

**CAUSES AND CONSEQUENCES OF RURAL-URBAN MIGRATION:
THE CASE OF WOLDIYA TOWN, NORTH ETHIOPIA**

by

BIRHAN ASMAME MIHERETU

Submitted in accordance with the requirements for the degree of

MASTER OF ARTS

in the subject

GEOGRAPHY

at the

UNIVERSITY OF SOUTH AFRICA

SUPERVISOR: DR. MULUNEH WOLDETSADIK

CO-SUPERVISOR: MS MELANIE NICOLAU

June 2011

I declare that `` Causes and Consequences of Rural-Urban Migration: The Case of Woldiya Town, North Ethiopia`` is my own work and that all the sources that I have used or quoted have been indicated and acknowledged by means of complete references.



01 June 2011

Signature

Date

BIRHAN ASMAME MIHERETU

STUDENT NUMBER 44544812

Acknowledgement

I am indebted to all those individuals and institutions that provided me assistance to complete this dissertation. I owe the deepest gratitude to my advisors Ms Melanie Nicolau and Dr.Muleneh Woldetsadik for their substantial advice and comments to finalize the whole research work. I would like to extend my thanks to Abraha Wondaya and his friends who helped me in the overall primary data collection process. My heart-felt thanks goes to my wife Aster Moges and my brother Dr.Yohannes Demissie who in one way or the other shared my pains in the course of the study.

Finally, it gives me a great pleasure to acknowledge Abebe Muhammed, Alemayehu Assefa, Semenesh and Fentanesh for their cooperation to finalize the thesis.

Birhan Asmame

Table of Contents

Contents	Page
Acknowledgement	i
Table of Contents	ii
List of Tables	vi
List of Figures.....	vii
Definition of Terms	viii
Abstract	x
CHAPTER ONE	1
INTRODUCTION	1
1.1 Background of the Study	1
1.2 Statement of the Problem and Justification of the Study.....	8
1.3 Objectives of the Study	11
1.4 Hypotheses.....	11
1.5 Significance of the study.....	13
1.6 Limitations of the Study.....	13
CHAPTER TWO	15
LITERATURE REVIEW	15
2.1 Conceptual Framework.....	15
2.2 Theoretical Framework.....	17
2.2.1 Ravenstein's Laws of Migration.....	17
2.2.2 Lee's Theory of Migration	18
2.2.3 Harris-Todaro Model of Migration	20
2.2.4 Migration and the Dual Sector Model of Economic Development.....	21
2.2.5 Sjaastad's Human Investment Theory	22

2.3 Conclusion.....	23
2.4 The Empirical Framework.....	23
2.4.1 Causes of Migration.....	23
2.4.2. Consequences of Migration	27
2.5 The nature of rural-urban migration in Africa and Ethiopia.....	29
2.6 Conclusion.....	32
CHAPTER THREE	33
GENERAL BACKGROUND OF WOLDIYA	33
3.1 Physical Background	33
3.1.1 Location and Relief.....	33
3.1.2 Drainage.....	35
3.1.3 Climate	35
3.2 Historical foundation and growth of Woldiya.....	36
3.2.1 Woldiya before 1936	36
3.2.2 Woldiya During 1936 - 1941 (during the Italian occupation).....	39
3.2.3 Post 1941	39
3.3 Population Growth Trends of Woldiya Town	40
3.4 Urban Amenities and Facilities in the town	41
3.5 Ethnic Composition.....	42
(Source: (CSA, 1995).....	42
3.6 Economic Situation of the town.....	43
3.7 Informal, Squatter, Settlements and the Situation of Slum.....	45
3.8. Housing development program.....	46
CHAPTER FOUR	47
RESEARCH METHODOLOGY	47

4.1 Research Design.....	47
4.2 Methods of Data Collection	48
4.2.1. Questionnaire	48
4.2.2. Focus Group Discussion	49
4.2.3. Interview	50
4.2.4. Observation	50
4.2.5. Secondary data source	50
4.3 Administration of Pilot-Test.....	51
4.3.1 Validity and Reliability of the Instruments	53
4.4 Sampling Design	54
4.5. Administration and Procedures of Data Collection	56
4.6. Ethical Considerations	57
4.7 Methods of Data Analysis.....	57
CHAPTER FIVE	60
THE PATTERNS, FLOW AND CHARACTERISTICS OF MIGRANTS AND CAUSES OF MIGRATION TO WOLDIYA TOWN.....	60
5.1. The Flow Pattern and Characteristics of Migrants to Woldiya Town	60
5.1.1. The Patterns and Volume of Migration.....	60
5.1.2. Characteristics of Migrants.....	63
5.2. The causes for migration	72
CHAPTER SIX	81
CONSEQUENCES OF MIGRATION.....	81
6.1. Problems Encountered by Migrants while Adjusting themselves to	82
the New Environment (Woldiya Town)	82
6.2. Current Occupational Status, Educational and Income Level of Migrants	85

6.2.1 Current Occupational Status of Migrants	85
6.2.2 Current Educational Level of Migrants	87
6.2.3 Current Income Level of Migrants	87
6.3 Access to Housing and Urban Facilities	88
6.4 A comparison of the socio-economic condition of migrants before and after migration.	89
6.5. Future Intentions and/or Plans of Migrants	91
6.6 Discussion on the Applicability of Migration Theories	93
6.6.1 Ravenstein and Lee’s laws of migration.....	93
6.6.2 Harris-Todaro Model of Migration	94
6.6.3 Migration and the Dual Sector Model of Economic Development.....	95
6.6.4 Sjaastad’s Human Investment Theory.....	95
6.7 Conclusion.....	95
CHAPTER SEVEN	96
CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATION	96
7.1 Summary and Conclusion.....	96
7.2 Recommendations	100
References.....	102
Appendix 1	116

List of Tables

Table 3.1: Population Size and Annual Average Growth Rates, 1984-2007	40
Table 3. 2: Major Ethnic Groups of Population of Woldiya Town (1994)	42
Table 3.3 : Number of Trade, Industry and service in Woldiya Town (2004-2008).....	43
Table 3.4: Low Cost Houses under Construction in Woldiya Town by Type and Year ...	46
Table 3.5 : Distribution of Sample Migrant Households	55
Table 5.1: Distribution of migrants by Sex, Marital Status and Place of Origin at Time of Migration.....	67
Table 5.2: Distribution of Migrants by Educational Attainment, Sex and Place of Origin	69
Table 5.3: Place of Origin and Employment Status of Respondents Before In-Migration to Woldiya	72
Table 5.4: Causes for Migration by Sex and Place of Origin	74
Table 5.5: Summary of the regression on Dependent variable for Wereda migrants	77
Table 6.1: The Decision of Respondents for out-migration by their Place of Birth.....	82
Table 6.2: Information about Woldiya and Problems faced by Migrants during	83
Table 6.3: Current Occupational Status and Nature of Employment of Migrants.....	86
Table 6.4: Distribution of Migrants by Monthly Average Income	88
Table 6.5: A Comparison of Socio-economic Condition of Migrants before and after Migration.....	90
Table 6.6: Distribution of Respondents of Migrants by Future Plan	92

List of Figures

Figure 1.1: Location Map of the study Area.....	10
Figure 2.1: The conceptual framework for the analysis of rural-urban migration	16
Figure 3.1: The location Map of the Study Area	34
Figure 4.1: Map of Sample Kebele	55
Figure 5.1: the Volume of Migration to Woldiya by Sex and Place of Origin.....	61
Figure 5.2: Map Showing the Flow Pattern of Migrants to Woldyia Town.	62
Figure 5.3: Population Pyramid of Migrants	64
Figure 5.4: Occupational Status of Respondents before Migration at Place of Origin. ...	71

Definition of Terms

Area of destination (arrival)	Is the area to which a migrant moves.
Area of origin (departure)	Is an area from which a migrant moves.
Chain Migration	This is the processes whereby migratory movements are sustained through kinship or links.
Household	A group of people who live together and make common provision for cooking food or the provision of other essentials of living.
Intra-regional migrants	Migrants who came from the region where Woldiya is found (in this case, migrants who came from the Amhara region to Woldiya).
In-migrants	Are people who cross a migration determining boundary in a given time interval in the process of changing residence and entering a given area rural or urban (Woldiya) from other areas (rural/urban) of the same nation.
Kebele	Is the smallest administrative unit in Ethiopia.
Migrants	People who were born outside Woldiya but presently live in Woldiya. They could be classified by place of birth (rural/urban).
Migration	Is a process of human mobility involving a permanent change of residence by an individual or a group from one geographical area (rural or other urban area) to another.
Migration Stream	Is the migration of a large number of individuals from one particular place to another.

Rural-urban Migrant	Is a person who changes his/her usual place of residence from a rural to an urban area.
Step-migration -	Urban ward movement of migrants in accordance with to hierarchical order of urban centers, that is, from lowest to highest order.
Urban area	Is the human settlement with concentration of 2000 or more inhabitants mainly engaged in secondary and tertiary activities.
Wereda	is the administrative unit next higher to kebele.

Abstract

In developing countries like Ethiopia rural-urban migration affects development in both urban and rural areas. As such, this study aims at establishing the major causes and consequences of the movement of people from rural to urban areas. To achieve the objective 500 migrant household heads were selected randomly from three kebeles of the town. Both primary and secondary data were employed and were analyzed both qualitatively and quantitatively.

The study revealed that migrants came to Woldiya in search of employment and to utilize urban services and education. Hence, the out flow of economically active people from the rural agricultural sector has a negative effect on production in the areas of origin and the receiving area now experiences problems such as a shortage of housing, unemployment, increasing cost of living, lack of access to social services, Therefore, to mitigate the problem of rural-urban migration is launching of integrated rural development policy.

Key words: rural migration, urban migration, migrant households, Ethiopian rural-urban migration, economically active migrants, migrants, employment, formal sector, informal sector, agricultural sector, rural development policy

CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

1.1 Background of the Study

Historically, rural to urban migration has played a significant role in the urbanization process of several countries and continues to be significant in scale, even though migration rates have slowed down in some countries (Lall, Selod and Shalizi, 2006). Today almost half the world population lives in cities and the number of people living in urban areas has risen steadily by around 1 million every year (Bahns, 2005). According to a report from the United Nations Population Division (2003), the urban population is estimated to grow at 1.8 per cent per annum, while total population rate is projected to be 1 per cent annually. This would result in an urban population of 5 billion, or 61 per cent, by 2030. The rural population on the other hand is expected to decrease from 3.3 to 3.2 billion between 2003 and 2030. Large scale urbanization is nothing unusual when seen from a historical viewpoint . Previously, it has taken place in Europe during the industrialization period. Today, however, most cities in the developed countries grow very slowly and city size may even be reduced. As the population of an economy becomes wealthier, many prefer to live in the cleaner and quieter environments of the countryside. Thus, employees need to commute into cities for work, for which the necessary requirements, such as public transport or individual car ownership, are only given in more developed countries. Cities in developing countries, on the other hand, still continue to grow. Only the pace is two to five times faster than it was in the European countries during the period of industrialisation (Kojima, 1996).

Many developing countries in the world are currently experiencing an unprecedented rate of urbanization. It is also clear that, unlike the experience of

currently developed countries, the process of urbanization presently taking place in developing countries is not so much due to rapid industrialization. Rather, it is the consequence of growing population pressure on land in the rural areas (Kassahun, 2000). Urbanization has largely taken place as a result of the “push” of rural inhabitants to urban areas (International Labour Organization (ILO), 1998). Thus in view of the high rates of urban population growth and the low level of urbanization, rural to urban migration appears to have been the major component of urban population growth in many developing countries. In this regard, Todaro (1976:8) clearly states the contribution of rural-urban migration to urban added growth in the developing countries as follows:

“The major sources of the growth of urban population in developing countries will not be natural population increase but rather the continuing in-migration of rural people; over 50 percent of the urban growths in many developing countries are due to the accelerated pace of rural-urban migration.”

Attempts have been made to explain rapid city growth in developing countries primarily by two major hypotheses (Williamson, 1988): (1) unusually rapid rates of population growth put great pressure on limited farm acreage and pushing landless labour into cities, and (2) migrants being pulled into the cities by the economic forces such as domestic terms of trade squeezing agriculture, the diffusion of technology from the developed world favouring modern large scale urban industries, foreign capital flows into urban infrastructure, housing, power, transportation, and large scale manufacturing. As per the first view, the main cause of rapid urban growth is traced to the increasing pressure of population on farmland in densely populated agrarian economies. Deficiency of reproducible tangible capital relative to labour in the face of a high-population density exacerbates the problem of rural unemployment and underemployment, which in turn fosters the rural-urban population movement. In the face of limited demand

for labour in the formal sector, in particular the organized industrial sector, excess supplies in the urban labour market force them to be engaged in the informal service sector. The low rate of growth of industrial employment and the high rate of rural-to-urban migration make for excessive, even explosive urbanization involving a transition from rural unemployment to excessive urban unemployment and underemployment. In addition, around two-fifths of the total urban growth in the Third World is as a result of rural-to-urban migration (Gugler, 1988) to the extent that migration from rural areas accounted for at least half of all urban growth in Africa during the 1960s and 1970s and about 25% of urban growth in the 1980s and 1990s (Brockerhoff, 1995). The process can be identified as 'over-urbanisation' as long as (1) rural-urban migration leads to a misallocation of labour between rural and urban sectors in the sense that it raises urban unemployment, underemployment and poverty, and (2) rural-urban migration increases the social cost for providing for a country's growing population (Gugler, 1988).

Although studies in developing countries frequently show that livelihood opportunities in these urban areas are not sufficient, the urban population increases to grow. People who come to the urban area with the hope of advancing life opportunities end up having difficulty finding somewhere to live. Often, rural-urban migrants have to settle down in shantytowns or informal settlements just outside the actual urban area (Mabogunje, 1980). This results in many people living without acceptable levels of security, access to fresh water, effective waste systems or acceptable health services (Mabogunje, 1980). Nevertheless, research indicates that people will continue to move to urban areas in developing countries, this pattern can be due to few opportunities available for the migrants in their areas of origin.

Migration has been seen as a response of individuals to better their economic and non-economic opportunities as well as an expectation of increased economic

welfare in the urban areas (Mazumdar, 1987). According to Mazumdar, factors that “push” individuals from rural areas into cities include the expectation that the pressure of population in rural areas has nearly exhausted all margins of cultivation, thus pushing hopeless people towards a new life in the cities with a mere expectation of subsistence living. On the other hand, the “pull” hypothesis emphasizes the attractiveness of the urban life and the rural-urban wage gap. In particular, Todaro (1969) and Harris-Todaro (1970) developed probabilistic models, wherein they describe migrants are attracted to the cities with the expectation of a higher wage than they receive in agriculture, and are willing to accept the probability of urban unemployment, or lower wages and “underemployment” in the urban informal (traditional) sector. According to Todaro (1969), the migrant is willing to accept urban unemployment or lower wages in the urban informal sector as long as he expects to “graduate” to the urban modern sector in the future. That is in the rural areas, sluggish agricultural growth and limited development of the rural non-farm sector raises the incidence of rural poverty, unemployment and underemployment. Given the fact that most of the high productivity activities are located in the urban areas, the rural-urban income differentials, particularly for the poor and unemployed, are enormous. Thus, many of them migrate to the urban areas in search of jobs. Even when jobs in the high productivity activities are limited in number relative to the supply, and often they are not accessible, population still migrate to the urban areas in search of opportunities in the ‘informal sector’.

Labor migration to urban centers supplements rural income not only through direct wages and remittances but also by increasing labor productivity through increased per capita land size at the rural origins of migration. Sending households can still produce the same level of output from their land after the departure of some of their family members to urban centers (Lucas, 1997).

Kinuthia (2003), indicates that it has been established that African migrations especially rural to urban have not demonstrated the same effect for industrialization and economic development as migration has done elsewhere especially in Europe and North America. The classic “push factors” from the rural areas, for example, lack of jobs; famine especially in pastoralist areas; drought; various kinds of poverty and landlessness, have been known to “push” people out of their rural homes in search of better opportunities elsewhere, particularly in the urban areas. The “pull” factors in the urban areas have been the hope to find a job; increase one’s income; educational opportunities; in search of better services and generally to improve one’s economic welfare. An economic reason has also been given as a possible deterrent for women migrants to urban areas. This is based on the Harris & Todaro model (1970) in which they argued that women who are educated are more likely to migrate to the urban areas because of the increased likelihood of finding employment hence realizing the anticipated higher incomes than one would expect in the rural areas. Another cultural factor that may explain migration from the rural to urban areas in most parts of Kenya is the expectation that men are the breadwinners hence they cannot just sit in the rural home when ends do not meet. Moreover, Lucas (1985) using data from Botswana has found that education increases the probability of migration to urban centers because of anticipation of increased wages at destinations. It appears that the youth tend to respond to the so-called ‘bright light.’ It is usually argued that it is because those young migrants have a relatively longer time horizon in maximizing expected net earnings.

However, Katy & Brett (2004) using data from South Africa indicated that despite the positive economic and social externalities of large cities, a highly concentrated population brings social costs such as congestion, pollution and crime. The increased demand for housing and overloading of urban facilities sees the poor reside in slums, often lacking access to clean water and sewerage systems. Resultant high unemployment necessitates that migrants create their

own employment through informal labour-intensive services and production. In the absence of unemployment benefits, this informal sector provides the much needed income for those unable to find work in the formal sector, and provides many of the necessary inputs into formal sector production.

In Ethiopia one important dimension of internal population movement is its link to urbanization. Although it is one of the least urbanized countries of the world where only 15% of the population is urban, Ethiopia is amongst those countries having the highest rate of urbanization. According to Solomon (2005), and Ministry of Federal Affairs and German Technical Co-operation(GTZ) (2003), the average rate of urban population growth for the country is 5% per year and in some individual towns and cites the rate approaches 8% per annum. The importance and attraction of urban centers as destinations for migrants was heightened during the post revolutionary period (post 1975) following the opening of branch offices of mass organizations, government and non-governmental agencies that created migration opportunities at district, provincial and regional levels of the country. The urban areas, relatively speaking, are more developed with better prospects for employment opportunities and career advancement and more comfortable living. In contrast the living conditions and employment opportunities in most of the rural areas have not shown significant improvement. Under such circumstances, there is an ever increasing trend of migration from the rural areas to towns and cities of Ethiopia.

Although understanding the causes and contextual factors related to out-migration from rural areas is indispensable for policy formulation, our knowledge about migration in Ethiopia is limited. The poor data available indicates that rural–urban migration was the most common pattern in the country. Spatial patterns show that movement is generally from northeastern to central and southwestern regions and from densely populated highlands and midlands to the sparsely settled, hotter, and drier lowlands. Population movements in Tigray

include seasonal as well as more permanent labor migration to Eritrea (that is, not only prior to the border war of 1998–2000) but also before the cessation of Eritrea from Ethiopia. From the northern province of Wollo, laborers migrated to cotton and other commercial farms in the south.

Ethiopia is one of the countries in Africa with a relatively high level of internal migration and population redistribution. This was associated with the country's economic transition from a socialist to a market oriented economy; critical political changes since the 1970s through 1990s; civil war; and famine (Kidane, 1989; Kibreab, 1996; Berhanu & White, 2000; Kiros & White, 2004;). Researchers have shown how the character, direction, and the volume of migration in Ethiopia during the last two to three decades have been shaped by political instability decline in the agricultural sector and government resettlement policies of the 1980s. The latter had as an official objective to prevent further famine and to attain food security (Gebre, 2001; Ezra, 2001). Under these circumstances, migration in Ethiopia was not only an individual and/or family response to adverse socio economic, physical and political environment, but also as a result of official government policy.

According to Feleke (2005), in the four Kolfe (one of Addis Ababa's sub-cities) migrants in these urban neighbourhoods have revealed rural poverty as their initial and main reasons for the migration of male migrants notably from the Southern Nations, Nationalities and Peoples Region (SNNPR), Amhara, Oromiya, and, to some extent, from Tigray. Like the case of Shashemene, the main push factors are rural vulnerability and lack of assets expressed in the form of diminishing farmland sizes in all their rural localities and shortage of landholdings, lack of rain, recurrent drought, absence of an effective extension system, limited investment in irrigation based agriculture, high population pressure, lack of off-farm employment opportunities, and imposition of heavy taxes. In addition to this, pull factors for their step migration mentioned by urban

male migrants included increasing construction activities, demand for urban domestic workers, better pay for service work and the presence of social support from the long term migrants in Kolfe (Feleke, 2005).

Not only the large metropolitan cities like Addis Ababa, but also small towns like Woldiya have been experiencing high in migrant streams. However, the towns and cities of Ethiopia are finding it increasingly difficult to absorb the migrants into gainful jobs and are struggling to provide adequate living conditions for the new arrivals.

In spite of the above noted prevailing situations, there is lack of sound knowledge and understanding of rural – urban migration in connection to the causes and consequences in both areas of origin destinations. At the same time, there is apparently little research work at empirical level on rural-urban migration in the country at large and Woldiya in specific. Therefore, the study and analysis of causes and consequences of rural-urban migration is important and thereby to provide significant data and analysis for policy formulation for launching suitable planning and response strategies to the emerging challenges and problems.

1.2 Statement of the Problem and Justification of the Study

The movement of people from place to place is an important component of population change which has its own spatial as well as temporal characteristics. This movement results in a distinct but not an easily explicable flow pattern over the time and space spectrum. It is these spatial characteristics that are of importance for geographers.

In the era of globalization, an improved and sophisticated means of transportation and communication are playing a key role in facilitating the interaction of people around the world. As a result, the rate of migration is

alarmingly increasing both at national and international level. In developing countries, internal migration is more persistent.

In Ethiopia, rural-urban migration is quite common especially in areas where drought is frequent. Historical documents record that rural-urban migration from drought-prone areas of northern regions to Addis Ababa were experienced for many years. Dejene (1990), Kebede (1994) and Lalem (2002) suggested that migration from the villages of Wollo in northeast Ethiopia to the resettlement villages was a last resort and for migrants the choice was often between possible death and migration. Consequently, those who moved are often economically embedded in their place of origin with no locational incentives to stay in the place of destination. Gurmu et al (2000) identifies particularly the increased volume of movement of vulnerable women and young people with little education and few job skills, with a high proportion being domestic or service workers. In the same light, Ezra (2001) demonstrates that rural out migration in northern Ethiopia has been a response to push factors related to ecological degradation and poverty in rural areas rather than a response to pull factors from urban areas in Ethiopia. Under these circumstances, the potential outcomes of such moves are hardly optimistic.

The town of Woldiya has been the capital town and center of administration of North Wollo Zone. The town is situated on the main Addis Ababa–Mekele road. It is also a point of branching off to Bahir Dar and Gondar and Afar region. Because of its strategic location (see Figure 1.1), the town has been experiencing rapid population growth. Also due to its location on the main road, it receives a considerable number of in-migrants. Due to these and other factors, the number of migrants of Woldiya town has grown from 1038 people in 1984 to 11325 people in 1994 (CSA, 1991; 1995). At the same time, Woldiya town also has high been experiencing high rate of in-migration from North Wollo area. Such observations made the researcher curious to explore the situation and identify the causes and possible effects in-migration to Woldiya town. Research outputs

and information on such topics is barely available. The researcher is familiar with the study area. This research will provide much needed information on the possible effects of migration in Woldiya town.

