). Once established, networks can lead to so-called chain migration and thus stimulate and perpetuate the migration process. In this study it was examined who influences migration decision making and migrants family and friends were found to influence migrants decision making. Based on kinship, friendship, as well as shared community origin, social networks can dramatically lower the risks and costs of migration and thus greatly help with channeling potential migrants from the countryside to the city. Heavy reliance on networks by *Sekela woreda* migrants is not simply a migrant's strategy to wage difference and job availability ; it is also a migrant's response to social networks based on kinship, friendship, as well as shared community origin to enhance wage and job availability .

Finally, regarding occupation and accommodation most work as daily laborer, and live with coworkers. These show networks channel migrants to specific selective jobs ,determine migrants focal points or stand about, where and with whom to share accommodation. Migrants also stay in contact with parents and siblings by sending remittance using formal and informal ways. Remittance mainly sent through relatives, friends, bank and drivers. In addition to the money, migrants remittance include exercise book and food staff such as sugar etc. Thus ,remittance represent an obligation migrants felt toward parents or sibling at home.

References

- Administrative Maps of Amhara Region. (2006). Administrative Region and Woreda Map of Amhara; Disaster Prevention and Preparedness Agency
- Alula,Pankhurst and Feleke,Tadele (2005).Migration and Wellbeing in Ethiopia:Evidence from case studies in urban and rural sites. Economic and Social Research Council. University of Bath, UK
- Andargachew, T. (1992). The social consequences of urbanization: The Addis Ababa Experience, Ethiopian Journal of Development Research, vol. 14, No.1
- Bebbington, A. (1999).Capitals and Capabilities: a framework for analysing peasant viability, rural livelihoods and poverty in the Andes. A background paper for Policies that work for sustainable agriculture and regenerating rural economies, Series Editor: Simon Croxton, DfID
- Belay ,Zelege (2011). Push And Pull Factors Of Rural-Urban Migration And Its Implication On The Place Of Origin: The Case Of Ankesha Wereda Migrant Street Vendors And Daily Laborers In Addis Ababa. A Thesis Submitted To The School Of Graduate Studies Of Addis Ababa University
- Birhan, Asmame(2011). Causes And Consequences Of Rural-Urban Migration: The Case Of Woldiya Town, North Ethiopia. University Of South Africa
- Boyd, M. (1989).Family and personal networks in the international migration: recent developments and new agendas. International Migration Review, 23 (2): 638-671.
- Bryman, A. (2004). Social Research Methods. Oxford University Press Central Statistical Agency of Ethiopia (2007). The 2007 Population and Housing Census of Ethiopia. Results at country levels, vol.1. Addis Ababa, Ethiopia
- Curran, S.R. and Saguy, A.C. (2001).Migration and Cultural Change: A role for gender and social networks?. Journal of International Women's Studies, pp. 1-54
- De Haas, H. (2007). Migration and Development: A Theoretical Perspective. Working paper.

- Bielefeld: COMCAD. [retrieved via www.heindehaas.com, January 2011].
- De Haas, H. (2010). The internal dynamics of migration processes: A theoretical inquiry. *Journal of Ethnic and Migration Studies*, 36, 10, n.p. [retrieved via www.heindehaas.com, January 2011].
- De Haan, A. (2000). Migrants, livelihoods and rights: the relevance of migration in development policies. Social Development Working Paper, No. 4, February 2000, Department for International Development.
- De Jong, G. and Fawcett, J.T. (1981), "Motivations for Migration: An assessment and value-expectancy research model" ,in de Jong, G. and Gardner, R.W. (eds.) *Migration Decision-making*. Pergamon Policy Studies, pp. 13-59.
- Ellis, F. (2000), *Rural Livelihoods and Diversity in Developing Countries*. Oxford University Press
- Eshetu, C. (1970). "Urbanization and its effect on the Rural Ethiopian Economy", Peace Corps Training programme.
- Ezra, M.(2001). Ecological Degradation, Rural poverty, and Migration in Ethiopia: A Contextual Analysis. Policy Research Division, population council working paper, No. 149.
- Fawcett, James T.(1989). "Networks, Linkages, and Migration Systems", *International Migration Review*, 23(3), pp. 671-680.
- Gerold-Scheepers, T.J.F.A. And Van Binsbergen, W.M.J .(1977). *Marxist And Non Marxist Approaches To Migration In Tropical Africa*.
- Granovetter, M.S. (1985): Economic Action and Social Structure: The Problem of Embeddedness. *The American Journal of Sociology*, 91(3): 481-510.
- Gubhaju, B. and De Jong, G.F. (2009). Individual versus Household Migration Decision Rules: Gender and Marital Status Differences in Intentions to Migrate in South Africa. *International Migration* Vol. 47 (1), pp: 31-61.

