

**INDIRA GANDHI NATIONAL OPEN UNIVERSITY
SCHOOL OF CONTINUING EDUCATION
DEPARTMENT OF RURAL DEVELOPMENT**

**AN ASSESSMENT ON CAUSES OF RURAL-URBAN
YOUTH MIGRATION AND THEIR CONSEQUENCES
ON THE DESTINATION PLACE: THE CASE OF TWO
SELECTED SUB-CITIES OF ADDIS-ABABA, ETHIOPIA**

BY

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Aug, 2017

ADDIS ABABA, ETHIOPIA

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**A RESEARCH SUBMITTED IN PARTIAL
FULFILLMENT OF THE REQUIREMENTS FOR THE
MASTERS OF ART IN RURAL DEVELOPMENT, MARD**

SUBMITTED BY:

TADESSE YENENEH *ENGIDA*

Aug, 2017

ADDIS ABABA, ETHIOPIA

DECLARATION

I hereby declare that the Dissertation entitled “AN ASSESSMENT ON CAUSES OF RURAL-URBAN YOUTH MIGRATION AND THEIR CONSEQUENCES ON THE DESTINATION PLACE: THE CASE OF TWO SELECTED SUB-CITIES OF ADDIS-ABABA, ETHIOPIA”. Submitted by me for the partial fulfillment of the M.A. in Rural Development to Indira Gandhi National Open University (IGNOU), New Delhi is my original work and has not been submitted earlier to IGNOU or to any other institutions for the fulfillment of the requirements for any course of study. I also declare that no chapter of this manuscript in whole or in part is lifted and incorporated in this report from any earlier work done by me or others.

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THIS THESIS IS DEDICATED TO MY MOTHER, W/RO BELETECH DESTA AND MY SISTER, W/RO FANTAYE YENENEH.

List of Acronyms

CSA	Central Statistics Agency
FAO	Food and Agriculture Organization
IFAD	International Fund for Agricultural Development
ICPS	International Convention of Psychological Science
IDMC	The Internal Displacement Monitoring Centre
IDPs	Internally Displaced People
ILO	International Labor Organization
NGO	Non-Governmental Organization
SMAEs	Small and Medium Agro-enterprises
SSA	Social Security Administration
UN	United Nation
UNCHR	United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees
UNDESA	United Nations Department of Economic and Social Affairs
WFP	World Food Program

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Abstract

In recent years the rate of rural-urban migration has become alarming as more people drift into the urban centers every year from the rural areas; it is against this backdrop that this paper examines the causes of rural-urban youth migration and their consequences on the destination place with a reference to two selected sub-Cities of Addis Ababa. A qualitative approach was employed and a survey was carried out amongst 104 youth migrants drawn from Bole and Addis Ketema sub-cities of Addis Ababa specified areas. The analysis indicates that the major causes of rural-urban migration were; mainly, search for employment and because of crop failure. Others migrated in search of better education, as curiosity to be free from family and cultural restrictions, seeking good climate and to use Addis Ababa as a transit to migrate to foreign countries. The analysis also further indicates that some of the problems confronted by migrants in the destination place during arrival were mostly, lack of shelter, shortage of food, lack of medical care and other related consumer items and inability to obtain jobs, secure peace and stability and other social services. It is recommended that the Government should strive to scale up provision of social amenities and required facilities to the rural areas so as to enable rural youths stay in their birth places to be engaged in some developmental activities that would help them find jobs for their livelihoods. In addition to these, vocational training centers should be established in the rural centers for training of the productive youths for self-employment again, in order to curtail the continuous massive migration from rural to urban areas and at the same time to initiate and speed up rural development in all fronts.

CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

1.1 Background of the Study

According to UNDESA (2015), in 2015, the number of international migrants reached 244 million. However, a considerably higher number of migrants – 740 million – moved within their countries, mainly from rural to urban areas or from one rural area to another (UNDESA 2013); and this figure is expected to rise. Migration is a complex phenomenon and a key component of livelihood strategies in rural households, which focus on minimizing risks and diversifying household income. There are many reasons for migration and they are interrelated at various levels (national, local, household and individual). Although civil unrest, war, ethnic conflicts and violations of human rights are certainly among the causes of migration, in many cases migrants decide to leave their community for economic and socio-cultural reasons to seek work elsewhere. The situation is further compounded by increasing population pressure and a deteriorating natural environment (Deotti & Estruch 2016).

The populations of all countries around the world are becoming increasingly urbanized. The pace of urbanization in less developed countries before 1950 was very slow. However, after this period the rate increased substantially. Because of improvements in farming practices and way of life in the countryside; more advanced lifesaving medical practices leading to higher rates of fertility and life preservation; and rapid rural-urban migration. Most developing countries have noticed a transformation in their societies from rural to urban over the last two to three decades. The larger cities in developing countries have been growing very rapidly, often doubling in size every fifteen years (McCatty 2004).

Migration has been also 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. 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.

Rural-urban migration has been historically connected with industrialization, urbanization and economic growth (Bhattacharya 1993). Rural-urban migration eases inter-sectoral factor mobility and plays a vital role for structural changes. Moreover, migration has also been a key livelihood and survival strategy for many poor groups across the developing world, particularly in Africa. In Africa, migration has been considered as a way of life where the people migrate from place to place due to political, socio-economic and demographic reasons. Rural-urban migration has contributed for half of the urban population growth in Africa in 1960s and 1970s and about 25%

of urban growth in 1980s and 1990s (Lall *et al.* 2006). Concentration of investment in industries, commerce, and social services in towns has been the causes for regional inequalities and differences in economic opportunities. In addition, the productivity of the rural and agricultural sector has remained low and leading to rural out-migration to urban and industrial sectors (Adepoju 1977).

According to Lall *et al.* (2006) cited on Mitra & Murayama (2007), rural to urban migration is a response to diverse economic opportunities across space. Historically it 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. Rural-urban migration is the phenomenon of a historically unprecedented movement of people from the rural to the burgeoning cities of Africa, Asia and Latin America (Todaro, 1997). It is the movement of people from rural areas into cities (Wikipedia). Sometime ago, migration existed internally to enable excess labor to be taken slowly from the rural areas to provide workforce for industries in the urban areas and therefore aids industrial growth. However, experience in developing and underdeveloped countries has shown that the rate of rural-urban migration has ceaselessly outweighed the rate of job creation and having an overweight on the social and infrastructural amenities available in the urban areas (Todaro and Smith, 2007) opined that this adds to worsen the already severe urban unemployment problems triggered by economic and physical inequality between urban and rural areas.

Rural-urban migration has been historically low in Ethiopia. But recent years have seen a surge in migration in all parts of Ethiopia. Although access to farm land is a constitutional right to village residents of Ethiopia, it has become difficult to fulfill this right for the young generation because of increasing land scarcity. This is particularly true for the highlands of Ethiopia where

population densities have become very high. A recent study on rural youth livelihoods shows that the increase in farmland scarcity in the highlands of Ethiopia coupled with lack of non-farm employment opportunities in the rural areas have pushed youths away from their agricultural livelihoods and rural villages (Bezu & Holden 2014). On the other hand, the rapid expansion of urban centers with better education, technology, and other basic social services, attracts youths to towns and cities in search for better livelihoods (Bezu & Holden 2014b) .

Ethiopia is one of the least urbanized countries of the world where 18 percent of its population lives in urban areas. However, its rate of urbanization is one of the highest in the world, 4.1 percent (Ezra & Seyoum 1998). The rapid growth of urban population in Ethiopia and in many other developing countries has been largely due to rural-urban migration contributing almost half of their urban population growth. For instance, in 1994, about 44.7 percent of the urban residents in Ethiopia were migrants (CSA 2004). According to Kiros (2001) cited on Fransen & Kuschminder (2009), internal migration flows in Ethiopia are currently larger than external flows, but the exact number of people who migrate internally is not known. Internal migration occurs in the form of rural-urban migration, rural-rural migration, and resettlement policies, which are all substantial in Ethiopia. Internal migration in Ethiopia has traditionally occurred at marriage when the wife moves to live in the husband's community. In addition to this traditional internal mobility, urbanization in Ethiopia is a growing trend that puts pressure on urban infrastructure and resources (De Waal, 1991; Ezra & Kiros, 2001).

It is apparent that the basic reasons for the drift of large numbers of people from rural to the urban areas are the relative improvement of different facilities and better living conditions in the urban areas compared to the rural areas is the main "pulling" factor. The pace of urbanization or the tide of migration to urban areas which is triggered by rural "push" factors is consistently

higher than the capacity of new job openings and the provision of housing and others social services and amenities. Its effects are felt in wide spread urban unemployment, over-crowded housing and severe shortage of public amenities. Consequences of rapid urbanization are multi-faceted and requires timely responses by development planners and policy makers to deal with pressures created on the infrastructure of large urban centers by the influx of migrants, there is also view that the notion of migration should not only be seen from the viewpoints of its negative implications as it is also seen to play positive role in socio-economic development. The outflow of migrants, for instance, manifests itself in the changing labor market scenario in which migration is source of labor force to the urban economy (Bimerew 2015). A recent study on rural youth livelihoods shows that the increase in farmland scarcity in the highlands of Ethiopia coupled with lack of non-farm employment opportunities in the rural areas have pushed youths away from their agricultural livelihoods and rural villages (Bezu & Holden 2014). On the other hand, the rapid expansion of urban centers with better education, technology, and other basic social services, attracts youths to towns and cities in search for better livelihoods.

The rural-urban migration trend in Ethiopia can be explained by a number of so-called push and pull factors. Ezra & Kiros (2001) summarize the main push factors in Ethiopia as being overpopulation, famine, poverty, land scarcity, governmental agricultural policies, and a lack of agricultural resources, all factors that have been discussed previously. Many households, however, also participate in seasonal labor activities, leading to temporary rural-urban migration. As an addition to these push factors, many rural civilians were pulled to urban areas in the post-revolution period in Ethiopia as a result of the development of these areas into more important business and political centers (Berhanu & White 2000). Before the early 1970's, Addis Ababa was the most important urban destination for Ethiopians moving from the rural areas. After 1974

a shift to other Ethiopian cities occurred (ibid.). In Ethiopia urbanization levels are still relatively low as compared to other African countries (Cohen, 2006), even though Ethiopian urbanization rates are currently high (Van Dijk & Fransen 2008).

Internal migration flows within Ethiopia are currently larger than international migration flows from Ethiopia. The IDMC 2009 estimates that there are currently 300,000 IDPs in Ethiopia compared to around 60,000 refugees that currently reside in other countries (UNCHR 2009). Apart from the IDPs, the primary internal migration flows are rural-urban migration, and rural-rural migration. In addition to these flows, the resettlement program of the current government and the trafficking of children are also significant contributors to current migration flows in Ethiopia. Migrant youths face several constraints in urban areas. Tenure insecurity, in terms of rental arrangements in residential units as well as work place insecurity from eviction and confiscation, seems to be very important problems. The majority of the youth migrants are also vulnerable and food insecure since they do not have the social network that can provide them with informal safety net during crisis (Bezu & Holden 2014b).

Urbanization, as discussed in the previous section, is an issue of growing concern in Ethiopia. Rural-urban migration is continuing to occur at high levels as people seek new opportunities in the city to escape rural poverty. Ethiopia's urban centers, such as Addis Ababa, have high unemployment rates. This has led to shift in rural poverty to urban poverty. An additional area of increasing concern in Ethiopia has been the rural-urban migration of children who move to the cities to find opportunities (Erulkar *et al.* 2006). Rural to urban migration among youth between 10 and 19 years of age occurred primarily for educational opportunities (44.9 percent of boys and 51.4 percent of girls), followed by work opportunities (28.6 percent of boys and 32.4 percent of girls) and escaping an early marriage (22.7 percent of girls) (Erulkar *et al.* 2006). Children often

migrate with a relative or family friend or are sent to live with family or friends in the city who are expected to educate the children while they help in the house. After migration, however, 13 percent of girls and 21 percent of boys do not attend school and 19 percent of females who migrate for work are not employed (Erulkar *et al.* 2006). The opportunities for work are limited to informal work such as domestic work, coffee shop assistant, or bar girl (Van Blerk 2008). The latter-most option is often an entry into the sex industry, where girls commonly end up. Erulkar *et al.* (2006) found that female migrants working in domestic labor jobs received lower wages than their natives' cohorts per week (16 Birr/week versus 50 Birr/week). The opportunities for rural migrants in urban areas are limited, and life in cities frequently does not meet expectations.

1.2 Statement of the Problem

Migration may be classified, based on attributes such as timing, direction and reason for migrating (Ogden 1984). Some common types of migration are based on origin and destination of migrants. This includes internal migration such as rural-urban, rural-rural, urban-urban, urban-rural or international migration when the migrants move from one country to another. In addition, migration could be classified based on the motivations and causes underlying movements. Thus, it could either be forced or involuntary migrations which include slave trade, trafficking in human beings, ethnic cleansings, refugee movement and other migrations which are due to political or religious pressure (Edwin & Glover 2016).

On the other hand, such movements could be free or voluntary based on economic or social factors such as labor, retirement or the opportunity for educational advancement. One kind of human migration related to timing is seasonal migration. This is a temporary short-term labor migration that corresponds with the change in season. This is quite different from a permanent

move from which the migrants may never return. Standing (1985) argued that rural-urban migration could be a temporary measure; he asserts that migrant labor moves to the city for a season with the aim of returning when their services are needed in the rural area or if they fail to secure reasonable source of employment and income. Thus, such movement is for a period of time in response to labor or climate conditions such as farm laborers working in cities off - season.

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 levels. In developing countries, internal migration is more persistent (Asmame 2011).

Addis Ababa is the capital city of Ethiopia, which is ethnically diversified; year to year the city received a huge number of migrants from different parts of the countryside in the past and is still receiving. The city has 10 distinctive sub-cities, comparatively among all two of the sub-cities, Addis Ketema and Bole sub-cities have high number of crime rate and violations as well as they are the resident areas for high number of migrants. Various factors, including the quest for jobs and the desire to enjoy modern facilities like good schools, electricity, good water, etc. have been cited as possible pull factors responsible for the situation. Many have argued that the upsurge of unemployment, parental neglect, and the gradual breakdown of social support networks in rural areas, especially have led to the phenomenon of large numbers of young people migrating into

the city to live on the streets. Some of these young people become deviant, marginalized and isolated from society and thus become prone to crime and violence. The situation has generated a number of population, poverty and environmental problems in the target cities of these migrants. Migrants are exposed to environmental health risks because of pollution from domestic and, especially, indiscriminate disposal of human excreta and refuse, choked drains and pools of standing water. The rising number of street children is one of the most disturbing symptoms of the wider economic and social problems (Edwin & Glover 2016).

Rural-urban migration is attributed to have both negative and positive consequences at community, household and individual levels (Regmi & Tisdell 2010). It is important to remember that, migration activities have implications for those moving, those left behind and those at the destination. Thus, rural-urban migration has implications for both areas i.e. sending and receiving and on migrants themselves (De Haan 1999). Regarding to the causative factors of rural-urban migration, “push and pull” factors are responsible for the tide of migration to urban areas of Ethiopia (Zelege 2011).

Due to the varied factors of migration (push and pull), currently, there is excessive movement of people to Addis Ababa. It is migration from different parts of the country that accounts for over 54% of the yearly population growth of the city (Eshetu, 2005) cited on Taddele *et al.* (2006). Nowadays, also pervasive movement of people towards capital city has been observed. Thus, at the present time there is a continuous flow of people from different areas of the country side to Addis Ababa who have abandoned their role in the farms and have engaged themselves in the urban informal economic sector. Thus, out migration of large numbers of people has a major impact on the society and economy of the origin places. Rural-urban migration is a form of labor migration and the people most likely to leave are those of working age. This trend of movement

of rural people in to the city has militated agricultural development of the rural origin and causes other social influences. Although, these problems are of larger dimension, pervasive and are continuing unabated, research is scarce to monitor trend of movement of the people on a sustainable basis (Zelege 2011).