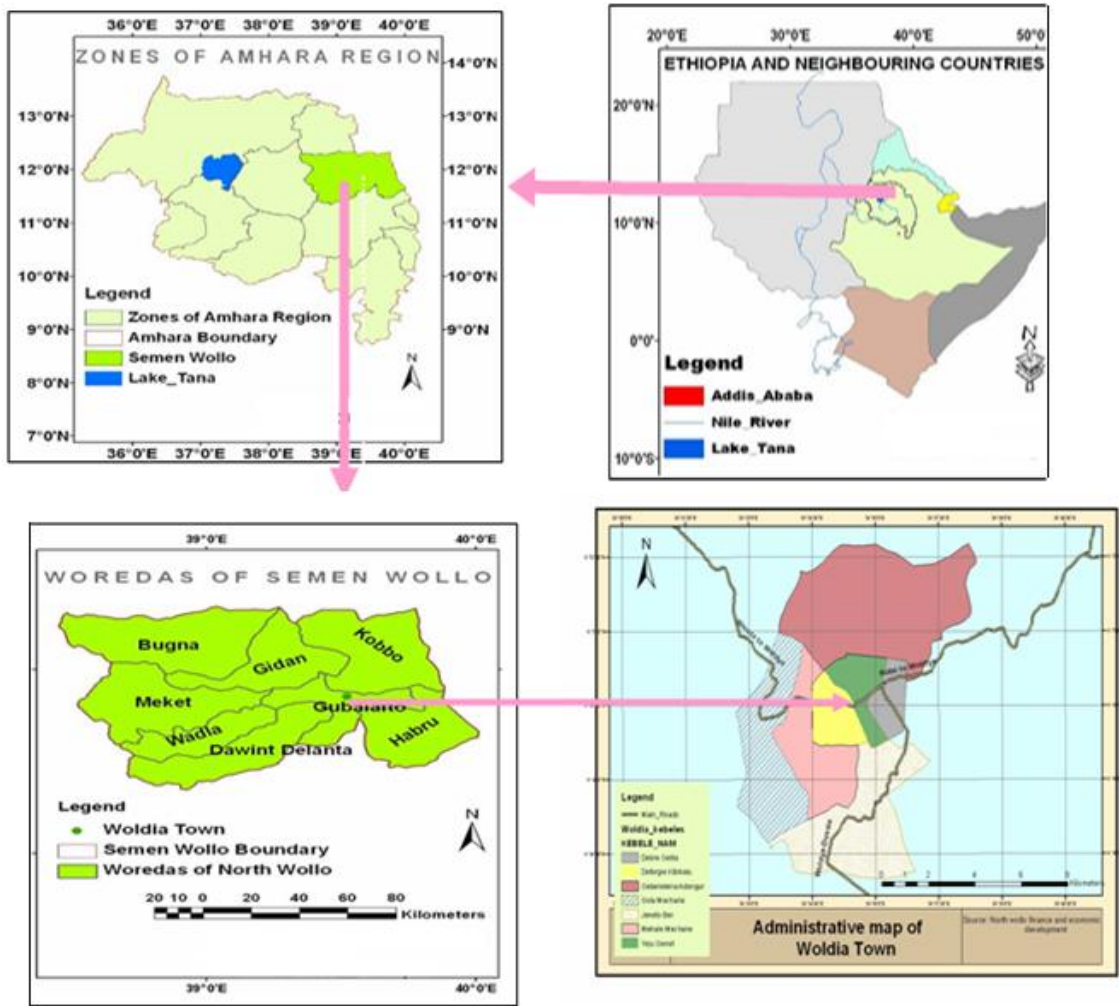


Figure 1.1: Location map of the study area (Source: North Wollo finance and economic development)

1.3 Objectives of the Study

The general objective of the study is to assess the patterns and establish the characteristics, causes and consequences of rural-urban migration to Woldiya town.

The specific objectives include:

- To examine the major determinant factors of rural -urban migrants to leave their place of origin and move to Woldiya.
- To identify the dominant migratory groups on the basis of age, sex, educational standards, marital status and other socio-economic characteristics of migrants of the study area.
- To assess the influence of distance on the rate, volume and spatial pattern of flow of rural-urban migration to Woldiya.
- To assess the consequences of in-migration particularly on housing, employment and social conditions and other facilities and amenities in the study area.

1.4 Hypotheses

Based on the problem and objective of the study the following hypotheses are designed.

1. The rate amount of migration to Woldiya is inversely related to distance but and directly related to population pressure of the main areas of origin.
2. Education is significant accelerator of the rate of migration to Woldiya.
3. The rate of in migration to Woldiya is the function of percentage of urban population.
4. There is strong relationship between unemployment rate and migration to Woldiya.

5. There is statistically significant income differential between the rural places of origin and urban destination at Woldiya.

In order to test the hypotheses formulated above, the following variables were considered. The explanatory variables more or less touch the main points that revolve around migration in general and the study town in particular.

In assessing the causes and consequences of migration in the study area, the dependent variable considered is:

Y: The number of migrants reported from different *Weredas* i.e. districts.

The independent variables were:

X₁: Average distance between Woldiya town and the administrative *Wereda* towns in that administrative region.

X₂: Percentage of urban population of regions and *Weredas* of North Wollo over the total population (CSA, 1994).

X₃: Crude population density of each *weredas* of North Wollo (CSA, 1994).

X₄: Agricultural density of *weredas* of North Wollo (CSA, 1994).

X₅: Unemployment rate of *weredas* of North Wollo (CSA, 1994).

X₆: percentage of literacy of *weredas* of North Wollo (CSA, 1994).

1.5 Significance of the study

With regard to its significance, the findings of this study are expected to make modest but important contributions to policy and planning issues, because:

- It may be helpful in tackling the problems that force people to leave their rural origin and narrowing the development gap between urban and rural areas through the introduction of sound rural development strategies and effective urban management.
- It could provide information for planners and policy makers in their overall effort to formulate and implement population redistribution or migration policy. Furthermore, it could inspire other researchers to conduct further research on the issue.

1.6 Limitations of the Study

As stated earlier, the number of the sample size of the study is limited to 500 migrant household heads and interviewees made with these 500 household heads. However, undertaking more interviews could have provided better information and increasing sample size could have provided better information about the study. However, increasing the sample size becomes difficult to collect the data within the given period. Thus, the study is limited to 500 sample migrant household heads.

On the other hand, some of the migrants have left their place of origin more than a decade before. Thus, respondents had problems recalling past events, such as their exact age while leaving their area of origins, year of departure of birthplace, occupation, reason for migration to name but a few. Some of the respondents were reluctant to positively respond to questions about their incomes. In addition, since some of the respondents were engaged in self-employed activities they had problem of estimating their average monthly income level. Moreover, the research is does not consider some more explanatory

(independent) variables(x) that can go with the rate of migration because of the time and financial constraints related to this particular research. Despite these shortcomings the results of this study provide relevant information on the causes and consequences of rural-urban migration in Woldiya Town.

1.7 Organization of the Study

The study is organized into seven chapters. The first chapter covered the introductory part that assesses the entire introductory frame work of the study. Chapter two deals with a review of related literature. Chapter three present a general background of the study area. Chapter four explains how the data was collected and processed. The fifth and sixth chapters are devoted to data presentation, analysis and the interpretation of empirical findings of the study. Finally, the last chapter provides a conclusion and recommendations for the future.

CHAPTER TWO

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Conceptual Framework

Migration can be considered as a significant feature of livelihoods in developing countries to pursuit better living standards. Central to the understanding of rural-urban migration flow is the traditional push-pull factors. “Push factor” refers to circumstances at home that repel; examples include famine, drought, low agricultural productivity, unemployment etc. while “pull factor refers to those conditions found elsewhere (abroad) that attract migrants. There are many factors that cause voluntary rural-urban migration, such as urban job opportunities, housing conditions, better income opportunities etc. There is no doubt that, apart from these factors, urban areas also offer a chance to enjoy a better lifestyle.

The provision of services such as electricity, piped water supply and public services make urban areas attractive. While the motives for rural movement are important in themselves, the means of movement are also of important. Improvements in transport systems and increasingly awareness of the urban areas through media, helped by improved educational standards are equally important factors to be taken into account when dealing with rural to urban migration.

Rural inhabitants see and hear success stories about people that leave their community and move to cities, which also act as incentives for out-migration. Incentives for out migration may be distorted, thereby creating excessive urbanization. Therefore, rather than targeting the migration itself, it is preferable to focus on the causative factors and its consequences.

Historically, pull factors have predominated- urban environment provides better employment and income opportunities. But recently, it seems that push factors seem to be increasingly powerful.

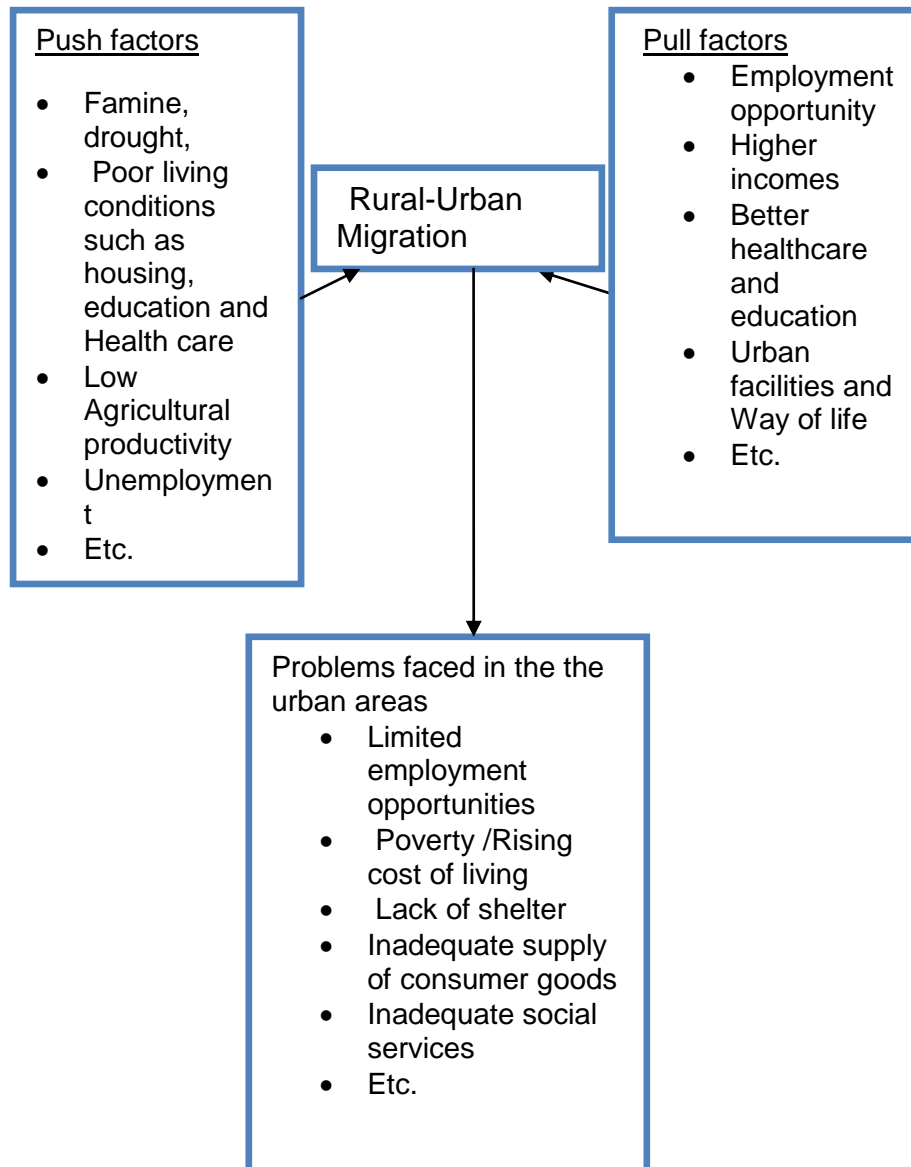


Figure 2.1: The conceptual framework for the analysis of rural-urban migration

Increased number of people because of rural urban migration certainly puts pressure on available and stagnant public utilities. Health services and education have been particularly burdened with a huge demand, causing overcrowded classrooms in urban areas. The most visible impact of growing urban population is probably the rise in squatter settlements in main urban centers. There are cases of unsafe and overcrowded shanty towns where exposure to pollution and diseases are high at risk. In general, increasing urban population has also brought increasing problems in urban areas (see figure 2.1).

2.2 Theoretical Framework

For some decades, various disciplinary and multi-disciplinary approaches have been trying to analyze and provide fundamental understanding for the phenomenon of migration. There are multitudes of theoretical as well as empirical studies, which are concerned with characteristics, determinants and impact of migration both of international and of internal levels. In the next section present a review and critical evaluation of the main existing theories of migration, with special reference to rural–urban movement in those developing countries with some similarities to the Ethiopian context.

2.2.1 Ravenstein's Laws of Migration

Ravenstein, coined his idea in the 1880s, which was considered as a pioneer work in the field of migration and he devised the laws of migration. These laws were comprised of set of migration generalizations (Rhoda, 1979:12) about the characteristics of migrants, their motives and patterns of migration (Barke and O'Hare: Ibid; Hornby and Jones 1993:111). According to him, most migrants travel short distances and that with increasing distance the number of migrants decreases; migrants proceeding long distances generally go by preference to one of the great centers of commerce and industry; migration occurs in stages

i.e. migration will first be to nearby places and then to most rapidly growing cities; each main current of migration produces a compensating counter current; the natives of towns are less migratory than those of rural parts of the country; females appear to pre-dominate among short journey migrants; the volume of migration increases with the development of transport, industry and commerce; and the economic motives are predominant among push and pull factors of migration.

In general, Ravenstein's basic laws have since been systematized and expanded by many investigators and the importance of the economic motive in the decision to migrate, the negative influence of distance, and the process of step-migration have been generally supported by empirical evidence, at least in some countries.

2.2.2 Lee's Theory of Migration

In 1966, Lee revised the basic push-pull concept. He developed a "general schema into which a variety of spatial movements can be placed" (Lee, 1966:49). He also tried to figure out a number of conclusions with regard to the factors in the act of migration, the volume of migration, the development of streams and counter streams, and the characteristics of migrants.

With regard to the factors in the act of migration he divided into "push" factors (factors associated with the area of origin), "pull" factors (factors associated with the area of destination), intervening obstacles and personal factors (Lee, 1966:50). Lee also hypothesized that both area of origin and destination have positive forces which hold people within the area or pull others to it, negative forces which repel or push people from the area, and zero forces which has no effect (Ibid). Lee hypothesized that factors associated with origin area conditions would be more important than those associated with destination areas. These factors associated with the areas of origin and destination

are governed by personal factors “which affect individual thresholds and facilitate or retard migration” (Lee, 1966: 51). The final element in Lee’s model is the notion of “intervening obstacles” interposed between origin and destination. These constitute “friction” in the migration process (transport costs, migration controls etc.) and may reduce or retard migration, or even (in the case of a law) prevent it altogether.

Lee’s conclusion with regard to volume of migration, the development of streams and counter streams, and the characteristics of migrants could be summarized as follow:

- The volume of migration within a given territory varies directly with the degree of diversity of areas included in that territory.
- The volume of migration is inversely related to the difficulty of overcoming intervening obstacles.
- Both the volume and rate of migration increases over time.
- Migration tends to take place largely within well defined streams (that is from rural regions to towns and then towards major cities, in other words step-migration).
- For every major stream, a counter stream develops.
- The magnitude of net migration (stream minus counter stream) will be directly related to the weight of “push” factors at origin.
- Migration is selective. This simply states that migrants are not a random sample of the population at origin.
- Migrants responding primarily to the “pull” factors at destination tend to be positively selected (highly educated persons and the like), whereas migrants responding primarily to the “push” factors at origin tend to be negatively selected; or, where the “push” factors are overwhelming to entire population groups, they may not be selected at all.

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

2.2.3 Harris-Todaro Model of Migration

A large body of literature has grown up in recent years around the topic in contemporary less developed countries (LDCs). In this chapter, focus will be placed on one of the particular influence theoretical works, that of Todaro (1969) and Harris-Todaro (1970). When in the early 1950s economists turned their attention to the problems of population growth and economic development in the LDCs, it was thus natural to think that policies which emphasized industrialization would not only increase national incomes, but also relieve the overpopulation of the countryside. However, during the 1960s this view came to be increasingly challenged when it became apparent that inequality and poverty has persisted despite respectable growth in GNP. This challenge has now led to the new orthodoxy in which rural-urban migration in the LDCs is viewed as “a symptom of and a contributing factor to underdevelopment”. The new orthodoxy is due mainly to Todaro (1969) and Harris-Todaro (1970) whose model has provided a widely accepted theoretical framework for explaining the urban unemployment in many LDCs.

Assuming potential migrants indeed respond to the urban employment probability and treating rural-urban migration primarily as an economic phenomenon, the

Harris-Todaro model then demonstrates that, in certain parametric ranges, an increase in urban employment may actually result in higher levels of urban unemployment and even reduced national product (the Todaro Paradox).

In the Harris-Todaro model migration was regarded as an adjustment mechanism by which workers allocate themselves between different labor markets, some of which are located in urban areas and some in rural areas, while attempting to maximize their expected incomes.

In general, the model underlined that the migrants would reach on the decision to migrate by taking the probability of unemployment in the destination areas. The migrants could migrate, though their current income in place of origin is higher than in place of destination. This is because the migrants' expectation for a better wage that would be able to compensate past losses in the long run (Todaro and Smith, 2003). In 1977, Brown and Neuberger as cited in Kasahun (2000:11) hypothesized that some migrants are primarily "pushed" out of a place of residence by combination of unfavorable forces that made continued residence there undesirable. Others are induced to leave their residence ("pulled" out) by attractive situations in other locations. Similarly, Bekure (1984:608) stated that "migration took place when conditions in the area of origin became intolerable or when the destination appeared attractive".

2.2.4 Migration and the Dual Sector Model of Economic Development

The Lewis Dual Sector model has two main sectors: An agricultural/rural sector characterized by zero marginal productivity of labor, and an urban/industrial sector which has a high demand for labor and offers wages that are higher than the rural areas. Lewis assumed the agricultural sector to be purely subsistence characterized by surplus labor, low productivity, low incomes, and considerable underemployment. Some portions of the rural labor force were assumed to be redundant or surplus in nature, contributing nothing to output. The industrial

sector was assumed to be technologically advanced with high levels of investment operating in an urban environment (McCatty, 2004).

The Lewis Dual Sector model basically states that there is the existence of excess labor in the rural agricultural sector; therefore people migrate to the industrial sector to obtain employment (McCatty, 2004). Besides, the urban manufacturing sector demands labor transfer so as to increase its productivity. In the modern sectors the migrants are thought to be attracted due to better wage. According to Todaro, high levels of rural-urban migration can continue even when urban unemployment rates are high and are known to potential migrants. Migrant will move even if that migrant ends up by being unemployed or receives a lower urban wages than the rural wages (Todaro, 1976:31). Similarly, the probability of obtaining an urban job is inversely related to the urban unemployment rate (Todaro, 1976: 47).

2.2.5 Sjaastad's Human Investment Theory

Sjaastad (1962) advanced a theory of migration which treats the decision to migrate as an investment decision involving an individual's expected costs and returns over time. Returns comprise both monetary and non-monetary components, the latter including changes in "psychological benefits" as a result of location preferences. Similarly, costs include both monetary and non-monetary costs. Monetary costs include costs of transportation, disposal of property, wages foregone while in transit, and any training for a new job. Psychological costs include leaving familiar surroundings, adopting new dietary habits and social customs, and so on. Since these are difficult to measure, empirical tests in general have been limited to the income and other quantifiable variables. Sjaastad's approach assumes that people desire to maximize their net real incomes over their productive life and can at least compute their net real income streams in the present place of residence as

well as in all possible destinations; again the realism of these assumptions can be questioned since “perfect information” is not always the case, by any means.

2.3 Conclusion

The migration theories discussed in this chapter originated from a variety of disciplines. Different disciplines approach migration in different way. A major criticism applicable to most migration theories is that no single theory offers a complete explanation for all migration phenomena (Viljoen, 2005). The above migration theories were considered the social, economic and other features of the migrants based on the western experiences. Regardless of this, the theories noted so far shall be used as a basic theoretical frame work for this research and they will be evaluated based on empirical observations whether or not the western model of migration applicable for this research.

2.4 The Empirical Framework

Despite divergence on the theories of rural-urban migration, the tide is still happening in many developing countries. In this sub-section some of the common causes and consequences of rural-urban migration observed are outlined in light of empirical findings in different literature.

2.4.1 Causes of Migration

Most studies have shown that the decision to migrate is generally made by the individual or household making the move (Clarke, 1986:7). However, many migrants especially wives and children, do not actually make the decision (McGee, 1975:236). The decision to migrate depends on a wide range of factors

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

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

Push factors are associated with the conditions in the place/area of origin of migrants and seem to be more important in the developing world than the “pull” factors associated with destination. War, drought, pest invasion, flooding and other catastrophes could force people to migrate. In rural areas land degradation and deforestation are directly correlated with their productivity and life condition. When they are not in a position to sustain their life through agriculture, where it is highly affected by environment condition, then they would prefer to migrate to urban areas and engage in non-farm activities (Dereje, 2002; Kinfе, 2003). Moreover, a study conducted in Ethiopia by Ezra (2001) and Tesfaye (2007) show that rural out-migration in northern Ethiopia has been a response to “push” factors rather than response to “pull” factors from urban areas.

In many developing countries, rural poverty resulting from low agricultural income, low productivity and under employment as well as strain of farm work is pushing many migrants out of rural areas towards areas with greater employment opportunities (Oberai, 1987:40; Okereke, 1976: 94; Charles, 1975:4; Heric, 1965:14).

People cannot live with bread alone rather they need political freedom. Nowadays, good governance is becoming the concern of many governments at least in principle. In the absence of popular democracy, political security, and rule of law, people may feel insecure. Thus, they would prefer to migrate to urban areas, where the political consciousness might be better in relative terms. Political factors such as the prevalence of civil war, conflicts among ethnic groups, discriminatory government laws etc. are important factors producing much rural-urban migration in the third world (Cox, 1970:157; Aklilu and Tadesse, 1993:29). Moreover, people living in border areas and other political strategic places usually flood to urban areas due to the frequent war and unrest in the area.

Similarly, Kebede (1994:10) argued that land scarcity due to increasing population pressure, unfavorable land tenure system, agricultural stagnation caused by faulty government policies, poverty, environmental crisis and the consequent famine and a set of many other related factors have in single or combination acted as forces pushing people from the rural areas in poor countries. Breese (1969:326) states that over urbanization caused by rural out-migration is mainly the result of the “push” factors from the countryside rather than the demand for labor in the cities, or what is called their “pull”. Bell (in White and Woods, 1980:88) and Gugler, et.al. (1978:53) also emphasized mainly on the “push” effects of rural areas rather than the urban ‘bright lights’ attraction.

