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

**DEMOGRAPHIC RESPONSES TO WOMEN'S POVERTY IN ADDIS  
ABABA: THE CASE OF KOLFE- KERANIO SUB-CITY, KEBELE 02/03.**

**A THESIS SUBMITTED TO THE SCHOOL OF GRADUATE STUDIES OF  
ADDIS ABABA UNIVERSITY IN PARTIAL FULFILLMENT OF THE  
REQUIREMENTS FOR DEGREE OF MASTER OF SCIENCE  
IN DEMOGRAPHY**

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**ADDIS ABABA UNIVERSITY  
SCHOOL OF GRADUATE STUDIES**

*Demographic Responses to Women's Poverty in Addis Ababa: The  
Case of Kolfe Keranio Sub-City (Kebele 02 and 03)*

*By*

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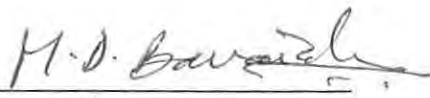
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## ACRONYMS

CRDA	Christian Relief Development Association
CSA	Central statistical Authority
ECA	Economic Commission for Africa
EIIPD	Ethiopian International Institute for Peace and Development
HDI	Human Development Index
FSS	Forum for Social Science
ILO	International Labour Organization
IJSSP	International Union for Scientific Study of Population
LCDs	Less Developed Countries
MOFED	Ministry of Finance and Economic Development
PMC	Population and Media Centre
SIDA	Swedish International Development Agency
SPSS	Statistical package for Social Scientist
SSA	Sub- Saharan Africa
UNDP	United Nations Development Program

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## **CHAPTER ONE**

### **1. Introduction**

#### **1.1 Statement of the problem**

World wide in 1990's over one billion people are estimated to have a purchasing power of below a dollar per day, which is the conventional demarcation of absolute poverty. It is commonly through to be associated with high and rapid population growth. Regionally, South Asia and Africa have the highest poverty rate (IUSSP, 1994; Nicoll, 1997). In Sub Saharan Africa probably about 250 million people approximately about 95% of the population is to day living on less than \$1 a day (Tizita 2001).

The level of poverty in Ethiopia is one of the most serious in the world. Ethiopia remains one of the poorest despite rapid population growth. Regarding the level of food poverty, analysis showed that the proportion of country's population below food poverty line stood at 42% in 1999/2000. The proportion for urban and rural area was 41% and 47% respectively (PMC, 2004).

The 1993 World Bank showed that the poverty line in urban areas of Ethiopia is estimated at birr 244 per month for family of five in 1992. Varsity of data sources reported that in 1994 the approximate 8.1 million people living in urban areas of which about 4.9 million was living below poverty line of which half of these people were desperately poor (The government of Ethiopia 1996, cited in Tizita, 2001).

Poverty has always been gendered phenomenon and its historical data provide remarkably consistent picture of women's experience of deprivation over the last hundred years (Ruspini, 2004). Poverty is quit different experience from that of men's because of structural causes of women's poverty to be found in the interaction between dependence; social exclusion and social change.

## Abstract

Poverty in Ethiopia has been gendered phenomena that women were hardest hit by the problem of poverty. Various researches attempt to explain women's poverty in relation to economic situations. Nonetheless, there is no or few research conducted on demographic responses of women's poverty. Therefore, this paper attempted to fill the gap considering the demographic responses in terms of family size, intention to migration, morbidity, marital status and family planning. The data were collected from 422 women in Kolfe- Keranio sub city, Kebele 02/03 on the bases of purposive and random sampling techniques. According to the descriptive analysis, most (68.5%) women have low monthly income less than 260 Birr, which is below poverty line based on the current exchange rate. Moreover, majority of them live in poor housing conditions that were constructed from poor materials. In addition to that, 2.7 %of women experienced an early marriage and 22.3 % postponed marriage as result of poverty. Further more, Chi square test of independency was administered in order to identify any association that might exist between poverty status of women and various ranges of demographic responses to poverty. According to the Chi square test, morbidity, family size and intention to move were found to have significant associations with poverty level of women. The multivariate logistic regression model revealed that respondents with better educational attainment have more intention to migrate as compared respondents with low educational attainment. The result of multivariate logistic regression for contraceptive use revealed that those respondents with educational attainment of primary and secondary and above use contraceptives 1.902 and 3.851 times greater respectively as compared to respondents with out schooling. In general, any poverty reduction strategy should take into account the demographic characteristics of poor women accordingly; a progress can be made to alleviate the women's poverty in particular and at societal level in general.

In Ethiopia's tradition, the proper place women is said to be at home, and husbands have more power than wives do in the control of family resource. It is also observed that the members do not share the poverty of the poor family equally. In poor family women often have responsible for managing the money where men control the main source of income. Therefore, women primarily bear the burden of family's poverty

On the other hand, poor women have highest fertility at lower rate of calorie intake. At macro level interactions comprises the way in which households respond to poverty. Family formations, migration strategies and the way in which child bearing, dependence of and household size all directly affect the welfare (Rodgers,1989).An important aspect of poverty may be reduced by high fertility that large family size may facilitate labour market strategy but at the same time high fertility may be responsible for low incomes.

The poor woman usually lacks assets as well as income and household materials. Poor woman usually live in shanty area and have too many children. The number of children they bear determines their status in society, especially sons. Because of their social responsibilities and unequal status, women are particularly dependent on their children for security. Poverty and low status of women are the primary cause of rapid population growth (IUSSP, 1994).

The present internal structure of urban poverty in Addis Ababa in particular shows the fact that economic base and infrastructure levels are not in accordance with population size. Additional population would not only aggravate the already existed socio- economic problems such as unemployment, housing, infrastructure, etc, but also rapid population growth would raise a serious problem to the city of Addis Ababa.

Among poor women especially women household heads seems to be the ones that are the most seriously affected by the problem in the city large number of woman are concentrated in the various resource poor categories of urban

population with out property and wealth. Gender based poverty assessments have found that women hit hardest by the problem of the problem of the city. The general fact shows that women earn low income. They are uneducated, malnourished and over burdened with difficult tasks. Most of these women get their income from working in informal sector. These activities hinder them from saving and investing in the ways that they can improve their lives. Many of them live in squatter and slum areas of the city with low facilities (CRDA, 1997). The present study attempts to analyse this situation focusing on the demographic response of women's poverty in Addis Ababa.

## **1. 2 Rationale of the Study**

It is now widely accepted that poverty reduction strategies are of the major issue of the world even if the level of poverty varies from place to place and from county to country. Poverty affects all members of the society although there are differences among men and women. We talk of poverty it is important to take account not only differences between women and men but also the differences between women themselves, depending on their position on the ladder of live defined the interaction of age and key events such as gainful employment, marriage, birth of children, divorce and widowhood among others. Although interests focused on women have arisen when attempting to reduce poverty, gender has generally been included as a variation of poverty problem. Different projects and governments attempted to reduce poverty than gender inequalities and consider women as providers of services not as individuals with rights, need and lives of their own. It is also difficult to say that women's poverty that brought about the inclusion of women, resulting that the majority of them are poor. Moreover, women's poverty often thought of as directly linked to the proportion of households headed by women, thus rendering invisible women who live in a couple and their different experiences of living in poverty. Although, several studies have made on poverty in this county a closer look into these research work showed that there seemed to be an apparent failure in the studies to make the analyse of the dynamics of poverty from gender side. This study attempts

to see women's poverty, responses, and their coping strategies to get rid of poverty. Since the attempt is to find out the degree of causality of women's poverty and their response to it, it is hoped that it will give some clue and information for future programs that aim at the reduction of poverty.

### **1.3 Objectives**

The main objective of this study is to investigate how demographic variables respond to women's poverty as well as to find out their relationships. Based on this main objective the following specific objectives are forwarded.

- 1 Assessing the level of women's poverty on the basis of their income and Expenditure
- 2 Explaining the living condition of the poor women with particular emphasis on housing conditions
- 3 Analysing how each demographic variables respond to women's poverty and,
- 4 on the basis of the study finding to suggest some possible solution to the problem

### **1.4 Research Questions**

1. Do households with low income and low educational level have large family size?
2. Are women with low income, expenditure and poor housing conditions having an intention to migrate?
3. Does poverty affect marriage pattern?
4. Is morbidity the outcome of low income?
5. Do women use contraceptives to limit family size?

## **1.5 Limitation of the Study**

The study is constrained by lack of recent data in enriching the literature part that gender related poverty issues are very limited. One of the difficulties faced during the fieldwork include that it was a time election and the study population put doubt about the researcher considering among one of the political parties. The study also lacks the qualitative aspect, except making little discussion with limited key informants because of financial and time constraint.

Another limitation of the study is that the socio- economic indicators are indexed to make poverty comparison in terms of poor and better off instead of separate analysis of each variable. However, with some significant variables an attempt was made to see separate analysis of each case of poverty indicators.

## **1.6 Organization of the Thesis**

The study has six chapters. The first chapter deals with statement of the problem, general and specific objectives, research questions, rationale and limitations of the study. Chapter two consist of the related literatures on global poverty, urban poverty is developing countries, profile of poverty in Ethiopia, women and poverty, housing conditions, demographic responses and features of poverty in Addis Ababa. The third chapter incorporates research design and methodology, which comprises of source of data, sampling techniques and method of analysis. The fourth chapter deals with socio-economic and demographic characteristics of the study population. Chapter five deals with statistical test of association between predictor and response variables using chi- square. After association between response and predictor variables were tested further analysis were made using binary logistic regression. Finally, chapter six deals with summary, conclusion and recommendations.

## CHAPTER TWO

### 2. REVIEW OF LITERATURE

#### 2.1. Global Poverty

In the most comprehensive and wider-ranging study to date, the World Bank in its world development report, 1990 attempted to estimate especially the magnitude of third world poverty.

Poverty affects large proportion of the world's population. There are many parts of each country of the world including the richest in spite of their wealth where poverty is the problem. It was estimated that about quarter of the world's population live in absolute poverty with out adequate basic need (UN, 1996).

Any household with an income in 1985 possess below \$275 was categorized as extremely poor and those below \$370 was classified as poor. During this time, the highest poverty rate is found in sub-Saharan Africa- and followed by South Asia (Todaro, 1994).