The fact that nowadays the migration of youths to Addis Ababa from different parts of the country's rural areas are pervasively increases like never before, hence, the severity of the problem makes the issue pertinent and timely. In line with this, thus, the motivation of this research is to fill this knowledge gap and add information on the existing situation of youth migrants and to study the main factors behind the movement of the rural people.

1.3 Objectives of the Study

1.3.1 General objective

- The general objective of the study is to assess the causes of rural-urban youth migration; and its consequences on the destination place

1.3.2 Specific objectives

- to examine the major causes of rural-urban migration
- to identify the socio-economic characteristics of migrants
- to assess the problems encountered by migrants
- to assess the consequences of migration on the destination place
- to recommend possible remedial ways and program interventions for strengthening support program activities in rural areas for rural youths and returnee migrants

1.4 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. This is because the study will 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. This enables to 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.

1.5 Scope and Limitation of the Study

As stated earlier, the number of the sample size of the study is limited to 104 youth migrants and interviewees that was dealt with. However, undertaking more interviews could have provided better information and increasing sample size could have also furnished with better information about the study. But increasing the sample size became difficult to collect the data within the given short period of time and limited budget. Thus, the study was limited to 104 sample youth migrants. In terms of concept the researcher tried to see the causes and consequences of migration, however, the concept of consequences was limited to the destination area of migration forcefully, avoiding the effect of migration on the areas of origin, again due to time and budget constraints. Moreover, some of the migrants left their places of origin more than a decade before. Thus, they had problems of recalling past events, such as their exact ages, year of departure, occupation, reasons for migration to name but a few. On the other hand, some of the respondents were reluctant to positively respond to questions about their background.

1.6 Organization of the Study

Generally the thesis is organized in five chapters. The first chapter covers the introductory part including problem statement, objective and significance of the study and scope and limitation of the study. Chapter two deals with a review of related literatures. Chapter three presents a general background of methodology. Chapter four explains how the data was analyzed and interpreted. The fifth chapter provides a conclusion and recommendations for the future.

CHAPTER TWO

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Theoretical Background

2.1.1 Basic Concept of Migration

Migration is a multifaceted phenomenon which in general involves the movement of people from one place to the other. Migration is a change of residence either permanently or temporarily. Migration can be defined in terms of spatial boundaries as internal and international. Internal migration is the movement of individuals within a country whereas international migration involves the flow of individuals between countries where national boundaries are crossed. The UN (1970:2) defines migration as: "... a move from one migration defining area to another (or a move of some specified minimum distance) that was made during a given migration interval and that involves change of residence." A migrant is also defined as:

"a person who has changed his usual place of residence from one migration-defining area to another (or who moved some specified minimum distance) at least once during the migration interval" (UN 1970:2) cited on (Assefa 2012).

The focus of the research is on internal type of migration flows specifically on rural-urban migration. Rural-urban migration is a movement of a rural resident(s) to an urban destination for different reasons. The area of origin (departure) is a place from which a move is made whereas area of destination (arrival) is a place where the move is terminated (UN 1970:2). Rural-urban migration can also be made either permanently or temporarily. Temporary migrants are rural family members who migrated to destination locations for a specific period of time and coming back to their origin. Permanent migrants are migrants who left their region of origin and start to

reside in the destination region in permanent basis. In this research, a rural household is called a migrant sending household if at least one of its family member migrates to destination location to earn wage income either in temporary or permanent basis.

Economic growth and development has long been associated with rural-urban migration in many economic publications. From the historical point of view, the current developed world in 19th and early 20th century have undergone different patterns of migration, predominantly rural-urban migration attributing to the process of industrialization and economic development. In addition, the percent of population living in the urban areas has grown rapidly and urbanization has been fueled by rural-urban migration (Bhattacharya, 1993; Waddington & Sabates-Wheeler, 2003 and Greenwood & Hunt, 2003).

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 environments and provide better employment and income opportunities. But recently, it seems that push factors seem to be increasingly powerful.

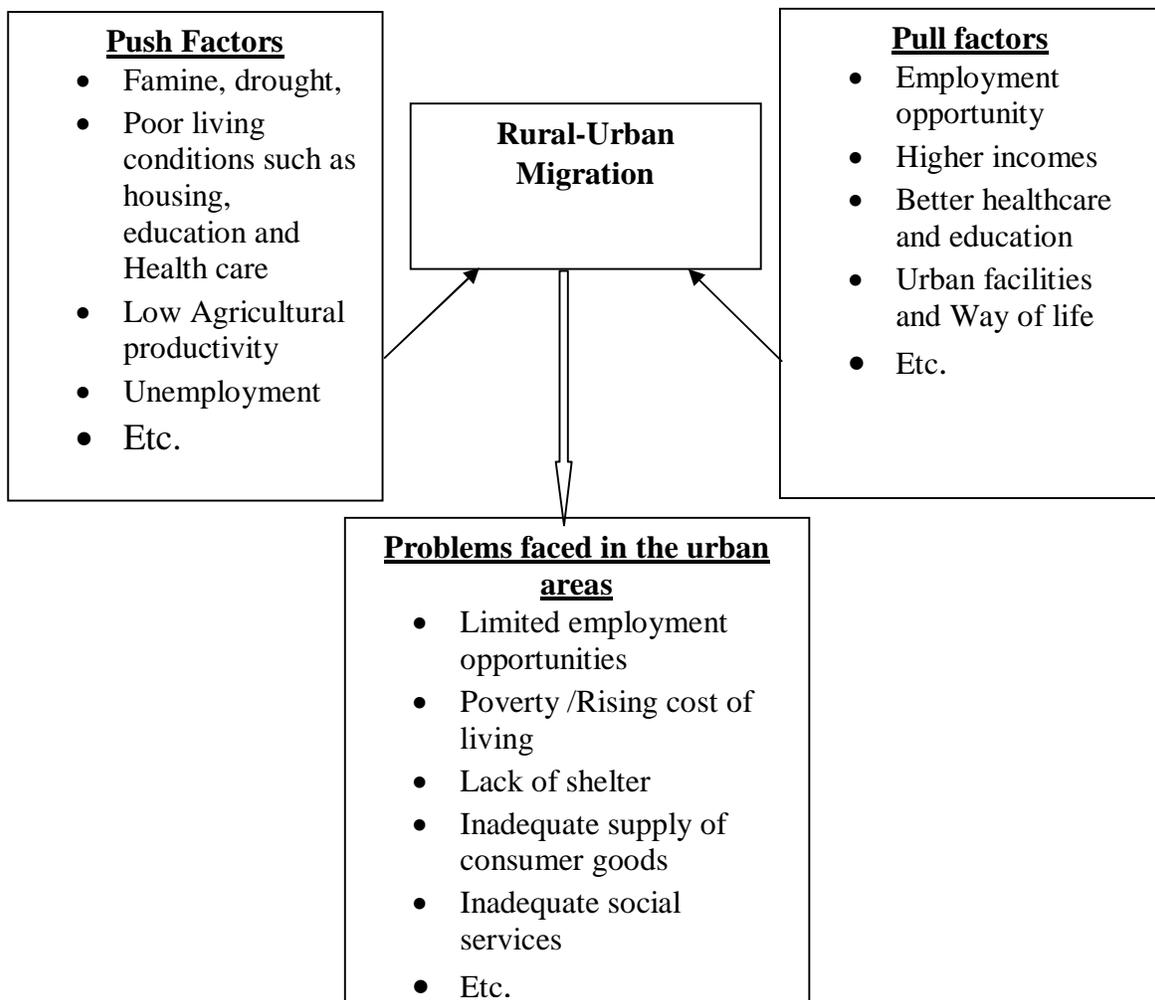


Figure 2.1: The conceptual framework for the analysis of rural-urban migration
Adopted from: (ASMAME 2011)

2.1.2 Rural-Urban Migration

Migration is the movement of people from one geographical location to another, involving permanent or temporary settlement. The region where people are leaving is referred to as the source region whereas the region to which people are entering is known as destination region. While rural-urban migration is the movement of people from rural areas (villages) to urban centers (cities). One noticeable aspect in the society today is the rate at which people migrate from the rural to the urban centers. While the urban centers are increasing in population, the rural areas are decreasing in population. The migration literature has come to regard rural-urban migration as “the major contributing factor to the ubiquitous phenomenon of urban surplus labor and as a force which continues to exacerbate already serious urban unemployment problems” (Todaro, 1976) cited on Gimba & Kumshe (2004).

Theoretically migration is defined simply as a process of personal movement from one area to another. It usually takes place at a variety of scale; intercontinental (between continents), intracontinental (between countries of a given continent), and interregional (with in countries) (NGS 2005). However, the nature of migration and the cause for it are complex, and there is no general agreement among researchers on the cause of migration.

Arguments about the difference on migration causing factors exist not only among researchers from different discipline, but also among researchers within one discipline (Timalsina 2007). Thus, concepts and approaches of classifying migration are other important aspects of migration study. Any classification of migration is difficult to formulate and understand because it takes into consideration numerous criteria or stimulating factors of varying nature (Vyanga, 1981 cited in Sinha 2005).

Migration is usually categorized depending upon the type of political boundaries crossed (for internal and external/international) (Weeks 1989). Depending upon length of time, it is said to be short-term and long-term migration as well as temporary and permanent migration (McDowell & De Haan 1997). On the basis of distance, it may be classified as short distance and long distance migration, members involved (individual and mass migration), decision making (voluntary and forced migration), social organization (family, class and individual migration), causes (economic and non-economic) and aims (conservative and innovative) (Sinha 2005). Depending upon rural-urban nature of the area, migration becomes, rural-rural, rural to urban, urban to rural and urban to urban (Clarke, 1987 cited in Sinha 2005).

One of the most significant migration patterns has been rural to urban migration, i.e. the movement of people from the country side to cities in search of opportunities (Rwelamira 2008). Moreover, the common types of rural-urban migration are circulating in the following forms including step migration (village-town-city), circulatory (village-city-village), seasonal (migration associated with periodic labor demand) and chain migration (where migrants follow their predecessors, and assisted by them in establishing an urban area) (Lynch 2005).

Rural-urban migration is the movement of people from the countryside to the city. It can either be voluntary or forced. In most developing countries, especially in Sub Saharan Africa, a shift from subsistence to cash crop production or manufacturing has resulted in the temporary or permanent exodus of men, and sometimes women, from rural communities to urban areas in search of wage employment opportunities (Deshingkar & Grimm 2005). Much of this migration is relatively long-distance to the larger cities and manufacturing centers (Zhao 2003). However, there are also smaller moves, typically undertaken by poorer people, to smaller towns where they work as laborers, small traders and/or artisans (Dao 2002).

2.1.3 Causes of Rural Youth Migration

Most studies have shown that the decision to migrate is generally made by the individual or household making the move (Clarke, 1986:7 cited on Asmame 2011). However, according to McGee, (1975:236) cited on Asmame (2011) many migrants especially wives and children, do not actually make the decision. The decision to migrate depends on a wide range of factors (Gmelch & Zenner 1996). It is not easy to assess the influences of the complex factors affecting the decision to migrate and the choice of destinations (Jansen 1970:23, cited on Asmame (2011)).

In spite of their complexity, the 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 (Kinfé 2003). Furthermore, the lack of decent employment opportunities in rural areas in both on-farm and off-farm self-employment or wage employment is the direct consequence of a number of other context-linked factors, which can be referred to as the root causes of migration (FAO 2016). Some of the determinants of migration which was identified from literatures are discussed below.

2.1.3.1 Poverty and Lack of Opportunities in Rural Areas

More than 75 percent of the world's poor reside in rural areas and depend on agricultural production for subsistence (FAO 2014). However, agriculture can only absorb a certain proportion of the labor force (Mutandwa *et al.* 2011), given the persistently low agricultural productivity, the poor use of technology and the limited purchasing power in rural areas. Rural labor markets do not function well; furthermore, the seasonal nature of agricultural labor results in strong fluctuation in wages and employment opportunities and in poor working conditions, especially for youth. The rural poor have insufficient access to resources and services, due to a low level of investment in market-oriented and social infrastructure (e.g. roads, agricultural water management, storage, assembly, wholesale and retail markets, as well as schools and hospitals) (FAO 2010). They also have poor access to social protection program.

Poverty is still one of the most serious problems in the world. Many existing development policies take poverty alleviation into consideration, which has led to much economic advancement. It is estimated that over 1 billion people in the world still live in poverty. In the developing world, urban poverty is persistent, with the majority of the poor living in rural areas, hence it is in these areas that poverty alleviation policies should be concentrated (ILO 1995). The most valid assumptions when generalizing about the poor in rural areas, is that they are dispersed all over the poor regions. Among minority groups and indigenous peoples, women, (whether or not they are housewives), and children account for the larger percentage (Todaro 2003, cited on McCatty (2004). According to (Todaro p.229), about two thirds of the poor in rural areas get by and sustain their lives with subsistence farming either as small farmers or working on land owned by other people. The other third are engaged in small scale activities.

Poverty profiles for developing countries characterize the poor as being agricultural households with little arable land. In an agricultural based economy, where poor residents lack access to resources and there is a high level of inequality and an inequitable distribution of assets, non-farm labor becomes an important source of income for the poor. Especially in the cases of small farmers and non-land owners who account for the majority of agricultural laborers, there is a heavy dependence on the rural labor markets for a huge portion of their incomes. How the rural labor market functions and the wages being offered, have an important impact on the state of poverty in all countries of the developing world.

2.1.3.2 Food Insecurity

In the Horn of Africa, 40 percent of the populations are undernourished and almost half live in areas prone to extreme food shortages. The same can be said for other African sub-regions. A recent study by the World Food Program (WFP) and IOM (2015) in Latin America revealed positive correlation between food insecurity and migration. Indeed, assessments conducted in drought-affected areas in 2014 highlighted that migration was a widely implemented coping strategy for dealing with deteriorating food security, adopted by 5–12 percent of all households interviewed. Yang and Choi (2007) found similar results for the Philippines, with young adults migrating in response to weather shocks.

2.1.3.3 Urban Job Opportunities

Many factors influence people's decisions to relocate to urban areas, a disproportional number of these migrants are young adults, all of whom move to the cities for various, albeit mostly economic reasons. The majority of migrants to cities is young and has higher levels of education. They migrate because they have longer prospects of earnings and their probability of getting

hired in the urban areas is higher. Employment in urban areas can fall under two broad categories, firstly the formal sector and secondly the informal sector. The formal sector characterizes all activities that are recognized by the government as being legal in nature and providing tax revenue. Traditional occupations such as banking, office clerks, and plumbing would fall under this category. These jobs tend to pay more than jobs in the informal sector, and they garner a greater deal of respect. Many migrants who move to cities would like to obtain a job in the formal sector, but find it difficult to do so. They need to have a certain level of education to be able to compete with the urban residents for these jobs. Worker productivity and income tend to be higher in the formal sector than the informal sector (McCatty 2004).

Workers in the formal sector enjoy job security, proper working conditions and retirement pensions. The second category, the urban informal sector, unlike its formal counterpart, includes all activities that are unregulated and small scale in nature. Not much attention was given to this unregulated, unorganized and mostly illegal sector till the 1970s. Observations were made in several developing countries that certain labor market activities failed to show up in statistics relevant in the formal modern sector. The majority of the new workers in the urban labor force seemed to create their own employment and start their own businesses, or work for small-scale family run enterprises. The self-employed were engaged in variety of activities such as hustling, street vending, knife sharpening, prostitution, selling drugs and fire-woods. Other migrants found jobs as barbers, carpenters, mechanics, maids, personal servants and artisans. Others managed to become successful entrepreneurs with several employees making high incomes (Todaro 2003).