Pull factors of migration are reasons for being attracted to the recipient area because of something desirable such as a nicer climate, better food supply, freedom, etc. (Lee, 1966). Some experts argue that urban environment provides better employment and income opportunity, and the provision of services such as electricity, piped water supply and public services make urban areas attractive. People with better off in their income could migrate to get a better social

infrastructure (education, health), driven by urban amenities, urban culture and life style etc. (Byerlee et.al, 1976; Worku, 2006).

Some rural-urban migrations in Latin-America and Asia are motivated by a desire for educational opportunities offered in urban areas (Rhoda, 1979:23). In Ghana and perhaps in tropical Africa, education is a powerful determinant of rural-urban migrations (Caldwell, 1969:84). Charles (1975:25) in the case of rural Nigerians, states that schooling increases expectations of new and modern urban life so that educated rural people are more prone to migration. However, according to Caldwell (1969:61), the role of education is not absolute as long as some unschooled rural Ghanaians move to the towns with their ill qualification to secure urban employment.

Similarly, people migrate to improve their economic well-being and when they are unable to satisfy their aspiration with in the existing opportunity structure in their locality (UNESCO, 1992; Fadayomi et al, 1992:87). Byerlee (1974) states that the rural-urban income differential is highly relevant factor for migration. Although high cost of living in cities leads to reduced real rural-urban income differential (Caldwell, 1969:205), yet it is attractive because, as Fapohunda and Lubell (1978:122) found out in the case of Jakarta, the opportunities for year-round employment in urban areas as against seasonal unemployment in rural areas is highly important.

The role of information in facilitating rural-urban migration is also worth mentioning. Thus, access of information from relatives in the urban areas, returnee migrants or through mass medias would play a catalytic role in rural-urban migration (Kinfе, 2003).

2.4.2. Consequences of Migration

Studies of consequences of migration are of equal importance as those of the causes of migration. The effects of migration are viewed from two directions. On one hand migration causes excessive urbanization, unemployment, income inequalities, ecological stress and population mal-distribution where as on the other hand migration is a necessary part of economic growth, equilibrating tendencies, facilitating industrialization, improving income distribution and introducing technological change in agriculture, and generalize that migration is the human right ensuring choosing one's destination to improve welfare and economic benefit (Lewis, 1982:1; Standing, 1984:1). In general, Rural-urban migration has a number of economic, social, cultural, mental and demographic impacts to both receiving and sending areas.

Economic impact: In many cases of migration economic gain has been the prime objective. The economic gain acquired by rural migrants from the cities could be an important asset to be transferred to the rural areas (home area or village) in the form of capital, technology, learning awareness, knowledge, trade, goods or services, etc. The survey for Jakarta shows that almost two-thirds of the male and female migrants reported to be better off after migration than before; and their success increased with the duration of their stay (Sethurman, 1976:12). Tiffen (1995:48) describes the positive value of migration as any work outside the district brings in capital and information as well as investment in transport or shops which in turn can facilitate agricultural profitability.

There are also usually positive effects in areas of origin. One such aspect is remittances which migrants send home (Dasgupta, 1981:47; Adepoju, 1981:324; Oucho, 1998:109). Hence, migration of a family member is used as a means of income diversification against risks (Lall et.al, 2006). According to Brière et al (2002) female migrants make remittances to their parents' households if the latter

experience income shocks; men insure parents only if there is no other migrant in the household.

In general, migrants are everywhere doing all kinds of jobs mostly in the service and informal sectors. They are mainly engaged in the 3-D jobs – difficult, dirty, and dangerous (Ma & Xiang 1998:547) – jobs that the urban population does not want because they are too hard or disgracing.

Demographic impact: migration has significant influence on the population size of both receiving and sending regions. As Standing (1984:25) pointed out, an increase in migration is expected to reduce rural population growth while urban population can increase because of the majority of migrants are males and females of reproductive age group. As the result, there can be predominance of older age groups with lower fertility rate in the sending rural areas (Khinchuk 1987:99). The UN (1991:15) reported that the migration which is caused by population pressure becomes age and sex selective. The result will be a rejuvenation of the population structure of the urban area at destination because the migrants are younger than the resident population. Moreover, some studies demonstrated that the age selectivity nature of rural-urban migration supplies cities with more young adults which in turn increase crude birth rates in cities and urban areas (Montgomery et al, 2004:118, UNFPA, 1996). In Africa the age selectivity in city ward migration is predominantly non-contraceptive societies; hence it makes the urban population age structure more conducive to high fertility (UNESCO, 1991).

Impacts on urban basic facilities: Migration has not only impact on demographic and economic aspects, but it has also different impacts on urban basic facilities. The consequences of migration are numerous in the urban areas among which overcrowding and congestion, strain on urban social services,

rising food costs, worsening air and water quality and increasing violence, prostitution and diseases are important (Adepoju 1991:29).

The most visible impact of growing urban population is probably the rise in squatter settlements in the main urban centers. The artificial barriers include high housing costs and regulations making it harder for migrants to rent houses in the cities, pushing them to suburban areas where lack of social services and police protection is pervasive (Zhao 1999: 778).

Change of Culture: When people migrate to one of the main urban centers they tend to adjust their habits and belief system, if not immediately, but at least, over a generation or two. These changes include changes in religion, clothing, ceremonies, sexual habits, etc (Anderson, 2002).

2.5 The nature of rural-urban migration in Africa and Ethiopia

In the sub-Saharan Africa, there is a consensus that improvement in economic circumstances is the primary motivation for internal migration (Adepoju, 1977). African migration is fundamentally a family affair rather than an individual activity. Sending of remittances by migrants is identified as one of the strongest and most all-encompassing phenomena in Africa's migration systems (Adepoju, 1995). Accordingly individual migration enables the household to maximize its chances for survival by diversifying its sources of income and spreading its risks (Stark and Bloom, 1985).

The recurring threat of famine or crop failure resulting from inadequate equipment and faulty method of utilization and cultivation of land and others induce rural out migration (Caldwell, 1969). He expresses that the limitation of cash earning opportunities of farmers to once or twice during the year forces many men to leave the countryside for the towns even to get daily labor.

There are multiple effects of migration in Africa both on sending and receiving areas. Bell's study of north Uganda situation finds negative effect of male migrants on agricultural economy because of shortage of labour (cited in White and Woods, 1980). However, exodus of male population from the Tonga Villages of Zimbabwe (Van Velsen, 1960) did not adversely affect the subsistence cultivation, as the same is well managed by the women left behind. Moreover, some studies in the region link migration with negative outcomes. Of particular concern is the selectivity of migration for the young, the educated, the innovative, and the energetic into rural - urban migration, leaving behind in rural areas the very young the apathetic, the retired and tired, the illiterate and the infirmed. Thus, those who will stimulate the local economy and contribute to improvement in household living conditions are lost, perpetuating rural poverty and dependency as well as undermining rural social viability (Lock Wood, 1990; Makinwa, 1981; Adepoju, 1983).

Studies of population mobility in general and rural urban migration in particular in Ethiopia are rather limited. Some attempts were made in relation to urbanization and rural settlements by Mesfin (1970), Eshetu and Teshome (1984), Kloos (1982) and Kebede (1992).

Ethiopia suffered national famine in different time periods .The 1984-85 famine was the most catastrophic Ethiopia experienced and reportedly more than a million people died (Kidane, 1989; Webb and Von Braun, 1994). As part of response to the famine, the Derg regime launched a massive national resettlement and villagization program intended to bring dispersed rural farmers from drought prone areas in the north into concentrated farming cooperatives, mostly in western Ethiopia. Kloos (1990) estimated that the 1984-85 resettlement program resulted in the movement of about 600,000 drought victims from northern and central Ethiopia to the western part of the country. This

controversial resettlement program exacerbated the food crisis by not only interfering with agricultural production but also disrupting social relations (Cohen and Lsaksson, 1987). According to Berhanu and White (2000), the program engendered discontent among the peasants and out migration flows towards cities to avoid living in settlements established and controlled by government. However, the country has been undergoing a major transformation from a centrally planned to a market oriented economy since the current government came to power in 1991. Because of such transformations internal migration tends to play an increasing role both demographically and economically (Kiros and White, 2004).

Studies indicate that movement of people from rural to urban areas of Ethiopia has considerable significance for urban growth. The share of in-migration accounted for more than 50 percent and in some cases up to 80 percent as noted around 1978 causing high urban population growth (Hailu, 1983 cited in Kederalah, 1991). The development of urban centers was, thus, at the cost of the rural areas (Taye, 1990). This resulted in rural stagnation and increased poverty, forcing the people to leave their villages (Eshetu, 1970). Accordingly, the rural “push” due to the prevailing poverty conditions in the rural areas and not the urban “pull” or attractions that has been the main force for migration (Eshetu, 1970; Befekadu ,1979).

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

Kebede (1984) stated that the rural “push” factors have been strong forces in the movement of people from the rural to urban areas of Ethiopia than the urban “pull” factors.

2.6 Conclusion

The researchers on rural- urban migration in Africa tried to understand the relationship between migration and economic determinants of migration and the multiple effects of migration both on sending and receiving areas. Moreover, the economic motives of in-migration have received increased attention in Africa. Ethiopia is one of the poor countries in Africa which has been affected vitally by spatial mobility of people, voluntary or forced. The country has experienced accelerated movements of population towards the capital city as well as other regional capitals and zonal towns. Several “pull” and “push” factors of migration were identified. The social, political and economic factors can be taken as the major causes for migration. However, researches on the pattern, causes and consequences of urban-ward migration in Ethiopia are scanty. Moreover, most of them are focused in Addis Ababa and nearby towns. The present study is therefore, intended to explore the causes and consequences of urban-ward migration in Ethiopia by taking Woldiya as a case and to contribute little to the body of migration literature in the country. This research will identify “push factors” of rural areas and “pull factors” of Woldiya.

In general, migration in Africa and Ethiopia take place in response to both “push” and “pull” factors. However, rural -urban migration expected to have considerable impacts at the area of origin and destination in different area.

CHAPTER THREE

GENERAL BACKGROUND OF WOLDIYA

3.1 Physical Background

3.1.1 Location and Relief

Woldiya, the main town of North-Wollo administrative zone, lies astronomically between 11⁰48'56" N and 11⁰50'39"N, and 39⁰34'30" E and 39⁰36'56"E. It is situated on the major north-south highway that links the capital city of Addis Ababa with Mekele, the main regional town of Tigray region. It is found at a distance of about 521 kms from Addis Ababa; 360 kms from the regional capital of Bahir Dar; and about 180 Kms from the tourist attraction site of Lalibela.

Woldiya is a nodal town connected by three radial roads with other towns of the country. Accordingly, the town served as junction with Mekele in the north and Djibouti in the east with the same road, Dessie and then Addis Ababa in the south, and Bahir Dar town in the west. It is also a major access route to the religious center of Lalibela. The town is bounded by Mount Gubarja in the east, mount Gebriel in the north which are the major physical barriers that limit further expansion of the town to the east and north respectively. To the west of Woldiya lies the flat plain of Mechare which is the alternative area for further expansion extending all the way to Tikur Wuha and Melka Demo rivers. To the south of Woldiya lies part of the flat plain of Mechare and small escarpment of Gubalafto for further expansion until it is also limited by the small mountain which is locally called Guba terara -literally means Mount Guba.

Although the small escarpment of Gubalafto is a limiting physical factor for the expansion of the town towards the south, the main factor governing the

expansion of the town in this direction is the 12 kms highway that runs from Jeneto ber to Woldiya through Gubalafto.

In addition to the advantages of plain nature of Mechare, the opening of Woldiya University, the construction of road from Jeneto to Woldiya, the Woldiya-Gondar-Bahirdar highway also have facilitated further expansion of the town.

The area under study is (Figure 3.1), geographically, situated in the northwestern highlands and associated lowlands, and in the sub division of the north central massifs having an average altitude of 2000 meters above sea level.

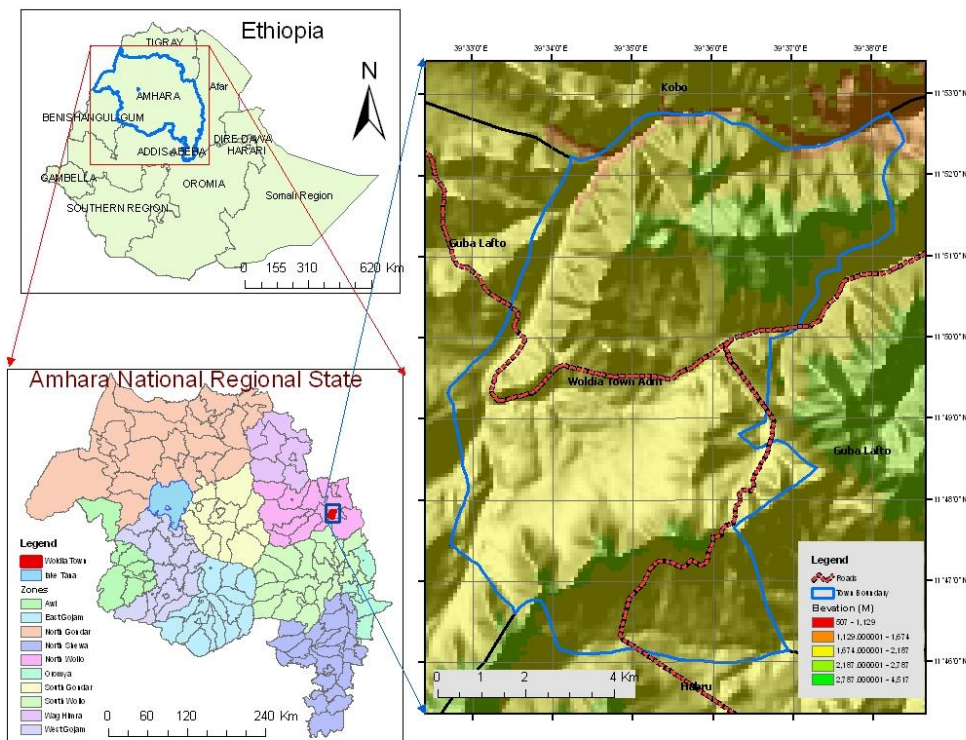


Figure 3.1: The location Map of the Study Area (Source: GIS lab, Department of Geography and Environmental Studies, Wollo University)

3.1.2 Drainage

Woldiya is located in the catchments of River Tikur Wuha and Melka Demo. The drainage pattern of the area is governed by the surrounding mountains or physical configuration of the town's position. The elevation of the town decreases from North to South, North West to South West, and East to West. Hence, the general trends of the flows of surface run off is from North to South, North West to South West and East to West wards. Then the flow of surface water originating from the surrounding mountain areas joins Shelle stream which finally flows to the North West of the town and joins the perennial river, Tikur Wuha, found approximately 5kms west of the town. There are no perennial rivers, lake or ponds within or around the town, except Shelle stream which is found at the southern part of the town.

Actually, the basin that the town occupies is that of the Shelle stream which the tributary of Tikur Wuha. Still further, but very small, the actual ground over which Woldiya is built is the valley streams of the seasonal Totit stream and intermittent Nitaf Dingay streams. Thus, although large rivers are not available within the built up area of the town, these small streams are sources of washing clothes and drinking water and water for a considerable number of inhabitants of Woldiya town.

3.1.3 Climate

As far as climate is concerned, Ethiopia's climate could have been a true tropical climate, but in reality this is not the case because of the high altitude, which modifies it. Regarding the climatic condition of Woldiya, there is no adequate and reliable meteorological data. However, several scattered data reveals that the

town experiences a subtropical / Woina Dega/ climate with mean annual rain fall of 850mm and mean daily air temperature of 22⁰c . This is also confirmed by the fact that as with altitude between 1500-1700 and 2300-2400 meters above mean sea level in Ethiopia are considered as *woina dega* (subtropical), Woldiya town which has an average altitude of 2000 meters above mean sea level, therefore, belongs to this zone.

3.2 Historical foundation and growth of Woldiya

For the purpose of simplicity, the researcher has preferred to deal with the historical foundation and growth of the town in three periods, namely, pre 1936, Woldiya during 1936-1941 (during the Italian occupation) and the time after 1941 to the present.

3.2.1 Woldiya before 1936

According to the unpublished material of Woldiya municipality, before the foundation of Woldiya, both the area in which the town is built and the surrounding areas were covered with thick forests and thorny bushes. Different oral stories, in addition to the unpublished material of Woldiya municipality, have explanations for the foundation and growth of the town. Accordingly, before the establishment of Woldiya, Ras Ali I (Talaku Ali) (roughly the last quarter of the 18th century) was the ruler of Lasta, Wadla Delanta, and Yeju. After he started from Geregera and descended to Yeju, the very first place where Ras Ali I erected his tents (Camp) was on the top of Ariro (Gebriel) mountain as other rulers of the time because it was customary for Ethiopian rulers to camp on Amba-mountain tops for security reason. Ras Ali I is said to have chosen this site because it was a mountain top and strategically important for military and administrative purposes. It was also true that on the top of this mountain, he built the in front of Gebriel church. Ethiopians usually locate their settlements on the

high ground. As a symbol of reflection churches in Ethiopia are built on higher ground while settlements occupy the lower ground. During this time [at the time of Talaku Ali I] the market place was at Woidu about 20-25 kilometers from the camp to the south. Ras Ali I shifted the market place to Jenete [genete] just a few kilometers west of the foot of mount Gebriel. However, this selected place by itself was a marshy area, which was prohibiting from marketing practices during rainy days and Ras Ali I was unable also to control and command the people, as the area was not visible from the top of the mountain. Thus ultimately, due to these two factors, according to the unpublished material, Ras Ali I shifted the market place, Jenete /Genete/, to the present market place at Deferge area namely Maksegno Gebeya around 1785 .He then named it "Welda" meaning central place for meeting of all purposes. Hence, it was around 1785 that Ras Ali I established Woldiya and got its name during that time. Since then, the word "Welda" has been modified over time to Woldiya and has been used till now. Moreover, according to the information bulletin of Woldiya town municipality titled 'Woldiya under development trend: National chamber of commerce and exhibition' (2006), on the question how Woldiya got its name, an elder who knows the historical foundation of the town replied that "... as far as I know Woldiya got its name during Ras Ali I in 1778. During that time, he replied, Ras Ali I came from Gondar so as to keep the security of the surrounding areas and camped at the top of Mount Gebriel. At that time the area in which Woldiya built was covered with thick forests and drained by many small streams. One day when Ras Ali I looked down from the top of mountain Gebriel, he saw white matter at the place presently called Maksegno Gebeya [means Tuesday market places]. Ras Ali I, then, sent his Balemuals, which literally means loyalists, to identify what that white matter was. When the loyalists arrived there, they found a woman with a baby waiting her clothes to dry up after washing. After they returned back to the camp at Gebriel, they told Ras Ali I as "Set Wolda" meaning a woman who has given new born baby. After that, gradually, name of the place changed in to the name Woldiya from the term "Set Wolda", meaning a woman

after delivery, through time.” In addition to that, he added, Woldiya is derived from the Oromo term “welda” meaning central meeting place for all since Woldiya was serving as a break - of - bulk center for nearby small towns. But locally the name derived from “Welda” is seems mostly agreed and accepted.

It is possible to conclude from the above records that whatsoever the reasons may be the attachment of Ras Ali I to the emergence and development of Woldiya seems was a reality. Yet the other most important fact is that though it is difficult to tell the exact year when Ras Ali I founded the town, it is also possible to tell that Woldiya was founded some time between 1778 and 1785.

According to the same document, Woldiya was founded with a population of 150 Gebbars-literally means tenants with 100 Gebbars placed at the surrounding areas of Maksegno Gebeya and 50 Gebbars placed at Abba Dinsa. Despite its long history of inception in the last quarter of the 18th century, much of its growth had occurred starting from the end of the 20th century.

Despite its long history, the town of Ras Ali I lacked many of the characteristics of 20th century towns in the first few decades of the century. For example, there were no dry weather roads joining Woldiya to the north or south as well as east or to western parts of the country before the Italian occupation. For example, trade activity in the medieval period until the 1920s was carried on horses, mules as well as donkies to and from different areas such as Addis Ababa, Jima, Nekemete, Gondar, Gojam, and Tigray.etc. There were no social service centers such as schools, health centers, piped water, electricity supply, police stations, post offices etc.

3.2.2 Woldiya During 1936 - 1941 (during the Italian occupation)

The Italian period was very important for the growth of Woldiya town in a number of ways because it was during the Italian occupation that all weather roads, different governmental institutions such as the then called Awraja Gizat, Awraja court, Awraja finance, Woreda court, Coptic offices, and what are now called Debre Gelila, Adago, and Mugad were built, and commercial business began on a large extent. For example, the before main road was constructed from Addis Ababa to Woldiya and other places, which solved some of transportation problems associated with the traditional method of trading to a greater extent and the town served as a break of bulk center for distributing goods and services.

3.2.3 Post 1941

Shortly after the evacuation of the Italians and with the restoration of independence of the country more people have come to the town and more houses have been built. During the Italian occupation houses stood far apart. Public institutions have been built. It was in 1947 that the before Kidane Mihret church was built within Debre Gelila. A governmental hospital and a before health center were built. In 1948 the Itege Taitu Bitul school was established and the Melka Kole school was opened in 1964. Moreover, schools like Woldiya Junior and Woldiya Senior Secondary schools were built to meet the need for more schools .Despite many efforts Woldiya have experienced many big changes that could have far reaching effects. The pace of urbanization has not yet been mature. The town has continued growing largely because of rapid increase of population, chiefly by natural increase and by the rural-urban migration. On top of these in the last two to three decades the town and its surroundings have undergone changes, including expansion of its built up areas. A part from the foundation of municipality of Woldiya in 1945, the other most important factors for the expansion of Woldiya are the newly established

institutions such as post office, hospital, banks and telephone systems. The town also received 24 hours electricity supply. This has facilitated socio- economic development and physical expansion of the town.

3.3 Population Growth Trends of Woldiya Town

It is clear that any type of research of any activity including the main theme of this paper, the causes and consequences of rural urban migration, is designed either directly or indirectly for the benefit/ welfare of the people. Therefore, the study cannot proceed without referring to the population size and trends of annual growth rate.

Woldiya has demonstrated sustained growth in population size since its foundation between 1778 and 1785 with a total population size of 150. From its inception, in the last quarter of the 18th century, the town has grown to be a home of 46,126 inhabitants in 2007, after 230 years (CSA: 2007). Until the first national population and housing census of 1984, the exact population size of the town was unknown. The years 1984, 1994 and 2007 are years for which there exists a recent census report than mere estimates of the population size.