Table 1.1 Poverty of the third world 1985 and 1990  
(World Bank estimates)

Region	1985		1990			
	Extremely poor		Poor( including extremely poor )			
	number (million)	percent	Number (In million)	Percent	Number (million)	Percent
SSA	120	30%	184	47.6	216	49.7
East Asia	120	9%	182	13.2	169	11.3
South Asia	300	29	532	51.8	562	49.0
North Africa	40	21	60	30.6	73	33.1
Latin America & Caribbean	50	12	87	22.4	108	25
All developing	633	18	1,051	30.5	1,133	25.5

Source: World Bank, WDR, (1990) poverty (New York: Oxford University press,1990), table.2.1,World Bank,WDR,1992: Development and environment,

(New York: Oxford University press,1992,table 1.1) cited in Todaro (1994 :146)

In 1980s, the highest poverty occurred in East Asia. There has also been a decline in the incidence of poverty in south Asia, though this in late 1980s was not strong enough to prevent an increase in the number of poor people. Latin America, the Caribbean and Middle East and North African show an increase in both the numbers of the poor and incidence of poverty. Sub-Saharan Africa shows an increase and slight increase in the proportion of poor, so that the concentration of poverty in Sub-Saharan Africa is nearly equally to that of south Asia about half of the population (Baden and Milward, 1995).

World development report (1992) indicated that in 1985, some 1051 million people live below poverty line with an over all poverty rate of 30.5 percent extremely poor, where million people or 18 percent of developing world's population.

In general, the poverty gap is highest in sub-Saharan Africa. That is the poor in Africa are the poorer, even though less numerous, than the poor in south Asia. The next poorest region in terms of depth is south Asia followed by the Middle East and North Africa, then Latin America and the Caribbean. In global terms, sub-Saharan Africa, south Asia and the Middle East have the poorest records on social indicators. In sub-Saharan Africa, for example, primary enrolment rates fell between 1980 and 1990 (world Bank, 1993, cited in Baden and Milward, 1995).

Comparing poverty in the 1970, and 1990s revealed that, although poverty remain concentrated in rural Asia, the poor in 1990 are more likely than in 1970 to be African, Urban and specifically Urban women and children. (Ibid)

Out of a population of 580 million in the mid 1990s more than 270 million African were living on daily incomes equivalent to less than a dollar a day, 250 million Africans did not have access to health services. The scale of poverty in Africa is staggering and behind it is an immense scale of individual tragedy and suffering (World Bank, 2001)

## **2.2. Urban Poverty in Developing countries**

Poverty is neither limited to urban areas nor confined to third world countries. Actually, a number of scholars have argued that the forms and dimensions of poverty in urban areas are very different. Rural poverty is marked by its common connection with agriculture and land while urban poverty is more heterogeneous owing to its tie to various ways of income generation. Nonetheless, urban poverty remains to be a reflection of rural poverty (Assign, 1997).

Urban poverty is usually tied to the growth of urban population. Rural poverty undoubtedly contributes to urban population growth; an efforts to improve living conditions for urban poor may be to stimulate migration Lepton and Ravallion (1993) have pointed out that among other things, typically the highest incidence and severity of poverty are still found in rural areas. For many of the rural poor the only immediate route out of poverty is migration to obtain a higher expected income although often a more uncertain one.

In certain cities after rural migration, a possible escape forms poverty (joblessness, unemployment and low productive or, subsistence work). However, the problem is that the urban economy cannot readily absorb the great influx of rural poor. Therefore, this condition intensify competition in the general living condition of urban population and most urban dwellers particularly women migrants become poor (Gilbert and Gugler, 1992).

For the past three decades, much of the developing world has witnessed unprecedented levels of urbanization with more people flocking to urban centres in search of better economic opportunities and improved standards of living. Several interrelated factors including political instabilities, civil wars and ethnic conflicts, deteriorating rural economies and living conditions in the country side, push and increasing number of people of cities (FSS, 2003).

Unable to cope with the demand for service and face with sever resource constraints many cities in developing nations are beleaguered by widespread and fast spread urban poverty. Chronic urban poverty continues to affect large numbers of urban resident in cities and towns across Africa, Asia and Latin America. Based on per capita income, one estimate made in 1993 put the number of people considered to be below the poverty line at 328 million or 28 percent of total urban population of most developing countries (Devas Radodi, 1993, cited in FSS, 2001).

Recent national and urban studies on move show that a third to a half of a specific nation's urban population has income too low to allow them to meet basic needs and thus considered below the poverty line. A study, which was conducted in 1999 covering 21 sub-Saharan Africa countries, indicated that urban proportion of 15 countries considered below the poverty line ranged form 41 to 59 percent (Elizabeth, 1999; FSS, 2001:18)

Table 1.2 Percentage of Population below poverty line of 15, SSA countries

No	Country	Population Percent
1	Gambia	40.09
2	Mali	41.33
3	Niger	41.60
4	Kenya	42.52
5	Guinea	43.52
6	Burkina Faso	44.16
7	Uganda	44.84
8	Madagascar	45.09
9	Djibouti	45.40
10	Tanzania	49.58
11	Central Africa Rep.	49.73
12	Ethiopia	52.90
13	Guinea Bissau	52.91
14	Zambia	53.35
15	Swaziland	58.58

Source: Elizabeth Woldemariam, cited FSS, 2001

### **2.3. An Overview of Poverty in Ethiopia**

Recent estimates of poverty indicate that Ethiopia is one of the poorest nations on earth. Social and welfare indicators of the country is the worst even by African standards. With per capita income of 115 USD (World Bank, 1999) Ethiopia ranked 170 out of 175. According to UNDP (1998), the human development index (HDI) for Ethiopia is one of the least 0.244 compared to HDI of 0.380 for sub-Saharan Africa. Health, education and welfare indicators are indeed depressing, Infant mortality is about 110/1000 live birth, morbidity 212 persons/1000 and nearly 40% of children under five show symptoms of malnutrition, only 45% of population has access to health services, primary school enrolment ratio may not be higher than 21% (Ermias, 2001).

Therefore, Ethiopia remains one of the poorest countries in the world despite a decade of rapid economic growth of 5.8%. Its poverty results from a number of structural factors including, geographical location, extreme vulnerability to weather shocks, health hazards (HIV/AIDS; malaria, and TB) and lack of infrastructure rapid population growth, and extreme environmental degradation. These factors have combined to lock substantial parts of the population in a poverty trap (Abebe, 1999).

The statistical figure on the state of poverty would confirm what a casual observer would feel about poverty in Ethiopia; it is massive, chronic, and exceedingly deep and severe. Thus, the country is better known for its symbol of object poverty all over the world (FSS, 2003)

According to FSS, the percentage of poor who could not secure the bare minimum needs for survival is estimated to be around 45% in 1995/96. In terms of popular 1 USD a day per person in this figure is about 89%. The measurement of poverty is sensitive to the determination of the poverty line.

The proportion of poor in Ethiopia whose total consumption expenditure was less than the total poverty line during the year 1990/00 was 44%. The proportions of people who are classified as poor are 37% in urban areas and 45% in rural. With rapid urbanization and population growth rates and the stagnation of income, urban poverty has become a serious phenomenon for Ethiopia. Several factors have been contributed to the acute urban poverty in Ethiopia, among which rural-urban migration, high rates of natural increase, displaced people are prominent (Yassin, 1997).

According to the World Bank of 1992, it has been estimated that about 50-60 percent of the households in Addis Ababa subsist on less than 200 birr per month, which is well below poverty line. Poverty has become rampant and wide spread in the city. According to the 1992 World Bank, findings about 60 percent of urban as well as rural were found to have fallen below the poverty line (World Bank, 1992 cited in FSS, 2001). Recent estimates also do not seem to show significant improvement in the over all poverty situation.

In the context of Addis Ababa, it is a phenomenon involving issues related to income, labour market, public infrastructure and services, shelter, social execution etc. In this respect, a detail of these dimensions is a precondition for obtaining better out look about the extent of poverty in the city (Ibid).

According to the house hold income and expenditure survey conducted by CSA shows that 41.5 percent of the house holds in Addis Ababa earn income less than Birr 4100 per year which means about 342 Birr per month. According to the same source, a little over one-third or 34.5 percent of the households spend less than Birr 550 a month.

Regardless of the differences in their respective estimation of different researchers, the extent of the problem is increasing instead of diminishing (FSS, 2001).

## **2.4. Women and Poverty**

Poverty is not gender free. Research has shown the differences between men and women in access and control of land, credit, technology, education, and health. Women's inequality in household decision-making and community and public participation is a well-documented event (WB, 2002).

Another important generalization about poverty is that it affects a disproportionate number of women. If we compare the lives of inhabitants of the poorest communities across developing countries, it can be discovered that everywhere women experience the highest deprivation. Women are more likely to be poor and malnourished and less likely to receive health services, clean water, sanitation or other benefits. The prevalence of female-headed households, the lower earning capacity of women and their limited control over their spouses' income all contributing to the problem. In addition, women have less access to education, formal employment, social security and government employment programs. These situations combine and worsen women's poverty (Todaro, 1994)

The poorest segment of the third world population live in a household headed by women in which there are generally no women wage earners. In general, women in female-headed household have less education, lower income and higher fertility. In addition to greater burden on single parent, large household size is associated with lower food expenditure (Ibid).

Mothers who live alone are particularly vulnerable when compared to married mothers, as they are less likely to have access to consumer goods. Alone living women may be more socially isolated than two-parent families. The initial economies which are immediately made in a situation of reduced domestic income involve are education of social and leisure activities during holidays, hobbies and entertainment. In general, the economic poverty has important negative implication for the lives of poor women. Living in poverty

restricts the activities in which children can participate (Cohe et al., 1992, cited in Ruspini, 2004).

Poor women in Ethiopia have very little access to land credit, and other productive sources, longer working days, women ill health, much higher rates of illiteracy and low levels of education relative to their counter parts.

In addition to material deprivation, poor women experiences the qualitative dimensions of poverty such as lack of free time, poor self-esteem and dependency much more than poor men (FSS, 2001).

The evidence for Ethiopia about female-headship and poverty is not easily available. However, (Abbi, 1996 report cited in Girma, 1997) 14.3 percent of rural and 54 percent of urban households are headed by female-headship. Mohammed and Simon (1995) found that in Addis Ababa female household account for 37 percent and they are more represented in the low-income category.