The majority of the workers entering the informal sector are recent rural migrants who are unable to find jobs in the formal sector. Their main reason for taking part in the informal sector is to use what little skills they have to earn enough income to sustain their daily lives. As mentioned

before, urban informal sector activities can be labor intensive, the labor coming from every member of the household that is able to work. They work very long hours, sometimes making it difficult for the children to attend school regularly. The informal sector is connected to the formal sector, since it provides opportunities for people who are unable to find employment in the formal sector. While it serves as a conduit for excess labor to escape poverty and unemployment, depending on the developing country in question, wages in the informal sector are not much better than rural wages. Although living conditions and working conditions may not be better than in the rural areas, the informal sector wages have remained higher than the wages in the poorest rural areas. Migrants interested in getting employment in the formal sector, find the informal sector as a safety net to fall back on if things do not work out for them. The informal sector is therefore seen as a cause of rural-urban migration, because it lowers the risk of the individuals being unemployed once they move to the cities.

2.1.3.4 Increased Competition for Natural Resources and Environmental Degradation

While it is hard to gauge whether environmental factors can be the sole driver of migration, there is no doubt that they have some influence by acting on the range of economic, social and political drivers that directly affect migration (Foresight. 2011). To mitigate climate-change-induced hazards and demographic growth pressures, rural communities sometimes adopt detrimental management practices, which degrade the land and water systems (FAO 2011); they may also resort to migration once their traditional livelihood strategies have been significantly eroded. In the online global survey conducted within the project “Facilitating youth access to agricultural activities”, supported by IFAD and FAO in 2012 (MIJARC *et al.* 2012), approximately 52 percent of young farmers cited access to land as the greatest challenge to

farming. In a similar study in Ethiopia, almost 80 percent of respondents described the shortage of land as the major reason for migration (Zelege *et al.* 2008). Youth's principal means for accessing land is inheritance, but prevailing inheritance laws and customs, as well as increasing life expectancy, are a hindrance. Moreover, the increasing fragmentation of family land can result in economically unviable parcels.

2.1.3.5 Limited Income-generating Opportunities

In rural areas, there are limited opportunities to engage in off-farm activities and few more attractive job prospects due to lack of investment and the scant socio-economic infrastructure. Youth lack the necessary training to improve their entrepreneurial, administrative, technical and social skills, and have only limited access to programs comprising opportunities for credit, savings, and insurance and matching grants. Existing small and medium agro-enterprises (SMAEs) are mostly small, informal and family-based (FAO 2012).

2.1.3.6 Low or Stagnant Farm Productivity

SSA is the only region in the world where per capita agricultural productivity has remained stagnant over the past 40 years (Jama & Pizarro 2008). It lags behind other developing regions in terms of the adoption of new technologies. Additional major constraints are market inefficiencies (Jack 2011) and high transaction costs (Kirsten *et al.* 2013), preventing SSA farmers from making productivity-enhancing investments. Moreover, aggregate data from 151 countries demonstrate that there is a wide “productivity gap” between agricultural and non-agricultural sectors (Gollin *et al.* 2013). Actual yields are considerably lower than potential yields, mainly due to climate change and rural population growth, which lead to overutilization and fragmentation of land. This situation is not compensated by increased use of improved seeds

and fertilizers or adoption of drained irrigation systems (IFAD 2010); on the contrary, to compensate, family members engage in long working hours, limiting any opportunities to acquire new skills.

2.1.3.7 The Presence of Friends and Relatives as a Factor of Rural-Urban Migration

Many migrants are influenced by the presence of contacts such as friends and relatives or family members in urban areas and by the belief that these contacts can help the migrants move fairly and easily into jobs after arrival (Caldwell, 1969 cited in Adepaju (1982). Caldwell (1969 cited in IDRC, 1977) on his study showed that there is a very strong statistical association among both males and females between the presence of some rural household members in the town and the likelihood of other members visiting the city. The probability of becoming a rural-urban migrant appears to increase directly in response to the number of members of the household already in the city.

2.1.4 Consequences of Migration

According to Adaku (2013) in view of the fact that migration has been part of the economy, right from the supply and demand theories of Harris and Todaro (1970) and theories of rationality of the individual of Todaro and Maruszko (1987), it is quite clear that migration is no new thing. It is expected that agricultural households which have lost labor to migration will be able to adapt to shortage of labor. Existing methods of adaptation include transitioning to less labor intensive farming methods such as less labor intensive crops and mechanization (Jokisch, 2002). Mechanization has however been found to be inefficient in situations of decentralized small plots- which is the case in most parts of Africa- causing agricultural labor productivity to be below potential (White 2005).

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.

In many cases of migration economic gain has been the prime objective. The economic gain acquired by rural migrants from 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... Tiffen (1995) 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. 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).

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). According to Tiffen (1995)

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.

Migration has significant influence on the population size of both receiving and sending areas.

As Standing (1984) 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). The UN (1991) 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 place 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 (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 1992).

Many scholars such as Adedeji & Rowland (1984) , Adejugbe (2004) and Todaro (1997), agreed that the drift of the rural populace to the urban areas has led to social, economic, environmental, physical, and other severe problems such as congestion in the urban centers which have increased the spread of communicable diseases in the centers, insufficient physical, and social infrastructural amenities such as, electricity, health, educational, recreational facilities, motorable roads, pipe borne water, housing are among others. This has caused overstretched use of physical and social infrastructural facilities. Other problems include: traffic congestion, unemployment, high crime rate – advance fee fraud (419), hired assassins, armed robbery,

alcoholism, drug abuse, prostitution, hooliganism, health hazard from pollution; air, water, and noise, for example, toxic smoke from industrial plants and vehicles, inadequate refuse collection and disposal system, poor drainage system which results to flood and overflowing gutters and therefore causing cholera epidemics, growth of slums leading to shanty settlements, and long distance to work as well as serious traffic jam which makes commuters spend number of hours on the road to work and other places, cultural change, juvenile delinquency, and decline in traditional values.

Against these benefits, a major consequence of rural-urban migration is excessive urbanization. There is a very strong link between excessive urbanization and rural-urban migration. Migration has increased urban populations significantly over the years. A common view held by policymakers and economists in developing countries is that urban growth rates are excessive. This view is brought about by the large numbers of unemployed or underemployed young people in many Asian, African, and Latin American cities (McCatty 2004).

Most economists however, believe that urbanization is an inevitable consequence of rural stagnation and unsuccessful economic development, not an undesirable force that must be suppressed. Migration instead should be recognized as an equilibrating response to disequilibrium elsewhere in the economy. Excessive urbanization leads to high rates of city congestion, crime and poor infrastructure such as proper sewage systems, clean drinking water and other amenities. There is also the problem of chronic unemployment which is also a key cause of crime, as people need to find ways of putting food on their tables. Excessive urbanization has brought with it the creation of large slums and shanty towns, as new migrants find it difficult to get proper housing. In developing countries, slum settlements represent over

one-third of the urban population; in many cases they account for more than 60% of the urban total (McCatty 2004).

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 diseases are important (Adepoju 1991). 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 sub-urban areas where lack of social services and police protection is pervasive (Zhao 1999).

Migration has increased urban populations significantly over the years. A common view held by policymakers and economists in developing countries is that urban growth rates are excessive. This view is brought about by the large numbers of unemployed or underemployed young people in many Asian, African, and Latin American cities (McCatty 2004). Rural-urban migration increases the urban population and hence unplanned urban expansion with insufficient supply of social services like housing, electricity, water supply, proper sewerage system, road networks and transportation system. 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.

It is also difficult for the urban administration to have proper record of urban residents. Lack of proper record concerning residents made it difficult to control certain criminal activities like robbery and attacks on individual property and in some cases life of residents (Alemante *et al.* 2006). They also contend unplanned urban growth further contributes to the displacement of farmers around expanding towns. This further aggravates production shortfall and family disruption. Displaced family members may decide to join urban where there is no job opportunity. As Alemante *et al.* (2006) pointed out that, growths of streetism, urban unemployment and higher proportion of unskilled migrants negatively affect the peace and security of the city. In the absence of proper waste management system, environmental pollution is another area of concern for the wider public. Urbanization is connected with a variety of policies, spanning demographic economic and environmental concerns. Growing of cities is often seen as the agent of environmental pollution and urbanization can place stress on the land through sprawl; coincident industrial development may threaten air and water quality (White 1999).

According to Todaro (2003) cited on Bimerew (2015) most of the migration conventionally linked to these urban issues was seen, as a conventional pattern of migration does not always lead to increase incomes and impacts of migration perhaps, the migrant may face obstacles in availability of job and loss of much human labor and social capital. Many in migrants are not in a position to find space and/or materials to accumulate the necessary resources and materials to build a permanent house and they are forced to erect and live in temporary dwellings on the streets. Cities of developing countries, over one-third of their populations have the possibility of living in squatter and slum settlements (Todaro, 2003)

2.1.5 Rural-Urban Migration in Ethiopia

Although very little is known about the pattern and rate of rural-urban migration in Ethiopia, available few literatures considered migration as an issue that has not yet grown to a serious problem. The low proportion of people living in urban areas seems to keep migration issues at a low profile. The World Bank document (2008), quoted in Brauw and Mueller (2011:3) indicated that in Sub-Saharan Africa, where 36 percent of the population live in cities, Ethiopian urban residents remained below 16 percent. There might be various reasons for this level of low urbanization in Ethiopia, but according to Abate (1995), cited in Ezra & Kiros (2001), adequate research has not been conducted on migration in Ethiopia due to lack of data.

Despite levels of decisions, studies conducted on migration agree that there are important factors that would lead to migration decisions. Zewdu & Malek (2010) indicated that rural urban migration in Ethiopia could be triggered by low income generated in the agriculture sector and need to diversify activities in other sectors. However, the majority of cases in Ethiopia show that the poor have more inclination for migration than the rich. Unlike experiences in other countries, with diminishing income opportunities, the poor tend to migrate than the rural rich in Ethiopia (De Haan *et al*, 2000, cited in Zewdu & Malek (2010). Hence, the nature of the factors would happen to be more of problem driven.

Migration in Ethiopia causes both positive and negative aspects. On the positive aspect, migration contributes in meeting the labor demands of receiving areas, bringing back skills, and playing a key role in the diversification and improvement of household income (Degefa 2005). On the effect of rural-urban migration, different researchers state that migration leads in increasing population exerting pressure on urban social services in the host environment, as well as creating a shortage of farm labor, placing burden of responsibilities on the person who is left

behind (Bimerew 2015b). According to Hailu (1983) cited on Kederalah, (1991), movement of people from rural to urban areas of Ethiopia has considerable significance for urban growth. The development of urban centers was, thus, at the cost of the rural areas (Taye 1990). 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 (Befekadu 1978). Furthermore, 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).

Environmental change does, in some cases, trigger migration. However, ascribing sole agency to environmental factors is likely to be overly simplistic as it ignores the importance of social factors in mediating the decisions made by individuals whether or not to migrate. People try to escape from livelihoods which totally depend on the availability of water; as it is a strategy for managing drought. To this end, permanent migration to cities/towns is undertaken by certain members of a household who settled in urban areas so as to attain the capital necessary for the start-up and running costs of equipment (such as irrigation pumps) which will mitigate the impact of increasingly variable rainfall patterns in the highlands to which the rest of their household remains exposed (Morrissey 2002).

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.(Asmame 2011) Tiffen (1995) 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. Migrants are everywhere doing all kinds of jobs mostly in the service and informal sectors.

According to the report of ICPS 49% of the current urban population in Ethiopia are first generation migrants. A closer examination of the migration stream shows that, among all migrants in Ethiopia, rural to rural migrants account for 37% while rural to urban migrants account for 33%. The rest are migrants between urban areas (19%) and those who migrate from urban to rural areas (11%). This indicates that historically there has been more movement of people within rural areas than between rural and urban areas or within urban areas. But the shift in recent years towards more rural-urban migration is also very clear from the data. Among recent migrants (those who migrated in the last five years before the survey), rural to urban migrants account for 39% while the rural to rural migrants account for only 27%. Addis Ababa is the most favored destination for migrants, attracting 43% of all migrants originating from different parts of the country (CSA 2013).

There are more female migrants than male migrants in Ethiopia. The share of migrants among the female population is 50% for urban dwellers and 9.3% among rural dwellers while the rates for the male population are 46% in the urban areas and 7.8% in the rural areas (CSA 2013). This may be partly related to the varifocal marriage system practiced in most parts of Ethiopia which entails a relocation of women to the village of their husband at the time of marriage. But, of course, there are also other factors that drive the larger female migration, especially to urban areas where the varifocal system is of less importance. In Addis Ababa, 63% of the recent migrants are female while among the non-migrant city population the male to female ratio is

equal. Only 4% of these recent migrants report marriage arrangement as their reason for migrating to the city (Moller 2012).

According to the ICPS data, youths are the most mobile section of the society. Youth migrants account for 60% of the recent migrants (CSA 2013). But the report does not show migration disaggregated by source and destination for each group. However, the migration to Addis Ababa, according to the ETUMS study, provides suggestive evidence that youths have higher rural-urban migration rate than other age groups. The migrants in the age group 15-35 account for 51% of recent migrants while migrants in the next age group (35-55) account for only 24% of recent migrants.

2.2 Empirical Studies

Asmame (2011) employed descriptive statistics in order to find out the causes and consequences of rural-urban migration in woldiya town, Ethiopia. To achieve the objective 500 migrant households were selected randomly from three kebeles of the town. Both primary and secondary data were employed and were analyzed both qualitatively and quantitatively. He found out that migrants came to Woldiya town in search of employment and to utilize urban services and education. He also contended that 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.

Atnafu *et al.* (2014) made a qualitative study on Poverty, Youth and Rural-Urban Migration in Ethiopia. Basically, the study explores the relationships between poverty and rural-urban migration in Ethiopia. The paper describes and analyses migration from a poor rural woreda

(district) in northern Ethiopia, to the nearby city of Bahir Dar and the capital, Addis Ababa. According to their study, they argue that there are important non-economic factors and long-term strategies. As to their findings, extreme poverty was one of the main driving factors behind the flows of migration. Furthermore encourage migration even where working conditions are hard and returns are low.

Zelege (2011) used a mixed approach research design to examine the push and pull factors of rural-urban migration and its implication on the place of origin: the case of Ankesha wereda migrant street vendors and daily laborers in Addis Ababa. The study further focused on the analysis of major factors for migration to Addis Ababa; the characteristics of migrants; challenges they face at the destination and positive and negative aspects of migration. The result of the study reveals that most of the migrants were dominantly young aged, single male, at the level of primary education and they were from female headed households. The major push factors were identified as landlessness, land shortage and lack of social services like school. Furthermore, they described that besides the above mentioned points the social networks in Addis Ababa also exacerbate migration. The migrants are involved in street vending and daily labor work at the expense of psychological benefits due to drop-out of their schooling, culture of the society at origin and low success of their migration.

Uddin & Firoj (2013) employed Descriptive statistics and ordinary least square regression model in order to investigate causes and Consequences of Rural- Urban Migration in Bangladesh: An Empirical Study in Chittagong City; more specifically the study used qualitative and semi-quantitative data analysis. They took survey of 100 randomly selected migrants and their families. From their analysis they found that poverty, job search, landlessness, homelessness, various natural disaster are the main push factors for rural out migration, while easy access to

informal sectors and slum area, higher income probability, better service facilities are the main pull factors behind migration.