Table 3.1: Population Size and Annual Average Growth Rates, 1984-2007

Year	Male population		Female population		Total population size	Absolute increase	Annual average growth rates (%)
	Size	%	Size	%			
1984	6,413	41.85	8912	58.15	15,325	-	-
1994	11,689	47.65	12,844	52.35	24,533	9208	4.69
2007	22,990	49.84	23,136	50.16	46,126	21,593	4.84

(Source: CSA : 1985, 1995 and 2008)

Table 3.1 provides census results for three years. The 1984 national population and housing census results show that the total size of population of Woldiya town was 15,325. The second national population and housing census of 1994 results, after a decade, revealed that the total population size of Woldiya town was 24,533 of which 11,689 (47.65%) were males and 12,844 (52.35%) were females. This figure, however, has increased to about 46,126 in the year 2007. This means that, the size of the population of the town increased grossly by more than 60% and 88% over the period of 1984 to 1994 and 1994 to 2007, and at annual average growth rates of 4.69% and 4.84% respectively.

Another point that is clearly seen in Table 3.1 is that while the size of the population in the town has increased by 9,208 people between 1984 and 1994 [921 people per year], the figure has increased by 21,593 people between 1994 and 2007 [1661 people per year]. This actually confirms the fact that the annual average growth rate of the population between 1994 and 2007 has been much higher than the annual average growth rate of the population between 1984 and 1994.

Both natural increase of population of the town and massive rural to urban and urban to urban migrations have contributed for the rapid growth of the population of the town. Due to its new administrative status, economic and location advantages over other urban centers in the area, the town has attracted large number of people from other areas. It comprises, according to the 2007 census result, over 29% of the total urban population of the region.

3.4 Urban Amenities and Facilities in the town

In relative terms Woldiya town is privileged in that it is a center of many business activities, private and public establishments, educational training institutions and other facilities that are not found at this magnitude in many other zonal towns.

These social services include, several number of hotels and shops, two commercial banks (commercial bank of Ethiopia and Dashen Bank), one zonal referral hospital, one health center, seven clinics, one vocational training institute, two private colleges and one public university, four pharmacies, three rural drug vendor stores, nine elementary schools, one high school and one preparatory secondary school. Moreover, other institutions like NGOs, rural oriented development agencies, and main offices of Gubalafto woreda are found in the town.

3.5 Ethnic Composition

The population of Woldiya is composed of more than four ethnic and linguistic groups. The 1994 population and housing census results showed that the Amharas constituted the largest ethnic group accounted for about 94% of the total, followed by Tigrawy (4.32%) and Oromos (0.38%) and Agaw (0.3%) (Table 3.2).

Table 3.2: Major Ethnic Groups of Population of Woldiya Town:1994

Ethnic group	Population size	%
Agew /Kamyr/	70	0.29
Amhara	23041	93.92
Oromo	93	0.38
Tigrawy	1059	4.32
Others	270	1.10
Total	24533	100.00

(Source: (CSA, 1995)

3.6 Economic Situation of the town

Woldiya is a vibrant economic and administrative center of North Wollo zone and Gubalafto Woreda. According to the town's Trade and Industry Bureau there were a total of 1,309 trade, service and industry business enterprises in the town in 2008.

Table 3.3: Number of Trade, Industry and service in Woldiya Town: 2004-2008

No.	Type of business	Year						Share of each business category
		2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	years Average	
1	Wholesale	24	17	19	20	21	20	2%
2	Retail	363	431	462	522	617	479	48.2%
3	Service	304	362	418	470	518	414	41.6%
4	Industry	59	78	89	90	88	81	8.2%
	Total	944	908	988	1,631	1,309	1156	100%
	Growth rate							
1	Wholesale	-29%	12%	5%	5%	-2%		
2	Retail	19%	7%	13%	18%	14.28%		
3	Service	19%	15%	12%	10%	14.30%		
4	Industry	32%	14%	1%	-2%	11%		
	Total	-4%	9%	65%	-20%	13%		

(Source: Woldiya Town Trade and Industry Development Office, 2009)

As shown in the Table 3.3, those who work different type of commercial activities via retail trade accounted for about on average 48% of the total business enterprises in the past five years. Next to this, service, industry and wholesale trade on average accounted for 41.6%, 8.2%, and 2%, respectively in the last five years.

Regarding growth trend of the concerned business enterprises, the service sector has shown a higher average annual growth rate (14.3%) in terms of

number between the years 2004 to 2008 . Next to service, retail trade has been growing by an average annual growth rate of 14.28% and the industry sector has been growing by 11% during the considered period. On the contrary, wholesale activity has shown a decline by an average annual growth rate of 2% during the last five years. In all, trade, service and industry has been growing in Woldiya town by an average annual growth rate of 13% in the last five years.

Concerning the composition of activities, the service sector has been dominated by catering related activities such as hotels, bars and restaurants. These have accounted for 25% in 2008. Next to catering related, building contractors were 14% in the same year.

Investment in Woldiya town is showing an increasing trend on comparative basis. According to the town's Trade and Industry Development Office, Investment Promotion Section, so far a total of 123 different investment projects have been licensed registering a total capital of birr 78.03 million in the last five years. These have created employment opportunity to 2,922 individuals. So far a total of 11.29 hectare of land is delivered to investors in the considered period (2004 to 2008). At present Woldiya town administration has prepared 10.5 hectare of industrial zone for different investment activities. Currently land is acquired in the town through lease system (either by auction or negotiation). In order to promote investment activities in Woldiya different incentives have been devised recently. For instance, land is delivered for selected industrial activities (such as leather products, cotton processing, and mineral factory) at initial land lease price as an incentive. Similarly, land is delivered for investment activities like hotels with stars, guest houses, lodges and real-estate (for rental purposes) at initial land price with grace period.

The town in general has investment potentials in the areas of hotel and tourism, urban agriculture, trade, social service facilities, construction (real estate

development), industry (and particularly Medium industries, meat processing units & leather and leather products, fruit processing units, small flour factories and cotton processing factories) and storage.

3.7 Informal, Squatter, Settlements and the Situation of Slum

According to the municipality's estimate housing units both as informal and squatter account for more than 50% from the total housing units while squatter settlements alone account for 2 to 5% of the total housing units. Accordingly, the data shows that in rural kebeles the situation of squatter settlements problem is more. Even though, compared to squatters the proportion of informal settlement is higher, most informal settlements are to be found in central locations of the city boundary, while most of the squatters are found at the outskirts located in rural kebeles.

The definition of the municipality indicates that informal settlements are those who build their houses without conformity with the plan, even though they may be having a legal claim to their holding. On the other hand squatters are those who obtain land illegally from peasants and remain without transferring their holdings legally.

The report of the municipality highly relates the proportion of slum areas to the existence high concentration of kebele houses that could be characterized by their low quality, without access to facilities and lacking proper maintenance for years. Slums are thought to be concentrated in locations such as, surrounding the main market, "Mugad" 'Adago" areas, "Feres Megria", "Chew Tera", "Abadinsa", "Alem Genda", "Germen Sefer", "Tinfaz" and "Yerdaw Sefer".

3.8. Housing development program

Woldiya is among towns and cities in Amhara Regional State to benefit from an Integrated Housing Development Program of building low cost houses. Thus, a project office was established in Woldiya that is responsible to run the housing project and related fulfilling related objectives of the program.

Under this project office the construction of total housing units of 2319 is under way. The housing units are composed of different types including, studios, one bedroom, two bedrooms, three bedrooms and units for commerce. The table below indicates housing units by type and year of construction.

Table 3.4: Low Cost Houses under Construction in Woldiya Town by Type and Year

No.	Type of house	Year			Total
		2007	2008	2009	
1	Studio	213	60		
2	1 bed room	180	378		
3	2 bed room	153	284		
4	3 bed room	9	10		
5	Commercial	-	40		
Total		555	772	992	2319

(Source: Housing Development Project Office of Woldiya, 2009)

Compared to housing units constructed in 2007 units under construction in 2008 and 2009 are located in central parts of the town and especially the 2009 sites were selected by demolishing some existing houses mainly that of kebele houses. According to the project office, even though the project commenced its operation back in 2007, its progress is very slow and is not in line with the plan. This is due to some challenges or problems faced by the project office. The transfer of some of the units to beneficiaries was not encouraging mainly because of affordability problem on the side of the residents.

CHAPTER FOUR

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

The study focuses on the causes and consequences of rural-urban migration to Woldiya town, North Wollo, Ethiopia. In order to address the stated objectives and research questions of the study, this chapter outlines sources of data, method of data acquisition and analysis.

4.1 Research Design

Research design is considered as the blue-print and cornerstone of any study since it facilitates various research operations. In this regard, Kothari (2006) argues that research design helps the researcher plan in advance of the methods to be adopted for collecting the relevant data and techniques to be used during analysis. The nature and objectives of the problem to be studied and the means of obtaining information are the most important factors to be considered in order to choose the appropriate research design. Regarding the selection of the research design, Kothari (2006:33), and Brown and Dowling (1998:37) noted that, if the major emphasis of the study is on discovery of ideas and insights the appropriate research design is found to be exploratory (experimental) while if the purpose of the study is on the accurate description of a situation the appropriate research design is descriptive.

According to Teshome (1998), using of both quantitative and qualitative methods at the same time is more advisable. Because quantitative data provides precise summaries and comparisons, while the qualitative data provided general elaborations, explanations, meanings and relatively new ideas. Taking all these into account, multiple approaches which combine both quantitative and qualitative methods are used for this study. These methods are believed to be

more appropriate to investigate the topic under discussion - causes and consequences of rural-urban migration to Woldiya town. Moreover, the qualitative approach is useful to look carefully for flaws and inadequacies that might be induced un-intentionally in this study.

4.2 Methods of Data Collection

Based on the research problem and objectives, both primary and secondary data sources were used. Multiple data collection strategy is more advantageous than single data collection strategy in research work. As Teshome (1998) stated, there are strengths and weakness to any single data collection strategy and using more than one data collection approach give opportunity to the researcher to combine the strengths and correct some of the deficiencies of any one source of data. More specifically, the selected methods to collect the necessary data are questionnaire, focus group discussion, interview, personal observation and secondary sources.

4.2.1. Questionnaire

To complement the data through other instruments and to collect primary data on individual house hold heads, the questionnaire which includes open-ended and closed ended types and that consisted of nine main sections has been prepared (please refer to Appendix 1). The first part was Demographic characteristics of migrants at present that helps to secure information about the personal profile of the respondents including their age, sex, marital status, religion and educational attainment. The second section deals with Demographic characteristics of migrants – past (before migration). The third part is about patterns and process of migration. The fourth section addresses causes of migration. The next three sections concerned on economic status of migrants before migration-past, Economic characteristics of migrants at present, pre and

post migration status compared. Finally, the last two sections deals with problems faced by migrants after arrival in Woldiya and future plan of migrants. The researcher developed the interest of pursuing questionnaires guide as instrument of this study while reviewing the research literatures on rural urban migration. The development of questionnaires, an interview and group discussion guide is also useful to triangulate the responses of sample migrants. The interview guide that was set for migrants was directly linked to some of the items set in the questionnaires. The researcher considered responses obtained from migrants on the same item through questionnaire, interview and group discussion guide to reveal consistency of responses. This triangulation of responses helped the researcher to avoid the threat of bias that might be induced unintentionally.

In order to achieve the stated objective, the items of the questionnaire are developed using simple and clear words that were appropriate and helped migrants to respond to the questions with understanding. During the development of this questionnaire, the researcher used the related theoretical background reviewed for my study. The construction of this questionnaire items is more strengthened using the professional comments given by colleagues, my advisors and the feedback obtained during the pilot survey (the detail is given in section 4.3). The questionnaire was prepared in English and translated in to Amharic which is the language of the local people.

4.2.2. Focus Group Discussion

In addition to questionnaires, focus group discussion was also conducted to substantiate the responses acquired using questionnaires. The group discussion was conducted with migrants in the town such as young, adult, elderly people of both sex and others who have expected to have accumulated knowledge about the income, patterns, causes and consequences of migrations in the study area. There was one focus group discussion each held in Yejugenet, Debregelila and

Defergekbikalo Kebele. Each group comprising of ten persons in the discussion. Total numbers of individuals involved in the group discussion in the three kebele were 30.

4.2.3. Interview

To get the necessary information, in-depth interviews were given more attention. The interview was conducted with elders who can give their participant experiences of the past and present developments, administrators, planners and other concerned authorities of the town, administrator of sample *kebeles*, selected migrants from each of sampled *kebeles*. Notes were sufficiently and carefully taken from the interviewees who were considered knowledgeable and rich to provide explanations on income, patterns, causes, and consequences of rural urban migration.

4.2.4. Observation

The researcher's personal observation and experience of the study area helped him to understand the consequences of rural-urban in the study area and crosschecked data gathered through household survey, discussion and key informant interviews.

4.2.5. Secondary data source

In addition to data collected through questionnaire, group discussion, interview and observation, the secondary data pertaining to in migration, population, the physical background, urban amenities and facilities of the town were obtained from various sources. The Woldiya wereda administration office, Woldiya Town Trade and Industry Development Office, North Wollo Finance and Economic Development Office documents and archives of the municipality of the town were

some of the major sources. The Statistical Bulletin of Economic Development and Planning Bureau of Amhara region, Trade and Industry Department of North Wollo Administrative Zone have been approached to get additional data. In addition to these, various publications of the CSA such as the 1984, 1994 and 2007 population and housing census statistical and analytical reports at country and regional level and abstracts have contributed to the study substantially by providing information regarding the study. Literatures related to rural-urban migration issues from internet websites, unpublished and published materials in the library of Wollo University and other institutions were also intensively reviewed.

4.3 Administration of Pilot-Test

To minimize the flaws that might prevail in the construction of the instrument, the researcher have shown the draft questionnaire to colleagues, experts working in the field of migration and his advisors. These colleagues were four Geography and environmental studies instructors at Wollo University who have the experience of developing questionnaire and undertaking research on Human Geography. The colleagues, experts and his advisors reviewed and commented on the content, form and arrangements of the questions. For example, the colleagues recommended to add future plans of migration in the questionnaire and specify the income category to make the questions clearer for migrants. In the construction of this questionnaire, the researcher followed the advice of Dawson (2003) that states that after constructing a questionnaire ask people who have not been involved in its construction to read it through and see if there are ambiguities which the researcher did not noticed.

Besides getting comments of professional colleagues it became necessary to pilot it on a small group that have the same profile with the subjects of the study (Brown and Dowling, 1998) and that are not part of the study. The reason lies in

the fact that pilot-testing helps to learn where undesired mistakes were made and gives an opportunity to modify the questions of the study. Specifically, it avoids ambiguities, assures the simplicity and clarity of the communication, and avoids double-barrelled questions in the items contained in the questionnaires.

The researcher made a prior contact with the Kebele administrator of Woldiya town where the researcher planned to conduct a pilot test. After his request was granted, the researcher arranged his schedule to meet sample migrants. An explanation of the purpose of the study and request for their consent to participate on the pilot-test was done. All of them agreed to participate on the pilot-test.

This pilot-test was conducted on 55 migrants not supposed to be included in the actual study, in August 2009. The researcher selected these migrants randomly by the help of Kebele administrator and distributed the questionnaire to be completed. Responses to this pilot-test enabled him to ensure for consistency and helped him to avoid ambiguities in the instruments of the study. The researcher accepted the feedback of the respondents and a number of modifications were also made to the final questionnaire.

Based on the feedback from pilot administrations, the instruments and the items were finalized. Finally, the questionnaires having clear instructions were made to collect data from migrants. This was done in line with Dawson's (2003) advice which states that once piloting has been done alter the questions according to the feedback obtained and then send out a number of questionnaires to the type of people who will be taking part in the main study.

4.3.1 Validity and Reliability of the Instruments

As discussed above, all the items that were developed to address the stated objectives under investigation were made to maintain validity of the instruments of the study. Best and Kahn (2002) describe that the items of the instrument should represent a significant aspect of the purpose of the investigation. Content validation was established by cross-referencing the content of the instruments to those elements contained in the stated objectives to determine if there was indeed a match. That is, the items constructed were in line with the stated objectives. Content validity addresses to what extent the appropriate content is represented in questionnaires items. On the other hand, the definitions of new terms used in the study were included to help the respondents to complete the questionnaires by understanding the questions asked and to freely express their views during interviews. These definitions were given to assist the respondents respond in line with the meanings set in the definitions. According to Brown and Dowling (1998) and Best and Kahn (2002), the validity of a study can be checked by defining the meaning of all terms in the instrument so that they give the same meaning for all respondents. The researcher also changed the construction of some items in the questionnaires based on consultation of researcher's colleagues, advisors and the feedback received during the pilot-testing.

The main issue of reliability is addressing the consistency of the instruments in relation to what they intend to measure. As mentioned above, the researcher consulted my colleagues, my advisors and experts in the field of migration during the development of the instruments. Moreover, the instruments were pilot-tested to migrants to ensure the reliability of the instruments.

As Best and Kahn (2002:247) recommend the reliability of the responses is inferred by a second administration of the questions and by comparing the responses given to those of the first. The researcher personally met all the

respondents and gave a detail orientation to complete all the items in order to avoid the unintentional bias. The respondents were advised not to bother to recall what they responded on the prior administered pilot-test and were asked to respond as they truly feel about the items set on the questionnaires. As Brown and Dowling (1998) argue, the researcher has to do everything to foster the good response rate and to minimize the unintentional bias during pilot testing. Hence, there was no significant variation observed in the responses of the respondents. All these processes enabled the observer to modify the items that have discriminative power to be used for the actual data collection.

4.4 Sampling Design

According to the information obtained from the administration office of Woldiya, the town has recently merged the eight kebeles into three including four rural kebeles. Thus, the town is divided into seven kebeles for administrative purpose (see figure 4.1). Among the seven kebeles of Woldiya, three kebeles are urban and the rest are rural. In order to select sample kebeles as a sampling unit, purposive sampling was employed. Thus, three kebeles from the total seven kebeles were selected purposively because the researcher assumed that the majority of migrants settle in the urban kebeles. Table 4.5 shows the sample kebeles of the town and distribution of samples. There was no readymade list of migrant households from secondary sources. So, it was decided to go ahead for identifying the migrant household with the help of kebele administrator before distribution of the questionnaires. Simple random sampling was employed to select the household heads arbitrarily from the list of each kebele to be included in the sample as a sampling frame for three selected kebeles. Table 4.5 shows the number of migrant households selected from the total number of migrant household heads of each kebele.

Table 4.1: Distribution of Sample Migrant Households

Kebele's name	Number of household heads	Number of sample household heads	Percent of respective kebeles of the total sample
Yejugenet	5551	194	39
Debregelila	4313	150	30
Defergekbikalo	4462	156	31
Total	14326	500	100

Expecting high degree of homogeneity in the characteristics of the migrant population of the three sample kebeles included in the survey, and due to time and financial constraints, the study covered 500 sample households (3.5 percent of the total migrant households of sample kebeles) from sample kebeles proportionally. That means a proportional allocation of sample households for each kebeles was used.

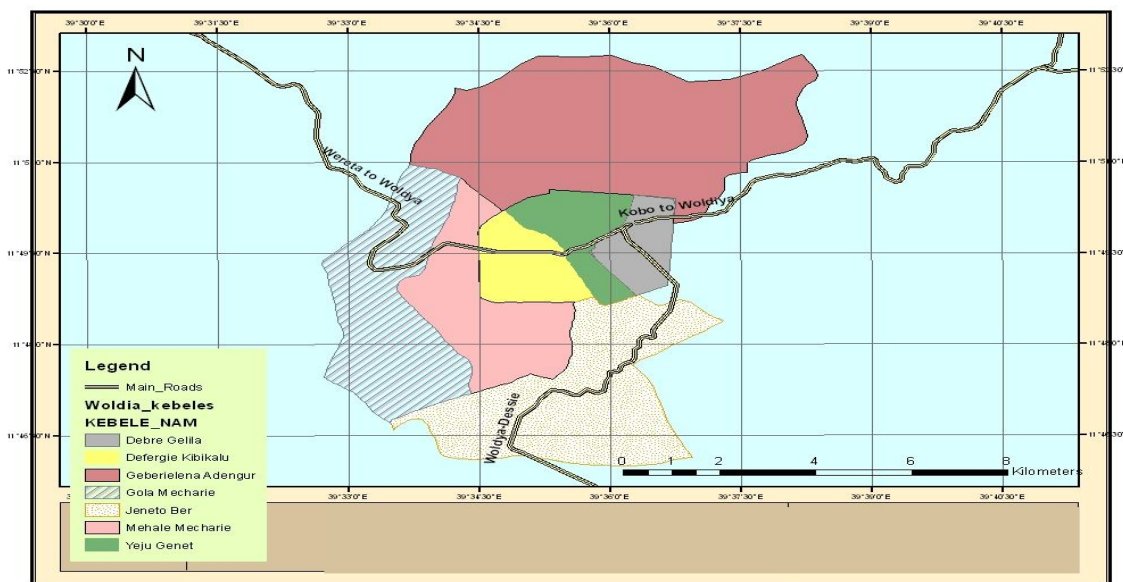


Figure 4.1: Map of Sample Kebele (Source: North Wollo Finance and Economic Development)

4.5. Administration and Procedures of Data Collection

The researcher made a prior contact with the kebele administrator of each Kebele. They cooperated by arranging a schedule to identify and meet the migrants. The researcher personally met some of the migrants and explained the purpose of the study to get their consent. After getting their consent, the researcher used a simple random sampling technique (discussed above) to identify the samples that would complete the questionnaire. The researcher assured the respondents that the information they provide would be kept strictly confidential. This helped to avoid fears and suspicions that might come in the minds of the respondents and enhanced their cooperation for the study. This was done according to the advice of Best and Kahn (2002) who stated that the researcher has the responsibility to keep the subjects who gave him/her information safe by not revealing their identity in all his/her records and reports.

Taking into account of the sample size and the time schedule as well as the nature and content of questionnaires, the researcher recruited a total of ten enumerators from the respective kebeles of the town. The data collectors were selected on the basis of their personal characteristics, educational level (all preparatory complete) and knowledge of the town (i.e. native to the area and speakers of local language Amharic). Before the data collectors start the actual field survey, the researcher arranged orientation program on how to proceed with the interview and approach the interviewee, Then, the enumerators started their work . In addition, during the survey the researcher accompanied field assistance in order to coordinate as well as to cross check their works. In order to maintain the quality of data collected, meetings were held with the enumerators after the end of each survey data to discuss any problem they faced. The researcher also cross checked the completed questionnaires with some of the respondents. The

survey was administered during twelve days starting from September 27, 2009. A total of 500 questionnaires were completed.

4.6. Ethical Considerations

In research, ethical consideration is one of the most important points that deserve attention. This is mainly due to:

- The necessity to strictly respect the consent of the participant whether they are willing to participate in the research or not. Likewise, it is to assure to the subjects of the study that they are free to withdraw from participating in the study whenever they found it necessary;
- The necessity to protect subjects of the study from possible dangers that might be encountered;
- Confidentiality, the actual names of participants in the study are kept secret while the sex or age of respondents might be used where it seems appropriate.

Thus, the researcher assured the migrants that the research is strictly governed by the above ethical principles and they have also agreed. This was done during data collection.