- Gurak, D. T. & F. Caces (1992). 'Migration networks and the shaping of migration systems', in M. M. Kirtz, L. L. Lim & H. Zlotnik (eds.), *International Migration Systems: A Global Approach*, 150-176. Oxford: Warendon Press
- Harbison, S.F. (1981). Family structure and family strategy in migration decision making. In de Jong, G. and Gardner, R.W. (eds.) *Migration Decision-making*. Pergamon Policy Studies, pp.225-250.
- IOM, *Glossary on Migration*, International Migration Law Series No.25, 2011
- Jansen, C.J. (1970). *Readings in the Sociology of Migration*. Oxford: Pergman Press.
- Kinfe, A.(2003). A study on Migration of rural poor from Tigray to Addis Ababa; causes, consequences and possible solutions ,Mekelle, Tigray.
- Kloos, H.(1982). "Farm Labour Migration in the Awash Valley of Ethiopia", *International Migration Review* .Vol. 16, No. 1. Pp. 133-169.
- Lewis, W.A. (1954), "Economic Development with Unlimited Supplies of Labour",*The Manchester School*.
- Massey, D. (1990). Social Structure, Household Strategies and the Cumulative Causation of Migration. *Population Index*, 56, 1, pp. 3-26.
- Massey, D., Arango, J., Hugo, G., Kouaouci, Al, Pellegrino, A. & Taylor, E. (1993).*Theories of international migration: a review and appraisal*. *Population and development review*, 19, 3, pp. 431 – 466.
- McCatty (2004). *The Process of Rural-Urban Migration in Developing Countries*. Department of Economics Carleton University. Ottawa, Ontario.
- McDowell, C. and De Haan, A. (1997), "Migration and Sustainable Livelihoods: a critical review of the literature". IDS Working Paper 65, Institute of Development Studies, Sussex.
- Mulenbach, H.J .(1976). *Akaki Beseka: urban process in an Ethiopian Industrial Town*, Ph.D Dissertation, North Western University, Evanston.

- Muluneh Animut.(2015). Socio-Cultural Values and Institutions and their Contributions to Livelihoods in the Blue Nile Basin: The Case of Agricultural Communities in Sekela *Woreda*, West Gojjam Zone of Amhara Region .A Thesis Submitted To The School Of Graduate Studies Of Addis Ababa University.
- Nelson J.M. (1976). Sojourners versus Urbanites: Causes and Consequences of Temporary versus Permanent Cityward Migration in Developing Countries. *Economic Development and Cultural Change* 24:721-757.
- Ritchey, P. Neal (1976). "Explanations of Migration" *Annual review of sociology*, 2: 363- 404 Greenwood Michael J. 1981. *Migration and Economic Growth in the United States*. New York. Academic Press.
- Sell, R. and de Jong, G. (1978), "Toward a motivational theory of migration decision making". *Journal of Population*, Vol. 1 (4), pp. 313-335.
- Sileshi, S.(1978). "Urban migration and labour movement in Ethiopia", proceedings of the 5th international conference on Ethiopian studies, Chicago, university of Illinois press, pp. 679-700.
- Sosina,Bezu and Holden,Stein (2014). *Are Rural Youth In Ethiopia Abandoning Agriculture?* Norwegian University Of Life Sciences, Aas, Norway
- Todaro, M.P. and Smith, S.C. (2003), *Economic Development*. Addison Wesley, eighth Edition.
- United Nations(1984). *Compendium of Recommendations on International Migration and Development: The United Nations Development Agenda and the Global Commission on International Migration Compared*. New York, USA.
- Waddington, H. and Sabates-Wheeler, R. (2003) "Poverty, vulnerability and migration choice", Working Paper, Development Research Centre for Globalisation, Migration and Poverty, University of Sussex
- Winkels, Alexandra (2004), *Migratory Livelihoods in Vietnam: Vulnerability and the Role of Migrant Networks*. PhD Thesis, School of Environmental Sciences, University of East Anglia, Norwich.