Edwin & Glover (2016) conducted qualitative research methodology based study for the purpose of investigating the causes of rural-urban migration of youth from northern Ghana to southern Ghana. More specifically, the aim of the study was to investigate the pull factors influencing in-migration and to investigate the push factors influencing out-migration. The study involved a cross-sectional survey conducted with a total of 89 respondents randomly selected from the list of beneficiaries of a NGO program, through questionnaire-based interviews, focus group discussions and participant observation. Results of their study show that major factors triggering migration comprise a complex mix of pull and push factors which include learning vocation, social amenities, freedom, general poverty, inability of parents to play their roles, and poor job availability in the rural areas.

CHAPTER THREE

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

The research method is a strategy of enquiry, which moves from the underlying assumptions to research design, and data collection (Myers, 2009). Accordingly, this chapter specifically contains the type and description of research area, research design, population and sampling design, research instrument, and data analysis technique.

3.1 Description of the Study Area

Addis Ababa is the capital city of Ethiopia, the seat of the African Union (AU) and the United Nations Economic Commissions for Africa (UNECA). It is situated between 80 55' and 90 05' North Latitude and 380 40' and 380 50' East Longitude in the central plateau of Ethiopia. It covers an area of 540 sq. km. Addis Ababa is founded by the 19th century Ethiopian king Emperor Menelik II and his wife Empress Taitu in 1887 (Teshome, 2012). Due to its average elevation of 2,500 meters above sea level, Addis Ababa has a suitable climate and moderate weather conditions. Besides, for political and administrative reasons, the city is made to be structured at three tiers: City Government at the top, 10 sub cities Administrations in the Middle, and one hundred sixteen woreda administrations at the bottom (Mulugeta, 2011). It has a population of 3,384,569 according to the 2007 population census, with annual growth rate of 3.8%. This number has been increased from the originally published 2,738,248 figure and appears to be still largely underestimated.

The city is made up of urban and peri-urban areas, and is divided into ten sub-cities which are Addis Ketema, Akaki-Qality, Arada, Bole, Gulele, Kirkos, Kolfe-Keranio, Lideta, Nifasilk-Lafto, and Yeka sub-cities. The Addis Ababa city Council is responsible for administration of the city. Seven of the sub-cities have urban agriculture offices under their sub-city capacity building

program offices; that is, except Arada, Addis-Ketema and Kirkos sub-cities. Based on Addis Ababa urban land use plan report (ORAAMP 1999), the total land area of Addis Ababa is 530.14 square-kilometers. As a chartered city (ras gez astedader), Addis Ababa has the status of both a city and a state. It is where the African Union is and its predecessor the OAU was based. It also hosts the headquarters of the United Nations Economic Commission for Africa (ECA) and numerous other continental and international organizations. Addis Ababa is therefore often referred to as "the political capital of Africa" for its historical, diplomatic and political significance for the continent. The city is populated by people from different regions of Ethiopia. It is home to Addis Ababa University. The Federation of African Societies of Chemistry (FASC) and Horn of Africa Press Institute (HAPI) are also headquartered in Addis Ababa (fig 3.1)

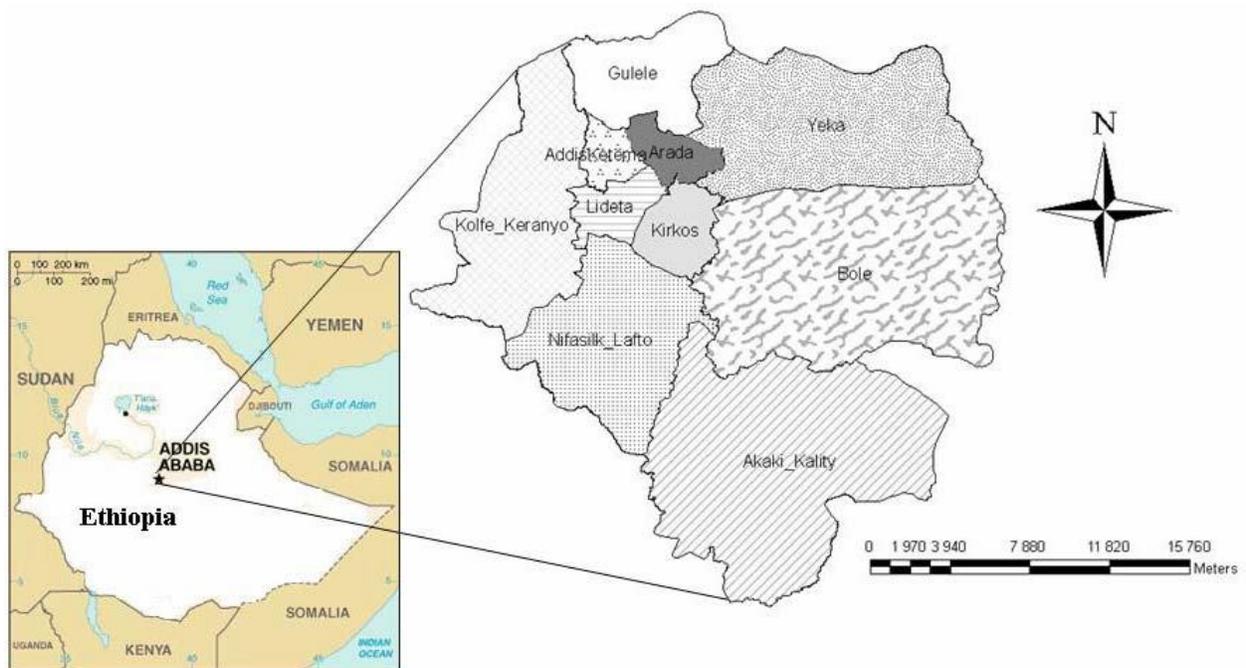


Fig 3.1 Map of Addis Ababa

3.2 Research Design and Approach

A research design is simply the framework or plan for a study that is used as a guide in collecting and analyzing the data. It is a blueprint that is followed in completing a study. Research design is the blue print for collection measurement and analysis of data. Actually it is a map that is usually developed to guide the research (Pandey & Pandey 2015). Research design can have a number of classifications which could incorporate the degree to which the research question has been crystallized, the method of data collection, and the research environment (Njambi 2014). According to Kothari (2007), a research design is the arrangement of conditions for collection and analysis of data in a manner that aims to combine relevance to the research purpose with economy in procedure. The objective of this study is to explore the causes of migration of rural youth migration and their consequences on the destination place. Thus a qualitative research design was employed. Since the purpose of this study is to understand and explore the root causes of young people migration from rural to urban areas and the consequences they face in the destination place; it would be appropriate to use a qualitative method. This method provides possibilities for the researcher to gain a deeper understanding for the scientific problem at hand.

3.3 Population and Sampling Design

3.3.1 Population

Population or universe means, the entire mass of observations, which is the parent group from which a sample is to be formed. The term population or universe conveys a different meaning than a traditional one. In census survey, the count of individuals (men, women and children) is known as population (Pandey & Pandey 2015). According to Singh (2006), a population or universe means, the entire mass of observations, which is the parent group from which a sample

is to be formed. Accordingly, the population or universe of this particular study was youth migrants who are residents of Addis ketema and Bole sub-city areas of Addis Ababa .

3.3.2 Sampling Design

3.3.2.1 Sampling Technique

The target populations of this study were households who were the youth migrants who resided and still residing at Bole and Addis-Ketema sub-cities; two stage sampling was employed in order to select the sample respondents, on the first stage among ten (10) sub-cities two, Bole and Addis-Ketema Sub-cities and their respective weredas were selected purposely that have high number of youth migrants. From Bole sub-city five weredas (wereda 11, 12, 13, 17 and 05) and from Addis-Ketema sub-city the same five weredas (wereda 1,3,7,8, and 9) were selected and then the sample respondents were selected using random sampling.

Purposive or judgmental sampling technique was employed in the selection of target areas and population. The process of judgmental or purposive sampling is based on the assumption that the researcher is able to select elements which represent a ‘typical sample’ from the appropriate target population. The quality of samples selected by using this approach depends on the accuracy of subjective interpretations of what constitutes a typical sample (Ross 2005). Therefore, the study covered those youth migrants whose residents were in Bole and Addis Ketema sub-city areas, this is because compared to other sub-cities these particular areas were found to have youth migrants who came from different parts of the country sides. Since the distribution was found to be high the researcher believed that it would help to find out the basic and core reasons of migration from at least major directions of the country. Therefore, the

researcher interviewed randomly any youth migrants who found accidentally on the streets, villages and the village surroundings.

Furthermore, for the purpose of selecting the sample respondents the researcher employed a non-probability convenience sampling; a sample of convenience is the terminology used to describe a sample in which elements have been selected from the target population on the basis of their accessibility or convenience to the researcher. The main assumption associated with convenience sampling is that the members of the target population are homogeneous. That is, there would be no difference in the research results obtained (Ross 2005).

3.3.2.2 Sample Size

A sample is a finite part of a statistical population whose properties are studied to gain information about the whole (Webster 1985). According to Cooper and Schindler, (2001) cited on Njambi (2014) some of the principles which influence sample size comprise: the greater the dispersion or variance within the population, the larger the sample must be to provide estimation precision, the greater the desired precision of the estimate, the larger the sample must be, the narrower the interval range, the larger the sample must be, the higher the confidence level in the estimate, the larger the sample must be, the greater the number of subgroups of interest within a sample, the greater the sample size must be, as each sub group must meet minimum sample size requirements, and if the calculated sample size exceeds five percent of the population, sample size may be reduced without sacrificing precision. Field (2005) mentioned that as the non-probability sampling is applied, there is no specific method in determining sample size. But, it is not practical to collect data from the entire target population, so the researcher will use a sample instead. Furthermore, according to Lindeman *et al.*, (1980) and Loo, (1983) cited on Kashan

(2012) a minimum sample size of 100 to 200 is often recommended, hence, a total of 104 youth migrants were interviewed.

3.4 Source and Methods of Data Collection

The study was based on both primary and secondary data. Using more than one data collection approach gives an opportunity to the researcher to combine the strengths and correct some of the deficiencies of any one source of data. Both primary and secondary data were gathered. Primary data was collected from youth migrants using interview guideline through unstructured and semi-structured questioner; and the secondary data were taken from different books, journals and previous studies. In-depth interviews were also conducted to substantiate the responses acquired using questionnaires. Interviews were also conducted with the city administrators, and other concerned authorities of the city, administrators of sample sub-cities. The questions concerned with the effect of migration on socioeconomic condition of the sub-cities.

➤ Interview

Since the researcher followed a qualitative research approach to get the necessary information, in-depth interviews were conducted. The interviews were conducted with youth migrants who could give their experiences of the past and present and other concerned authorities of the sub-cities, and selected migrants from the two sub-cities. Data were sufficiently and carefully taken from the interviewees who were considered knowledgeable and rich to provide relevant explanations on necessary information.

➤ **Focus Group Discussion**

Apart from using questionnaires and interviews, focus group discussion was also conducted to substantiate the responses acquired using questionnaires. The group discussion was conducted with youth migrants who were living on the streets and villages and others who were expected to have accumulated knowledge about the patterns, causes and consequences of migrations in the study areas. Depending on the availability of the respondents each group comprised five to seven members in the discussion.

➤ **Observation**

In order to make the data more substantial and valid the researcher made personal observations on the residential and work areas of youth migrants and experience of the study areas that helped him to understand better the consequences of rural-urban migration in the study areas and to cross check data gathered through household survey, discussion and key informant interviews.

➤ **Key Informant Interview**

Key informant interviews were made with selected Wereda municipality officials and senior residents who were believed to be knowledgeable about the study districts.

3.5 Method of Data Analysis

According to Kothari, (2006), cited on Asame (2011), 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 edits, codes, classifies and tabulates the data. Since the purpose of editing is to detect errors and omissions the researcher makes a careful inspection of the completed questionnaires during the collection of same from

each enumerator. Since coding is necessary for efficient analysis it is very important for the researcher to consider it first in his analysis.

The researcher classifies 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). Therefore, following the scientific procedures the researcher of this study transcribed the data from the questionnaires into the computer using the Statistical Package for Social Scientists (SPSS) software version 20.0 to produce different tables, graphs, charts, population pyramids and percentages which were used to illustrate the various aspects of the study.

Even though the basic approach of the research was qualitative, the data was analyzed quantitatively and qualitatively using descriptive statistics including tables, percentages and graphs. Data collected through the open-ended items, responses of interviewees, personal observations and group discussion were also considered during data analysis.

CHAPTER FOUR

DATA ANALYSIS AND INTERPRETATION

4.1 Socio-demographic Characteristics

4.1.1 Sex of Respondents

The survey covered a total of 104 respondents. Results essentially indicated a preponderance of male adolescents (73%) as against 27 percent females (Fig. 4.1).

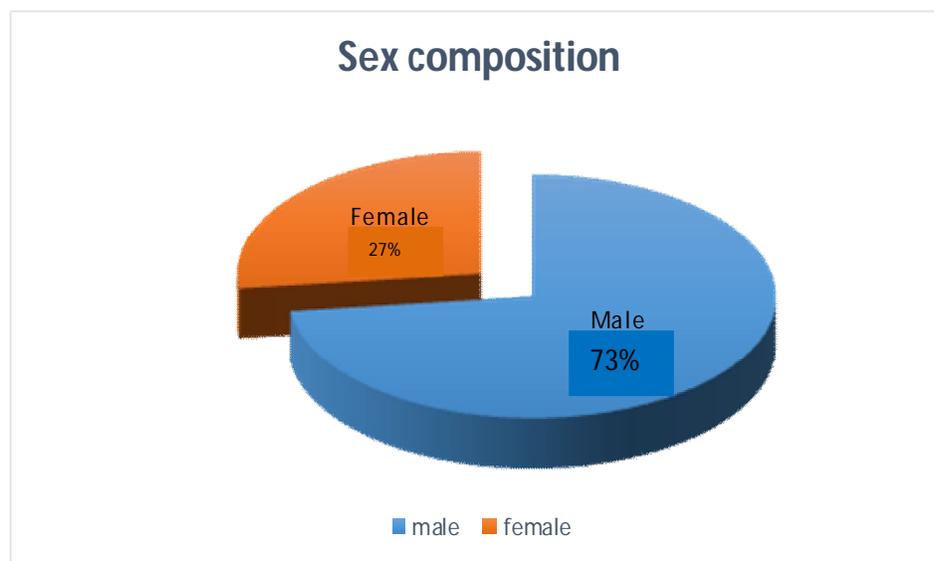


Fig. 4.1 Sex composition of respondents

It was interesting to find more males than females involved in the study. This is because the finding goes rightly with the literature which generally shows that more males are exposed to migrate out than females and in a typical patriarchal society like the northern part of Ethiopia.