4.7 Methods of Data Analysis

Data analysis consists of examining, categorizing, tabulating or otherwise recombining the evidence to address the initial proposition of a study .After the completion of data collection, the researcher edited, coded, classified and tabulated the data. Since the purpose of editing is to detect errors and omissions (Kothari, 2006), the researcher made a careful inspection of the completed questionnaires during the collection of the questionnaire from each enumerator. Since coding is necessary for efficient analysis the researcher primarily made

coding decisions during the designing stage of the questionnaires. Kothari (2006) described the purpose of coding as to assign the items in certain categories and accordingly the researcher categorized the items of questionnaires based on the stated objectives. The researcher classified the collected data into groups of classes on the basis of common characteristics as to target the stated objectives. As some scholars argued, classification helps the researcher to reduce a large volume of raw data into homogeneous groups to get meaningful relationships (Brown and Dowling, 1998; Dawson, 2003; Kothari, 2006). The researcher has transcribed the data from the questionnaire to a coding sheet and the responses were tallied on the tally sheet. The item number and the alternatives given to the items were horizontally written on the tally sheet and for each item a stroke is marked against the alternative under which it falls. After every four small vertical lines in each alternative, the fifth line for the item falling in the same group is indicated as diagonal line through the four strokes representing the fifth alternative. This was to facilitate the counting of responses given to each alternative so as to represent it in tables. After the researcher has finished coding the sheets, the researcher entered the data into the computer using the Statistical Package for Social Scientists (SPSS) software version 13.0 to produce different tables, graphs, population pyramids and percentages which were used to illustrate the various aspects of the study.

The data was analyzed quantitatively and qualitatively using descriptive statistics including percentages and graph. Data collected through the open-ended items, responses of interviewees, personal observation and group discussion were considered during data analysis.

The proportion of migrants from the weredas of North Wollo Administrative Zone is appeared more important than the migrants from other administrative regions. Therefore, in order to test if determinants of migration exist between them, they were treated independently. The migrants from other administrative regions

ignored to run multiple regressions because of this low degree of freedom. The sources of the data of the variables were the CSA. On the basis of this, different statistical techniques that are found in statistical package software /SPSS version 13.0) was employed. This includes the use of:

- Multiple regression analysis and correlation to find out the degree of relationship between the dependent variable (y) i.e. number of reported migrants and the independent variables (Xs). It also enabled to test the hypotheses from 1-4 and to know the existence of linear association between the dependent variable (y) and respective independent variable (X_s)
- Backward and forward step-wise multiple regression to know which variable is the most influential on the dependent variable.
- Todaro's model of income differential indication used by Seleshi (1978) to test hypothesis number 5, whether there is the real income difference among migrants in the study town and when the migrants were at places of their origin.

In general, the processes of analysis included coding the interview and questionnaire responses, data tabulation and statistical computation. The method of data analysis and presentation of findings followed an approach of describing qualitative and quantitative data. Moreover, different tables, graphs, and maps are used to illustrate the various aspects of the study.

CHAPTER FIVE
THE PATTERNS, FLOW AND CHARACTERISTICS OF MIGRANTS AND
CAUSES OF MIGRATION TO WOLDIYA TOWN

5.1. The Flow Pattern and Characteristics of Migrants to Woldiya Town

5.1.1. The Patterns and Volume of Migration

The high growth rate of urban population is mainly attributed to rural-urban migration which is still the predominant cause in developing countries to increase the size of urban population.

In Ethiopia, the urban population has been growing in recent years at an annual rate of 7 percent mainly because of rural-urban migration. In migration accounted for 4.5 percent (Taye, 1990). Following the same trend of urbanization, most of the in migrants to Woldiya town were of rural origin. According to the 1994 census reports, of the total migrants (11325) about 50 percent were from rural origin. As figure 5.1 reveals that out of the total sample in migrants about 66.4 percent were from rural areas while about 34 percent were from other urban areas.

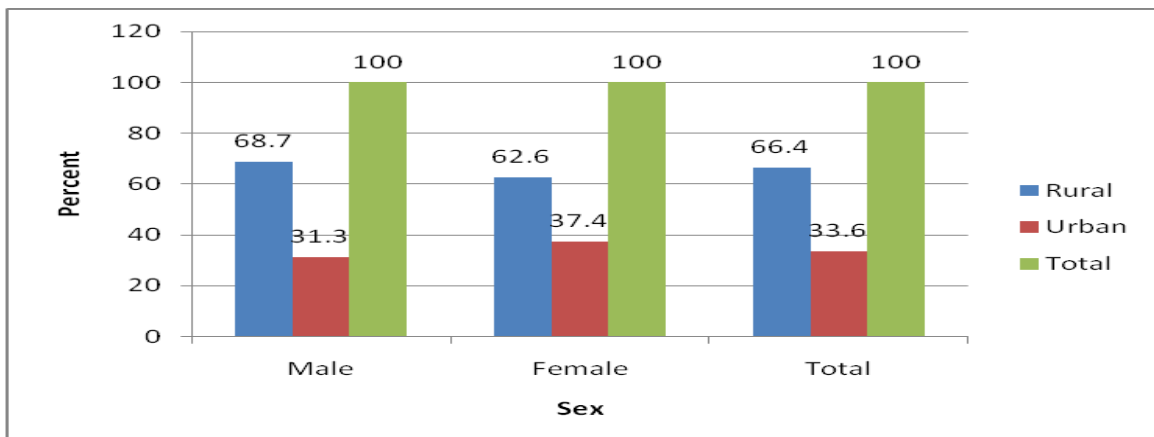


Figure 5.1: the Volume of Migration to Woldiya by Sex and Place of Origin

The survey result showed further that male migrants were dominant accounting for about 63 percent of the total. However, the proportion of male migrants of rural origin is much greater than that of male migrants of urban origin. Accordingly, out of the total surveyed male in migrants, about 69 percent came from rural areas while 31.3 percent were from other urban areas. On the other hand, out of the total surveyed female in-migrants, about 63 percent came to the town from rural areas. In general, the proportion of rural origin is higher than that of urban origin. This happened maybe because rural areas of North Wollo are mostly affected by drought and have low agricultural productivity. As a result, rural people of the areas were under food insecurity situation. Hence, they prefer to move to towns in search of employment opportunities and better life.

The spatial distribution of migrants at their place of origin manifests not only a rural-urban variation but also a regional variation. They came from different administrative regions of the country. On the other hand, it is quite natural that the largest proportion of the migrants have come from the same administrative region i.e. Amhara Region, mainly because of proximity of and close links, which accounted for 94 percent of the total. Only 6 percent of the migrants were from other regions i.e. from Tigray and Afar region accounted for about 4.7% and 1.3% respectively.

Although the survey takes into account only the heads of households, intra-regional in-migrants from different weredas of North Wollo to Woldiya are the dominant over the inter regional in-migrants from administrative regions (see figure 5.2). The adjacent wereda mainly Gubalafto, Hibru and Kobo are the main suppliers of migrants to Woldiya. But other weredas located at greater distance such as Bugna and Dawintna Delanta contributed least. Thus, the distance decay effect seems holds true in the case of the study area because most of the migrants to Woldiya are short distance migrants and the volume of urban ward migration decreases with an increase in distance. The result of the simple

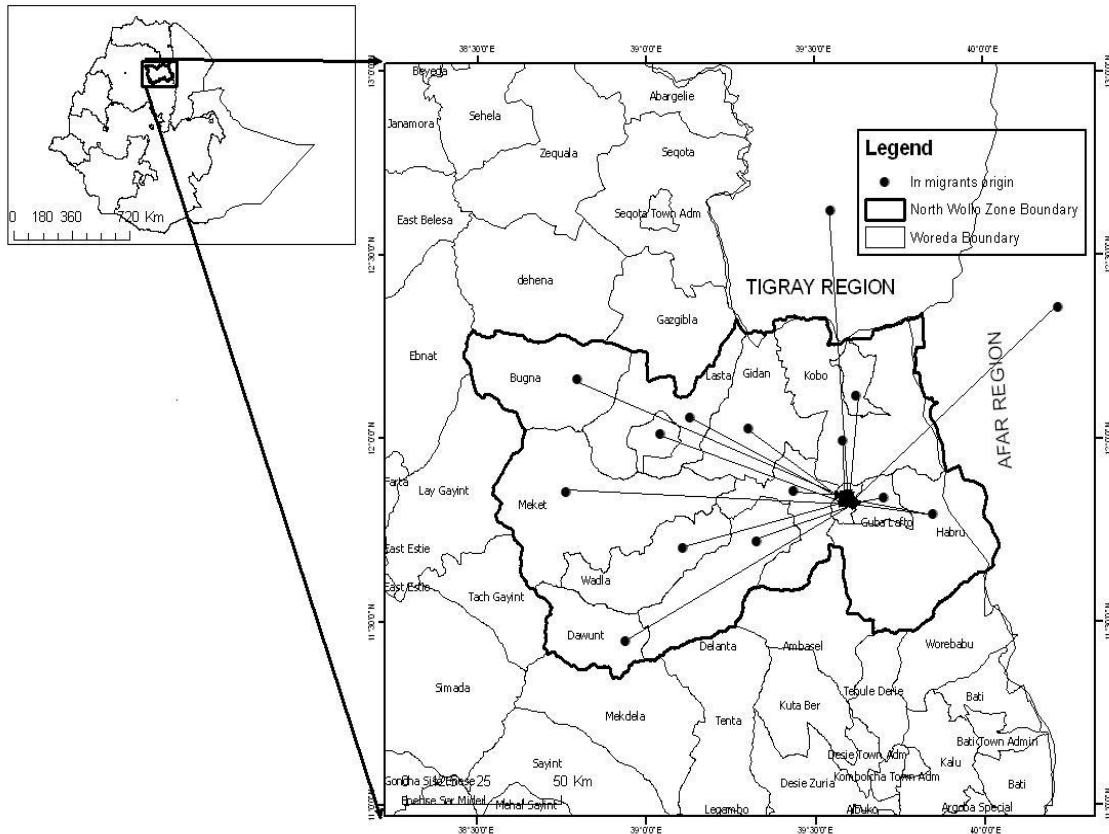


Figure 5.2: Map Showing the Flow Pattern of Migrants to Woldiya Town.
Source: GIS lab, Department of Geography and Environmental Studies,
Wollo University

correlation coefficient (-0.87) shows that distance and volume of migration are negatively correlated. In other words, as distance increases, the number of migrants decreases (Appendix 3).

An important aspect of migration is the nature of the composition of migration streams or flows, depending on the involvement of individuals, families and accompanying children. Similarly, migration to Woldiya has different forms of flow that includes single migrant and migrants with families accompanied before and/or after migration as well as chained and stepped type movements.

During the group discussion and personal interview, there was a clear indication of chain and step migration reflected by the in-migrants to Woldiya who glide through various links: the first in-migrants are soon followed by their births and kins, friends and relatives.

Thus, chain migration is very common particularly among the rural people where one gravitates the other on the bondage of intimacy and/or kinship relationship. The other indicator of chain migration to Woldiya is the flow of information to the recipient. During the discussion, respondents pointed out that information about the situation of Woldiya has been conveyed through their relatives and friends. So, the role of already settled in-migrants is vital to “pull” their follows to Woldiya from their place of origin. Similarly, they pointed out that they stayed in at least one or more small towns before they came to Woldiya. The movement of migrants from small town to medium, from medium town to large town and from large town to capital city helps migrants to adjust themselves to different urban life and to strengthen their economy. Therefore, the overall characteristics of the movements of in-migrants are, thus, of both direct and stepped type and chain type.

5.1.2. Characteristics of Migrants

5.1.2.1 Age and Sex Structure of Migrants

Among the demographic characteristics, age and sex compositions are the one which have influence on migration process. As far as age is concerned, a study conducted in Africa shows that most migrants both within and across national borders are young adults aged 15-39 (ADepoju, 1995). On the other hand, Kebede (1994) argued that migration is not only age selective, it is also sex selective. However, the sex selectivity of migration is different in different

regions. For instance, migrants in Africa, the Middle East and Asia are predominantly males whereas those in Latin America are females. Similarly, the result of this survey shows age and sex selective nature of migration.

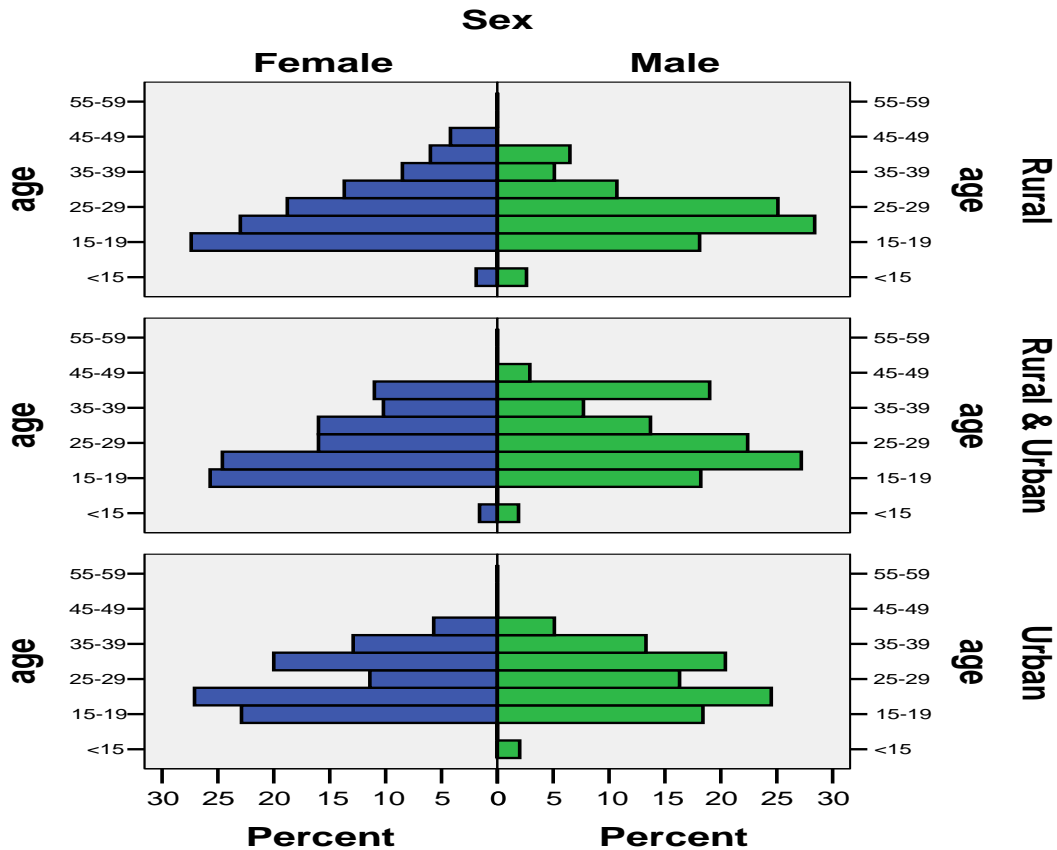


Figure 5.3: Population Pyramid of Migrants Source: Field survey, 2009

As shown in figure 5.3 that most surveyed migrants are found between ages of 15 and 29 years. Out of the total surveyed migrant population, 67.2 percent were in- migrated to Woldiya town when they were in the age between 15 and 29. However, 31 percent of the surveyed migrant populations in-migrated when they were 30 and above years of age. On the other hand, about 2 percent were in-migrated when they were under the age of 15 years. Hence, migration to Woldiya town is age selective. They are people of young age who migrated to the town. This may be explained by the fact that young people decide to move as they

characteristically get easily bitten by the rising ambition; they who get more restless about the deteriorating socio economic situation in their rural settings or about searching out newer environment and better chance of life; by their age specific long future; they also enjoy the capacity to learn new trends, acquire new skills, change jobs, get education and work harder to achieve their goals in the newer environment and enjoy life. Moreover, the young age group migrated because of information access than other group of population.

The rural originated migrants seem to be relatively younger than those who migrated from urban areas. This is because the young age groups seems are less satisfied with the rural agricultural system and are more ambitious to test urban life. While the converse does not seem to be relevant for the urban population

Furthermore, figure 5.3 shows that the proportion of male in-migrants to Woldiya town is greater than that of female in-migrants. The survey showed that the dominant male migratory groups are between the age of 20-24 and 25-29; however, the corresponding dominant age groups for female migrants are between 15-19. This may be related to the nature and condition of migration in Ethiopia where females are more migrated at earlier ages than males. Therefore, from the data presented in figure 5.3, one can understand that migration to Woldiya is age and sex selective. That is, young people and males are the dominant migrant groups to Woldiya town.

5.1.2.2 Marital Status

Marital status is another important characteristic influencing the propensity to migrate. Migration propensities change with marital status. That is, the matter of being married, unmarried (single), divorced and widowed has an effect on the decision to migrate. Single persons have less responsibility than married ones.

As such, the propensity to migrate is highest among the single than married ones. According to Kebede (1994), many of the migrants were unmarried at the time they migrated. Similarly, the response given by the respondents strengthen this idea. As shown in Table 6, the majority of migrants which accounts for 81 percent of surveyed total population were either single, divorced, or widowed when they first migrated to Woldiya.

Table 5.1 further shows that about 68 percent of the surveyed male in-migrants were single when they first migrated to Woldiya town .The corresponding figure for female in-migrants were about 70 percent. It was also found that 19 percent of the surveyed migrants were married when they migrated to Woldiya town, of which 23 and 12.3 percent were males and females respectively. The higher proportion of married females at rural origin than urban origin can be elaborated by the tradition of the country by large where females are relatively forced to marry at earlier ages than males in the rural part of the country. Furthermore, the condition of marital status by place of birth shows that 21.4 percent of both divorced and widowed in-migrants of sample population were females of rural origin whereas the corresponding figures for urban origin female migrants were 11.4 percent. On the other hand, from the total divorced and widowed sample in-migrants, 10 percent was accounted by divorced while 2.2 percent were widowers.

Thus, from the sample survey, one can understand that most of in-migrants to Woldiya are females who are single, divorced and widowed of rural origin when compared to the corresponding figure of urban origin. This may be based on the fact that, in Ethiopia particularly at rural areas, unmarried females have too much responsibilities at home as well as farm activities. As such, they have no time for education and even some of them are forced to dropout from schools. So, they prefer to move to other areas where better different opportunities are available. In

Table 5.1: Distribution of migrants by Sex, Marital Status and Place of Origin at Time of Migration

Marital status	Rural origin				Urban origin				Rural + Urban				Total	
	Male		Female		Male		Female		Male		Female			
	No	%	No	%	No	%	No	%	No	%	No	%	No	%
Single	139	64.7	73	62.4	74	75.5	58	82.9	213	68.1	131	70.0	344	68.8
Married	56	26.0	19	16.2	16	16.3	4	5.7	72	23.0	23	12.3	95	19.0
Divorced	20	9.3	17	14.5	8	8.2	5	7.1	28	8.9	22	11.8	50	10.0
Widowed	-	-	8	6.9	-	-	3	4.3	-	-	11	5.9	11	2.2
Total	215	100	117	100	98	100	70	100	313	100	187	100	500	100

(Source: Field Survey, 2009)

addition, because of less respect from the society, divorced and widowed females in rural areas also prefer to move to urban areas and be engaged in different activities.

In general, in-migrants to Woldiya town based on their marital status is dominated more by unmarried male and female than married, divorced and widowed ones.

5.1.2.3 Educational Characteristics

Education is one of the significant characteristics inducing rural-urban migration. The decision to migrate is also more likely influenced by educational attainment. This would mean that those who are better educated are relatively more involved in different migration streams than those who are not. Those who have completed secondary education and higher are more migratory than those who have completed primary education. This is mainly because of the fact that educational attainment increases the chance to get employment and other opportunities. Strong association between the propensity to migrate and level of education is observed in many developing countries (Oberai, 1978). However, an increase in the migration of illiterate persons to the urban informal sectors of African and other developing regions may reduce the generality of education as a factor of selection (Adepoju, 1995).

The survey result of this research also shows that the propensity to migrate is directly related to educational attainment. As illustrated in Table 5.2, majority of the respondents (about 69 percent) had primary and above educational level when they migrated to Woldiya. However, 50 percent of the sample in-migrants had secondary education and above.

Table 5.2: Distribution of Migrants by Educational Attainment, Sex and Place of Origin

Educational level	Rural				Urban				Rural +Urban				Total	
	Male		Female		Male		Female		Male		Female			
	No	%	No	%	No	%	No	%	No	%	No	%	No	%
Illiterate	58	27.0	40	34.1	-	-	-	-	58	18.5	40	21.4	98	19.6
Able to read & write	28	13.0	14	12.0	-	-	12	17.2	28	8.9	26	13.9	54	10.8
Primary school (1-6)	37	17.2	13	11.1	3	3.1	5	7.1	40	12.8	18	9.6	58	11.6
Junior (7-8)	12	5.6	9	7.7	11	11.2	8	11.4	23	7.3	17	9.1	40	8.0
Secondary (9-10)	34	15.8	10	8.5	19	19.4	14	20.0	53	17.0	24	12.8	77	15.4
Preparatory (11-12)	17	7.9	14	12.0	16	16.3	10	14.3	33	10.5	24	12.8	57	11.4
10+certificate training	15	7.0	12	10.3	10	10.2	4	5.7	25	8.0	16	8.6	41	8.2
12+special training	6	2.8	5	4.3	18	18.4	2	2.9	24	7.7	7	3.8	31	6.2
College/university graduate	8	3.7	-	-	21	21.4	15	21.4	29	9.3	15	8.0	44	8.8
Total	215	100	117	100	98	100	70	100	313	100	187	100	500	100

(Source: Field Survey, 2009)

The survey result indicates that male in-migrants are better educated than female in-migrants. Out of the total surveyed male in-migrants about 73 percent had primary education and above when they in-migrated to Woldiya where as the proportion of female in-migrants who had primary education and above from the total surveyed female in-migrants accounted for about 65 percent

Table 5.2 further shows that in-migrants of Woldiya town from urban areas are better in attaining formal education than those who came from rural areas. About 93 percent of urban origin in-migrants had primary education and above whereas corresponding figure for rural origin was about 58 percent. Such wide difference in educational attainment between them may be explained by the presence of more schools in urban areas than in rural areas. In addition, in rural areas where schools are available parents may not be willing to send their children to attend education rather they keep them at home to help them in farming and other related activities. Moreover, school dropout is also one factor for low educational attainment of migrants of rural origin.

5.1.2.4 Occupational Status

One of the determinant factors for the decision to migrate is occupational status of migrants they had before migration. That means pre migration occupation plays an important role for the decision to migrate. Thus, farmers as a result of crop failure as well as the need for other better opportunities, and for students as a result of less opportunity in rural areas and lack of employment opportunities need to move to urban areas. Similarly, migrants of urban origin also move to other urban areas where better opportunities are available.

As Figure 5.4 illustrates about 17.2 percent of the surveyed migrants were employed before they migrated to Woldiya town whereas the computed figure for

unemployed surveyed migrants was found to be about 31 percent. On the other hand, about 25, 6, 5 and 2 percent of the surveyed migrant population reported that they were students, sick/disabled, housewives and pensioned before they migrated to Woldiya town respectively. Out of the total surveyed employed migrants, 19 percent were from rural origin while about 14 percent from urban areas. Among urban origin sample in-migrants, the proportion of unemployed in-migrants (49.4 percent) is much greater than those who came from rural areas (21.4 percent). This may be due to the presence of high unemployment level in different urban areas of Ethiopia. As such, it would appear that unemployed people of urban areas prefer to go to another urban area where better employment opportunities are available. Therefore, the survey shows that a higher proportion of surveyed migrant populations of Woldiya town are either unemployed, or students who came to Woldiya for employment and other better opportunities.