APPENDIX I: RESEARCH QUESTIONS

1.1 INTERVIEW QUESTIONS

Place of interview: _____

Name: _____ **Date:** / / 2015

I: BACKGROUND INFORMATION:

1. How old are you now?.
2. What is your current marital status?
 - a. Single
 - b. Engaged
 - c. Married
 - d. Divorced
3. What is the highest level of schooling which you successfully completed?
 - a. None
 - b. Primary
 - c. Secondary
 - d. Higher Education
4. Are you currently attending school?
 - a. Yes
 - b. No
5. If your answer to question 4 is “yes”, Which level of schooling are currently attending?
 - a. Primary
 - b. Secondary
 - c. Preparatory
 - d. University
6. Can you read ? .
 - a. Yes
 - b. No
7. Can you write a letter?
 - a. Yes
 - b. No
8. Do you have an occupation or you are an ordinary laborer?
 - a. Have an occupation
 - b. Ordinary laborer
9. What are you working for living?.
10. From where did you come? From which

Zone:

Woreda:

and village:

II. INFORMATION ABOUT DECISION MAKING PROCESS

11. Who was the decision maker in leaving your place of birth or last place of residence?.
a. Self b. Friends c. Family / Parent(s) d. Employer e. Other (specify)_____
12. Did anyone from your place of birth come with you to Addis Ababa?.
a. Yes b. No
13. If your answer to question 2 is “yes”, who moved with you from the place of previous residence? (You can choose more than one answer)
a. None b. Spouse c. Parents d. Family e. Other (Specify) _____
14. After you moved to Addis Ababa, who came from your birth place to live with you?
a. None b. Friends c. Parents d. Family e. Other (Specify) _____
15. What was your main source of information to move to Addis Ababa?.
a. Education b. Mass media c. Contact with people who know the town
d. Previous knowledge (personal visit)___ e. Other (specify)_____
16. Before you moved to Addis Ababa, did you have any information about living conditions and facilities such as housing, employment and so forth?
a. Yes b. No
17. If your answer to question 6 is “yes”, what was the information?
a. positive (migrant life is easy in Addis Ababa) b. negative (migrant life is not easy in Addis Ababa)
18. Before you moved to live in Addis Ababa, did you have any relative or friend or parents living in Addis Ababa ?.
a. Yes b. No
19. If your answer to question 8 is “yes”, have you received any type of assistance from them?
a. Yes b. No
20. If your answer to question 9 is “yes”, what type of assistance you have received from them?
a. food and lodging b. Financial aid c. Assisted to find jobs d. Information about how to adjust and job possibility e. Other (Specify)

35. Where did you work?
36. Did you work in your village? .
- a. Yes b. No
37. If your answer to question 30 is “yes”, What was your job in your village?.
38. What was the last wage you made per day in your village?.
39. When was that? .
40. Do you have relatives in Addis Ababa? .
- a. Yes b. No
41. Do you visit them?.
- a. I live with them b. Frequently c. Rarely d. No
42. Are your friends in Addis Ababa mainly people from your village, or are they friends which you have made since coming to Addis Ababa?.
- a. From my village only b. From Addis Abeba or other villages
43. What social activities do you engage in Addis Ababa?.
44. Where do you stay in Addis Ababa and with whom?.
- a. With other workers b. With friends c. With a family d. Other: _____
45. How many persons are sharing the same room?
46. Does your place of residence in Addis Ababa have electricity?
- a. Yes b. No
47. Does your place of residence in Addis Ababa have piped water?
- a. Yes b. No