The degree of economic hardship may also vary widely with in households. In fact, among the poor the economic status of women provides a better indication of their own welfare, as well as that of their children. Existing studies of intra household resource allocation clearly indicate that in many regions of the world there exists a strong bias against females in areas such as nutrition, medical care, education and inheritance. When household income is marginal, virtually 100% of women's income contributed towards household nutritional intake (Todaro, 1994). The persistence of low levels of living among women and children is common where the economic status of women remain low.

## **2.5 Housing Conditions**

Housing is one of the necessities of man. It considerably influences man's physical, mental and social well-being. For all accounts, it plays a central

role in shaping and determining human life. Therefore, as pointed out by Pioro (1967), cited in Daniel (2001:103) adequate and favourable housing conditions are necessary for the welfare and well-being of human being. Even though housing is one of the basic human necessities, millions of people around the world are either homeless or inadequately occupying houses.

Housing is a highly visible dimension of poverty. Perhaps that is why it constitutes such an emotive issue in so many cities of developing countries. The sight of thousands or millions of people huddled in Shabby by accommodation with a minimum of servicing is certain to evoke some reaction from politicians and public alike.

It is very easy to demonstrate the effects of poverty on housing. On any index of service provisions, room density or physical quality, a majority of urban population is living at standards that are clearly unacceptable when compared to the way most Europeans or North Americans live. In urban China, homes are so crowded that every person occupies an average area of only 4.8 square meters (Gilbert et al 1992:14). In Greater Bombay 1997, households with an average of 5.3 persons live in one room. In Ghana room density range from 2.5 to 3.2 in cities of Takoradi, Kumasi and Accra. In Nigeria, the average density in Lagos dwellings is 4.1 Persons per room (Ibid).

In large cities, poor housing conditions are likely to be represented in the high proportion of people living in one room and paying high rents. Jobs and services may be available in the central areas of those cities, but space is at a premium. In small cities, the problems may be just the reverse.

The differences in housing conditions in different developing countries are a function of differing level of per capita income, the distribution of wealth, the rate of urban growth and the form of societal organization. However, they also reflect difference in the responses of the poor in each city. Such responses vary dramatically according to the poor own expansion of their life

kerosene lamps. The data showed that out of total residential units, 74.1 percent have toilets but the remaining 24.9 did not have toilets

## **2.6 Demographic Responses**

Demographic responses originates from the theory of Malthus . It is said that the theory of malthus is based on the theory of response theory. Responses resulting according to Malthus, from the lack of balance between resources and population. However, the most important illustration of the response theory in demography is the very concept of demographic transition, which was initiated in the recognition of the existence of response by population to some forces of change like societal changes to modernization (Markos, 1997).

In short, changes in demographic structures as well as reproductive behaviour of population because of some forces had had initiated the development of the theory of demographic responses. The subject of demographic responses to socio economic changes has interested scholars of different fields but economists, sociologists and demographers are the forefront. For example the work of kingsley Davids is one whose study is relevant to demographic responses. The demographic transition of the population of western world that Davids give an excellent framework of analysis for demographic responses to social and economic changes followed by industrialization process in this society (Hackenberg and Henary ,1985)

According to Davids the process of demographic change and response is not only continuous but also reflexive and behavioural. Reflexive in a sense that a change in one component is eventually altered by a change it has induced in other component and behavioural in a sense that the process involves human decisions in the pursuit of goals with the varying means and conditions( Hackenberg and Henary,1985).

## **2.7 Features of Poverty in Addis Ababa**

The population of Addis Ababa has been increased from time to time there by aggravating the cities problem. In the study of poverty analysis one has to establish a poverty line. i.e. minimum monthly income needed for purchasing for food and non food items. According this, figure for city of Addis Ababa in 1967 was 77 Birr. That is 47 Birr for food and 30 for non food items. In 1978 it increased to 94 Birr (56 Birr for food and 38 for non-food items) and the figure 1982 rose to 133 Birr i.e. 78 and 55 Birr for food and non-food items respectively. For the year 1992 several assumptions were made of which the prominent ones was 244 Birr (193 for food and 51 for non food) with various average calorie intake and household size (WB, 1992)

In 1976, it was explained that 51% of the population of Addis Ababa was living below poverty line and this figure increased to 56% in 1978. Whereas the number of poor increased form 504,900 to 630,200 during this time. The percentage of population who could not afforded the cost for minimum food basket was estimated at 33% and 34% in 1976 and 1978 respectively.

A study made by world Bank in 1982 indicated that the average poverty threshold of Addis Ababa in 1978 was estimated to Birr 135 per month per household size of 5.3 According to this estimation 69 percent of the household in Addis Ababa had income below the absolute poverty threshold. According to the Addis Ababa water supply authority of 1981, the threshold increased to Birr 165 and with this level about 77% of the household size lived under the threshold (Daniel, 2001).

According the result of the 1984 census, 35 percent of the households in Addis Ababa live at subsistence level, i.e. with monthly income estimated at Birr 170 per household (ILO, 1984, Goitom, 1995) cited in Yassin, 1997:26). Poverty hit percentage of population increased from 45.4 percent in 1990 to 51.4 percent in 1991 and to 63 percent in 1992. The group that is affected by food shortage also significantly increased from 1990 to 1992.

The World Bank (1992) indicated that, if 244 Birr per month for a family of five is considered, as poverty line for Addis Ababa was 60 percent (1.14 million) of estimated 1.9 million population of Addis Ababa were poor.

An other study made by Peterson (1999) the level of poverty is increasing from time to time. It is estimated that more than half of Addis Ababa's population (more than 1 million of total population of 2.1 million ) is living below poverty line. About 80 percent of population suffers from the results of bad housing circumstances. The expenses used for food water and energy take more than 70 percent of their income.

According to Solomon (1993), 53 percent of the population were under poverty while 43 percent were under food poverty based on monthly household income. As study shows, the weight of poverty falls most on certain household groups. Accordingly, one would expect high incidence of poverty among female headed (widowed, divorced and single). One would also expect the same among beggar household and household headed by old, less educated, self employed and retired people. For instance, Solomon (1993) indicated that 72.2 percent of over all female sample households earn a monthly income of 100 birr or less while only 25 percent of over all male sample households were in the same income group.

According to Peterson (1999), the capacity of local government to manage the city is inadequate and crime, the number of street children and homeless persons, traffic congestion and poverty is increasing. About 80% of the total population suffers form results of bad housing circumstances. The expenses need for food; water and energy take more than 70 percent of their daily income.

Experiences have proven that urban areas grow in population thus; government and the community are facing increasingly pressure to provide services and infrastructures facilities and effectively to coordinate and, manage the development of cities and towns. Since as few decades, due to

both high rates of natural increase and arrival of large number of migrants, the population of Addis Ababa has been rapidly increasing there by intensifying the city's problems.

## **2.8 Definition and Analytical Framework**

A person may be viewed as poor when he or she does not have adequate access to the necessities of life such as food, clothing, shelter, education and health care. It is well accepted that poverty is multidirectional phenomenon, which is at best only partially captured in data based on estimates of income or consumption expenditure. Indeed, poverty in developing countries is far more comprehensive state of being, which encompasses not just material want but also powerlessness and marginalization (Ghosh, 1998).

According to the World Bank Report (2001) cited in Tassew and Tekie (2002:112) poverty has many dimensions extending beyond the level of income. The first dimension is material deprivation (lack of opportunity), which is measured by an appropriate concept of income or consumption. The second dimension is low achievement in education and health (low capabilities). These two dimension of poverty have been recognised by the world development report of 1990, the third and the fourth dimensions of poverty are vulnerability and exposure to risks or low level of security and voiceless ness.

The most common definition of poverty in developing countries refers to material consumption, and expenditure for fulfilment of life. Other factors associated with poverty are lack of income and productive assets associated with poverty and hunger, malnutrition, greater morbidity and higher mortality rates ( Tassew and Tekie (2002:113).

Therefore, women's poverty and demographic behaviour and intertwined in ways which make it often difficult to disentangle cause and effect and one can understand that there exist two-way natures of interactions among the

variables. However, for the sake of this study poverty is considered as explanatory variable, while demographic variables are taken as response variable.

### **2.8 .1 Measuring Poverty**

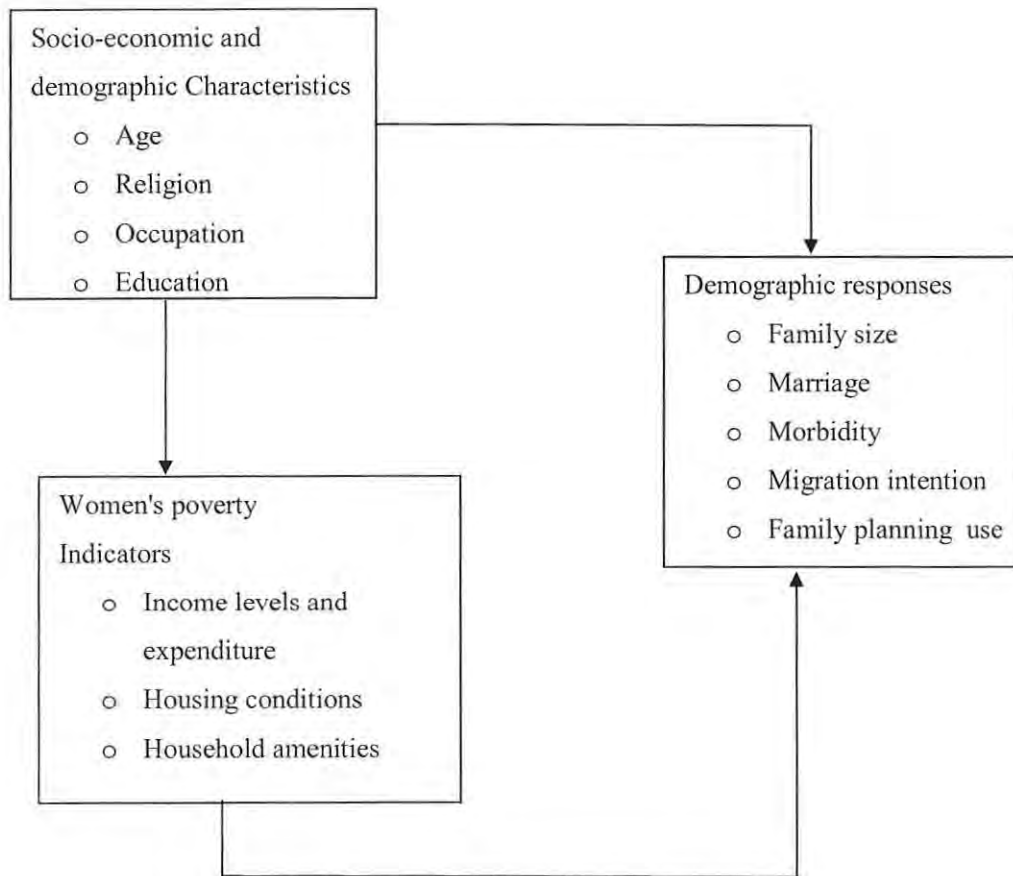
Measuring poverty seems to have primarily alleged on distinction between absolute and relative poverty. Absolute poverty is a situation of insufficient command over resource independent of the general style of living in society which refers to the condition where households are unable to lead a minimum desirable level of living (the minimum needs and amount of money required to satisfy those needs).It is associated with subsistence poverty. On the other hand, relative poverty is situation relative deprivation that depends on the general style of the society. Relative poverty is the comparison between living standard of the poor and living standard of other members of the society who are not poor usually involving measure of average standard of those societies in which being studied (Daniel, 2001, FSS, 2002).