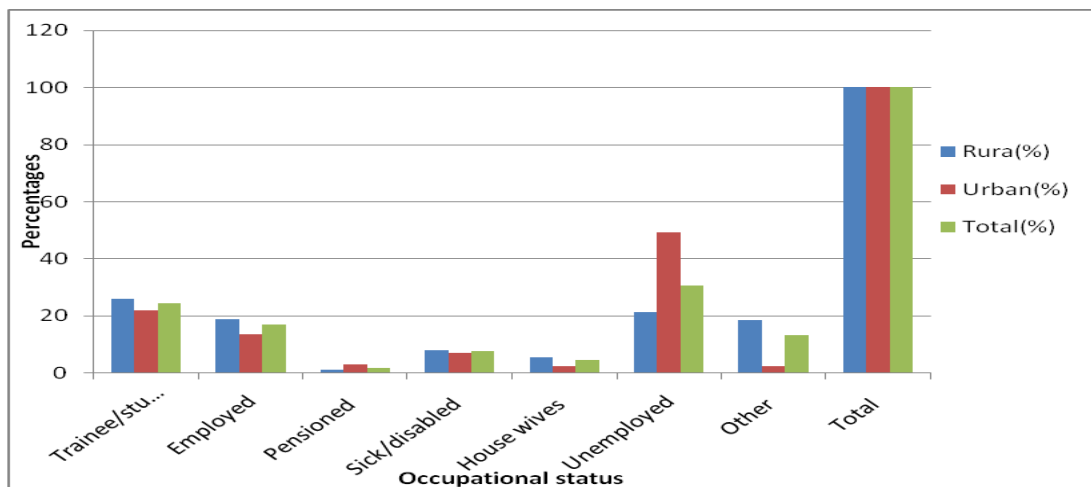


Figure 5.4: Occupational Status of Respondents before Migration at Place of Origin. Source: Field Survey, 2009

The survey also assessed the employment status of in-migrants before they in-migrated to Woldiya town. As indicated in Table 5.4 out of the total employed surveyed in-migrants, 50, 23.3 and 22.1 percent were farmers, government

employees and private organization employees before they came to Woldiya respectively.

Table 5.3: Place of origin and employment status of respondents before in-migration to Woldiya

Employment Status	Place Origin				Total	
	Rural		Urban			
	No	%	No	%	No	%
Government employees	7	11.1	13	56.5	20	23.3
Private employees	11	17.5	8	34.8	19	22.1
Farmers	43	68.3	-	-	43	50.0
Employer/Farming	2	3.1	-	-	2	2.3
Others	-	-	2	8.7	2	2.3
Total	63	100	23	100	86	100

(Source: Field Survey, 2009)

In general, most of the surveyed in-migrants of Woldiya town are found young adults that are productive both demographically and economically. Most of them have educational level of primary education and above. The majority of them are also single while some of them were divorced and widowed.

5.2. The causes for migration

There are several reasons for population mobility from place to place. Reasons for migration to urban centers in particular are more complex. However, the causes of migration are usually identified as two broad categories, namely “pushing” and “pulling” factors. For example, people of a certain area may be pushed off by poverty and other natural factor to move towards towns for employment. On the other hand, better employment opportunities or the need for better facilities in urban areas may also pull people to different urban areas. In addition, the decision to migrate from one place to another may also be

influenced by non-economic factors such as the need to join relatives, the need to be free from cultural and family restriction and obligation and so on. In general, however, as to the causes of migration scholars conclude that migration is a response by humans to a series of economic and non-economic factors (Lewis, 1982; Todaro, 1997). However, nowadays scholars agreed that rural-urban migration is largely explained by economic factors than non-economic factors (Todaro, 1997). In Ethiopia rural-urban migration also takes place largely as a response to economic factors rather than non-economic factors (EEA, 1999/2000).

The survey result of this study also confirms the above theories. As indicated in Table 5.4 the majority of sample in-migrants that accounted for 34.4 percent of the total surveyed migrants in-migrated obtained job or seek employment. About 24.6 percent of sample in-migrants moved to Woldiya as a result of famine, poverty and crop failure. This is due to the fact that North Wollo weredas are highly food insecure and degraded areas. So, the only opportunity is to move to other areas for economic betterment. On the other hand, 13.4 percent of the surveyed migrants were looking for modern urban services and facilities while 6.4 percent of sample in-migrants came to Woldiya to get education and training. About 5.4 percent of sample in-migrants moved to Woldiya as a result of job transfer. In addition, about 6 and 1 percent of sample in-migrants came to Woldiya to join their relatives and to be free from cultural or family restrictions and obligations.

Table 5.4 further indicated that there is a significant variation between rural and urban origin migrants as to the influence of cultural or family restriction as one of the causes for migration to Woldiya. Out of the total sample in-migrants who reported that cultural or family restriction and obligation are their main causes for migration to Woldiya, 2.1 percent of sample in-migrants came from rural areas where as none came from urban areas. This may be related to the fact that in.

Table 5.4: Causes for Migration by Sex and Place of Origin

Reasons for Migration	Place of Origin								Total	
	Rural				Urban					
	Male		Female		Male		Female			
	No	%	No	%	No	%	No	%	No	%
Seek employment	63	29.3	49	41.1	33	33.7	27	38.6	172	34.4
Famine, poverty, crop failure, lack of oxen, land shortage, poor facilities	86	40.0	37	31.6	-	-	-	-	123	24.6
To be free from cultural or family restrictions and obligations	2	0.9	5	4.3	-	-	-	-	7	1.4
To join immediate relatives and friends or following them	7	3.3	4	3.4	11	11.2	10	14.3	32	6.4
To gain education and training	24	11.2	8	6.8	-	-	-	-	32	6.4
To seek modern urban services and facilities	13	6.0	9	7.7	26	26.5	19	27.1	67	13.4
Job transfer	6	2.8	1	0.9	12	12.3	8	11.4	27	5.4
To open up or extended personal business	9	4.2	2	1.7	7	7.1	6	8.6	24	4.8
To seek good climate	2	0.9	1	0.9	5	5.1	-	-	8	1.6
Others	3	1.4	1	0.9	4	4.1	-	-	8	1.6
Total	215	100	117	100	98	100	70	100	500	100

(Source: Field Survey, 2009)

Ethiopia cultural restriction and obligation are more rampant in rural areas than urban areas. Furthermore, out of the total sample in-migrants of rural origin that came to Woldiya to be free from cultural or family restriction and obligation, the proportion of females was greater than males. This may be because early marriage, abduction and so on are more prevalent on females than males in rural Ethiopia.

In general, the rural-urban migrants migrated to Woldiya basically in search of economic betterment at place of their destination

Therefore, on the ground of the above reasons as springboard and others for migration, attempts are made to test the hypotheses by using multiple regression model. The dependent variable in the regression was:

Y= Number of reported in-migrants from weredas of North Wollo and the independent variables were:

- X_1 = Average physical distance between Woldiya and the wereda centers of place of origin.
- X_2 = Percentage of urban population of the Weredas of the Zone to the total Population.
- X_3 = Crude population density per Km^2
- X_4 = Agricultural population density per Km^2
- X_5 = Unemployment rate
- X_6 =Percentage of literacy

The indicated variables above are tested using multiple regression, simple correlation coefficient and ANOVA in the case of migrants from Weredas of North Wollo.

In order to test the Hypotheses formulated in particular and to identify the most influential migration factor(s) in general, one dependent variable (Y) is used. Amongst several variables that can explain the dependent variable (Y), in this

model the researcher included the most important variables (i.e. $X_1 \dots X_6$). As it can be observed in the correlation matrix (Appendix-3), there is no multicollinearity among the independent variables since the correlation coefficients are not almost equal to unity; higher adjusted R^2 and t-tests are significant at 0.05 level of significance. This shows also there is no multicollinearity.

In order to detect out the unnecessary and redundant variables and to know the most influential, restricted model having two variables and unrestricted model is employed.

According to the survey, the intra-regional migrants of Woldiya from weredas are the dominant as expressed in chapter four constituting for about 94 percent of the total migrants. Therefore, treating the inter-regional in-migrants jointly may cast some shadow on some critical variables that determine the magnitude of migration to the town. Due to this, desegregation to the local wereda level of that administration zone is an essential to uncover the major causes of migration at the grass root.

Thus, when 8 weredas of the zone are taken into account, the most significant independent variable are only X_1 and X_6 in the order of their importance in explaining the total variation in the dependent variable (see appendix 2). The value of Adjusted R square (0.721) implies that a significant relationship exists between the independent variables and the dependent variable. They explain the proportion of 72.1 percent of the total variability in the dependent variable. The analysis of variance shows that the included variables are statistically significant at 0.05 level of significance, in contributing to the total variation.

Table 5.5 provides an illustration of the summary of regression analysis.

Table 5.5: Summary of the regression on Dependent variable for Wereda migrants

R	R square	Adjusted R square	Std. Error of the Estimate
0.895	0.801	0.721	27.91849

Analysis of variance (ANOVA)

	Sum of square	Df	Mean square	F	Sig
Regression	15646.290	2	7823.145	10.037	0.018
Residual	3897.210	5	779.442		
Total	19543.500	7			

Variables in the Equation

Variable	B	Std.error	Beta	t	Sig.
X ₁	-0.619	0.172	-0.781	-3.588	0.016
X ₆	2.552	2.452	0.226	1.041	0.346
Constant	85.092	40.368		2.108	0.089

$$Y' = 85.092 - 0.619X_1 + 2.552X_6$$

Distance appeared the strongest explanatory factor and considerably determined the rate of migration to Woldiya. As it is expected and hypothesized, the coefficients have the correct negative sign which implies that the proportion of migrants varies inversely with distance between the rural area origin and the urban destination. The lower standard error also indicates the stronger evidence that the estimates are statistically significant. Thus, it is evident that hypothesis number 1, the amount of migration to Woldiya is inversely related to distance, is acceptable.

The second important variable that considerably influenced incidence of migration to Woldiya is percent of literacy (x_6) with B coefficient of 2.552. Since B_1 and B_6 are within the 95 percent of confidence interval, then it is significant to explain the dependent variable(Y) (see appendix 4). Thus, its importance is slightly high to influence migration to Woldiya. Thus, hypothesis number 2 is also accepted.

Migration is a constant demographic factor and its reasons for leaving ones origin is very complex. Hence, the variables not sufficient by themselves to explain the incidence since the amount of variation explained by both variables are 72.1 percent. Therefore, there are others that can push people from their origins to Woldiya. The variables that are out of the regression equation at 0.05 level of significance cannot be completely ignored and may have some direct and indirect influence on the dependent variable. Thus, there is no sufficient ground to accept hypotheses number 3 and 4.

In general, the kernel of most of the significant variables above is the income differential between rural origin and urban destination of migrants of Woldiya. As envisaged, among the various factors that stimulate rural urban migration; economic factors seem appeared more important. There is a high income earning opportunity in the towns than the rural areas. Thus, rural urban migration is inevitable because the value of the expected income at the place of destination exceeds the sum of income at the origin.

On the basis of this, the findings of Sileshi (1978) in the case of Addis Ababa to justify the real existence of rural urban income differential are examined in relation to Woldiya. During the group discussion and personal interview, some of the migrants reported that the amount of money earned annually is almost five times higher than the rural annual per capita income.

Given 35 percent of probability of urban employment opportunity and the five fold rural- urban income differential, the decision to migrate from origin is the function of:

$E_{wu} = P_u W_2$, where E_{wu} is expected urban wage. P_u is probability of urban employment, and W_2 is rural income.

$$\begin{aligned}\text{Therefore, } E_{wu} &= 0.35 \times 5 W_2 \\ &= 1.75 W_2 \\ &= 2W_2\end{aligned}$$

The equation above envisages that the expected urban wage in Woldiya is about twice higher than rural income. Hence, as long as the value of expected income at the place of destination exceeds the value of income at the origin, people will continue to move to Woldiya. This also makes hypothesis number 5 conceivable. In summary, according to the survey, majority of migrants of Woldiya are rural originated. From the point of patterns of flow, chain migration is clearly noticeable among the rural people and some are stepped before they reach their present destination.

Demographically, most of in- migrants are concentrated in the productive age group and therefore, in addition to the migrational increase of the population of the town, the natural increase is also considerable.

On the basis of causes of migration and tests of the hypothesis, several variables are used and their significance is realized. In this regard, eight weredas of north Wollo were considered against the dependent variable. The determinants of migration are lower per capital, distance and education. When the wereda level in-migrants are particularized, the slight difference lies in exclusion of the influence of urban population as expected. Otherwise the influential variables are almost identical.

Therefore, in totality, all the above noted conditions are the most determinants of population movement in the zone and hence require an important attention by local zonal authorities and policy makers.

CHAPTER SIX

CONSEQUENCES OF MIGRATION

Our understanding of the consequences of migration in particular so far is less well developed. This is because the effect of migration on both the places of destination and origin is very complex and requires thorough understanding of various behavioral contexts. However, in general, the consequences depend on the volume of migration, the degree of flow of remittance, and the type (characteristics) of migrants that dominates the migration flow.

In developed countries the flow of labor from areas of low marginal productivity to high marginal productivity is normal and is accepted as an ingredient for development by raising labor efficiency at both ends, i.e. places of origin as well as destinations. On this ground, Oberai (1987) thinks that the rural-urban migration is a population movement from relatively low income rural activities to higher income industrial and service sector so that the level of income of migrants can be increased. Therefore, it is considered as generating various benefits to the migrants.

Contrary to this, migration particularly in the push stream of movement is found to be the major bottleneck for development in both receiving urban and departing rural areas in developing nations. This is because most of urban areas of less developed nations are ineffectively urbanized and hence are not found to have the capacity to fruitfully absorb the rural migrants in gainful jobs, neither to provide housing or various other social services and amenities. Thus, they have limited pull situation but still are perceived by the rural migrants as powerful magnets. The high rate of overcrowding and unemployment is increasingly causing several social, psycho-social, cultural, political and economic problems in the towns, making them quite unstable social organizations in perpetual

tension and stress. In spite of this frustrating state of affairs, the movement of people continues unabatedly to urban areas due to the perceived, though false expectation of better living and working conditions in urban areas.

6.1. Problems Encountered by Migrants while Adjusting themselves to the New Environment (Woldiya Town)

Individuals may take rational decision to leave their places with the hope of better life chances of their destinations. This is always a decision under risk and uncertainty taken under certain perception based on the information and knowledge.

According to the survey (Table 6.1), about 79 percent of in-migrants of Woldiya made self decision. This indicates that family bondage for decision making is less important. The survey also emphasis that family-parent decision was more important than relatives', friends' decisions in the case of rural origin.

Table 6.1: The Decision of Respondents for out-migration by their Place of Birth

Decision for out migration	Birth Place				Total	
	Rural		Urban			
	No	%	No	%	No	%
Self	272	81.9	121	72.1	393	78.6
Family /parents	8	2.4	4	2.4	12	2.4
Relatives /friends	3	0.9	17	10.1	20	4.0
Employer	6	1.8	11	6.5	17	3.4
Others	43	13.0	15	8.9	58	11.6
Total	332	100	168	100	500	100

(Source: Field Survey, 2009)

The effect of migration upon the individual involved can take many forms, much of it being related to the extent to which his/her needs and aspirations are being met in the host community as well as his/her own adaptation to the new surroundings. On arriving at area of destination, the migrant goes through three inter-related processes. First, acculturation must take place. Second, the migrant must adjust to the new economic and social environment. Third, the migrant must participate in the institutional and social settings of the new environment (Lewis, 1982; Barrett, 1996). Thus, during the survey period an attempt was made to ask migrants about their experience and satisfaction with urban life in Woldiya.

Table 6.2: Information about Woldiya and Problems faced by Migrants during the Initial Period of In-migration to Woldiya

Information about Woldiya	Response	No	%
	Positive (migrant life is easy at woldiya)	463	92.6
	Negative (Migrant life is not easy at Woldiya)	37	7.4
	Total	500	100
Problems faced by migrants	Housing /shelter problem	293	58.6
	Food and related consumer items	7	1.4
	Social services and other amenities	18	3.6
	Job problem	169	33.8
	Cultural difference	9	1.8
	No difficulty	4	0.8
	Others	-	-
	Total	500	100

(Source: Field Survey, 2009)

As indicated in Table 6.2, although the majority (92.6 percent) of the surveyed migrants had positive information (migrant life is easy) before they in-migrated to Woldiya, most of the surveyed migrants indicated that they faced different problems during the initial period of in-migration. About 59 percent of the migrants reported that they faced housing/ shelter problems whereas about 34 percent faced the problem of obtaining job. About 3.6 and 1.8 percent of surveyed migrants faced with problems of obtaining social services and other amenities, and of cultural differences at the initial period of in-migration respectively. This cultural difference may be the fact that people who came from different regions or Weredas that had different culture and traditions which in turn create cultural differences with the host community. Moreover, about 1.4 percent of the surveyed migrants had problem of food and related consumer items. However, 0.8 percent of the surveyed migrants reported that they faced no difficulties at the initial stage of in-migration to Woldiya.

Examining the time that in-migrants spent under unemployment is also one of the common methods that help to assess the problems that migrants faced after a certain period of arrival in the town. About 19.2 percent of the surveyed migrant populations have had jobs that were waiting them. These people are usually government employees who transferred to Woldiya town and those people who came to Woldiya to work with their relatives' or friends', firms or to start a new business and/or extended an existing one. According to the report of migrants, the majority of them (80.8 percent) had no jobs that were waiting for them and the significant proportion of them were employed within one year.

In general, one can therefore conclude that the main difficulties being faced by migrants were the inadequate supply of consumer items, housing shortage, problems related to job such as the difficulty of obtaining urban formal job and inadequate social services and amenities.

6.2. Current Occupational Status, Educational and Income Level of Migrants

6.2.1 Current Occupational Status of Migrants

One among the interests of migrants of urban center is to participate in the urban labor force. However, participation into urban labor force again depends on different factors like level of education, presence of relatives, skills and so forth. Thus, examining the current occupational status of migrants is important to assess the impact of migration on individual migrants as well at destination area.

The data presented in Table 6.3 reveal that greater about 61 percent were employed whereas 18.6 percent of the migrants were unemployed at the time of the survey period. This may imply that employment rate was higher among migrants and highly competed the job opportunity of non-migrants. Such migration of working force means loss of agricultural labour force in the rural areas which may lead reduction of agricultural production. The other effect of migration in the areas of origin is its impact on labor distribution creating labour imbalances particularly in the rural areas. As a result, agricultural production can be hampered and adversely affected because of dominance of labour by old aged, children and female population in the rural areas.

As to the type of employment, about 50.8 percent were found to be self employed during the survey period. This is true in Africa where the bulk of new entrants to the urban labour force seemed to create their own employment (Todaro, 1997). Relatively more migrants (19.3 percent) were employed in government organization. The data in Table 13 further indicates that about 58 percent of the migrants were engaged in permanent jobs because most of the

migrants are employed in self employment, government organization or private organization.

Table 6.3: Current Occupational Status and Nature of Employment of Migrants

	Response	Migrants	
		No	%
Occupational Status	Employed	305	61.0
	Unemployed	93	18.6
	Trainee / student	6	1.2
	Sick / disabled	9	1.8
	Pensioned	37	7.4
	House wives	31	6.2
	Others	19	3.8
	Total	500	100
	Type of Employment	Self employed	155
Employed in private organization		59	19.3
Government employee		50	16.4
Employer		27	8.9
Others		14	4.6
Total		305	100
Nature of Employment	Permanent	176	57.7
	Temporary	89	29.2
	Seasonal	16	5.2
	Causal	24	7.9
	Total	305	100

(Source: Field Survey, 2009)

Thus, the cumulative effect of flow of labour force with such magnitude (rates) at the destination area is that they create pressure on the existing job opportunity by jeopardizing non-migrants opportunity to get job easily.

6.2.2 Current Educational Level of Migrants

Different studies of migration point out that the search for education and training is one of the reasons for rural out migration. Thus, assessing the educational level of migrants at their destination area is important. During the survey period, migrants were asked about their current educational level. As we have seen in chapter four, majority of the respondents (69 percent) had primary and above educational level when they in-migrated to Woldiya. However, after their migration to Woldiya the literacy rate of migrants had increased to 86 percent. This shows that migration involves not only selection of educated persons from their origin but also improves the educational level of migrants at their urban destination. This may be because in Woldiya there are different training and educational institution that in turn creates opportunities for the migrants to upgrade education and training levels in these institutions of their destination than in their birth place.

6.2.3 Current Income Level of Migrants

One of the economic characteristics of a migrant is income. An attempt was made to examine the current income level of migrants although there was problem of getting correct income data of individuals. According to Table 6.4, most migrants (41 percent) earn an average income level of less than 100 birr per-month. Similarly, about 23.6 and 18.2 percent of migrants earn monthly income of 100-500 birr and 500-1000 birr respectively. This could be because they may engage indifferent self employed small scale activities that enable them to earn average monthly income.

Table 6.4: Distribution of Migrants by Monthly Average Income

Income category (Birr)	Migrants	
	No	%
< 100	205	41.0
100-500	118	23.6
500-1000	91	18.2
Above 1000	31	6.2
Not stated	55	11
Total	500	100

(Source: Field Survey, 2009)

The significant impact of rural-urban migration upon the places of origin is the role of out migrants to influence the rural income through remittance. During the group discussion and personal interview participants stated that though the amount of money remitted happened to be of very low they are in a position to remit certain amount of money to their places of origin. They reported that their remitted money was used as an ingredient in agriculture, purchasing of consumption items and other livelihood activities. In fact, most of the migrants' live hand to mouth situation indeed. Because of high costs of living in Woldiya, they have no sufficient amount of money to sustain themselves.

6.3 Access to Housing and Urban Facilities

As it is commonly known, migration has depopulating effects in home areas and overcrowding at destination areas thereby adversely affecting, at least temporarily, the existing socio-economic systems in both areas. In particular the problem of pressure on limited urban housing and urban services and resources is intense and more severe in many poorly endowed and fledgling towns like Woldiya.

One among many problems that are associated with urbanization is the inadequacy of urban housing. That means, the rate of supply of housing did not

go with pace of the growing minimum potential demand for housing in different urban areas. In this regard, an attempt was made by arranging group discussions and interviews with the migrants and officials of the municipality of Woldiya. They stated that Woldiya has been facing chronic problems of housing and shortage of other urban facilities. The migrants reported that they are living in rented houses which have no private separate kitchen so that food is cooked out of doors or in the main house. The houses also have no toilet and bathing facilities. They are living in crowded condition of one or two room that was inadequate for their families. Even though the government constructs condominium houses, they could not either afford or get the opportunity to buy them. In relative term, the supply and distribution of electricity and water is good.