48. How much do you spend on housing in Addis Ababa?

Per day Per week Per month

49. How much do you spend to live in Addis Ababa per day?

50. How much money do you spend on these items per day?

a. Food b. Other

51. What is the percent of your income that you save?

52. Do you send money to your family while you are here?

a. Yes b. No

53. If your answer to question 44 is “yes”, how do you send the money to your family?

54. Do you have contact with your family while working in Addis Ababa?

a. Yes b. No

55. How do you contact them?

IV: INFORMATION ABOUT LIVELIHOOD CONDITION IN PLACE OF ORIGIN

56. Where does your family live?

Village:

Woreda:

Zone:

57. Please tell me about your parents and siblings?

Brothers Sisters Father Mother Others

58. Do you own a house ?

a. Yes b. No

59. Do you or your parents own agricultural land?

a. Yes b. No

60. If your answer to question 56 is “yes”, ,how many hectares?
61. Who is working in the land while you are in Addis Ababa?
62. Have any of the following items owned by your family ?
- a. Television b. Refrigerator c. Gas stove d. Radio e. Telephone
63. Does your family home have electricity? .
- a. Yes b. No
64. Does your family home have piped water?.
- a. Yes b. No
65. How many bedrooms in your home?

V: PLANS FOR THE FUTURE:

66. Would you like to live in Addis Ababa permanently or would you like to return to your village to live?
- a. Live in Addis Ababa b. Return to village
67. If you plan to return, for how long do you plan to stay in Addis Ababa before you return to your village? Months Years I don't know
68. Would you like to travel outside Addis Ababa for work?
- a. Yes b. No
69. To where (which country)?
67. What do you plan to do with the money you make in Addis Ababa?
- a. Support myself b. Support family c. Marriage expenses
- d. Buy land e. Build a (new) house f. Buy television g. Education of children h. Other
- 68 How do you evaluate your migration experience to Addis Ababa?
69. What are your main aims in life long term?

1.2: GUIDE INTERVIEW QUESTIONS (FOCUS GROUPS DISCUSSION)

Introduction

Personal data: age, country of origin, place of work .

Number of year lived in birth place.

Number of years lives in Addis Ababa.

Discussion

1. Please tell me about your parents and siblings, if any?
2. How were you taking care of your daily needs like shelter, food ,and clothes before coming to Addis Ababa?
3. Please discuss why and how you came to the Addis Ababa?
4. What makes you decided in leaving your place of birth or last place of residence?
5. Did anyone from your place of birth come with you to Addis Ababa?
6. If you answer “yes”, who moved with you from the place of previous residence?
7. After you moved to Addis Ababa, who came from your birth place to live with you?
8. Before you moved to Addis Ababa, did you have any information about living conditions and facilities such as housing, employment and so forth?
9. Before you moved to live in Addis Ababa, did you have any relative or friend or parents living in Addis Ababa ?
10. If you answer “yes”, have you received any type of assistance from them?
11. If you answer “yes”, what type of assistance you have received from them?
12. How did you find accommodation when you first arrived?
13. What did you expect Addis Ababa to offer?
14. Discuss your experiences of living in Addis Ababa?
15. Where and with whom are you living?

15. How did you find your current jobs in Addis Ababa?
16. Could you tell me your mode of work, number of working hours per day, number of
17. working days per week, current wage per day on average (in Birr), mode of receiving wages?
18. Could you tell me your work experience in different jobs in Addis Ababa?
19. How do you evaluate your Job Conditions in Addis Ababa?
20. Could you tell me what you ate for breakfast, lunch and dinner for the last three days?
21. Did you save money?. If you answer “yes”. How much of your income per day/per month?
22. How do you spend the money you make in Addis Ababa?
23. Did you send money to your family?. If you answer “yes”, how?
24. Do you have an intention to stay in Addis Ababa or return to the village?
25. What have been the advantages and disadvantages of living and working in Addis Ababa?