The third type of poverty is subjective poverty, which aims to elicit local people's conception of poverty deprivation and to harness their own priorities in the complex and heterogeneous societies in which they live. This approach explicitly recognized that poverty is inherently subjective judgments in individuals make up about what constitutes socially acceptable minimum standard of living in a particular society. The amount of income and expenditure individuals believe to sustain this minimum standard of living is subjective poverty (Towsend, 1979, Mark, 1985) cited in Tizita (2001).

Poverty measurement assumes that there is a pre determined and well-defined level of standard of living called poverty line below, which a person is deemed to be under poverty that is the extent to which the survival of an individual is threatened. In fact, in most societies especially in poorest societies the idea of what comprises poverty might go beyond the attainment

of absolute minimum need for survival. Hence, poverty exists but values differ based on their location and type in which people live (FSS, 2002).

### Analytical Framework



Source: Developed by writer

## **CHAPTER THREE**

### **3. DATA SOURCES AND METHODS OF ANALYSIS**

Different data sources and methods implemented to obtain information on age, religion, ethnicity, marital status, family size, employment, education, housing conditions, migration, health condition and family planning information.

#### **3.1 Secondary Data Sources**

Data from secondary sources collected from different materials such as books, journals, internet and different documents. The secondary data sources used to enrich the related literature and some topics of the research.

#### **3.2 Primary Data**

The primary data sources collected through detailed household survey based on structured questionnaire and interview.

#### **3.3 Survey Methods and Sampling Procedure**

The households were the primary sampling unit in this study. Sample households are designed to apply both purposive and random sampling. First of all the study area is purposely selected among other corner of Addis Ababa where it is one disadvantages area of the city. Secondly women from kebele 03/02 of kolfe- keranio who are female headed are chosen purposely from the list of kebele . Lastly, after completion of the female-headed from kebele list, by excluding the already selected women random sampling applied on currently married women (male headed).

### 3.4 Sample Size Determination

In this study, 422 women are purposely and randomly interviewed. The sample size determined based on the following formula and assumption (KurtzR., 1983).

$$n = p (1-p) (z/e)^2 \quad \text{where:}$$

n = is the size of the sample

z = is the standard normal value corresponding to the desired level of the confidence

e = Error of precision

p = is an estimate of population

#### Assumptions

- 1 In the absence of the previous prevalence data on population under study, and to obtain the maximum sample size, p is assumed to be 50% (0.5)
- 2 Margin of error, e =5% is accepted.
- 3 A confidence interval of 95% is assumed ( $z_{\alpha} = 1.96$ )

$$n = \frac{(1.96)^2 * 0.5 (1-0.5) + 10}{(0.05)^2} = 422$$

For non-response errors, 10 % of contingency added to the sample size.

### 3.5 Data Collection Instruments

A structured questionnaire are prepared for the survey first in English and then translated in to Amharic language to collect the desirable information. The structured questionnaire used as instrument of the research needed for quantitative analysis.

In data collection process, 12 female interviewers based on their education and those who have experiences in survey are recruited. They

were also given training on the content of the questionnaire and interviewing techniques for three days. At the same time three supervisors recruited and trained at the same time who closely follow the process of data collection. Moreover, the principal researcher conducted focused group discussion while the data collection process is in progress. The discussion was held with few selected women to enrich the qualitative aspect the research and in order to find out information missed by the questionnaire.

### **3.6 Data Processing and Analysis**

After fieldwork is completed and questionnaires are edited and coded, the data entered in to computer and processed by using SPSS soft ware. With the help of this program descriptive analysis frequency distribution of the relevance, variables are made. Chi- square test and correlation coefficient are applied to see the association between different variables. Lastly, multivariate techniques are used to see further relation ships between variables and impacts of predictors on response variable.

## CHAPTER FOUR

### 4. SOCIO-ECONOMIC AND DEMOGRAPHIC CHARACTERISTICS OF STUDY POPULATION

#### 4.1. Age of the Respondents

The age of respondents classified by age group depicts uniformity with slight difference that excepting in the lower and higher ages. Large proportion of the respondents lies in the age group of 35-39, which account for 19.2% and the lowest 15-19 (0.7%).

The data on age is very important for the description and analysis of socio economic characteristics. Age composition is the product of past fertility, mortality and migration trends and in turn influences the trend in population increase. The age structure of study population is indicated in the table 4.1

Table 4.1 Percentages of respondents by age group

Age group	Number	Percent
15-19	3	.7
20-24	23	5.5
25-29	51	12.1
30-34	55	13.0
35-39	81	19.2
40-44	68	16.1
45-49	49	11.6
50-54	41	9.7
55-59	23	5.5
60-64	14	3.3
65+	14	3.3
Total	422	100.0

Source: field survey

#### 4.2 Religion and Ethnic Composition

Table 4.2 Percentage distribution of respondents by religion and ethnicity

Religion	Ethnicity					Total
	Oromo	Amhara	Tigre	Gurage	Others	
Orthodox	75	214	19	31	18	357
Muslim	8	12	2	14		36
Protestant	10	8	2	1	5	26
Catholic		2				2
Others	1					1
Total	94	236	23	46	23	422

Source: Survey result, 2005

According to the above table majority of the respondents are Amhara followed by Oromo, Guraghe and Tigre. Concerning to religion orthodox is the dominant followed by Muslim and protestant respectively.

#### 4.3 Marital status of the Respondents

Table: 4.3 Percentage of respondents by marital status

Marital status	Number	Percent
Single	23	5.5
Currently married	234	55.5
Divorced	64	15.2
Widowed	101	23.9
Total	422	100.0

Source: Field survey, 2005

Table 4.3 shows the percentage of respondents by marital status. With respect to marital status, 188 households are female headed and the remaining 234 are currently married women. The female-headed category includes widowed, divorce and single. Accordingly, more than half of the

respondents (55.5%) are currently married women and the remaining (44.5%) are female headed.

Marital status is one of the determinant factors in the well-being of women. If the women who are married, it is expected that they may be in better of position as compared to single, widowed and divorced. Especially women living alone are among the poorest segment of these groups. Female-headed household are not belonging to labour force participation that is why they appear to have considerably less access to income. On the other hand, married women are also seen less likely to undertake employment because their live is committed to domestic duties including child bearing.

#### **4.4 Income Distribution of the Respondents**

It is very difficult to create a kind of strong association between different socio economic variables and income of the households. However, in this study an attempt has made to make poverty analysis based on income and expenditure of the households. Income has traditionally used as a measure of material deprivation. Moreover, in developing countries setting the households are likely underreporting their income.

Distribution of respondents by income is one of the central analyses of poverty of women. Therefore, in this part an attempt is made to assess the income distribution of the respondents in kebele 02/03 of kolfe- keranio sub city of Addis Ababa .The percentage distribution of respondents by their income is presented in the table 4.4

It is observed that out of 422 respondents, 230 of them earn their own income from different sources while the remaining 192 respondents were entirely dependent on their husband's income and other sources. As far as the type of activities concerned, majority of them found to be engaged in informal sector, but few respondents are reported as government employees.The survey result reveals that 27.7 percent of women earn a total

of monthly income below 100 Birr. The number of women who earn income above 500 Birr is about 7.5 % of the total respondents. Those who are dependent on their husband have relatively better than those who are in the category of widowed, divorced and single. Again, when income is reclassified on the base of USD equivalents both income earners by themselves and those who are dependent on their husbands and other sources are jointly about 68.5% of them earn below 260, and 31.5% above 260 Birr. Those who earn more than Birr 260 is taken as above poverty line while those who earn less than 260 Birr can be considered below poverty line and based on the justification cited above. The average income of the study area is 240.8 Birr, ranging from 30 Birr, which is the lowest to-1200, Birr the highest.

Male-headed households found predominantly in the middle and upper group income categories. This is perhaps due to the reason that most of female head households covered by the survey are in low forms of self-employment activities and earn the least income as compared to their counter parts.

Table 4.4 Percentage respondents according to their income distribution

Income (Birr)	Number	Percent
below 100	117	27.7
101-200	132	31.3
201-300	77	18.2
301-400	38	9.0
401-500	26	6.2
501-600	12	2.8
above 600	20	4.7
Total	422	100.0

Source :Field survey,2005

If we take only female heads out of the total households, which have their

own income (86.1%) earn income less than 260 Birr while the remaining 13.3% reported to have income above 260 Birr.

#### 4.5 Types of Occupation

As far as employment activities are concerned the majority of the respondents are engaged in informal sector. Particularly, female-headed households covered by the survey are working in the low forms of self-employment activities such as vending, petty trade and other small-scale commerce from which they obtain their daily income.

Few women who are working out side home and earn small portion of the household income, play an important role and are able to assert their position in household. One of their problems is that female work opportunities are limited. Few opportunities that exist are of such low status that women are not eager to take them unless there is other means of survival.