6.4 A comparison of the socio-economic condition of migrants before and after migration.

An attempt was made to gather information about the socio-economic condition of migrants before and after migration. As such, socio-economic conditions such as working conditions, income, education, access to education for dependents, access to urban transportation and health care, and general living conditions of migrants were used as instruments for assessing the impacts of migration on individual migrants.

As indicated in Tables 6.5, more than three-quarter of the surveyed migrants reported that they had got improvements in different aspect of their lives. For instance, about 60.2 percent of the respondents reported that they had got improvements in their types work. About 57 percent of them had got improvement in their income while 77.4 percent of them had got significant improvements in their educational level.

Table 6.5: A Comparison of Socio-economic Condition of Migrants before and after Migration

Conditions	Current Status									
	Improved		Worsened		Remained the same	Not stated				Total
	No	%	No	%		No	%	No	%	
Type of work	301	60.2	71	14.2	103	20.6	25	5.0	500	100
Income	285	57.0	92	18.4	105	21.0	18	3.6	500	100
Education	387	77.4	9	1.8	94	18.8	10	2.0	500	100
Access to education for dependents	457	91.4	-	-	43	8.6	-	-	500	100
Access to housing	177	35.4	223	44.6	86	17.2	14	2.8	500	100
Access to urban transportation	446	89.2	7	1.4	45	9.0	2	0.4	500	100
Health care	468	93.6	3	0.6	28	5.6	1	0.2	500	100
General living conditions	381	76.2	69	13.8	47	9.4	3	0.6	500	100

(Source: Field Survey, 2009)

Similarly, about 91.4 and 89.2 percent of the surveyed migrants reported that access to education for dependents and access to urban transportation had improved respectively. About 93.6 percent of them told that access to health care services have improved while 76.2 percent reported that their general living conditions have improved. In Ethiopia, access to education, health care, and transportation in rural areas did not improve much in their quality. Therefore, since most of the migrants are of rural origin, it is expected to benefit from the available social services like education, health service and transportation in better quality and quantity than in rural areas. However, about 19 percent of the surveyed migrants reported that their educational status remained the same. This can be so because some of the migrants were engaged in self employed

activities which are hard to mouth, as a result they could not have enough time to attain formal education.

In general, the survey data showed that more than half of the surveyed migrants have got improvements in their socio-economic conditions. However, for most of migrants (44.6 percent) access to housing provision has remained worse as a result of moving to Woldiya.

6.5. Future Intentions and/or Plans of Migrants

As we have seen earlier some of the migrants reported that their socio-economic conditions were worsened after they moved to Woldiya town. Thus, an examination was made as to whether those conditions were forcing them to leave Woldiya or not.

According to the survey data presented in Table 6.6, about 30 percent of surveyed migrants reported that they are planning to leave Woldiya and move to their birth places and other rural and urban areas. On the other hand, about 69.2 percent of the surveyed migrant reported that they had no plans to leave Woldiya. Out of the total surveyed migrants that had plans to leave Woldiya, about 35 percent reported that rising cost of living was their compelling reason for leaving Woldiya. On the other hand, about 39.3 percent of migrants who planned to leave Woldiya reported that they would leave Woldiya because of housing problem and inadequate social services such as schooling, health service, and recreational centers. About 9 and 7 percent of the migrants who have planned to leave Woldiya, respectively, reported that inadequate supply of consumer goods and lack of employment opportunities were the main factors for leaving Woldiya.

The data in Table 6.6 further shows the desired destination of migrants who planned to leave Woldiya. Accordingly, about 56 percent of the surveyed migrants who have planned to leave Woldiya reported that moving to another urban area is their desired destination, while about 32 percent planned to move back to their birth place. Hence, about 90 percent of them have the plan to move to other urban centers be it their own birth place or elsewhere. On the other hand, only a small percent (12.1 percent) of surveyed migrant who have planned to leave Woldiya reported that they planned to move either to their birth place of rural areas or to another rural area.

Hence, from the results of the survey we can understand that even if most of surveyed migrant populations are from rural origin, most of them showed no interest to return to their rural birth places. This may be explained as once they adapt the urban life and benefited from different social services it may be difficult for them to return to the rural areas. In general, many migrants who came from rural areas are not in a position to leave Woldiya rather they want to stay at Woldiya hoping things will improve in the future.

Table 6.6: Distribution of Respondents of Migrants by Future Plan

	Response	No	Percent
Planned to leave Woldiya	Yes	148	29.6
	No	346	69.2
	Not stated	6	1.2
	Total	500	100
Reason to leave Woldiya	Problem of housing	91	26.3
	Lack of employment opportunity	24	6.9
	Inadequate supply of consumer goods	31	9.0
	Rising cost of living	120	34.7
	Inadequate social services	45	13.0
	Others	35	10.1
	Total	346	100
Where to move	Birth place/rural	27	7.8
	Birth place/urban	109	31.5
	Another rural area	15	4.3
	Another urban area	195	56.4
	Total	346	100

(Source: Field Survey, 2009)

6.6 Discussion on the Applicability of Migration Theories

One can assess whether the findings substantiate and or not the migration theories noted earlier in explaining rural-urban migration observed by way of comparing the features of migration models under review with the findings of the research. The applicability of each of the migration models to the findings of this research were discussed.

6.6.1 Ravenstein and Lee's laws of migration

According to Ravenstein and Lee, most migrants travel short distances and that with increasing distance the number of migrants decreases. This statement is applicable to the study area because the adjacent wereda mainly Gubalafto, Hibru and Kobo are the main suppliers of migrants to Woldiya. But far apart weredas of Bugna, and Dawintna Delanta contributed lesser. Thus, the distance decay effect seems to hold true in the case of the study area because most of the migrants to Woldiya are short distance migrants and the volume of urban ward migration decreases with an increase in distance. The result of the simple correlation coefficient (-0.870) shows that distance and volume of migration are negatively correlated. In other words, as distance increase, the number of migrants decreases (Appendix 3).

Whether females are more migratory than men in their place of birth was established in this study that the result of the study showed that the proportion of male in-migrants to Woldiya town is greater than that of female in-migrants. In this case, this statement does not confirm Ravenstein's Laws of Migration which state that females appear to pre-dominate among short distance migration i.e females are more migratory than males within the place of their birth, but males more frequently venture beyond. This confirms that some of the theories

developed based on the western experience seems not applicable in African and particularly in Ethiopian context.

Finally, Lee and Ravenstein's last assumption that major causes of migration are economic correlates with the findings of this study that indicated that the majority of sample in-migrants that account for 34.4 percent of the total to obtain job or seek employment. About 24.6 percent of sample in-migrants moved to Woldiya as a result of famine, poverty and crop failure. This is due to the fact that North Wollo Weredas are highly food insecure and degraded areas. So, the only opportunity is to move to other areas for economic betterment at places of destination areas.

6.6.2 Harris-Todaro Model of Migration

The Harris-Todaro model underlined that the migrants would reach on the decision to migrate by taking the probability of unemployment in the destination areas. The migrants could migrate, though their current income in place of origin is higher than in place of destination. This model is truly reflected in this research because the migrants reported that the amount of money earned annually at place of destination is almost five fold compared to their rural annual per capita income. As far as economic considerations in terms of higher or expected higher incomes for migrants in Woldiya, which made them leave migrants in the first place are concerned, the Todaro-Harris model is applicable in this research. Therefore, income differential at places of origin and destination has been an important push-pull factor in the area.

6.6.3 Migration and the Dual Sector Model of Economic Development

The results of the research showed that a higher proportion of surveyed migrant populations of Woldiya town were either unemployed, or farmer who came from rural agricultural areas to Woldiya for looking employment and other better opportunities. This confirms the Lewis Dual Sector model which basically states that 'there is the existence of excess labor in the rural agricultural sector; therefore people migrate to the industrial sector to obtain employment' (McCatty, 2004).

6.6.4 Sjaastad's Human Investment Theory

Sjaastad's approach assumes that people desire to maximize their net real incomes over their productive life and can at least compute their net real income streams in the present place of residence as well as in all possible destinations. This assumption could not be tested due to shortage of time and unavailability of clear data during data collection stage of this research.

6.7 Conclusion

An evaluation of the main characteristics of the migration theories discussed in Chapter 2 in the context of the empirical observations suggest that the migration theories noted earlier considerably offered a satisfactory explanation for migration behaviour of respondents at Woldiya Town. Ravenstein's Laws of Migration proves to be the theory with a few challenges and comes close to providing an explanation for the migration phenomenon recorded at Woldiya Town. However, the weak point of this law is that it may not be applicable to the study area in particular and Ethiopia at large in full scale.

CHAPTER SEVEN

CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATION

7.1 Summary and Conclusion

There are towns in Ethiopia where the population growth has been very fast during recent years not only because of natural increase but as a result of migration processes. Among them, Woldiya town is one example which has experienced an accelerated growth rate of population as a result of in-migration. This research deals with the theoretical background of migration, review of literature, the nature of migrants, migration processes, the differential incidence of the rural push and urban pull factors and the consequences of migration on various aspects of socio-economic lives of the people in both the areas of origin and destination.

Most in-migrants to the town are of rural origin. Though Woldiya attracts migrants from many parts of the country, most of them are intra-reigonal, particularly intra-zonal. In other words, the stream of migration to the town is dominated by short distance migrants, characterized by their stepped and chained movement following one another. The majority of them are in their most productive ages, both demographically and economically. The town itself hardly seems to be in any feasible way capable of absorbing the excessive inflow of migrants nor has the investment capacity to add to its urban resources. Migrants themselves are too poor to contribute to the investment sector of the capital resources to the town's growth and development.

A large number of migrants were single (unmarried) when they came to Woldiya town. The dominant divorcer and widowers were females in at rural origin. Most of the migrants had formal education. However, more males than females had

formal education in both migrants of urban and rural origin. A greater number of migrants were either students/trainees or unemployed or sick/disabled before they migrate to Woldiya. Among the employed most of them were farmers.

Most migrants moved basically for economic reasons such as seeking employment, job transfer, to open up or extend personal business, to gain education and training services. On the other hand, some of them were moved to Woldiya for non-economic reasons such as to be free from cultural or family restriction and obligation, and to join relatives or friends in the town .

Rural push factors, by and large, are stronger than the urban pull factors causing excessive to urban areas. At the same time, rural areas because of lack of investment and economic growth are suffering from lack of agricultural or alternative employment, droughts and famines which were amongst reasons for migration. The urban pull factors are weak and the urban capacity is low, practically, the rural migrants perceived life chances in the destination town are highly misconstrued and rather exaggerated, based on here-say and wrong information about the opportunities available in the town. Growing unemployment in the rural areas pushes young people, who are also bitten by the rising ambition bug and better life chances in the urban area. Moreover, as the study shows, a large number of migrants had more positive information about Woldiya town (migrant life in Woldiya is easy). However, most of the migrants had faced different types of problems immediately after arriving at Woldiya. Regardless of hazards, risks and difficulties in the town migrants feel individually better off in the town than in the rural areas. Once the migrants are in the town, they showed no inclination to return back to the origin.

There are several factors that induced flow of people to Woldiya town. The main determinants are low per capita income, distance and education. The availability of better employment opportunities and career advancements are concentrated

in the urban areas. Therefore, the relevant measures that can be taken on these determinants are expected to increase the rate of migration and did not arrest the people in their rural areas in particular.

One important issue related to rural migration is the net and gross effects on their places of origin. The main sources of employment opportunities and household income in rural Ethiopia is agriculture. Sizeable depopulation of rural labor forces as a result of increased rate of out-migration from rural areas can hamper agricultural production which in turn can stimulate further withdrawal of people from the region because of low land productivity. The survey reveals that most of the migrants are in their productive age leaving behind the rural areas for females, children and aged people with low labour efficiency and productive capacity. As such, this condition can lead to adverse effects on agriculture because of less efficient and low agricultural labor input, particularly because small-scale subsistence agriculture can be hardly made mechanized and still requires hard manual labour.

The amounts of remittances sent by migrants home essentially were meager and negligible in amount. This is because most migrants are only on the level of self sustenance and can ill afford to send any sizeable amount. Although the amount that goes to villages is too small, it is used mostly for consumption purposes rather for investments in agricultural or other activities such as housing. It hardly has contributed to the improvement of quality of life and welfare and well being of the people in the rural areas.

Because of dully living conditions in the rural areas, people move to towns almost spontaneously, without much rational decision perhaps under the perceived notion that things must be better than what they are in, and they end up indulged in their destination. Similarly, in-migrants of Woldiya town also do not move in well planned and rationally decided manner so that they face many problems

particularly during their initial arrival. Among the problems, housing is the most pressing. The town has chronic shortage of housing units compared to the growth of population. Thus, because of scarcity of houses, dwellers live in highly congested dwellings and rooms but the distribution of water and electricity to different parts of the town has improved.

Most of the migrants have improved their working condition, income, education, schooling of dependents, access to urban transportation and health care. In general, for most of them their general living condition has improved. However, the problem of housing, lack of employment opportunities and sufficient consumption goods, rising cost of living, inadequate social services and others are major problems that migrants currently face. But, most of the migrants do not have an intention or a plan to return to their place of birth because most of the migrants are from rural areas and showed no interest to return to their origin rather to stay there expecting things will get improved. However, a few others have plans to move to other urban areas. This is an indication of low level of returnees of urban-rural migrants in Ethiopia. This is because rural living and working conditions are much worse compared to urban areas of the country.

Some of the theoretical models of migration have been found applicable to this research. But one of the Ravenstein`s Laws of Migration, which states that 'females pre-dominate among short journey migrants' could not be confirmed in this research rather it was found that males are more migratory than females.

In general, the high flow of migrants to Woldiya has accentuated the problem of unemployment. Thus, the overall effects of rural-urban migration in the town are discouraging and hence the following recommendations are suggested to solve some of the socio-economic problems of both the places of origin and destination.

7.2 Recommendations

After analyzing the causes and consequences of rural-urban migration to Woldiya town, the researcher proposes the following suggestions that could be implemented by policy makers and implementers at different level:

7.2.1. Problems with rural unemployment and underemployment greatly impact the rural economy. Because of the above, rural people are compelled to migrate. Therefore, there is the need for integrated rural development strategy to increase agricultural production by increasing rural labour productivity by improving farm technology, increasing farm inputs such as fertilizers, high yielding variety of seeds, insecticides, adequate agricultural extension services, price incentives and improve access to financial credit and market facilities.

7.2.2. Resettlement on voluntary basis from highly degraded areas to where there are vacant and potentially productive irrigable lands can reduce the flow of people towards urban areas.

7.2.3. Like other towns of Ethiopia migration to Woldiya is dominated by young female migrants. Early marriage, abduction, low school enrollment and the like are some of the causes for female rural out-migration. Thus, raising awareness of rural communities about the disadvantages of early marriage, abduction and low school enrollment of females through educational programs plays a vital role in reducing young female migration. Hence efforts should be made to expand school, healthcare and adult education coverage's.

7.2.4. Concentration of various elements of modernization in the urban areas and their conspicuous absence in rural localities pull many rural people to towns. Therefore, provision of different social services such as better medical facilities,

education, infrastructure, water and electricity to the rural areas may reduce the amount of flow of population to urban centers.

7.2.5. Taking into account the population growth of the town, constructing additional house and social service centers, such as schools, health institutions, recreational centers and so forth are important in providing needed services and better quality of life.

7.2.6. The vast actual or perceived difference between rural-urban incomes causes population migration. Since poverty is a pronounced rural phenomenon, migration from rural areas is tied to the income gap between rural and urban areas. When growth is balanced between them through viable regional planning strategies for the mutual development of the towns and their hinterlands at different hierarchical scales it is recommended that it will check or slow down the rural outflow.

References

Adepoju, A. 1977. *Migration and Development in Tropical Africa: Some Research Priorities*. Africa Affairs, 76(33): 210-225.

Adepoju, A. 1981. "Migration and Socio-economic Changes in Tropical Africa: Policy and Research". In Jorge Balan (ed), *Why People Move: Comparative Perspectives on the Dynamics of Internal Migration*, the UNESCO Press, PP. 317-336.

Adepoju, A. 1983. *Selected Studies on Dynamics, Patterns and Consequences of Migration: Medium- sized Towns in Nigeria*. Paris, UNESCO, Vol. IV. PP7-8.

Adepoju, A. 1991. *Introduction to population studies, Demographic lecture manual*, series No.2. Newyork.

Adepoju, A. 1995. *Emigration Dynamics in Sub-Saharan Africa*. International migration. Special Issue: Emigration Dynamics in Developing countries, vol. 33, no, 314.

Aklilu, J. and Tadesse K. 1993. *The Elements of urbanization*, Addis Ababa, Addis Ababa University.

Andargachew, T. 1992. *The social consequences of urbanization: The Addis Ababa Experience*, Ethiopian Journal of Development Research, vol. 14, No.1

Anderson, L. 2002. *Rural- urban migration in Bolivia: advantages and disadvantages*, Institute for Socio-economic research, Universidad catolica Boliviana, La paz, Bolivia.

Bahns, M.K (2005) Rural to Urban migration in Developing Countries: The Applicability of the Harris Todaro Model with a Special Focus on the Chinese Economy. Dissertation zur Erlangung des akademischen Grades des Doktors der Wirtschaftswissenschaften an der Universität Konstanz.

Barke, M. and O'Hare, G. 1991. *The Conceptual Frameworks in Geography*. Second Edition. Oliver and Boyd.

Barrett, H.R, 1990. *Population Geography*. Singapore, Longman, Singapore Publishers Pte Ltd.

Befekadu, D. 1978. "*Migrations and urbanization in Ethiopia*", Discussion paper prepared for the seminar on population and employment planning, Debrezeit, Ethiopia.

Bekure, W. 1984. "*Industrial Labor Force in Addis Ababa Region Before 1975.*" In Proceedings of the Seventh International Conference of Ethiopian Studies, 26-29 April 1992, Scandivian Institute of African Studies, Uppsala, PP. 603-616.

Berhanu, B. and M.J. White. 2000. *War, Famine and Female Migration in Ethiopia, 1960-1989: Economic Development and cultural change*, 49(1):91-113.

Best, J. W. & Kahn, J.V. 2002. *Research in Education*. (7th edition). New-Delhi: Prentice-Hall of India Pvt.

Bilsborow, R.E, et.al 1984. *Migration Surveys in Low Income Countries: Guidelines for Surveys and Questionnaire Design*. Sydney: CroomHelm Ltd.

Breese, G. 1969. *The city in newly developing countries*, USA.

Brière B D L, Sadoulet E, Janvry A D et al., 2002. *The roles of destination, gender, and household composition in explaining remittances: An analysis for the Dominican Sierra*. Journal of Development Economics, 68: 309–328.

Brockerhoff, M. 1995. *Fertility and Family Planning in African Cities: The impact of female migration*. Journal of Biosocial Science 27: 347-358.

Brown, A. & Dowling, P. 1998. *Doing Research/Reading Research: A Model of Interrogation for Education*. UK: Falmer Press.

Byerlee, D. 1974. "Rural-Urban Migration in Africa: Theory, Policy and Research Implication." International Migration Review, PP. 534-566.

Byerlee, D. et al., 1976. *Rural- Urban Migration in Sierra Leone: Determinants and Policy Implications*, Michigan State University, USA.

Caldwell, J.C. 1969. *African Rural-Urban Migration: The movement to Ghana's Town Cambera*: Australian National U.P.

Charles, B. W. 1975. *The Decision to migrate under uncertainty: A case study of rural urban migration in tropical Africa*, Ph.D. Dissertation, University of Maryland.

Clark, W.A.V. 1986. *Human Migration*. Beverly Hills: SAGE Publications.

Cohen J.M. and N.H. Isaksson. 1987. *Villagization in the Arsi region of Ethiopia*. Uppsala: Swedish University of Agricultural Sciences.

Cox, P.R. 1970. *Demography: Fourth Edition*. Aberdeen: Cambridge University Press.

Central Statistical Authority. 1991. *Population and Housing Census 1984: Analytical report on wollo region*, Addis Ababa, Ethiopia.

Central Statistical Authority.1995.*The 1994 Population and Housing Census of Ethiopia*. Results at country levels, vol.1. Addis Ababa, Ethiopia.

Central Statistical Authority.1995. *The 1994 Population and Housing Census of Ethiopia*. Results for Amhara Region. Vol.1. Part III ,Addis Ababa, Ethiopia.

Central Statistical Authority.2008. *Summary and Statistical Report of the 2007 Population and Housing Census of Ethiopia*, Addis Ababa.

Dasgupta, B.1981. "*Rural-Urban Migration and Rural Development.*" In Jorge Balan (ed), *Why People Move: Comparative Perspectives on the Dynamics of Internal Migration*, The UNESCO Press, PP. 43-58.

Dawson, C. 2003. *Practical Research Methods: A User-Friendly Guide to Mastering Research Techniques and Projects*. Delhi: UBS Publishers' Distributors Pvt. Ltd.

Dejene, A. 1990. *Environment, Famine, and politics in Ethiopia: A view from the village*. Boulder and London: Lynne Rienner publishers.

Dereje D. 2002. "*Causes, Trends and Patterns of Migration to Bishoftu Town.*" M.A. Thesis, Addis Ababa, Addis Ababa University, Unpublished.

Eshetu, C. 1970. "*Urbanization and its effect on the Rural Ethiopian Economy*", Peace Corps Training programme.

Eshetu, C. and Teshome, M. 1984. *Land Settlement in Ethiopia: A review of Development*.

Ethiopian Economic Associations. 1999/2000. Annual Reports on the Ethiopian Economy. Vol. I, Addis Ababa, United Press.

Ezra, M. 2001. *Ecological Degradation, Rural poverty, and Migration in Ethiopia: A Contextual Analysis*. Policy Research Division, population council working paper, No. 149.

Fadayomi T.T.S Oni.B and Fapohunda.O 1992. "*Migration and Development Policies in Nigeria.*" In Toure. M and Fadayom. T (eds), *Migration, Development and Urbanization Policies in Sub-Saharan Africa*, PP.51-111.

Fapohuda, Qlanre Waju J. and Lubell,H.1978. *Urban Development and Employment in Lagos*,ILO,Switzerland,Geneva.

Feleke, T.2005. *Migration, Livelihoods and Wellbeing across four Communities in Ethiopia*, ESRC Research Group on Wellbeing in Developing Countries,University of Bath.

Gebre, Y. D. 2001. *Population Displacement and Food Insecurity in Ethiopia: Resettlement, Settlers and Hosts*. University of Florida: PhD Dissertation.

Gmelch, G. and Zenner, W.P. 1996. *Urban Life: Readings in Urban Anthropology*, Third Edition. USA: Waveland Press, Inc.

Golini, A., M.Said, O. Casacchia, C.Reynaud, S. Basso, L. Cassata, and M. Crisci 2001. *Migration and urbanization in Ethiopia*, with special reference to

Addis Ababa. LaSapienza, Roma: Department of Demographic sciences, university of Roma, and Addis Ababa: Central Statistical Authority.