4.1.2 Age of Respondents

The age distribution of respondents is considered very important in this study especially because it may help in establishing the needs of the age group most involved as well as in drawing innovative programs that could meet the needs of those involved. The age distribution of respondents is shown in Fig. 4.2

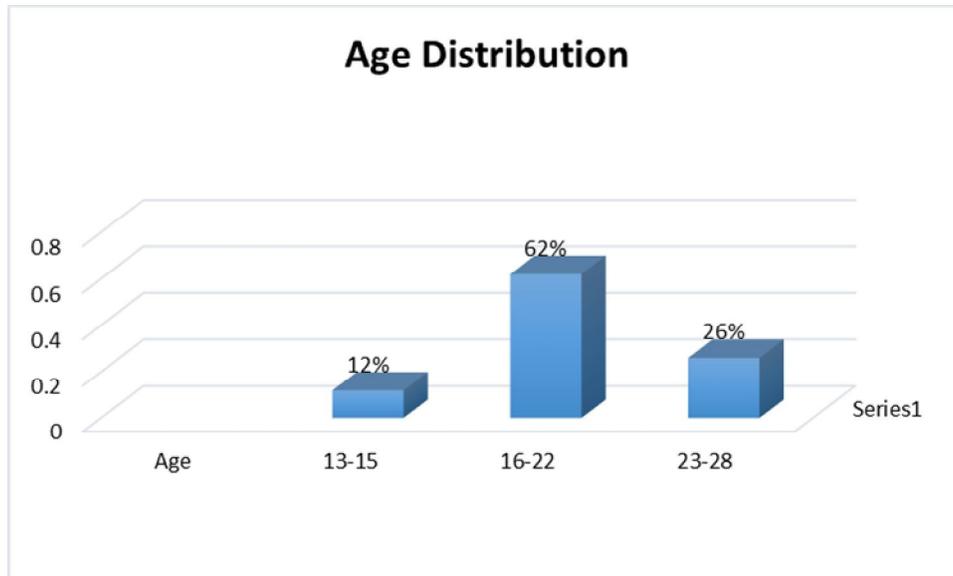


Fig .4.2 Age distribution of respondents

The chart shows that all respondents interviewed were in the age range of 13 to 28, which means the minimum age was 13 and the maximum was 28 with a mean of 21.2. Certainly this does not mean that migrants into the city were of this age group only. What this chart establishes though is that a large proportion of migrants are usually youngsters. The Figure reveals that youths aged 13-15 years contains 12 percent of the respondents. 62 percent of respondents were in the age group of 16 to 22; the rest 26 percent respondents were in the age group of 23 to 28.

4.1.3 Highest Educational Level

Given the ages of respondents, efforts were made to find out the educational level they attended before migrating. According to Oberai (1978), cited on (Asmame 2011), 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 above are more migratory than those who have not, 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.

The figure below suggests that most respondents left school in primary (34.6%) level. Quite a sizeable proportion either went to Junior Secondary School (26.9%) before migrating from home or migrated to their destination. Furthermore, 15.4 percent of the respondents were able to read and write and the rest 15.4 and 7.7 percent of the respondents were illiterate and preparatory levels respectively. A follow-up question sought to find out reasons why respondents did not continue school or why some did not even go to school. Findings show that the majority (70%) who were girls did not go to school or continue schooling in their communities because of high home burden and lack of parental support. Many noted that either their parents could not afford the basic necessities like school uniforms or other learning materials like pens and pencils for schooling. This is unfortunate because in order to promote education for all children, irrespective of their background, the government has made basic education free in rural areas. Likewise majority of male respondents left their school due to family problems; they were responsible to

support their family and as a matter of fact, therefore, they decided to migrate to the cities in order to find jobs and then generate income.

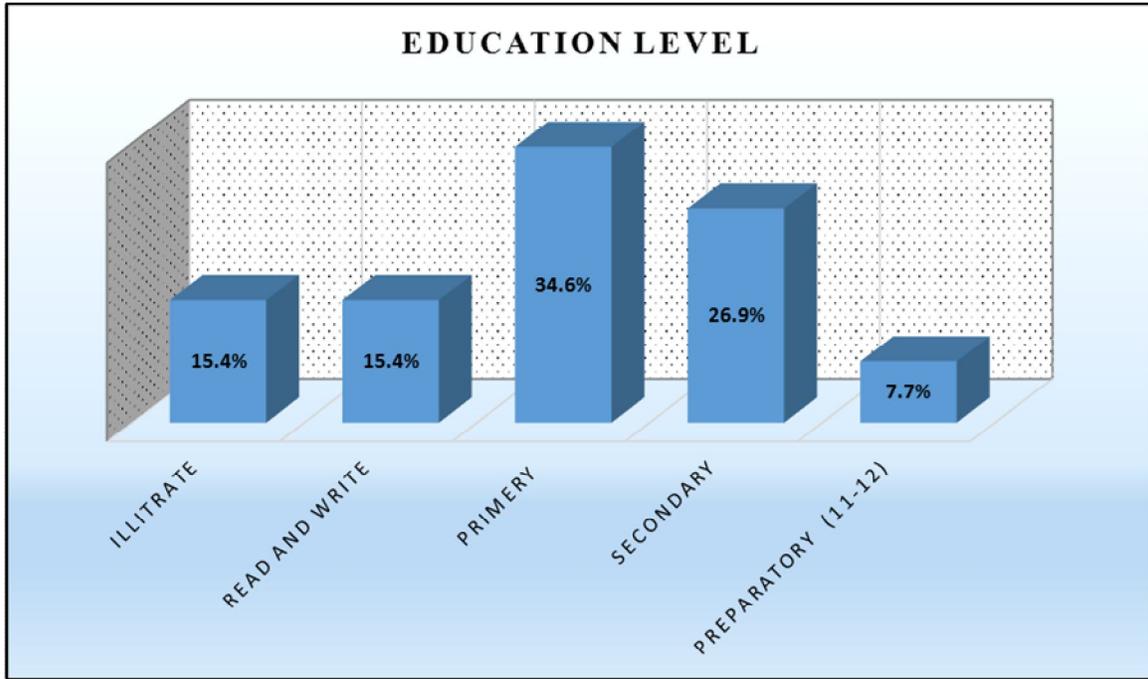


Fig. 4.3 Education level of respondents

4.1.4 Marital Status of Respondents

Apart from the other respondent characteristics the marital status of the samples were also analyzed; according to Asmame (2011), marital status is 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. As shown in fig.4.4, majority (61%) of the respondents was single and the rest 31 and 8 percent of the respondents were married and divorced.

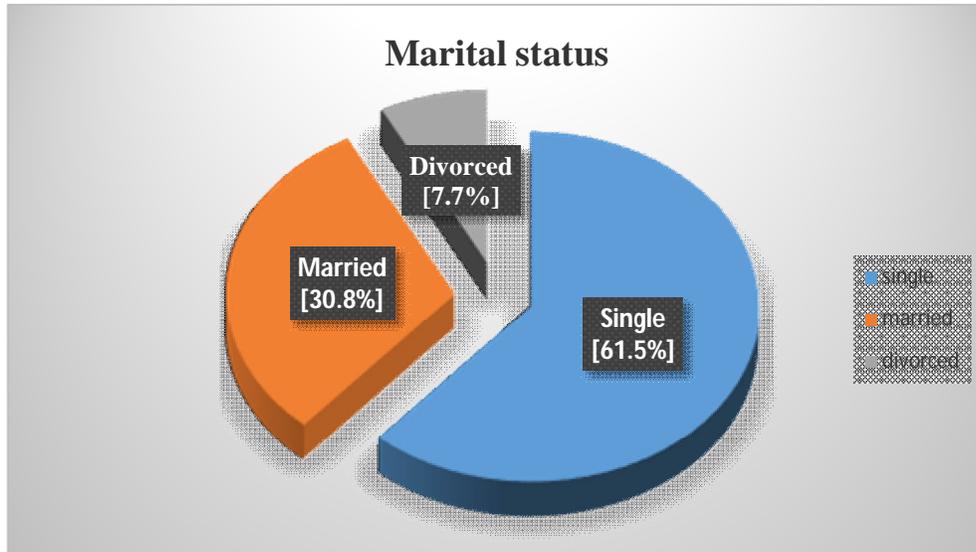


Figure 4.4 Marital statuses of respondents

Furthermore, close to 58 percent of the surveyed male in-migrants were single when they first migrated to Addis Ababa city. The corresponding figure for female migrants is about 100 percent. It was also found that 42 percent of the surveyed male migrants were married when they migrated to Addis Ababa city. It is also noticed that the proportion of married migrants was high on migrants whose origin was rural areas; this could be due to females of rural origin than urban origin that 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, 8 individuals were divorced where half of them were from urban and half of them were from rural areas, but the point here is all of them were females.

Generally, from the sample survey, one can understand that most of in-migrants to Addis Ababa were males who were single and married whose majority of them was originated from rural areas, and females were single and divorced, also whose origin was rural areas.

Table 4.1. Marital status in terms of sex and birth place

Sex of respondent * Marital status of respondents				
Sex of respondent	marital status of respondents			Total
	single	married	Divorced	
Male	44	32	0	76
Female	20	0	8	28
Total	64	32	8	104
Birth place * Marital status of respondents				
Birth place	Marital status of respondents			Total
	single	married	Divorced	
Rural	60	24	4	88
Urban	4	8	4	16
Total	64	32	8	104

Source: Own survey, 2017

4.1.5 Religion and Source Region of Respondents

Under this sub section the religion and birth place of respondents will be discussed. According to the data more than half (65%) of the respondents were comes from Amhara region, 15.38 percent of the respondents were comes from Oromia region, the rest 11.53 and 7.7 percent were comes from SNNPR and Tigray region respectively. Furthermore, respondents were follower of three types of religions, orthodox (69.23%), Muslim (19.23%), and Protestant (11.53%).

Table 4.2. Region were comes * Religion of respondents

Region where comes	Religion of respondents			Total	%
	Orthodox	Protestant	Muslim		
Amhara	56	0	12	68	65.38%
Oromia	4	4	8	16	15.38%
SNNPR	4	8	0	12	11.53%
Tigray	8	0	0	8	7.7%
Total	72	12	20	104	100%
%	69.23	11.53%	19.23%	100%	

Source: Own survey, 2017

4.2 The Pattern and Related Factors of Migration

4.2.1 Urban Vs Rural Migration

According to Taye (1990), recently due to rural-urban migration the populations of urban areas were growing at the rate of 7 percent. Over all male migrants dominate the female ones 73 vs 27 percent respectively. As shown in fig, 4.5, according to the finding of this study majority (84.6%) of the migrants came from rural areas, the rest 15.4 percent came from urban areas. However, the proportion of male migrants of urban origin was found to be much less than that of male migrants of rural origins. Accordingly, out of the total surveyed male migrants, about 72.72 percent came from rural areas while 27.27 percent were from urban areas. On the other hand, out of the total surveyed female migrants, about 85.71 percent came to Addis Ababa from rural areas; the rest came from urban areas (fig 4.5). In general, the proportion of rural origin is higher than that of urban origin. This happened maybe because rural areas are vulnerable to low facilities, low infrastructures and food insecurity. Hence, most rural youths preferred to move to cities/towns in search of employment opportunities and better life.

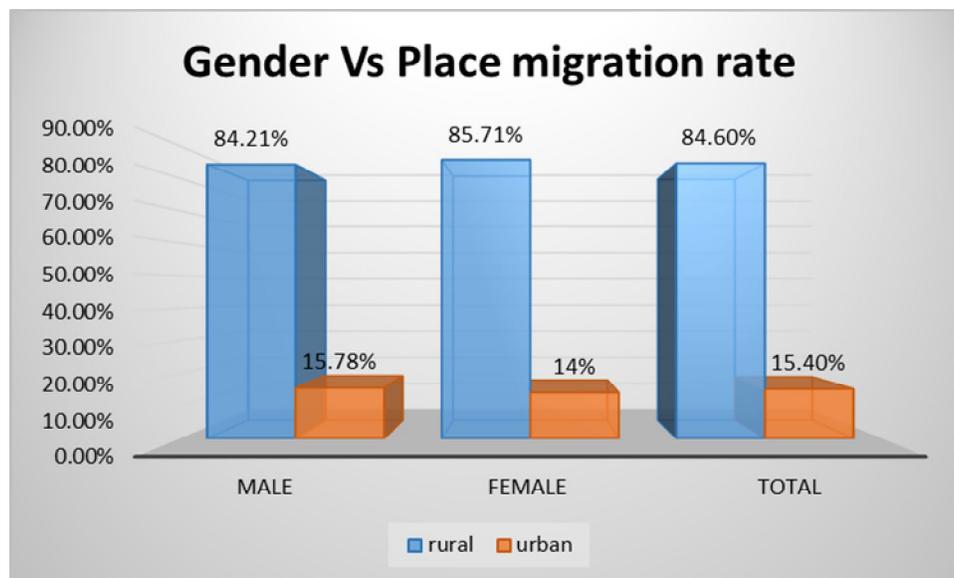


Fig 4.5 Gender Vs place based migration rate

4.2.2 Type and Source of Information

It is important to see how the rural people get access to urban information and their source of information since it had a great contribution on their decision regarding to stay or leave/migrate out of their place. In a rural family where the relationship is tight, the migrants have to think many times to come to a decision for migration. These people should also balance the pros and cons in choosing alternatives of staying behind and going out. To weigh all the challenges, they need some kind of information about the urban environment (Gebeyehu opportunities 2015). There are various factors involved prior to make the decision for rural-urban migration. Other than the problems of the rural areas and expectations of urban life, information flows that individuals receive are important inputs to migration decision. According to Asmame (2011), 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, probably based on unreliable information and inadequate knowledge.

According to the data collected from youth migrants more than 69 percent of them had information about Addis Ababa city, regarding living conditions and facilities such as housing, health care, employment and so forth before they decided to migrate, and the rest 30.77 percent came to the city without any information. Furthermore, those who had information about the capital city received two kinds of information, the first one was positive information which preached well about the city such as life is good and easy in Addis Ababa which usually pushes youths to decide as fast as possible since they need to have better life and change their life as well as their family, respondents who fall under this category account 94.4 percent of the respondents from the total youths who had the information. The second information was

negative which preached about the challenges and difficulties about the city and this accounts little (5.6%) proportion of the respondents.

Moreover, those who had information basically got the information from three main different sources: from their educational background, from other individuals whom they perceived they had adequate knowledge, and from their previous personal visit. Accordingly, out of those who had information majority (66.66 %) of the youth migrants heard the information through contacting people who know Addis Ababa, 16.66 percent of the youth migrants got the information from two different sources, from their previous personal visit to the city and through contacting people who know the city, likewise, the remaining 16.66 percent also heard the information from two sources, from their educational background and through contacting individuals who know the capital city (table 4.3).

Generally, even though the youth migrants got the information from multiple sources, however, the information generated by individuals who were perceived knowledgeable about the city takes the lion share of contribution.

Table 4.3 Access and source of information

Access of information before migration	Frequency	Percent
Yes	72	69.23%
No	32	30.77%
Total	104	100%
Source of information		
Source of information	Frequency	Percent
Contact with people who know the town	48	66.66%
Contact with people who know the town and Previous knowledge (personal visit)	12	16.66%
Education and Contact with people who know the town	12	16.66%
Total	72	100%

Source: Own survey, 2017

Migration from distant places is heavily dependent upon interpersonal influences among family, relatives and friends. Typically, one person, a family member, or friends migrate from rural area to a distant city. Upon finding jobs in that city the migrants usually write to relatives and friends “back home” or communicate them through phone or rural youths may be informed by migrant returnees, indicating that jobs are available in the city and perhaps telling them about some of the attractions of city life (Zelege 2011). According to Islam (2015), migration of the majority was decided by the migrants themselves, their parents after discussion with the whole family members, and by the prior migrants of their relative members and their friends. Likewise, in this study four categories of decision makers were noticed for youths to migrate. The first one was the migrant themselves, as seen in table 4.4, migration of the majority of the respondents (61.5%) was decided by the migrants themselves, 19.2 percent of the migrants reported that their migration was decided by both, themselves and their friends, 7.7 percent migrants confirmed that their migration was decided by their parents, after discussion with the whole family members, the remaining 12% of the migrants decision to move to Addis Ababa was mainly decided by both, the migrant themselves and their family together. Apparently, migrants were also asked how long had been since they migrated and lived in Addis Ababa; the maximum was 8 years and the minimum was 1 year. Furthermore, in terms of range, 46.2 percent of the youth migrants had been 1 to 3 years since they started to live in Addis Ababa, the rest 30.8 & 23.1 percent of the respondents were found to have spent 6 to 8 and 4 to 5 years in Addis Ababa, respectfully as well as since they migrated out their birth places.