Table 4.5 Percentage distribution of respondents according to types of occupation

Occupation	Number	Percent
Petty trade	79	18.7
Maid servant	21	5.0
Office cleaner	18	4.3
House wife	196	46.4
Daily laborer	52	12.3
Others	56	13.3
Total	422	100.0

Source: Field survey

## 4.6 Distribution of the Expenditure

In order to analyze the living conditions of a given population one would normally require data on family income. It is however, difficult to obtain satisfactory and reliable data on income because many households intend to under report their income. Due to this major short coming of this study depends on expenditure (food and non food) side by side in order to see rough estimation of poverty. Therefore, the monthly expenditure of the households is one of the indicators of their economic well-being. Despite the variation of monthly expenditure of households due to different socioeconomic characteristics of the respondents, the general monthly expenditure is shown below in table 4.5 which is quite different. The monthly expenditure ranges from less than 100 Ethiopian Birr to more than 600 Birr ranging with the lowest expenditure of 30 birr to the highest of 1175 Birr and the mean is about 264 Birr.

Table 4.6 Percentage of respondents according to their monthly expenditure distribution

Expenditure(Birr)	Number	Percent
Below 100	50	11.8
101-200	137	32.5
201-300	107	25.4
301-400	61	14.5
401-500	35	8.3
501-600	11	2.6
Above 601	21	5.0
Total	422	100.0

Source: survey result, 2005

As it can be seen from above table that 11.8% of the respondents have spent below 100 Birr in a month. The highest proportion of the respondents observed in the expenditure category of 101-200 Birr. About 5% of the respondents also have spent more than 600 Birr in a month.

The household's expenditure is further divided between food and non-food expenditure. The non-food expenditure include money spent on clothing, house rent, water and light, telephone, education beverage, social activities like 'idir' and others. Almost all of the respondents spend their monthly income for food. Table 4.7 revealed that about 58.3 percent of the respondents spent less than 100 Birr on food items. It is observed that more than two fifth of the respondents found to spent on food 100 to 400 Birr, with very few exceptions who spent more than 400 Birr. As far as the non-food expenditure is concerned house rent, fuel (for cooking) education fees and social activities are some of the very common expenditure of the respondents.

Those households who cannot satisfy their needs are suffering from shortage of both food and non-food items. Because of the low income of the household, it may not be sufficient to meet both the minimum food requirements and non-food items. Out of the total respondents, about 73% reported that their income could not cover their monthly expenditure. On the other hand, about 72.5 percent of the respondents faced food shortage in their lifetime.

Table 4.7 Percentage of respondents according to monthly expenditure for food items

Expenditure(Birr)	Number	Percent
Below 100	246	58.3
101-200	120	28.4
201-300	46	10.9
301-400	8	1.9
401-500	1	.2
501-600	1	.2
Total	422	100.0

Source: Survey result, 2005

#### 4.7 Family size and income

The table 4.8 presents the distribution of respondents by their income and family size. It is revealed that women whose income is low, their family size was large. Relatively from low-income category of women, about 82.1 percent of the respondents have family size of 1-2 as compared to 17.9 percent of having 1-2 members in the family whose income is above 260 Birr. This implies that the higher proportion of women of the low-income group intends to restrict their families. As the size of family increases from three to six members, the number of income earners below 260 Birr increases. For instance, about 67.9 percent of the households who earn below 260 Birr have large family size (more than nine) members in contrast to who earn more than 260 Birr (32.1 percent) with similar family size. Statistically there is a significant association between income and family size.

Table 4.8 Percentage distribution of respondents by income and family size

Family Size	Income					
	Below 260(Birr)		Above 260(Birr)		Total	
	N	%	N	%	N	%
1-2	23	82.1	5	17.9	28	100
3-4	85	76.6	26	45.0	111	100
5-6	93	71.0	38	29	131	100
7-8	53	53.5	46	46.5	99	100
9+	36	67.9	17	32.1	53	100
Total	290	68.7	132	31.3	422	100

Source: Survey result, 2005

#### 4.8 Educational Characteristics of the respondents

Table 4.9 presents the literacy level of the study population. It is seen that out of the total house holds 27.2 percent have no schooling, whereas

informal education( 19 %), primary(32.5%),secondary (18.7%)and higher education (2.6).

Table 4.9 Percentage of respondents by their level of education

No.	Educational level of the respondents		
		Number	Percent
1	No schooling	115	27.2
2	Informal	80	19
3	Primary	137	32.5
4	secondary	79	18.7
5	Diploma	11	2.6
	Total	422	100

Source: survey result, 2005

We can say that the educational level of women is very low. Because of the low level of education majority of women have low monthly income and that may be the reason that they are most likely very poor and this association is observed statically significant. The level of education has direct relation ship with their income. Thus, lower educational attainment also found to be related with their low expenditure capacity.

Education is among the factors influencing the participation of women in the labour force. The data tend to vary with the mode of employment appears to be a function of the opportunities existing within the household production activities. Better-educated women generally belonging to upper income groups, that tend to join the labour force as professional or in the white-collar occupation. A higher level of women's education was found to be negatively associated with self-employment. Less educated or illiterate women belonged to low income households who would take up jobs as maidservant or participate in female self-employment. In general, the highest proportions of illiterate women are found among those belonging to the low income. There is a significant association between the level of education and income level ( $\chi^2=29.97$ ,  $p < .000$ ).

As far as sending their children to school are concerned among school age children there are about 20.6 percent dropout during the survey time. Of

this about 13.8 percent is due to low income to send their children to school and rather made them to leave school and working in income generating activities. Child work appears to be influenced by availability of employment opportunities as unpaid family workers and the subsistence needs of the household. The relationship between this work pattern and family members is difficult to interpret. Child labour may reduce poverty in short term. Group discussion was held with few key informants and accordingly they replied that they are unable to send all of the age children to school rather they made them to attain turn by turn. This means that until those who are attaining school will complete the other will wait. It seems that educational attainment and poverty have some kind of relationship. As the educational status of women increases, the incidence of poverty among their households decreases. This implies that education is a major factor in determining household well being.

Table 4.10 Percentage of respondents by their educational level and family size

Educational level	Family Size							
	1-4		5-8		9+		Total	
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
No Schooling	39	28.1	61	26.5	15	28.3	115	27.3
Informal	22	15.8	44	19.1	14	26.4	80	19.0
Primary	41	29.5	78	33.9	18	34.0	137	32.5
Secondary and above	37	26.6	47	20.4	6	11.3	90	21.3
Total	139	100.0	230	100.0	53	100.0	422	100.0

Source: Survey result, 2005

With the exception of higher-grade level, the majority of respondents have large family size. For instance, there are households who have more than nine members in the house even if their number is too low in the category their educational attainment is higher as compared to the other category.

The chi-square result depicts that there is an association between incomes, expenditure and education and significant at ( $\chi^2 = 46.380$ , p value < 0.05) and on the other hand there is a positive correlation between family size and expenditure with Pearson's correlation coefficient of .207.

## 5.9. Housing Conditions

The housing of the study area is classified based on tenure system. It was private (54%) Kebele, (10.9%), rent (from private, 21.1%), illegal houses (2.6%) and others (6.4%). Of course, it is clear that poor housing conditions and availability of facilities are one of the dimension of poverty. The majority of the houses in the study area are constructed from poor materials. Therefore, housing as an indicator may represent individual's status, level of income and considerable degree of self-image. The houses made of different materials like the wood and mud account for 92.9 % followed by stones, which is only, 3.6%. Houses made of stone and bricks are of the better quality but in the study area, it is the lowest (less than 6 %).

Table 4.11 Percentage of respondents according to their type of wall of houses made of.

The wall of the house constructed	Number	Percent
Brick	4	.9
Stone	15	3.6
Wood and mud	392	92.9
Others	11	2.6
Total	422	100.0

Source: Field survey, 2005

On the other hand, the floor of the houses made from different materials, which was indicated in table 4.12 includes earth (52.4%), cement (41.5%), Wood (2.4%) and only 3.8 percent of the houses have plastic tile. As far as the room is concerned, about 67.2% of the houses have 1-2 rooms and about 23.9% houses have three rooms. The average number of persons per room is approximately 2.7.

Table 4.12 Percentage of respondents according to their type of floors of the houses made of.

The Floor of the house made of	Number	Percent
Wood	10	2.4
Cement	175	41.5
Earth	221	52.4
Plastic tile	16	3.8
Total	422	100.0

Source: Field survey, 2005

#### 4.9.1 Housing Facilities and Amenities

The distribution of the housing unit by the source of water supply presented in the following table 4.13 of the total housing units, the highest proportion (44.8%) obtain water from private tap with in the compound , while 34.6 % of women get water from public/ shared tap and 17.8% buy water from private tap.

The availability of sanitary conditions is considered as the most valuable indicator of the quality of housing unit. Thus, the availability of the basic facilities is essential for realizing a suitable environment for the well- being of the community. With respect to sanitation, the area is located in the major waste disposal of the city known as 'koshe' where it is not suitable for the health of respondents especially those who are adjacent to it. Probably it is one of the health problems of the community.

Table 4.13 Percentage of respondents by the supply of water for the household.

Supply of Water for household	Number	Percent
Private tap	189	44.8
Public tap	146	34.6
Buying from private tap	75	17.8
Others	12	2.8
Total	422	100.0

Source: Field survey, 2005

Concerning the availability of toilet facility of all housing unit, (18.5%) have no toilet at all and they use open spaces. (39.8%) have their own toilet while the remaining (41.7%) of the respondents use common or shared toilet. Those who use open space really suffer a lot in disposing their wastes. Some of the respondents told that they collect it in plastic materials and put it in open space during nighttimes and early in the morning. They chose this time in order of being free from sight. This condition creates some psychological and social problems in their day-to-day interaction. Table 4.14 shows the proportion of toilet facility of different categories.

Table 4.14 percentage of respondents by toilet facility

Toilet Facility	Number	Percent
Private	168	39.8
Common	176	41.7
No toilet	78	18.5
Total	422	100.0

Source: Field Survey, 2005

With the regarded to household amenities among the respondents about 41.2%, 74.2% and 76.8 %have no radio, television and telephone respectively.

## CHAPTER FIVE

### 5. BIVARIATE AND MULTIVARIATE ANALYSIS

In the previous chapter the correlates of poverty at household level, using the bivariate cross tabulations were examined. In order to check the stability of association between poverty status and demographic response of women a multivariate analysis is considered in the presence of selected influencing predictors separately for variables such as intention to migrate, morbidity, and desire to limit family size, marriage and family planning( contraceptive use). The following table 5.1 presents bivariate cross tabulations among the dependent variables and independent variables.