Gugler, J. 1988. "Over-Urbanisation Reconsidered." in J. In Gugler ed. The Urbanisation of the Third World. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Gugler, Joseph and Flanagan, W.G. 1978. *Urbanisation and Social Change in West Africa*, USA, Cambridge University Press.

Gurmu, E. Sidney Goldstein and Alice Goldstein. 2000. *Migration, Gender and Health Survey in Five Regions of Ethiopia*: 1998. A United Nation Training and Research project on the Interrelations of Migration and Economic change, Women's Status, Reproduction and Health). Addis Ababa: Addis Ababa University and providence: Brown University.

Harris, J.R. and Todaro, M.P. 1970. "Migration, Unemployment and Development: A Two Sector Analysis" in Rhoda, R.E., (1979), Development Activities and Rural-Urban Migration. Washington, D.C: Office of Urban Development.

Harris, B. H. 1965. *Urban migration and economic development in Chile*, Massachusetts Institute of Technology, Cambridge, USA.

Hornby, W.F., and Jones, M. 1993. An Introduction to Population Geography: Second Edition. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

International Labour Organization .1998. *The Future of Urban Employment*. ILO, Geneva.

Jansen, C.J. 1970. *Readings in the Sociology of Migration*. Oxford: Pergman Press.

Kasahun, A. 2000. "*Migration to Addis Ababa: An Explanation of Reasons for Migration and Employment status at the Destination.*" Addis Ababa, Addis Ababa University, unpublished.

Katy, C. and Brett, I. 2004. *Migration and Unemployment in South Africa: When Motivation Surpasses the Theory*. Monash University Department of Econometrics and Business Statistics, Monash University ,Australia .

Kebede, M. 1992. *Migration and Urban Development in Ethiopian: The case of Nazareth*; Addis Ababa University.

Kebede, M. 1994. *Migration and urbanization in Ethiopia*. Published by Institute for curriculum Development and Research (ICDR), Ministry of Education (MOE).

Kederalah, I. 1991. *Migration and Non-Migrant Fertility Differentials: the case of Addis Ababa*, MA Thesis, Addis Ababa University.

Khinchuk,K.1987. "*Agricultural Labour Force in the Soviet Union*", Soviet geography, Vol.28.No.2.pp90-115.

Kibreab, G.1996. *Eritrea and Ethiopian Refugees in Khartoum: what the Eyes Refuses to See*. Africa studies Review, 39(3):131-178.

Kidane, A.1989. *Demographic consequences of the 1984-1985 Ethiopian Famine*. Demography, 26(3): 515-522.

Kinfe, A.2003. *A study on Migration of rural poor from Tigray to Addis Ababa*; causes, consequences and possible solutions ,Mekelle, Tigray.

Kinuthia, M. 2003. *Migration in Kenya and Its Impact on the Labor Market* .Paper prepared for Conference on African Migration in Comparative Perspective, Johannesburg, South Africa, 4-7 June American University United States of America.

Kiros, G.E. and M. J. White. 2004. *Migration, community context and child immunization in Ethiopia*. Social science and Medicine, 59:2603-2616.

Kloos, H. 1982. "*Farm Labour Migration in the Awash Valley of Ethiopia*", International Migration Review .Vol. 16, No. 1. Pp. 133-169.

Kloos, H. 1990. *Health aspects of resettlement in Ethiopia*. Social science and Medicine, 30(6): 643-656.

Kojima, R. 1996. *Introduction: Population Migration and Urbanisation in Developing Countries*, The Developing Economies, 34: 349-69.

Kothari, C.R. 2006. *Research Methodology: Methods and Techniques*. New-Delhi: New Age International Publishers.

Lalem, B. 2002. *The livelihood strategies of Rural-Urban Migrants in Addis Ababa*: Case studies of Amhara and Gurage Migrants. School of Graduate Studies Addis Ababa University in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of Master of arts in Anthropology.

Lall, Somik V., Harris Selod and Zmarak Shalizi. 2006. "*Rural-Urban Migration in Developing Countries: A Survey OF Theoretical Predictions and Empirical Findings.*" Development Research Group. The World Bank.

Lee, E.S. 1966. "*Theory of Migration*" in M. Kefyfitz (ed), *Demography*, Vol.3 ,No.1. A Publication Association of America.

Lewis G.S. 1982. *Human Migration: Geographical Perspectives*. New York, St. Martin's Press.

Lock Wood, V.S. 1990. *Development and Return Migration to Rural Polynesia*. *International migration Review*, 24(2): 347-371.

Lucas, Robert E.B. 1985:"*Migration amongst the Botswana,*" *The Economic Journal*, 95, 358-82.

Lucas, Robert E.B. 1997: "*Internal Migration in Developing Countries.*" In *Handbook of Population and Family Economics*, Volume B, Chapter 13, pp.721-798, ELSEVIER Science B. V.

Ma, Laurence J.C.&B.Xiang. 1998,'*Native Place,Migration and the Emergence of Peasant Enclaves in Beijing*',*The China Quarterly*, no. 155, pp. 547-81.

Mabogunje.1975. "*System Approach to a Theory of rural - Urban Migration*" in Jones, E. *Readings in Social Geography*. London: Oxford University Press.

Mabogunje.1980. *The development process. A spatial perspective*. Hutchinson university library for Africa. Anchor Brendon Ltd, Tiptree, Essex. Great Britain. p. 173-74.

Makinwa, P.K. 1981. *Internal Migration and Development in Nigeria: Lessons From Bendel State*. Ibadan: Heineman Educational Books (Nig) Ltd.

Mazumdar, D. 1987. 'Rural-urban migration in developing countries' in Handbook of Regional and Urban Economics, Volume II, edited by E.S. Mills. Elsevier Science Publishers.

McCatty, M. 2004. *The Process of Rural-Urban Migration in Developing Countries*. An Honours essay submitted to Carleton University in fulfillment of requirements for the course ECON 4908, as credit toward the degree of Bachelor of Arts with Honours in Economics. Carleton University. Ottawa, Ontario.

McGee, T.G. 1975. "An Aspect of Urbanization in South-East Asia: The process of City- Ward Migration" in Jones, E., Readings in Social Geography. London: Oxford University Press.

Mesfin, W. 1970. "Problems of Urbanization." Proceeding of the Third International conference of Ethiopia studies, Addis Ababa, Vol. 3, PP. 20-38.
Ministry of Federal Affairs and GTZ .2003. *Low-Cost Housing Projects in Ethiopia*. Addis Ababa, Ethiopia.

Monstead, M. and Walji, P. 1978. *A Demographic Analysis of east Africa: A Sociological Interpretation*. Uppsala: The Scandinavian Institute of African Studies.

Montgomery et. al 2004. *Cities Transformed: Demographic Change and Its Implications in the Developing World*. London, Earthscan Publisher.
NIDI/Eurostat(2001). "Why do People Migrate?" <http://www.nidi.knaw.nl/web/html/pushpull/index.html>.

Mulenbach, H.J .1976. *Akaki Beseka: urban process in an Ethiopian Industrial Town*, Ph.D Dissertation, North Western University, Evanston.

Oberai, A.S. 1978. "*Determinants of Rural-Urban Migration and its Implications for Rural Areas with Special Reference to ILO Research*", Economic and Demographic:Issues for the Proceedings of the Conference, Volume 2 Helsinki: International Union for Scientific Study of Population.

Oberai, A.S. 1987 "*Migration, Urbanization and Development*", International Population Conference, Volume 1. New Delhi: International Union for Scientific Study of Population, 1989.

Okereke. O. 1976. "*Migrant Labor and Its Economic Implication to African Agriculture.*" In East Africa Journal of Rural Development, Vol. 8, No. 92-104.

Oucho J. O. 1998. "*Recent International Migration Process in Sub-Saharan Africa: Determinants, Consequences and Data Adequacy Issues.*" In Richard E. Bilsborrow (ed), *Migration, Urbanization, and Development: New Directions and Issues. Proceedings of the Symposium on Internal Migration and Urbanization in Developing Countries, 22-24 January 1996, New York, PP. 89-120*

Ravenstein, E.G 1885. "*The Law of Migration.*" Journal of Royal Statistical Society, Vol. 48, No.2, June 1885, PP. 167-235.

Rhoda, R.E. 1979. *Development Activities and Rural-Urban Migration: Is it Possible to Keep Them Down on the Farm.* Washington, D.C: Office of Urban Development.

Sethurman, S.V. 1976. *Jakarta Urban Development and Employment*, ILO, Geneva International Labour Force.

Sileshi, S. 1978. "Urban migration and labour movement in Ethiopia", proceedings of the 5th international conference on Ethiopian studies, Chicago, university of Illinois press, pp. 679-700.

Sajaastad, L.A. 1962. "The Costs and Returns of Human Migration" in Bilsborrow, R.E. et al. (1984), *Migration Surveys in Low Income Countries: Guidelines for Surveys and Questionnaire Design*. Sydney: CroomHelm Ltd.

Solomon, K. 2005. "Housing Development as Instrument to Alleviate Urban Poverty: The Case of Addis Ababa." At the International Conference for Integrating Urban Knowledge and Practice, Gothenburg, Sweden, May 29 to June 3, 2005.

Standing, G. 1984. *Population mobility and productive relations, demographic Links and policy evaluation*, world bank staff work paper. No.695, Washington D.C. USA.

Stark, O and Bloom D.E. 1985. *The new economics of labor migration*. American Economic Review. 75:845-867.

Taye, M. 1990. *Urban-Rural Relations in Agrarian Change*. A historical overview in Ethiopia, options for Rural Development, Pausewang (eds) United Kingdom, Nilling and Sons Ltd.

Tesfaye, T. 2007. *The Migration, Environment and Conflict Nexus in Ethiopia: A Case study of Amhara Migrant Settlers in East Wollega Zone*. Addis Ababa, Printed in Ethiopia.

Teshome, N.. 1998. *Media Utilization and School Improvement. A Case Study of Primary Education Ratio Support Programs in Ethiopia: Doctoral Dissertation for the PhD Degree in International and Comparative Education, Institute of International Education, Stockholm University.*

Tiffen, M. 1995. "*Population density, economic growth and societies in transition: Boserup reconsidered in a Kenyan case study:*, *Development and Change*, Vol.26, No.1, pp31-65.

Todaro M.P. 1969. "*A Model of Labor Migration and Urban Unemployment in Less Developed Countries.*" *The American Economic Review*, PP. 138-148.

Todaro M.P. 1976. "*Migration and Economic Development: A Review of Theory, Evidences, Methodology Priorities.*" *Nairobi Institute of Development study, University of Nairobi, occasional paper, No. 18.*

Todaro ,M.and Smith, P. 2003. *Economic Development*, eighth edition ,Addison Wesley.

UN.1980. *Pattern of Urban and Rural Economic Growth.* New York: United Nations.

UN. 1984. *The World Population Situation in 1983: A Concise Report on Conditions, Trends, Prospects and Policies.* New York: United Nations.

UN. 1991. *Integrating Development and Population Planning.* New York: United Nations.

UN. 2003. *World Urbanisation Prospects: The 2003 Revision*, United Nations Department of Economic and Social Affairs' Population Division, New York: United Nations.

UNESCO. 1992. "*Migration in Africa.*" United Nations, New York.

UNFPA.1996. "State of World Population 1996"
<http://www.unfpa.org/swp/1996/ch4.htm>

United Nations Population Division (2003). *World Urbanization Prospects*. United Nations, New York,

Van Velsen,J.1960. "*Labour migration as a positive factor in the continuity of Tonga tribal Society (Zimbabwe)*", Economic Development and Social Change.Vol.8,No.3

Viljoen, J.H. 2005. *Migration pattern of foreign informal traders at the Hartbeespoort dam*. University of South Africa.Unpublished.

Webb, P. and J. Von Braun. 1994. *Famine and food security in Ethiopia: lessons for Africa*. Chickesther, United Kingdom: wiley.

White, Paul and Woods, R. 1980. *The Geographical impacts of migration, USA*, New York, Longman Inc.

Williamson, J.G. 1988. "*Migration and Urbanisation.*" In H. Chenery and T.N.Srinivasan eds. *Handbook of Development Economics*. Vol.I, North-Holland: Elsevier Science Publishers, B.V.

Worku, N. 2006. *The impacts of urban migration on village life, the Gurage case* social Anthropology Dissertation series No.8,Addis Ababa University.

Zhao, Y. 1999. '*Labor Migration and Earnings Differences: The Case of Rural China*', Economic Development & Cultural Change, vol. 47, no. 4, pp. 767-82.

Appendix 1

Questionnaire

Dear respondents,

This instrument is designed for the purpose of gathering information regarding the causes and consequences of rural-urban migration to Wolidya town. The final paper that will be written based on the information you have provided is intended to serve for research and development purpose. Therefore, you are kindly requested to provide accurate information as much as possible. I confirm you that all data will be treated confidentially and only aggregated and average information will be published.

Instruction: Circle (use tick mark) or write the answer as may be necessary to indicate your appropriate response.

Thank you,

Household address and interview results

Address: Wereda _____

Kebele _____

House number _____

Results of interview (questionnaire)

Complete _____

Not complete _____

Name of interviewer _____

Date of interview _____

A. Demographic characteristics of migrants at present

1. How old are you? _____

2. Sex

A. Male

B. Female

3. Marital Status

A. Single

B. Married

C. Divorced

D. Widowed

4. Religion

- A. Orthodox Christian B. Other Christian C. Muslim
D. Other(specify)_____

5. Educational attainment (highest level of schooling completed)

- A. Illiterate B. Read and write C. Primary school (1-6)
D. Junior (7-8) E. Secondary (9-10) F. Preparatory (11-12)
G. 10+certificate training H.12+special traininl.College/University graduate

B. Demographic characteristics of migrants –past (before migration)

1. Where were you born?

Region _____ Zone _____ Wereda _____ Place
name_____

2. Your birth place is:

- A. Rural B. Urban

3. What was your age when you left your place of birth? _____ year(s).

4. What was your age when you last moved to live in Woldiya? _____
year(s).

5. Your educational attainment (highest level of schooling completed) when
you left your place of birth?

- A. Illiterate B. Read and write C. Primary school (1-6)
D. Junior (7-8) E. Secondary (9-10) F. Preparatory (11-12)
G.10+certificate training H.12+special training I. College/University graduate

6. Your educational attainment (highest level of schooling completed) when
you last moved to live in Woldiya?

- A. Illiterate B. Read and write C. Primary school (1-6)
D. Junior (7-8) E. Secondary (9-10) F. Preparatory (11-12)
G.10+certificate training H.12+special training I.College/University graduate

7. What was your marital status when you left your birth place?

- A. Single B. Married C. Divorced
D. Widowed

8. What was your marital status when you last moved to live in Woldiya?
 - A. Single
 - B. Married
 - C. Divorced
 - D. Widowed
9. How long since you last moved to live in this town? _____ year(s).
10. The distance between Woldiya and place of your birth? _____ Kilometer.
11. When did you out migrate from the place of your birth?
 - A. Before 1966E.C
 - B. 1967-1983E.C
 - C. after 1984
12. When did you come to Woldiya to live?
 - A. Before 1966E.C
 - B. 1967-1983E.C
 - C. after 1984

C. Patterns and Process of Migration

1. Who was the decision maker in leaving your place of birth or last place of residence?
 - A. Self
 - B. Family / Parent(s)
 - C. Relatives or friends
 - D. Employer
 - E. Other (specify) _____
2. Did anyone from your place of birth come with you to Woldiya?
 - A. Yes
 - B. No
3. If your answer to question 2 is “yes”, who moved with you from the place of previous residence? (You can choose more than one answer)
 - A. None
 - B. Spouse
 - C. Parents
 - D. Family
 - E. Other (Specify) _____
4. After you moved to Woldiya, who came from your birth place to live with you?
 - A. None
 - B. Spouse
 - C. Parents
 - D. Family
 - E. Other (Specify) _____
5. What was your main source of information to move to Woldiya? (Choose the three most important sources and indicate from 1 to 3 in order of their importance)
 - A. Education _____
 - B. Mass media _____
 - C. Contact with people who know the town _____

D. Previous knowledge (personal visit)____ E. Other (specify)_____

6. Before you moved to Woldiya, did you have any information about living conditions and facilities such as housing, health care, employment and so forth?

A. Yes B. No

7. If your answer to question 6 is “yes”, what was the information?

A. positive (migrant life is easy in Woldiya)

B. negative (migrant life is not easy in Woldiya)

8. Before you moved to live in Woldiya, did you have any relative or friend or parents living in Woldiya ?

A. Yes B. No

9. If your answer to question 8 is “yes”, have you received any type of assistance from them?

A. Yes B. No

10. If your answer to question 9 is “yes”, what type of assistance you have received from them?

A. food and lodging B. Financial aid C. Assisted find jobs

D. Information about how to adjust and job possibility E. Helped find houses

F. Other (Specify)_____

D. Causes of migration

1. What was/were the main reason(s) for you to come to Woldiya? (Indicate 1-3 in there order of importance)

A. To obtain job (seek employment)_____

B. Famine, poverty, crop failure, lack of oxen, land shortage, poor facilities_____

C. To free from cultural or family restrictions and obligations_____

- D. To join immediate relatives and friends or following them_____
- E. To gain education and training_____
- F. To seek modern urban services and facilities_____
- G. Job transfer_____
- H. To open up or extended personal business_____
- I. To seek good climate_____
- J. Other (Specify) _____

2. Did you expect or perceive that Woldiya would offer you items you have chosen above?

- A. Yes
- B. No

3. What was your move from the place of your birth or previous place of residence?

- A. Planned
- B. Unplanned

4. What was your move to Woldiya?

- A. Planned
- B. Unplanned

E. Economic status of migrants before migration-past

1. Before you moved to Woldiya you were

- A. Trainee/Student
- B. Employed
- C. Pensioner
- D. Sick/disabled
- E. House wife
- F. Unemployed
- G. Other (Specify) _____

2. If you were employed

- A. Government employee
- B. Private Organization employee
- C. Farmer
- D. Employer/farming
- E. Other (Specify)_____

3. If you were unemployed what was/were the main reason(s) for being unemployed?

- A. had no formal education and therefore could not get modern sector employment
- B. Because of pre-revolution land tenure system
- C. Work terminated
- D. Natural catastrophes, such as drought and crop failures

E. Because of problems related to agricultural policies and practices during pre and post-revolution period

F. Other (Specify) ____

4. When you moved to Woldiya, did you have a job waiting for you?

A. Yes B. No

5. If your answer to question 4 is “no”, how long did you stay to find your first income earning job? _____ year(s) _____ month(s).

F. Economic characteristics of migrants at present

1. Presently you are.

A. Employed B. Unemployed C. Trainee/Student

D. Sick/disabled E. Pensioned F. House wife

G. Other(specify)_____

2. If you are now employed, what is your work status?

A. self employed B. employed under private organization

C.employer D. employed under government organization

E. other (specify) ____

3. Nature of your present work?

A. permanent B. temporary C. seasonal D. causal

4. Your present monthly income (in birr).

A.<100 B.100-500 C.500-1000 D. >1000

5. If you are still unemployed or out of work, please indicate the period of time that you have been unemployed or out of work_____ year(s) _____ month(s).

G. Pre and post migration status compared

1. Do you think that moving to Woldiya from your place of birth or last place of residence improved,

Your condition with regard to :	Improved	Worsened	Remained The same
Type of work			
Your income			
Your education/skill			
Access to education for your dependents			
Access to housing			
Access to urban transport			
Access to health cares			
general living conditions			

H. Problems faced by migrants after arrival in Woldiya

1. What was /were the main difficulty/difficulties you have faced after you immediately arrived in Woldiya?

- A. Shelter (house)
- B. Food and related consumer items
- C. Inability to obtain social services and other amenities
- D. Inability to obtain job
- E. Cultural difference
- F. Faced no difficulties
- I. Other (specify) _____

2. What is/are the main problem(s) you are facing now? (You can select more than one)

- A. Housing
- B. Employment
- C. Inadequate supply of consumer goods
- D. Inadequate social services and amenities
- E. Other (specify)

3. If you had known these difficulties before you moved to Woldiya, could you still have decided to move from your birth place or last place of residence?

- A. Yes
- B. No

I. Future plan of migrants

1. Do you have plan to move to another place?

- A. Yes
- B. No

2. If your answer to question 1 is “yes”, what is your reason(s) to move to other place?

- A. Housing problem
- B. Lack of employment opportunity
- C. Inadequate supply of consumer goods
- D. Rising cost of living
- E. Inadequate social services (schools, health care, recreation etc)
- F. Other (specify)

3. . If your answer to question 1 is “no” what is /are the main reason(s) you do not want to move out from this town? (You can choose more than once)

- A. Other towns have no better opportunities_
- B. Life in rural area is much worsens than in towns and therefore no point to return to rural areas
- C. Hope things will improve
- D. Other (specify) _____

4. If you still to move out from Woldiya , do you exactly know where you want to move?

A. Yes

B. No

5. If your answer to question 4 is “yes”, where will you move to_____?

A. To my birth place (rural) B. To my birth place (urban)

C. To another rural area D. To another urban area

6. What is your plan at old age?

A. Stay in Woldiya

B. Returns to place of origin

C. Move to other place (not place of origin) D. Do not Know

Appendix 2

Regression Variables

Wereda name	X ₁	X ₂	X ₃	X ₄	X ₅	X ₆
DawintnaDilanta	185.90	2.87	86.89	271.58	10.37	17.02
Gidan	66.00	3.04	129.81	439.41	.86	7.37
Gubalaft	.00	.00	165.41	382.23	11.06	16.78
Habru	28.40	5.77	100.62	397.93	11.05	17.64
Kobo	47.90	16.35	101.25	261.29	7.15	13.56
Meket	137.00	2.46	100.08	371.09	17.30	8.19
Wadla	120.30	1.41	129.55	187.04	1.09	10.97
Bugna	158.00	4.95	148.25	527.08	6.90	6.10

Y= Number of reported in-migrants from weredas of North Wollo and

The independent variables were:

X₁ = Average physical distance between Woldiya and the wereda centers of North Wollo.

X₂= Percentage of urban population of the Weredas of the Zone to the total Population.

X₃ = Crude population density per Km²

X₄= Agricultural population density per Km²

X₅ = Unemployment rate

X_6 = Percentage of literacy

Appendix 3

Correlation Matrix

	Y	X ₁	X ₂	X ₃	X ₄	X ₅	X ₆
Y	1.000	-0.870	-0.034	0.500	0.084	0.185	0.536
X1	-0.870	1.000	-0.192	-0.332	-0.075	0.046	-0.396
X2	-0.034	-0.192	1.000	-0.397	-0.155	-0.060	0.065
X3	0.500	-0.332	-0.397	1.000	0.414	-0.318	-0.260
X4	0.084	-0.075	-0.155	0.414	1.000	0.146	-0.415
X5	0.185	0.046	-0.060	-0.318	0.146	1.000	0.296
X6	0.536	-0.396	0.065	-0.260	-0.415	0.296	1.000

Appendix 4

Confidence Interval	95% confidence Interval for B	
	Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Constant	-18.677	188.860
X ₁	-1.062	-0.175
X ₆	-3.751	8.855