Table 4.4. Decision maker for and total years of migration

Decision maker	Frequency	Percent		Total years since Migrated	Frequency	Percent
Own self only	64	61.5				
Family/Parents only	8	7.7		1-3	48	46.2
Own self and friends	20	19.2		4-5	24	23.1
Own self and family	12	11.5		6-8	32	30.8
Total	104	100.0		Total	104	100%

Source: Own survey, 2017

4.3 Factors Contributing to Rural-Urban Migration

The report of FAO (2016), indicates that there are seven basic causes of youth rural to urban migration, namely: Rural poverty, Food insecurity, Increased competition for natural resources and environmental degradation, Limited income-generating opportunities, Inequality, Low or stagnant farm productivity, and Remoteness and weak capital markets in rural areas. Furthermore, several reasons could be mentioned for population movement from place to place, According to Todaro (2003), there are two basic causes of migration the “Push” and “Pull” factors, people of a certain areas may be pushed off by war, poverty and other natural factors to move towards cities /towns. On the other hand, better employment opportunities or the need for better life 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 restrictions and obligations 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). However, nowadays many 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) cited on (Asmame 2011).

Based on the above mentioned points and referring to different literature six different possible causes of migration were identified; accordingly, migrants were asked to rank the reasons according to their experiences. In addition to this, respondents were also allowed to add other causes if they had any. Basically, respondents were asked to rank these six factors from the least to the most (one to six) according to their preference. Accordingly, the first and the main causes of migration were seeking job opportunities in the city as a result of severe problems in rural areas (such as landlessness) and to get a better climate, these two reasons were pointed out as a primary reason by 44 migrants, as a second reason or factor, migrants came to Addis Ababa to join immediate relatives and friends was mentioned by 36 respondents. Being free from cultural or family restrictions and obligations were the third causes of migration for the youths who were interviewed living in the study areas, these causes were selected as a third factor by 32 of the migrants, the last two reasons were to gain education and training and due to crop failure, shortage of land and poor facilities, and these factors were selected as the fourth and fifth causes by 30 and 22 migrants respectively (Table 4.3).

Apart from the above mentioned reasons, the data also show that 20 percent of the respondents left home because, for them, the city is a better alternative to the boredom in rural communities. The city, they noted, is devoid of some of the cultural pressures like forced or early marriage, farming and herding. This group craved for individualism which goes with anonymity in the city where no one is particular about control by elders and chores that support the good life of, mainly the adults sometimes at the expense of the development of the child.

Table 4.5 Description of rank of causes of migration

No.	Description of Factors Contributing to Rural-Urban Migration	Frequency of Rate of Factors						Total	Highest Value	Rank
		1	2	3	4	5	6			
1	To obtain job (seek employment)	44	37	8	16	4	5	104	44	1
2	Famine, poverty, crop failure, lack of oxen, land shortage, poor facilities	19	22	20	13	15	15	104	22	5
3	To free from cultural or family restrictions and obligations	8	4	16	28	16	32	104	32	3
4	To join immediate relatives and friends or following them	16	12	16	36	12	12	104	36	2
5	To gain education and training	7	11	15	28	13	30	104	30	4
6	To seek good climate	4	4	14	44	32	6	104	44	1

Source: Own survey, 2017

Furthermore, a comparative analysis was also made regarding the causes of migration between urban and rural migrants; hence, from the given six basic reasons four of them show a considerable difference between urban and rural migrants as shown below on fig.4.6 bar graph. As mentioned in the above paragraphs youths migrated due to crop failure, land shortage, and poor rural facilities, from those respondents who selected this particular factor as a migration cause majority (81.80%) of them were rural dwellers and only 18.18 percent were urban originate migrants. Likewise, from those respondents who reported culture and family restrictions as their reasons to migrate, more than 71 percent of them were originated from rural areas. However, those youth migrants who came to Addis Ababa to obtain job and seeking better life conditions, most of them were from urban areas. Accordingly, out of the respondents who mentioned these two factors as reasons, 73 and 59.09 percent of them were originated from urban areas respectively.

Generally, even though six different factors could be mentioned as causes for youths to migrate to Addis Ababa, nonetheless, basically two of them were basic reasons for urban dwellers and

the other two were for rural migrants. Hence, crop failure, land shortage, poor rural facilities, curiosity to be free from cultural practices and family restrictions were the basic ones for rural youth migrants; whereas, seeking good life conditions and obtaining job opportunities were the important factors for urban youths.

5

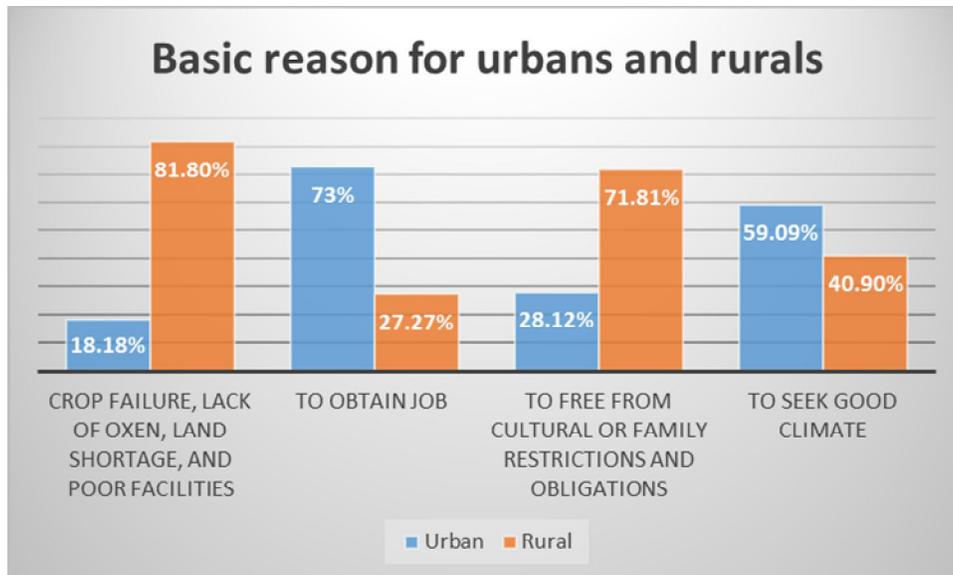


Fig 4.6 Dominant migration reasons for rural and urban youths

4.4 Consequences of Migration on the place of Destination and Post-Migration

Phenomena's

Understanding the negative or positive effect of migration is less well developed, this is due to the consequences of migration on both places of origin and destination is very intricate and requires meticulous understanding of a number of behavioral circumstances. However, the consequences of migration in general depend on the number and volume of migrants, the degree of flow of capital, and the type and characteristics of migrants themselves that dominate the migration (Asmame 2011).

According to Lewis, (1982), cited on Bimerew, (2015) the consequences of migration can be viewed from two dimensions; on the first place migration results in excessive urbanization, income inequalities, unemployment, and ecological stress, on the other hand migration has considerable importance for economic growth, facilitating industrialization, equilibrating tendencies, improve income distribution, introduce technological changes in agriculture, and ultimately, over all migration is the right of human being in pursuit of improving welfare and ensuring one's destination. Furthermore, rural urban migration has various economic, cultural, social and demographic effect on both destination and origin areas (Bimerew 2015).

When the number of people that arrive in the urban center increases the less the job opportunity, and the higher the unemployment rate will be, thus there will be more labor forces that search the existing too few jobs which may lead to straining the government resources. Rural to urban migration creates pressure on housing and the environment, as migrants arrive at their urban destination from rural areas, their first resident will be the streets and makeshift sub-standard accommodation before organize and establish them-selves. Furthermore, the high population growth rate in urban areas reduces the quality of life due to its influence on resources such as distraction of forests and water pollution. Rural-urban migrations also create the rate of crime due to overpopulation of the urban centers (Gimba & Kumshe 2004).

Although there are common consequences of migration all over the world, however, sometimes the effects of migration may differ from place to place. Accordingly, the result of this study which specifically concerns the consequences of migration to Addis Ababa is discussed below.

4.4.1 Socio-economic Problems Encountered Migrants while Arriving Addis Ababa

Individuals may take rational decision to leave their places with the anticipation or hope of better life conditions in their destinations. This is always a decision under risk and uncertainty taken under positive perception of certain information and knowledge. Many young people are excited at the prospect of leaving home to settle in another place. However, the period leading up to their departure to their destination may present variety of challenges. Youth migrants whose destination was Addis Ababa, Bole and Addis Ketema sub-cities basically confronted five different types of problems during the time of arrival, namely: shelter (house), food and related consumer items, inability to obtain social services and other amenities, inability to obtain jobs, and cultural differences.

In fact, the migrants faced individual or a combination of those challenges listed above; others, according to the interviewees, did not face any difficulty at all. Accordingly, 23 percent of the youth migrants faced problems of housing, food, and inability to obtain social services; 3.8 percent of them were challenged by inability to find jobs, housing and food and 7.7 percent of the youth respondents replied that their major problems were house and lack of obtaining social services. Comparatively higher number, (30.8%) of respondents confirmed that they had many challenges in accessing all the above mentioned resources and services; finding jobs and obtaining social services were the critical problems for 11.5 percent of youth respondents. Apparently, the problem of finding jobs and adoption of cultural differences were the challenges of 7.7 & 3.8 percent of youth respondents respectively. In addition to this, more than 11 percent of migrants didn't face any kind of difficulties. In general, therefore, it was concluded that the main difficulties being faced by migrants were the inadequate supply of consumer items, housing

shortage, inadequate formal and informal jobs and scarcity of social of services and other amenities (table 4.6.).

Table 4.6 Problems faced by migrants during arrival

Problems	Frequency	Percent
Shelter (house), Food and related consumer items, and Inability to obtain social services and other amenities	24	23%
Shelter, Food and related consumer items, and Inability to obtain job	4	3.8%
Shelter, Inability to obtain social services and other amenities	8	7.7%
All problems	32	30.8%
Inability to obtain social services and other amenities and Inability to obtain job	12	11.5%
Inability to obtain job	8	7.7%
Cultural difference	4	3.8%
Faced no difficulties	12	11.5%
Total	104	100.0

Source: Own survey, 2017

Apart from the problems encountered by the migrants, the migrants were also asked could they still have decided to come to Addis Ababa from their birth place if they had known these difficulties before they moved; very fortunately, more than 69 percent of the youth migrants replied that they still would have come to Addis Ababa even if they had the worst information. According to the respondents they totally lost hope when they were in their birth places and as a result they decided to migrate. Furthermore, 30.8 percent of the sample respondents confirmed that they might not have come to Addis Ababa had they known the information about the challenges they were facing at the time of the interview.

The youth migrants were asked about their current challenges and problems they were facing, some of them responded that, basically they were confronting some common challenges. As a matter of fact majority of them had occupations working as permanent employees, daily laborers, and home servants. According to the data obtained more than half of the respondents were

employed in different government and private organizations, close to 15 percent of the youth migrants were found working as daily laborers. This may imply that employment rate was higher among migrants and highly competed the job opportunities of non-migrants. Close to 10 percent of the migrants were unemployed. Such migration of working force means loss of agricultural labor force in the rural areas which may lead to reduction of agricultural production. The other effect of migration in the areas of origin is its impact on labor distribution creating labor imbalances, particularly in the rural areas. As a result, agricultural production could be hampered and adversely affected because of dominance of labor by old aged, children and female population in the rural areas.

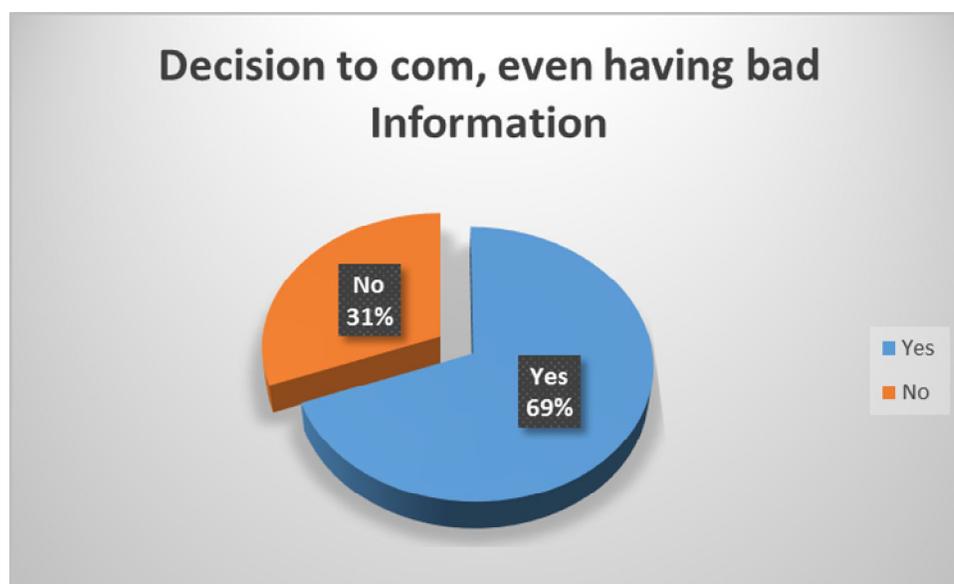


Fig 4.7 Migrant's decision to come with having bad information

4.4.2 Impacts of Migration on the Place of Destination

Rural-urban migration may have both positive and negative impact on the host environment and destination place. Rural-urban migration has contributed to the development of the city and

overcoming labor shortage of the urban areas. According to Devereux *et al.* (2003), rural-urban migrants have considerably played an important role in supplying cheap labor to towns /cities and the largest percentage of the manual labor demand of the city has been supplied by migrants. On the other hand, according to Belay (2011) migration has its own negative effect on the destination site such as exerting pressure on urban resources such as housing, transportation, urban unemployment and crime, and environmental pollution. Accordingly, information was gathered regarding the positive and negative effect of migration, according to the key informants and migrants, it is mostly the rural-urban migrants who are contributing the largest share of labor demand, including daily laborers, construction works, hotels and households servants and materials loading and unloading etc. in Addis Ababa city, specifically in the study areas. Furthermore, regarding the existing socioeconomic changes observed during the study of the areas, information was also gathered from selected individuals who were believed to be senior residents and district municipality officials. Basically the questions focused on the existence and patterns of violation and crime rate, housing demand, population growth rate, change in labor force and other related activities. According to the key informants, since the past six to seven years the crime rate and violation was reported to have increased, especially at night time; the severity of the problem was mentioned to be higher during the nights than during the days. Furthermore, the negative impact of rural-urban migration on the host environment was also explained that the number of unemployment in the city was increasing. As a result of the ever increasing of unemployment, it was learned that the urban dwellers, especially the young ones have negative attitudes towards the migrants because they consider them as the burden to the city by creating unemployment. On the other hand, migrants themselves acknowledged that there are crimes committed by other members of them who again eroded the social security of the capital

city. Lall *et al.* (2006), explains that rural-urban migration overcrowded cities even though most cities do not have the right capacity to absorb the pressure and to provide the necessary public services for the increasing population. Such condition has created conducive environment for the expansion of slum locations and criminal activities. In addition, the increase of population flow to urban areas has created inequalities between rural and urban areas. As a result, some governments have adopted policies to restrict rural-urban migration.

Furthermore, according to Alemante *et al.* (2006), it is difficult for the urban administration to have proper record of urban residents, lack of proper record concerning residents made it difficult to control certain criminal activities like robbery and attacks on individual properties and in some cases life of residents. Unplanned urban growth further contributes to the displacement of farmers around expanding towns. This further aggravates production shortfall and family disruption. Displaced family members may decide to join urban where there is no job opportunity.