In the section, those factors related with poverty of women are examined using logistic regression. The objective of logistic regression is to find the best fitting model that describes the relation ship dependent variable and a set of, which are dichotomous and a set of explanatory variables. The explanatory variables are selected socio economic variables in to poor and better of. In order to fit the model using the logistic regression analysis the dependent variable becomes the odd ratio of independent variables.

$$\ln \frac{p}{1-p} = B + B_1X_1 + B_2X_2 + \dots + B_nX_n$$

The natural logarithms of the odds of dependent variables predicted by the linear function of independent variables. Here refers to chances of success where p-1 refers to failure.

It is further based on the concept of odds ratio. The ratio of the number i=of events to the number of events and regression coefficients (B) can be interpreted as the change in the log odds associated with one unit change independent variables increases one unit if B is positive the factor will be greater than one, which means that the odds are increased. If B is negative,

the factor will be less than one, which means that the odds are decreased (SPSS Inc, 1989, cited in Mujreb, 1997).

Table 5.1 Bivariate Cross Tabulations of Variables

Variables						Likely hood ratio		Cramer's v	
						value	Asp.Sig(2-sided)	value	Sig
Desire to limit family size						9.36	.017	16.9	.017
		Yes		no					
		N	%	N	%				
Ethnicity	Amhar a	230	56.5	6	40.0	8.252	.041	.140	.040
	Oromo	93	22.9	1	6.7				
	Gurage	42	10.3	4	26.7				
	Tigre	22	5.4	1	6.7				
	Others	20	4.9	3	20.0				
	Total	407	100	15	100				
Number of surviving children	1-2	126	31.0	1	6.7	8.430	.038	.147	.027
	3-5	186	45.7	6	40.0				
	6-8	61	15.0	5	33.3				
	9+	34	8.4	3	20.0				
	total	407	100	15	100				
Total number of children ever born	1-2	118	29.0	1	6.7	8.430	.038	.147	.027
	3-5	172	42.3	5	33.3				
	6-8	82	20.1	5	33.3				
	9+	35	26.7	4	26.7				
	Total	407	100	15	100				
Did you sick during the last three month prior to survey									
Education	No schooling	67	33.3	48	21.7	19.641	.000	.215	.000
	informal	48	23.9	32	14.5				
	primary	55	27.4	82	37.1				
	Secondary and above	31	15.4	59	26.7				

Income	Below 260	95	47.3	129	58.4	5.223	.022	.111	.022
	Above 260	106	52.7	92	41.6				
	Total	201	100	221	100				
Supply of water	Private tap	73	36.3	116	52.5	11.19	.001	.162	.001
	others	128	63.7	105	47.5				
	total	1201	100	221	100				
Number of rooms	one room	79	39.3	63	28.5	5.500	.019	.114	.019
	More than one room	122	60.7	158	71.5				
	total	201	100	221	100				
occupation	Petty trade	35	17.4	44	19.9	8.338	.015	.140	.016
	housewife	82	40.8	114	51.6				
	others	84	41.8	63	28.5				
	total	201	100	221	100				
Marital status	Single	12	6.0	11	5.0	20.109	.000	.218	.000
	Currently married	89	44.3	145	65.6				
	others	100	49.7	65	29.4				
	total	201	100	221	100				
Intention to migration									
Number of rooms	One room	44	61.1	98	28.0	27.752	.000	.264	.000
	More than one room	28	38.9	252	72.0				
	total	72	100	350	100				
Water supply	private	16	22.2	173	49.4	18.985	.000	.206	.000
	Others	56	77.8	177	50.6				
	Total	72	100	350	100				
Housing conditions	Private	13	18.1	215	61.4	47.517	.000	.327	.000
	others	59	81.9	135	38.6				
	total	72	100	350	100				
education	No schooling	16	22.2	99	28.3	8.807	.032	.151	.023

Continued

	Informal	10	13.9	70	20.0				
	Primary	21	29.2	116	33.1				
	Secondary and above	25	34.7	65	18.6				
	total	72	100	350	100				
Contraceptives		Use		Non use					
Education		N	%	N	%				
	No schooling	22	16.7	93	32.1	32.86	.000	.280	.000
	informal	15	11.4	65	22.4				
	Primary	48	36.4	89	30.7				
	Secondary	47	35.6	43	14.8				
	Total	132	100	290	100				
Marital status	Single	4	3.0	19	6.6	48.184	.000	.328	.000
	Currently married	105	79.5	129	44.5				
	Single	10	7.6	54	18.6				
	Widowed	13	9.8	88	30.3				
	Total								

Source: Survey result, 2005

### 5.1 Definition of variables

Poverty some socio economic indicators are defined and indexed in order to make simple comparison among the respondents. Based on indexed socio economic indicators the sample is categorized in to two namely the better off and the poor. The variables used for preparing the index of poverty are summarized as below.

- Income                      Dummy, if below 260 Birr =1, Otherwise 0
- Housing
  - Wall                        Dummy, if the wall is mud and wood =1, other wise =0
  - Floor                        Dummy, if the floor is earth =1 otherwise =0
  - Toilet                        Dummy; if no toilet =1 otherwise 0
  - Water supply              Dummy, if not private tap =1 otherwise =0

-Energy	Dummy, if animal dung = 1 otherwise =0
-Household amenities	Dummy, if no radio, television and telephone =1 otherwise= 0
• Education	Dummy if no schooling =1 otherwise=0
• Occupation	Dummy if daily labourer, maid and petty trade=1 otherwise=0

## **5.2 Demographic Responses to Poverty**

### **5.2.1 Family Size**

Family size is closely linked to the average dependency ratio. Poor households tend to have a larger proportion of dependants than the better off households. In this relationship, family size and structure play an important role, as do related factors such as labour supply and out migration. For instance, there is strong relationship between average family size and poverty indicator.

Among the respondents, about 96.4% responded revealed that large family size is problem for them and majority of them responded not to give additional birth. There is an association between the number of surviving children and the need to limit family size that the chi-square test of independence has shown a significant association ( $\chi^2=35.45$ ,  $p < 0.05$ ). Most households with large family size tend have higher burden on their income. However, female-headed households with large family size are more vulnerable to poverty.

### **5.2.2. Marriage**

In the study area widowed, divorced and single, appear to be more oriented to wards striving for fulfilment of basic needs rather than upward mobility just like that better off. It is clear that poverty affects marital status. Accordingly, some women postponed marriage for some years until they

become self sufficient and self reliant while others make a union earlier in order to escape from their economic problems.

Moreover, the interplay of poverty and marital status as determinants of women's employment is not only important on the supply side of the labour market but also condition of women's ability to obtain employment in an imperfect labour market. Better off working women are much more likely to have acquired employment through government program than poor women who depend on family contacts. As indicated earlier few of the respondents are government employees working at low status ranging from office cleaner to secretary. In contrast, they are in better off condition as that of the poor women with low income.

The difference in mode of job acquisition between poor and non-poor women is more pronounced among married women than widowed, divorced or single. Thus, few better off married women are especially well placed to take advantage of formal systems of jobs so that they can improve their living standard.

Due to poverty from retrospective questions, 9.7% of the respondent is married early and 22.3% of them postponed marriage in order to reduce poverty.

### **5.2.3 Morbidity**

Even though health status is a result an out come of the interplay of multitude of factors, poverty and ill health tend to occur together. Poor women quite simply are sicker than those of better off are. Poverty is detrimental to health because it restricts access to medical care and healthy living conditions.

In the interview the women, respondents were asked about all episodes of illness experienced by the entire family member in the month of March 2005.

Following this, responses from all women were collected on morbidity and was then analysed and presented.

Morbidity is increasingly being recognized as measurable indicator of well being. The pattern of reporting morbidity reveals important facets not merely to the health status of the various women but also points inequalities in status and autonomy among various group of women.

With in the period of three months prior to the survey 47.6% of the respondents were sick and their monthly income decreased due to their sickness. During the same time, the interview was held about the health condition of the respondents with in the period of one month and accordingly about 38.4 percent of the respondents were sick. In comparison to the previous three months, there is a slight improvement in the health condition of the respondents. Among the health status of the family members about 23.2 percent of the respondents replied that at least, one individual is sick with in the period of one month. In response to sickness, some of them reported to have been treated in hospitals, health centre and clinics but owing to the low-income category, a significant number of the respondents did not get treatment. Instead of this, about 14 percent of the respondents had used traditional medicines to cure themselves or family members. Concerning to the physical endurance about 21.1 percent of the interviewees was not strong enough and some of them even failed to work regularly and generating income to the households.

Due to financial problems, some women are unable to have medical support when they had health problems. Very few women said that they had a chance of getting free medical with the help of the kebele but complained that the process of getting letter of support from kebele is discouraging. Elderly women were mostly affected by health problems. Moreover, they were unable to get medical care because of economic reasons.

Table 5.2 Percentage of respondents sickness during the last thee and one month prior to the survey

Table 5.2 Percentage of respondents according to sickness during the last three and one month prior to the survey

Months		Number	Percent
Three	yes	201	47.6
	no	221	52.4
		422	100
One	yes	162	38.4
	no	260	61.6
Total		422	100

Source: Survey result, 2005

The chi-square test of independency ( $\chi^2 = 8.317$ ,  $P < 0.05$ ) also reveals that there is an association between socio economic indicators and morbidity.

In the study area the result of logistic regression, for morbidity surprisingly has shown that respondents with educational attainment of primary and secondary and above have 1.738 and 2.199 times greater in sickness prior to survey respectively as compared to respondents with out schooling. The source of water supply is another socio economic indicator in explaining the morbidity situation of the respondents. Accordingly, respondents who use water from other sources of water supply decreased by 39.2 times ( $e^B = .608$ ) as compared to private tap (see table 5.3)



Table 5.3 Results of multivariate logistic regression for morbidity

Variables	Categories	B	S.E.	Sig.	Exp(B)
Education	No schooling(RC)				
	Informal	-.273	.311	.379	.761
	Primary	.553	.269	.040**	1.738
	Secondary and above	.788	.321	.014**	2.199
Occupation	Petty trade(RC)			.302	
	House wife	.109	.425	.798	1.115
	others	-.379	.299	.205	.684
Marital status	Single(RC)				
	Currently married	.551	.467	.238	1.735
	others	-.098	.473	.836	.907
Source of water supply	Private tap(RC)				
	Others	-.498	.237	.036**	.608
Income	Below 260 Birr				
	Above 260 Birr	-.234	.385	.543	.791
No. of rooms	One room(RC)				
	More than one room	-.130	.250	.603	.878

#### 5.2.4. Migration intention

Migration is, in some situations a key household response. Poverty may force that out migration of the whole households intend in search of better opportunities. One of the motives of migration are economic reasons among others. Place of residence and duration of residence was administering this survey to capture the migration status of women accordingly, from retrospective questions, 82% of the respondents were migrant to the current place of residence.