Appendix II: Profiles of Research Participants

A. Profiles of Interviewees

No	Sex	Age	Marital Status	Terminal Levels Of Education	Number Of The HH Migrants Came From	Town	Current Mode Of Work	Place and Date Of Interview
1	M	17	Single	Illiterate	5	Gish Abay	task based	9 July,2015
2	M	19	Single	grade 5	6	Gish Abay	task based	10 JULY ,2015
3	M	20	single	grade 2	6	Gish Abay	task based	16 JULY,2015
4	M	16	single	grade 3	6	Gish Abay	task based	17 JULY,2015
5	M	18	single	grade 5	6	Gish Abay	task based	23 JULY,2015
6	M	16	single	grade 5	8	Gish Abay	task based	24 JULY ,2015
7	M	13	single	grade 4	6	Gish Abay	task based	30 JULY,2015
8	M	23	single	grade 4	7	Gish Abay	task based	31 JULY,2015
9	M	14	single	grade 4	6	Gish Abay	task based	6 AUGUST,2015
10	M	14	single	grade 5	5	Gish Abay	task based	7 AUGUST,2015
11	M	23	single	grade 5	6	Gish Abay	task based	13 AUGUST,2015
12	M	19	single	grade 4	6	Gish Abay	task based	14 AUGUST,2015
13	M	20	single	grade 3	5	Gish Abay	task based	20 AUGUST,2015
14	M	17	single	grade 3	6	Gish Abay	task based	21 AUGUST,2015
15	M	24	single	grade 5	7	Gish Abay	task based	27 AUGUST,2015
16	M	19	single	grade2	6	Gish Abay	task based	28 AUGUST,2015
17	M	25	single	grade 4	7	Gish Abay	task based	3 SEPTEMBER,2015
18	M	21	single	grade 4	5	Gish Abay	task based	4 SEPTEMBER,2015
19	M	23	single	grade 4	7	Gish Abay	task based	19 SEPTEMBER,2015
20	M	18	single	grade 4	6	Gish Abay	task based	19 SEPTEMBER,2015
21	M	18	single	grade 5	7	Gish Abay	task based	19 SEPTEMBER,2015
22	M	26	single	grade 4	6	Gish Abay	task based	20 SEPTEMBER,2015
23	M	19	single	grade 5	5	Gish Abay	task based	20 SEPTEMBER,2015
24	M	24	single	grade 4	6	Gish Abay	task based	20 SEPTEMBER,2015
25	M	16	single	grade 4	6	Gish Abay	task based	20 SEPTEMBER,2015
26	M	28	single	grade 10th	5	Gish Abay	Guard	26 SEPTEMBER,2015
27	M	27	single	Illiterate	6	Gish Abay	task based	26 SEPTEMBER,2015
28	M	26	single	grade 2	6	Gish Abay	task based	26 SEPTEMBER,2015
29	M	27	single	grade 5	7	Gish Abay	Guard	26 SEPTEMBER
30	M	29	single	grade 2	5	Gish Abay	Guard	26 SEPTEMBER

B. Profiles Of Focus Group Discussion(FGD) Participants

No	Sex	Age	Marital Status	Terminal Levels Of Education	Number Of The HH members Migrants Came From	Town	Mode Of Work	Place and Date Of Interviewee
1	Male	18	single	5	8	Gish Abay	task based	27th September 2015
2	Male	23	single	3	5	Gish Abay	task based	27th September 2015
3	Male	20	single	6	7	Gish Abay	task based	27th September 2015
4	Male	24	single	7	8	Gish Abay	task based	27th September 2015
5	Male	27	single	5	7	Gish Abay	task based	27th September 2015



PHOTO 1.FGD WITH MIGRANTS



PHOTO 2 .FGD WITH MIGRANTS