There are also other groups who may be exposed to diseases for economic reasons, especially the female youth migrants. Apart from daily labor works, the young female migrants with their little knowledge about sexually transmitted diseases are usually involved in prostitution and as a result they are likely to be exposed to serious diseases. Hence, the end result could be worst to them if they practice unsafe sex as it is the major means of transmitting diseases. This reality was observed while conducting this study. According to Belay (2011) such diseases are common among young male migrants who return back to their place of origin for the purpose of marriage. Unless voluntary testing and counseling is undertaken before marriage or sexual relationship, there could be probability for dissemination of sexually transmitted diseases as migrant males may not be abstained from sex while living in the capital city. In generalizing the above

conditions the participants stated that rural-urban migration to the big cities with little educational background would make the migrants more exposed to the diseases and hence to be potential transmitters of HIV/AIDS and other unknown sexually transmitted diseases to the rural areas communities .

Another important points raised by the interviewee key informants were cultural paradox; the participants said that migration is not the basic problem, but the migrants involvement in unaccepted activities like prostitution, loss of traditional culture and dominance of urban way of clothing and hair style. Some migrants were also seen on the streets of Addis Ababa involved in begging which is not totally accepted by the rural people who proudly depend on traditional culture and norms. Regarding bad experiences, some migrants were observed immersed in drug addiction which is solely urban culture. The researcher was able to observe some migrants while chewing chat and heavily smoking cigarettes which are totally condemned and unaccepted behaviors by the rural traditional societies where most of the migrants came from.

4.4.3 Future Plans of Migrants

As we have seen in the earlier part of discussions some of the migrants reported that they are still in some serious problems after they came to Addis Ababa. Thus, an investigation was made as to whether those conditions were forcing them to leave or otherwise.

According to the data presented in Table 4.7, about 72 percent of the sampled youth migrants reported that they are planning to leave Addis Ababa; the rest confirmed that they don't have any plan to leave Addis Ababa. Out of those respondents who decided to leave their current resident 16.66 percent of them decided to move to their birth places, others, about 16.66 percent of

migrants also decided to move to other urban areas. Likely, 22.22 & 1.38 percent of the migrants planned to move out of Ethiopia to Arab countries and South Africa respectively, all of the respondents who decided to move to Arab countries were females. The rest (43.05%) of the migrants who have decided to move out of Addis Ababa do not know where and when to go.

Furthermore, the migrant respondents also justified their reasons why they want to leave Addis Ababa; accordingly, out of the total surveyed migrants that had plans to leave Addis Ababa, about 34.72%, lack of employment opportunity and housing problems were their critical reasons for leaving the city, again about 34.72% respondents reported that rising cost of living was their compelling reason for leaving the city. Moreover, about 25 percent of migrants who planned to leave Addis Ababa reported that they would leave the city because of both reasons that are lack of employment opportunity and rising cost of living. The rest 5.5 percent of the youth migrants decided to leave the city for the purpose of helping their families.

On the other hand, out of the total respondents who decided to stay in Addis Ababa, 43.75 percent of them confirmed that they had decided to stay in the city because, as to their reliable information and personal perception, other towns or areas would not have better opportunities, still 37.5 percent of the youths also replied that life in rural areas is as usual much worse than in towns or cities, hence they preferred to stay in Addis Ababa, 6.25 percent of the migrants replied that they want to stay in Addis Ababa hoping things would be improved in the future, and the rest 12.5 percent of the youth migrants replied that for the time being they couldn't bring any tangible reason why they are staying or do not want to stay in Addis Ababa as conditions of life are always changing, some times good and some other times bad.

Table 4.7 Description of respondent's future plan

	Plan to move to another place				
	Yes		No		
	Frequency	Percent	Frequency	Percent	
	72	69.2%	32	30.8%	
Reason to go	Freq.	%	Reasons not to go	Freq.	%
Housing problem and Lack of employment opportunity	25	34.72%	Other towns have no better opportunities	14	43.75
Rising cost of living	25	34.72%	Life in rural area is much worsens than in towns, hence, no point to return to rural areas	12	37.5%
Lack of employment opportunity and Rising cost of living	18	25%	I Hope things will improve	2	6.25%
To help my Family	4	5.5%	I don't know	4	12.5%
Total	72	100%	Total	32	100%
Where to go	Freq.	%			
To my birth place	12	16.66%	--	--	--
to another urban area	12	16.66%	--	--	--
Arab countries	16	22.22%	--	--	--
South Africa	1	1.38%	--	--	--
I don't know	31	43.05%	--	--	--
Total	72	100	--	--	--

Source: Own survey, 2017

CHAPTER FIVE

CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATION

5.1 Conclusion

Rural-urban youth migration is a growing phenomenon. This thesis examines causes and consequences of migration and the experiences of youth migrants including their challenges they faced in the destination place using a set of data that enable mapping of youth migration from rural villages to Addis Ababa. The researcher investigated causes and consequences of migration decisions using the data gathered from the migrant themselves. The researcher examined migration experiences, including challenges faced by migrants, using survey data collected from tracked migrants and randomly selected self-employed youth in Addis Ababa. It is possible that our sample may not have captured youths that have done badly in urban areas because the researcher was not able to track all migrant youths from the villages in the sample. But it is believed that the collected data could give enough information to make some generalized observations about youth rural-urban migration in Ethiopia. The findings are summarized below: Most in-migrants to the city were found to be **of rural** origin. However, as Addis Ababa is the capital city of the country it attracts migrants from all corners of the country; most of them were from the dominant regions of the country. The majority of migrants were in their most productive ages, both demographically and economically. The city itself neither 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 were found to be too poor to contribute to the investment sector of the capital resources to the city's growth and development. A large number of migrants were single (unmarried) when they came to Addis Ababa city. The dominant divorcers were females of rural origin. Most of the migrants had formal education

before they moved to Addis Ababa. However, more males than females had formal education in both migrants of urban and rural origin. A greater number of migrants were either primary school level students or other unemployed individuals before they migrated to Addis Ababa. Among the employed who came from rural areas most of them were farmers. Furthermore, most migrants moved to Addis Ababa basically for the purpose of economic reasons such as seeking of employment, because of crop failure that happened due to drought and in search of gainful education and training services. On the other hand, some of them moved to Addis Ababa for non-economic reasons such as to be free from cultural or family restrictions and obligations, and to join relatives or friends in the city.

Migration has its own positive and negative effect on the destination sites, the findings of this study confirms that rural-urban migrants are contributing the largest share of labor demand; furthermore, migration causes unaccepted consequences like prostitution, loss of traditional culture and dominance of urban way of clothing and hair style. The migrants were also seen involved in begging which is not accepted by the proud rural people who totally depend on traditional culture and norms. In addition, regarding bad experiences the researcher was able to learn that some migrants were noticed to be immersed in drug addiction which is the reality in urban culture.

In conclusion, it could be stated that a large proportion of migrants were observed to be adolescents between the age of 10-24 years who should have been in school or in some sort of business like trading or skilled work. Those who decided to migrate were driven out from their home communities by overwhelming predominance of push factors over pull factors. Results indicate three major factors that lead to the youth migration phenomenon; namely: Crop failure,

inability of parents to play their constructive roles on their children; and poor job availability in the rural areas as well as curiosity to be free from cultural and family obligations.

5.2 Recommendation

This study finds that there is a significant level of out-migration from rural areas to different urban centers, particularly to Addis Ababa. The youth migrants in the sample areas were found predominantly engaged in productive employment and in furthering or improving their educational level in formal and informal ways. The researcher was able to learn during his study that the migrated youths in the sample areas generally seemed to be well adjusted in their new destination due to the immense construction works that are undergoing in the city. But the question is, will the city absorb or accommodate more migrants that are continuously flowing from rural areas into the city in an alarming manner? While conducting this research a considerable number of migrants were noticed facing some challenges and vulnerabilities that may have awful consequences. Therefore, against the background of the findings and discussions, the following are some of the main / important recommendations of this study. It is recommended that the Government should find and introduce more innovative strategies to all rural areas in general and to the rural communities where the migrants under this study came from, in particular in order to empower them and to enable them do activities that could generate adequate income which could give better livelihoods to parents and rural youths, especially to the northern part of the country rural areas where out- migration is high, This should certainly be done alongside with modern family planning and programmed activities so as to enable parents have the number of children they want in accordance to their resources. It is recommended that

more small-scale studies of this nature should be done in various rural communities on the issues related to push-pull factors for the migration of young people into the city and nearby towns.

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APPENDIX

Questionnaire

Department of Rural Development

Dear Sir/Madam

This questionnaire is designed to assess *Causes of Rural-urban Youth Migration and Their Consequences on the Destination Place: the Case of Two Selected Sub- Cities of Addis Ababa, Ethiopia*. This project is being undertaken in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the award of Master's Degree (MA) in Rural Development. Please kindly complete these questions as honestly as you can. All information supplied will be used solely for the purpose of this study and will be treated with utmost confidentiality. Your cooperation will be highly appreciated.

Thank you in advance.

Yours faithfully,

SECTION A – INTERVIEWEES ADDRESS

Date of interview _____

Wereda _____ Kebele _____ House number _____

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. protestant 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
 H.12+special training I. College/University graduate

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.
4. What was your age when you last moved to live in Addis Abba? _____ Year.
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 Addis Ababa?

- 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 Addis Ababa?

- 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 Addis Ababa and place of your birth? _____ Kilometer.

11. When did you out migrate from the place of your birth?

- A. Before 1985E.C B. 1985-1995E.C C. 1995-2000 D. after 2000

12. When did you come to Addis Ababa to live?

- A. Before 1985E.C B. 1985-1995E.C C. 1995-2000 D. after 2000

SECTION B – MIGRATION RELATED QUESTIONS

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 Addis Ababa?
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. Spouse B. Parents C. Family D. Other (Specify) _____
4. After you moved to Addis Ababa, who came from your birth place to live with you?
A. Spouse B. Parents C. Family D. Other (Specify) _____
5. What was your main source of information to move to Addis Ababa? (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 Addis Ababa, 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 (life is easy in Addis Ababa) B. negative (life isn't easy in Addis Ababa)
8. Before you moved to live in Addis Ababa, did you have any relative or friend or parents living in Addis Ababa? A. Yes B. No

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) _____

Causes of migration

1. What was/were the main reason(s) for you to come to Addis Ababa? (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 Addis Ababa would offer you items you have chosen above?

3. What was your move to Addis Ababa?

A. Planned B. Unplanned

Problems faced by migrants after arrival in Addis Ababa

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

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 Addis Ababa, could you still have decided to move from your birth place or last place of residence?

A. Yes B. No

4. Do you have a plan to move to another place?

A. Yes B. No

5. If your answer to question 4 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)

6. If your answer to question 4 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. I Hope things will improve
 - D. Other (specify) _____
7. If you still to move out from Addis Ababa, do you exactly know where you want to move?
- A. Yes B. No
8. If your answer to question 7 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
9. What is your plan at old age?
- A. Stay in Addis Ababa B. Returns to place of origin C. Move to other place (not place of origin) D. Do not Know

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Approved /not approved

Date: -December, 2016

**INDIRA GANDHI NATIONAL OPEN UNIVERSITY (IGNOU)
SCHOOL OF CONTINUING EDUCATION**

A RESEARCH PROPOSAL

ON

**AN ASSESSMENT ON CAUSES OF RURAL-URBAN YOUTH
MIGRATION AND THEIR CONSEQUENCES ON THE
DESTINATION PLACE: THE CASE OF TWO SELECTED
SUB-CITIES OF ADDIS-ABABA, ETHIOPIA**

**SUBMITTED TO: INDIRA GANDHI NATIONAL OPEN
UNIVERSITY SCHOOL OF CONTINUING EDUCATION POST
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CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

1.1 Background of the Study

According to UNDESA (2015), in 2015, the number of international migrants reached 244 million. However, a considerably higher number of migrants – 740 million – moved within their countries, mainly from rural to urban areas or from one rural area to another (UNDESA 2013); and this figure is expected to rise. Migration is a complex phenomenon and a key component of livelihood strategies in rural households, which focus on minimizing risks and diversifying household income. There are many reasons for migration and they are interrelated at various levels (national, local, household and individual). Although civil unrest, war, ethnic conflicts and violations of human rights are certainly among the causes of migration, in many cases migrants decide to leave their community for economic and socio-cultural reasons to seek work elsewhere. The situation is compounded by increasing population pressure and a deteriorating natural environment (Deotti & Estruch 2016).

Migration has been also 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. 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“.

Rural-urban migration has been historically low in Ethiopia. But recent years have seen a surge in migration in all parts of Ethiopia. Although access to farm land is a constitutional right to village residents of Ethiopia, it has become difficult to fulfill this right for the young generation because of increasing land scarcity. This is particularly true for the highlands of Ethiopia where population densities have become very high. A recent study on rural youth livelihoods shows that the increase in farmland scarcity in the highlands of Ethiopia coupled with lack of non-farm employment opportunities in the rural areas have pushed youth away from their agricultural livelihoods and rural villages (Bezu & Holden 2014). On the other hand, the rapid expansion of urban centers with better education, technology, and other basic social services, attracts youths to towns and cities in search for better livelihoods (Bezu & Holden 2014b) .

Ethiopia is one of the least urbanized countries of the world where 18 percent of its population lives in urban areas. However, its rate of urbanization is one of the highest in the world, 4.1 percent (Ezra & Seyoum 1998). The rapid growth of urban population in Ethiopia and in many other developing countries has been largely due to rural-urban migration contributing almost half of their urban population growth. For instance, in 1994, about 44.7 percent of the urban residents in Ethiopia were migrants (CSA 2004).

It is apparent that the basic reasons for the drift of large numbers of people from rural to the urban areas are the relative improvement of different facilities and better living conditions in the urban areas compared to the rural areas is the main "pulling" factor. The pace of urbanization or the tide of migration to urban areas which is triggered by rural "push" factors is consistently higher than the capacity of new job openings and the provision of housing and others social services and amenities. Its effects are felt in wide spread urban unemployment, over-crowded housing and severe shortage of public amenities. Consequences of rapid urbanization are multi-faceted and requires timely responses by development planners and policy makers to deal with pressures created on the infrastructure of large urban centers by the influx of migrants, there is also view that the notion of migration should not only be seen from the viewpoints of its negative implications as it is also seen to play positive role in socio-economic development. The outflow of migrants, for instance, manifests itself in the changing labor market scenario in which migration is source of labor force to the urban economy (Bimerew 2015). A recent study on rural youth livelihoods shows that the increase in farmland scarcity in the highlands of Ethiopia coupled with lack of non-farm employment opportunities in the rural areas have pushed youth away from their agricultural livelihoods and rural villages (Bezu & Holden 2014). On the other hand, the rapid expansion of urban centers with better education, technology, and other basic social services, attracts youth to towns and cities in search for better livelihoods. In line with this therefore the purpose of this study is to assess the cause of youth rural-urban migration and its consequences on the destination place.

1.2 Statement of the Problem

Migration may be classified, based on attributes such as timing, direction and reason for migrating (Ogden 1984). Some common types of migration are based on origin and destination of migrants. This includes internal migration such as rural-urban, rural-rural, urban-urban, urban-rural or international migration when the migrants move from one country to another. In addition, migration could be classified based on the motivations and causes underlying movements. Thus, it could either be forced or involuntary migrations which include slave trade, trafficking in human beings, ethnic cleansings, refugee movement and other migrations which are due to political or religious pressure (Edwin & Glover 2016).

On the other hand, such movements could be free or voluntary based on economic or social factors such as labor, retirement or the opportunity for educational advancement. One kind of human migration related to timing is seasonal migration. This is a temporary short-term labor migration that corresponds with the change in season. This is quite different from a permanent move from which the migrant may never return. Standing (1985) argued that rural-urban migration could be a temporary measure; he asserts that migrant labor moves to the city for a season with the aim of returning when their services are needed in the rural area or if they fail to secure reasonable source of employment and income. Thus, such movement is for a period of time in response to labor or climate conditions such as farm laborers working in cities off - season.