The common reason for migration are many but the most dominant of these are poverty, marriage, family displacement, following relatives, war and so

on. Out of these mentioned reasons, about 25.6% of them are found to migrate due to poverty. Currently, about 17.1% of women have an intention to migrate in to other places (Table 5.7). This intention arises from poor living conditions. Thus, it is not surprising to mention that poor women have pre dominated among the migrants. The migration appeared as a means to reduce the level of their deprivation. Migration may either bring about a positive change in the economic status of the migrants or worsen the situation; hence, the change may not be sufficient to get persons involved out of the poverty and maintain them over long run.

Table 5 .4 The percentage of respondents by reasons of migration

Reasons of migration	Number	Percent
Poverty	108	25.6
Family displacement	49	11.6
Marriage	67	15.9
Divorce	5	1.2
To seek job	46	10.9
Following Relatives	50	11.8
War	1	.2
Others	20	4.7
Total	346	82.0
System missing	76	18.0
Total	422	100.0

Source: Survey result, 2005

In particular, data revealed that migrant women tend to be concentrated in the low-income and occupational category. Although migrant women tend to have access to participate in labour force than the non-migrants, but they mostly found to be engaged in low status occupations that associated with their low income earnings. Further, this very poor working conditions and proved to be closely associated with poverty. The chi- square result also showed that there is a significant association between place of birth and socio economic conditions. At its best migration may allow women to gain success in life and its worst cause women to move out again to other places because of the unavailability of satisfying their needs. Thus wide spread view that poverty leads to migration and the continuation of movements

elsewhere. Therefore, the alleviation of poverty can be the solution to migration problem suggests that both migration and poverty are equally negative. Recognizing that one is an answer to the other and those women are even if poor migrants are a rational major step in the right direction. Although migration is not a solution to poverty better employment opportunities open to them is also crucial. Spatial mobility may be required to them just as always women are ready to move if expected gains are there. The probability of success from migration may be low poverty gives lower income house holds little choice but to seek relief through migration.

Table 5.5 Percentage of respondents by intention to migrate

Intention to migrate	Number	Percent
Yes	72	17.1
No	350	82.9
Total	422	100.0

Source: Survey result, 2005

The chi-square test of independency revealed that there is statically significant between the intention to migrate and socio economic indicators ( $\chi^2 = 13.60$ ,  $p < .000$ ). The result of logistic regression for intention to migration based on some selected socio economic indicators revealed that respondents with more than one rooms have 2.12 times higher intention to migration as compared to those respondents who have one room. As far as education, concerned respondents with educational attainment of secondary and above have 3.65 times higher intention to migrate as compared respondents with out schooling. The impact is found to be statistically significant. Respondents with informal and primary educational attainment increases 12.9 and 24.6 percent respectively in explaining intention to migration as compared to respondents with out schooling. However, there is no statistical significance between intention to migration and informal and primary educational attainment of the respondents. Concerning to housing, respondents with other housing condition rather than private have 5.502

times higher intention to migrate as compared to private house owner (table 5.6)

Table 5.6 Results of multivariate logistic regression for intention to migration

variables		B	S.E.	Sig.	Exp(B)
No. of rooms	One room(RC)				
	More than one room	0.749	0.332	.024**	2.115
Source of water supply	Private tap(RC)				
	Others	-0.027	0.403	.945	0.972
Education	No schooling(RC)				
	Informal	0.121	0.461	.791	1.129
	Primary	0.220	0.383	.566	1.246
	Secondary and above	1.293	0.401	.001**	3.646
Housing tenure	Private (RC)				
	Others	1.705	0.432	.000**	5.502

Source; Field Survey, 2005

RC: Reference category  
 \*\*: statistically significant

### 5.2.5 Family Planning

Out of the 422 women 96.9%, of the respondents ideally support family Planning. However, 31.3% of the respondents are using contraceptives currently. About 12% of the respondents are not using contraceptives because of poverty as pointed out by the respondents.

Table 5 .7 The percentage of respondents according to contraceptive use

Contraceptive use	Frequency	Percent
Yes	132	31.3
No	290	68.7
Total	422	100.0

Source: Field Survey, 2005

Poor women are often unable to act on their own behalf to obtain contraceptives services to regulate their child bearing unless responsible

institutions provide them. In the study area, some respondents cannot use contraceptives even if there is a desire to use despite of low income and lack of service delivery.

The result of multivariate logistic regression for contraceptive use revealed that those respondents with educational attainment of primary and secondary and above use contraceptives 1.902 and 3.851 times greater respectively as compared to respondents with out schooling. Housing condition is also another factor in explaining contraceptive use, those respondents living in other housing condition rather than private increases by 2.195 times higher as compared to private owner (table 5.8).

The result of logistic regression for contraceptive use among marital status depicted that for currently married women it increases by 5.169 times greater as compared to single. Therefore, currently married women are more contraceptive users as compared to single and others. As result by using contraceptives, women may either limit their family size or space their births in enhancing their well-being.

Table 5.8 Results of multivariate logistic regression for contraceptive use

Variables	Categories	B	S.E.	Sig.	Exp(B)
Education	No schooling(RC)				
	Informal	-0.084	0.398	0.832	0.919
	Primary	0.643	0.322	0.046**	1.902
	Secondary and above	1.348	0.351	0.000**	3.851
Occupation	Petty trade(RC)				
	House wife	0.278	0.346	0.421	1.321
	others	0.666	0.361	0.064	1.948
Housing tenure	Private(RC)				
	Others	.786	0.255	0.002**	2.195
Marital status	Single(RC)				
	Currently married	1.642	0.665	0.013**	5.169
	others	0.004	0.688	0.994	1.004

Source: Survey, 2005

RC: Reference category

## **CHAPTER SIX**

### **6. SUMMARY, CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATION**

#### **6.1 Summary**

Poverty is one of the major problems of the world as it is discussed in the earlier chapters. The problem is particularly the most common and serious in developing countries. The proportion of population living below poverty line is still very high in developing countries.

The level of poverty in Ethiopia is one of the most serious in the world. Poverty is not limited to rural areas only and urban poverty is also the common phenomenon. Rural poverty has a connection with agriculture and land while urban poverty is more heterogeneous owing to tie with various ways of income generation.

Poverty is not gender free. There is a significant difference between men and women. The poorest segment of the society lives in household headed by female. Most women are generally characterised by low-income earners, low access to education, health and other social facilities as compared to their counter parts.

This paper gives an over view of conceptual understanding of issues related with women's poverty and demographic responses. Until recent time, gender perspective of poverty has not given much attention; even though poverty reduction is at the centre of development strategy. Therefore, in order to enhance the wellbeing of women it is important to see the interaction demographic variables in relation to women's poverty. This study examines the present situation of women in Addis Ababa in the case of Kolfe- Kerano sub-city Kebele 02/03. Data was collected from a sample of 422 women on socioeconomic indicators and demographic variables. The socio economic indicators include income, expenditure, housing conditions, education and

occupation. On the other hand, the demographic variables include family size, marital status, morbidity, intention to migrate, and family planning.

Concerning to the income of the study area, generally the majority of the respondents are low-income earners. The proportion of women who have income above 260 Birr is very low (31.5 percent) where as about 68.5 percent of the respondents earn less than 260 Ethiopian Birr. As far as the monthly expenditure of the respondents are concerned more or less there was an accurate reporting as compared to their income. In the case of income, there is a tendency of under reporting although there is no much difference between the two types of income or expenditure responses. Majority of the respondents spent 100-300 Birr monthly for food and non-food items, but significant numbers of respondents also spent below 100 Birr.

Housing condition is another aspect of enquiry from respondents on housing. As one of the criteria for categorization of the households in to poor and better off housing conditions was used because housing is one of the basic socioeconomic indicators among others. In this study, housing conditions including the associated services have been assigned the same importance as income and expenditure. Not surprisingly, the result of the study confirmed that majority of the housing units of the poor are below the standard when measured in terms of the housing quality indicators such as housing tenure, the materials with which they are constructed and the availability of the toilet, water supply, energy and other social amenities.

Educational attainment and poverty are negatively correlated that poverty has some kind of relation ship with education. As educational status of women increases the incidence of poverty among their households decreases. This tells us education is an important factor in determining the welfare of women.

The socioeconomic indicators are indexed in to two variable namely the poor and the better off. According to this classification majority of the respondents (71.3%) fall in the poor category.

Poverty affects marriage pattern as a result, the widowed, divorced and single are account for 44.5 percent of the respondents and among the low-income earners. Stability of marriage is an important tool in maintaining the well-being of the poor women. With respect to migration, about 82 percent of the respondents were found to be migrant. Migration is often associated with poverty. Poverty is often seen as a motivating factor for migration, and it can be a cause of poverty. However, as this paper suggests, it is rarely the poorest of the poor who migrate, but people with access to at least some resources, often education and skills. Even those migrants without what are seen as skills may have experience and are women who are trying to make the most of what they have and who are looking for opportunities and to make them work. As far as the health condition of the respondents are concerned with in the period of three months prior to the survey 47.6 percent were sick and out of this 14 percent of the respondents used traditional medicine in response to poverty. With regarded to family planning about 31.3 percent of the respondents are using contraceptives and about 12 percent found to be unable to use contraceptive owing to financial problems.

## **6.2 Conclusion**

This study has set out to accomplish a variety of objectives. The study is aimed at assessing demographic response to women's poverty. Accordingly, a number of findings have been obtained using various methods of analysis, such as descriptive analysis, bivariate cross tabulation and multivariate analysis. Concerning to the indicator of women's poverty, different socio-economic information viz. income, expenditure, housing conditions, employment, occupation, and education are included.

Most households with large family size are still the poor women. Accordingly, the result of the study reveals that majority of women have a desire to limit family size as one method to reduce poverty among others. Marital status has different association with poverty incidence among currently married, widowed, divorced and single even if it is more pronounced among female headed. Poverty affects marital status in such away that some women married early while others postpone their marriage. There is a difference in job acquisition between married and none married. Few married women are better placed to take advantage of in formal system of jobs as compared to the widowed, divorced and single. Statistically there is a significant association between marital status and socio-economic indicators.

It is indicated that women are more victims and vulnerable to poverty and related problems. Consequently, these women are found to be suffering more from the various health problems. The quality of health of the house holds correlates with their economic access. The quality of health has an impact directly on the household income, labour productivity, labour force participation and employment of women. The chi-square test of independence also revealed that there is significant association between morbidity and socio-economic indicators.

As far as migration is concerned currently about 17.1 percent of the respondents have an intention to migrate in to other better places where there are better opportunities in order to improve their life. The chi-square test of independency revealed that there is statistical significance between intention to migrate and socio-economic indicators. Significant numbers of women were also acceptors of contraception in order to limit family size. In general, the findings of the study suggest that any poverty reduction schemes should take in to account the demographic characteristics of the poor women.

### **6.3 Recommendations**

Based on the study findings the following recommendations are made:

1. For many women the threat to a life of poverty needs to be checked. This can be accomplished by ensuring that they must be educated or equipped with the skills and technical knowledge which are not only consistent with present situation. In order to serve the needs of women greater orientation towards self-employment and job creation with the help of government and private sector should be strengthened.
2. Since job may not be as prevalent at present, for this measure to be taken for successful attitudes towards provision of credit facilities and improve women's employment. The government has to take measure to involve women widely in project activities and training, which focus on the creation of work place and income generation schemes for those poor women in order to come out of poverty.
3. Policies which aimed at poverty reduction should consider household size and composition as an important demographic variables which determine the wellbeing of household especially women and device a mechanism where by family size should be optimum.
4. It is evident that women with better educational background have better opportunities. Therefore educating women is a key element in improving the wellbeing of women and the society in general. Because educated women have better health care, marry latter and are more likely to use contraceptives to space their children and to have better life.
5. Since high unemployment and lack of effective family planning had created a poverty trap for women, encouraging poor households to adapt family planning and spread the concept of healthier children rather than as many children as possible.

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## Appendix

**ADDIS ABABA UNIVERSITY**  
**INSTITUTE OF DEVELOPMENT RESEARCH**  
**DEMOGRAPHIC TRAINING AND RESEARCH CENTER**

The objectives of this questionnaire are to gather information on demographic responses to women's poverty in Kolfe-Keranio sub city of kebele 02/03 and 05. Therefore, dear respondent you are highly requested to answer the following questions honestly. Because, your answers are very important to complete this work. I hope that your answer will be confidential.

Thank you in advance for your cooperation.

01. Questionnaire code \_\_\_\_\_
02. Enumerators code \_\_\_\_\_ Name \_\_\_\_\_
03. Supervisors code \_\_\_\_\_ Name \_\_\_\_\_
- Kebele \_\_\_\_\_

101. Age \_\_\_\_\_

102. Religion      1. Orthodox      2. Muslim    3. Protestant
4. Catholic      5. Specify other \_\_\_\_\_

103. Ethnicity    1. Oromo      2. Amhara      3. Tigrae
4. Guraghe      5. Specify other \_\_\_\_\_

### **Marriage**

201. Martial status.    1. Single    2. Married    3. Divorce    4. Widowed
202. Age at first marriage \_\_\_\_\_
203. For how many times you married?
1. Not married    2. For first time    3. Second times    4. Third times
204. Did you marry late?
1. Yes              2. No.
205. Did you marry early reason?

1. Yes                      2. No

206. If you married late what was your reason? \_\_\_\_\_

207. Do you think that early marriage is the solution to reduce poverty?

1. Yes                      2. No

208. Which measures do you take to reduce poverty?

1. Early marriage    2. Late marriage              3. Education

4. Leaving school and striving to satisfy basic needs

5. Migrating to other places    6. Specify others \_\_\_\_\_

**Household size**

301. Total number of family members \_\_\_\_\_

302. Do you have children? 1. Yes                      2. No

303. If your response in (302) yes total number of children ever born

\_\_\_\_\_

304. Among number of children ever born how many of them are surviving? \_\_\_\_\_

305. How many children are living with you currently? \_\_\_\_\_

306. Do you have children living elsewhere? If yes how many? \_\_\_\_\_

307. Where did you give your last birth?

1. At home    2. Health centre    3. Hospital    4. Specify other \_\_\_\_\_

308. Do you want to give additional birth?

1. Yes    2. No

309. If your response is yes in question 308 what is your reason?

1. Low income 2. Health problem 3. I have no supporter

4. I have enough children

5. unable to give birth 6. Specify other\_\_\_\_\_

310. If you have economic problem do you have a desire to limit your family?

1. Yes

2. No

### **Income and Occupations**

401. What is your current occupation?

1. Pity trade 2. Maidservant 3. Office cleaner 4. Housewife

5. Daily labourer 6. if any, specify \_\_\_\_\_

402. Indicate your monthly average income in birr\_\_\_\_\_

403. Do you have additional occupation besides the current?

if, yes specify \_\_\_\_\_

404. Indicate your source of income among of the following.

1. My salary 2. My husband's salary 3. House rent

4. my pension 5. Children's support

6. my husband's retirement fund 7. From relative support

8. Non gov't organization 9. Specify other\_\_\_\_\_

405. If your source of income is among from question 404 how much birr?\_\_\_\_\_

406. Is your monthly income covering your monthly expenditure?

1. Yes                      2. No

407. Was there any time that you failed to fulfil your basic needs?

1. Yes                      2. No

408. If your answer is yes in question 407, what measures did you take?

1. Borrowed from my neighbour
  
2. I made my children to leave school and help me in income generating activity
  
3. Stopped pay house rent      4. Withdraw from social activities like 'Idir'
  
5. Specify other \_\_\_\_\_

409. If you pay house rent, how much birr do you pay in a month?

\_\_\_\_\_

410. is your income enough for other expenditures rather than food?

1. Yes                      2. No

411. Is there any time that you are vulnerable to food shortage?

1. Yes                      2. No

412. During food shortage, how many times do you get meal daily?

1. one times    2. Two times    3. Three times    4. Specify others\_\_\_\_

### **Education**

501 Your educational level \_\_\_\_\_

502. Among school age children, do you have children who are not attending school?

1. Yes                      2. No

503. If your answer is yes in question 502, children attending school 5 years and above in numbers males \_\_\_\_\_ females \_\_\_\_\_

504. Do you have drop out children?

1. Yes                      2. No

505. If your response is yes in 504 reasons for dropout

1. Absence of school in the locality      2. They support me at home  
3. I cannot afford all to send school  
4. Because of low income

5. I do not want to send girls to school      6. Disabled children  
7. Support the family in income generating activity  
8. if any, specify \_\_\_\_\_

506. If you have children in income generating activity, who initiate them?

1. I my self      2. Siblings      3. Friends      4. Relatives  
5. by their own initiatives      6. Other specify  
\_\_\_\_\_

507. If you have children engaged in income generating activity, how much birr do they contribute monthly? \_\_\_\_\_

508. Do you have children living elsewhere?

1. Yes                      2. No

509. If your response is yes, do they send you money?

1. Yes                      2. No

510. If yes in question 509 how much birr? \_\_\_\_\_

### **Housing and housing condition**

601. Tenure:

1. Private                      2. Kebele      3. Rented from private  
4. Government agency      5. Free with out permission

6. Specify other \_\_\_\_\_

602. If rented or paying difference in rent indicate monthly amount of rent in birr \_\_\_\_\_

603. If it is rent are you paying regularly? 1. Yes 2. No

604. If you are not paying monthly what is your reason?

1. I have no enough money 2. The house is too old and not repaired

605. Your house has how many rooms? \_\_\_\_\_

606. The house in which you live is separate or common with other people?

1. Separate 2. Common

607. Is the house enough for your family?

1. Yes 2. No

608. The floor of your house/ the house is made of.

1. Wood 2. Cement 3. Earth 4. Plastic

609. The wall of the house 1. Mud 2. Brick 3. Stone  
4. Wood and mud 5. Specify other

610. Which one is available at your home?

1. Radio 2. Television three. Telephone

611. The asset you have

1. House 2. Bed 3. House furniture like table chair  
4. Sewing machine 5. Weaving 6. Other specify \_\_\_\_\_

612. Supply of drinking water for you household

1. Tap inside house 2. Tap outside compound, public

3. Private tap                      4. Specify other \_\_\_\_\_

613. Which one do you use for cooking?

1. Wood      2. Gas and kerosene      3. Animal dung

4. Electricity                      5. if any, specify \_\_\_\_\_

614. Toilet facility              1. Private              2. Common              3. No toilet

615. In comparison to community the level of your living standard

1. Rich      2. Medium              3. Poor      4. Very poor

2. Specify other \_\_\_\_\_

### **Migration**

701. Place of birth \_\_\_\_\_

702. For how long did you live here? \_\_\_\_\_

703. If you are migrant what is your reason to come here?

1. Poverty      2. Family displacement      3. Marriage      4. Divorce

5. Following relatives              6. war              7. specify others \_\_\_\_\_

704. Are you intend to migrate to other places currently?

1. Yes              2. No

705. If you answer is yes in question 704 what is your reason to migrate? \_\_\_\_\_

### **Health Condition**

801. Did you sick for the past three months?



- 1. Radio 2 Television 3. Newspaper /Magazine/
- 4. Health workers 5. Friends 6. Schools

903. Have you ever used any family planning method in the past?

- 1. Yes 2. No

904. Are you currently using any family planning method?

- 1. Yes 2 No

905. If your question is yes 904, what type of family planning method are you using currently?

- 1. Pills 2. Inject able 3. Condom 4. with drawl
- 5. Absentice from sex 6. Calendar method
- 8. Other specify \_\_\_\_\_

906. If the answer for question 904 is no, what are your reason for not using family planning method currently?

- 1. Low income 3. Fear of side effect
- 2. Lack of knowledge 4. Religious reasons
- 5. lack of access to health services 6. Specify others \_\_\_\_\_

907. Do you support family planning?

- 1. Yes 2. No

## DECLARATION

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

Name Abeba W. Eshete

Signature Abeba W. Eshete

Date 22/07/2005

This thesis has been submitted for examination with my approval as university advisor.

Dr R. B. W. Sastry  
Advisor

R. B. W. Sastry  
Signature

22/07/2005  
Date