Addis Ababa is the capital city of Ethiopia, which is ethnically diversified city; year to year the city received a huge number of migrants and still receiving from different parts of the countryside. The city has 10 distinctive sub-cities, comparatively among all two of the sub-cities,

Addis Ketema and Bole sub-cities have high number of crime rate and violations as well as they are the resident areas for high number of migrants. Various factors, including the quest for jobs and the desire to enjoy modern facilities like good schools, electricity, clean water, etc. have been cited as possible pull factors responsible for the situation. Many have argued that the upsurge of unemployment, parental neglect, and the gradual breakdown of social support networks in rural areas, especially have led to the phenomenon of large numbers of young people migrating into the cities to live on the streets. Some of these young people have become deviant, marginalized and isolated from society and thus became prone to crime and violence. The situation has generated a number of population, poverty and environmental problems in the target cities of these migrants. Migrants are exposed to environmental health risks because of pollution from domestic and especially, indiscriminate disposal of human excreta and refuse, choked drains and pools of standing water. The rising number of street children is one of the most disturbing symptoms of the wider economic and social problems (Edwin & Glover 2016).

Rural-urban migration is attributed to have both negative and positive consequences at community, household and individual levels (Regmi & Tisdell 2010). It is important to remember that, migration activities have implications for those moving, those left behind and those at the destination. Thus, rural-urban migration has implications for both areas i.e. sending and receiving and on migrants themselves (De Haan 1999). Regarding to the causative factors of rural-urban migration, “push and pull” factors are responsible for the tide of migration to urban areas of Ethiopia (Zelege 2011).

Due to the varied factors of migration (push and pull), currently, there is excessive movement of people to Addis Ababa. It is migration from different parts of the country that accounts for over 54% of the yearly population growth of the city (Eshetu, 2005) cited on Taddele *et al.* (2006).

Nowadays, also pervasive movement of people towards the capital city has been observed. Thus, at the present time there is a continuous flow of people from different areas of the country side to Addis Ababa who have abandoned their role in the farms, and have engaged themselves in the urban informal economic sector. Thus, out migration of large numbers of people have a major impact on the society and economy of the origin places. Rural-urban migration is a form of labor migration and the people most likely to leave are those of working age. This trend of movement of rural people in to the city has militated agricultural development of the rural origin and causes other social influences. Although, these problems are of larger dimension, pervasive and are continuing unabated, research is scarce to monitor trend of movement of the people on a sustainable basis (Zelege 2011).

The fact that nowadays the migration of youths to Addis Ababa from different parts of the country's rural areas are pervasively increases like never before, hence, the severity of the problem makes the issue pertinent and timely. In line with this, thus, the motivation of this research is to fill this knowledge gap and add information on the existing situation of youth migrants and to study the main factors behind the movement of the rural people and its consequences on the destination place. Therefore, the purpose of this study will be to assess rural-urban youth migration and its consequences on the destination place

1.3 Objectives of the Study

1.3.1 General objectives

- The general objective of the study is to assess the causes of rural-urban youth migration; and their consequences on the destination place

1.3.2 Specific objectives

- to examine the major causes of rural-urban migration
- to identify the socio-economic characteristics of migrants
- to assess the problems encountered by migrants
- to assess the consequences of migration on the destination place
- to recommend possible remedial ways and program interventions for strengthening support program activities in rural areas for rural youths and returnee migrants

1.4 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 will 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 and 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.

1.5 Scope of the Study

The study focus will be limited on Two Selected Sub-Cities (Addis Ketema and Bole) of Addis Ababa. In terms of concept this research will try to see the causes and their consequences of migration, however, the concept of consequence will be limited to the destination area of migration, it may not include the effect of migration on the areas of origin due to time and budget constraints.

1.6 Organization of the Study

Generally the thesis will be organized in five chapters. The first chapter will cover the introductory part including problem statement, objective and significance of the study, and scope and limitation of the study. Chapter two will deal with a review of related literatures; Chapter three will present a general background of methodology. Chapter four will explain how the data will be analyzed and interpreted. The fifth and last chapter will state a conclusion and provide recommendations as to how to solve the problems of rural areas that push youths to urban areas in the future.

CHAPTER TWO

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Theoretical Background

2.1.1. Basic Concept of Migration

Migration is a multifaceted phenomenon which in general involves the movement of people from one place to the other. Migration is a change of residence either permanently or temporarily. Migration can be defined in terms of spatial boundaries as internal and international. Internal migration is the movement of individuals within a country whereas international migration involves the flow of individuals between countries where national boundaries are crossed. The UN (1970:2) defines migration as: "... a move from one migration defining area to another (or a move of some specified minimum distance) that was made during a given migration interval and that involves change of residence." A migrant is also defined as:

"A person who has changed his usual place of residence from one migration-defining area to another (or who moved some specified minimum distance) at least once during the migration interval" (UN 1970:2) cited on (Assefa 2012).

The focus of the research is on internal type of migration flows specifically on rural-urban migration. Rural-urban migration is a movement of a rural resident(s) to an urban destination for different reasons. The area of origin (departure) is a place from which a move is made whereas area of destination (arrival) is a place where the move is terminated (UN 1970:2). Rural-urban migration can also be made either permanently or temporarily. Temporary migrants are rural family members who migrated to destination locations for a specific period of time and coming back to their origin. Permanent migrants are migrants who left their region of origin and start to

reside in the destination region on permanent basis. In this research, a rural household is called a migrant sending household if at least one of its family member migrates to destination location to earn wage income either in temporary or permanent basis.

Economic growth and development has long been associated with rural-urban migration in many economic publications. From the historical point of view, the current developed world in 19th and early 20th century have undergone different patterns of migration, predominantly rural-urban migration attributing to the process of industrialization and economic development. In addition, the percent of population living in the urban areas has grown rapidly and urbanization has been fueled by rural-urban migration (Bhattacharya, 1993; Waddington & Sabates-Wheeler, 2003 and Greenwood & Hunt, 2003).

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 environments and provide better employment and income opportunities. But recently, it seems that push factors seem to be increasingly powerful.

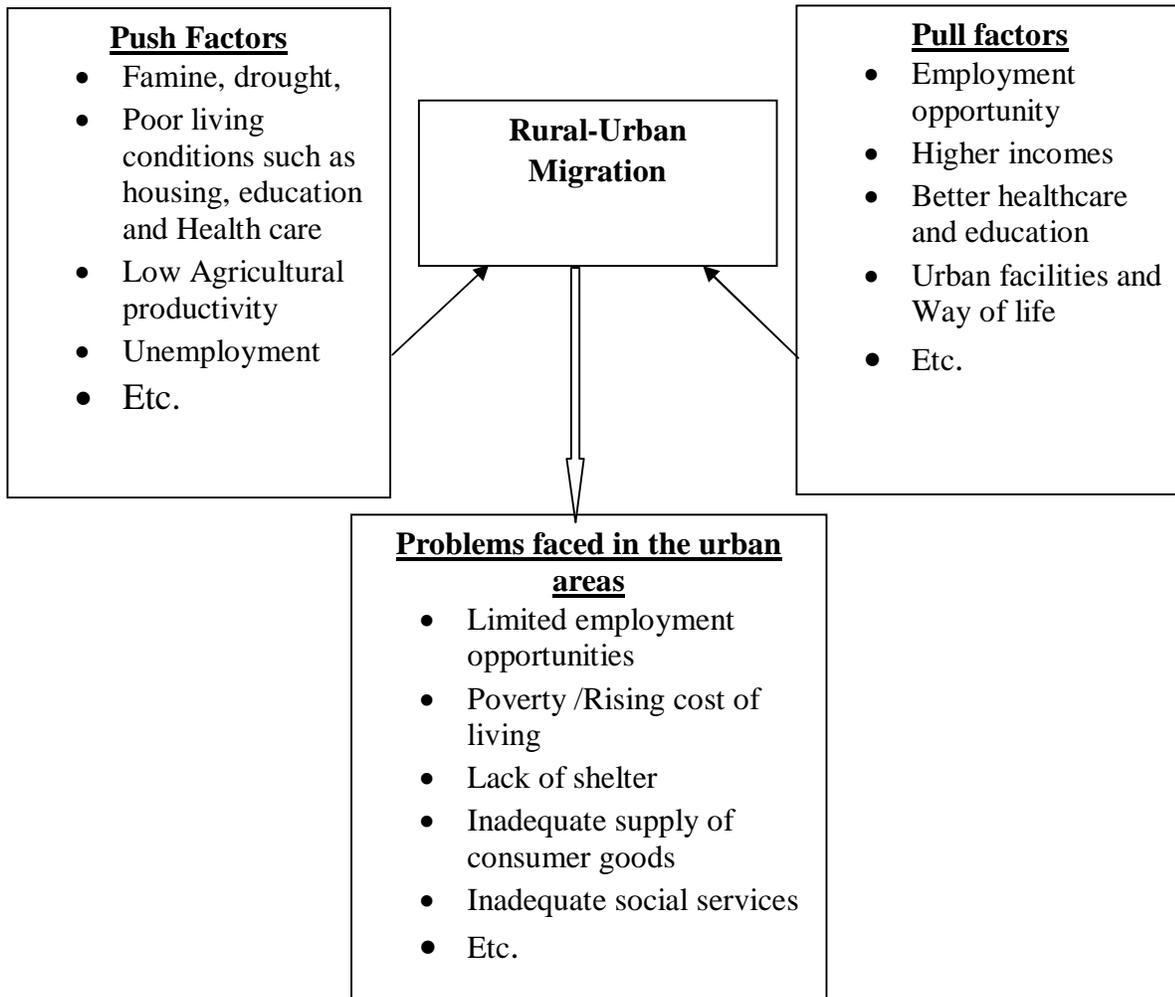


Figure 2.1: The conceptual framework for the analysis of rural-urban migration

Adopted from: (ASMAME 2011)

2.1.2 Rural-Urban Migration

Migration is the movement of people from one geographical location to another, involving permanent or temporary settlement. The region where people are leaving is referred to as the source region whereas the region to which people are entering is known as destination region. While rural-urban migration is the movement of people from rural areas (villages) to urban centers (cities). One noticeable aspect in the society today is the rate at which people migrate from the rural to the urban centers. While the urban centers are increasing in population, the rural areas are decreasing in population. The migration literature has come to regard rural-urban migration as “the major contributing factor to the ubiquitous phenomenon of urban surplus labor and as a force which continues to exacerbate already serious urban unemployment problems” (Todaro, 1976) cited on Gimba & Kumshe (2004).

Theoretically migration is defined simply as a process of personal movement from one area to another. It usually takes place at a variety of scale; intercontinental (between continents), intercontinental (between countries of a given continent), and interregional (with in countries) (NGS 2005). However, the nature of migration and the cause for it are complex, and there is no general agreement among researchers on the cause of migration.

Arguments about the difference on migration causing factors exist not only among researchers from different discipline, but also among researchers within one discipline (Timalsina 2007). Thus, concepts and approaches of classifying migration are other important aspects of migration

study. Any classification of migration is difficult to formulate and understand because it takes into consideration numerous criteria or stimulating factors of varying nature (Vyanga, 1981 cited in Sinha 2005).

Migration is usually categorized depending up on the type of political boundaries crossed (for internal and external/international) (Weeks 1989). Depending upon length of time, it is said to be short-term and long-term migration as well as temporary and permanent migration (McDowell & De Haan 1997). On the basis of distance, it may be classified as short distance and long distance migration, members involved (individual and mass migration), decision making (voluntary and forced migration), social organization (family, class and individual migration), causes (economic and non-economic) and aims (conservative and innovative) (Sinha 2005). Depending up on rural-urban nature of the area, migration becomes, rural-rural, rural to urban, urban to rural and urban to urban (Clarke, 1987 cited in Sinha 2005).

One of the most significant migration patterns has been rural to urban migration, i.e. the movement of people from the country side to cities in search of opportunities (Rwelamira 2008). Moreover, the common types of rural-urban migration are circulating in the following forms including step migration (village-town-city), circulatory (village-city-village), seasonal (migration associated with periodic labor demand) and chain migration (where migrants follow their predecessors, and assisted by them in establishing an urban area) (Lynch 2005).

Rural-urban migration is the movement of people from the countryside to the city. It can either be voluntary or forced. In most developing countries, especially in Sub Saharan Africa, a shift

from subsistence to cash crop production or manufacturing has resulted in the temporary or permanent exodus of men, and sometimes women, from rural communities to urban areas in search of wage employment opportunities (Deshingkar & Grimm 2005). Much of this migration is relatively long-distance to the larger cities and manufacturing center (Zhao 2003). However, there are also smaller moves, typically undertaken by poorer people, to smaller towns where they work as laborers, small traders and/or artisans (Dao 2002).

2.1.3 Causes of Rural Youth Migration

Most studies have shown that the decision to migrate is generally made by the individual or household making the move (Clarke, 1986:7 cited on Asmame 2011). However, according to McGee, (1975:236) cited on Asmame (2011) many migrants especially wives and children, do not actually make the decision. The decision to migrate depends on a wide range of factors (Gmelch & Zenner 1996). It is not easy to assess the influences of the complex factors affecting the decision to migrate and the choice of destinations (Jansen 1970:23, cited on Asmame (2011).

In spite of their complexity, the 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 (Kinfu 2003). Furthermore, the lack of decent employment opportunities in rural areas in both on-farm and off-farm self-employment and wage employment is the direct consequence of a number of other context-linked factors, which can be referred to as the root causes of migration (FAO 2016). Some of the determinants of migration which was identified from literature are discussed below.

2.1.3.1 Poverty and Lack of Opportunities in Rural Areas

More than 75 percent of the world's poor reside in rural areas and depend on agricultural production for subsistence (FAO 2014). However, agriculture can only absorb a certain proportion of the labor force (Mutandwa et al. 2011), given the persistently low agricultural productivity, the poor use of technology and the limited purchasing power in rural areas. Rural labor markets do not function well; furthermore, the seasonal nature of agricultural labor results in strong fluctuation in wages and employment opportunities and in poor working conditions, especially for youth. The rural poor have insufficient access to resources and services, due to a low level of investment in market-oriented and social infrastructure (e.g. roads, agricultural water management, storage, assembly, wholesale and retail markets, as well as schools and hospitals) (FAO 2010). They also have poor access to social protection program.

Poverty is still one of the most serious problems in the world. Many existing development policies take poverty alleviation into consideration, which has led to much economic advancement. It is estimated that over 1 billion people in the world still live in poverty. In the developing world, urban poverty is persistent, with the majority of the poor living in rural areas, hence it is in these areas that poverty alleviation policies should be concentrated (ILO 1995). The

most valid assumptions when generalizing about the poor in rural areas, is that they are dispersed all over the poor regions. Among minority groups and indigenous peoples, women, (whether or not they are housewives), and children account for the larger percentage (Todaro 2003, cited on McCatty (2004). According to (Todaro p.229), about two thirds of the poor in rural areas get by and sustain their lives with subsistence farming either as small farmers or working on land owned by other people. The other third are engaged in small scale activities.

Poverty profiles for developing countries characterize the poor as being agricultural households with little arable land. In an agricultural based economy, where poor residents lack access to resources and there is a high level of inequality and an inequitable distribution of assets, non-farm labor becomes an important source of income for the poor. Especially in the cases of small farmers and non-land owners who account for the majority of agricultural laborers, there is a heavy dependence on the rural labor markets for a huge portion of their incomes. How the rural labor market functions and the wages being offered, have an important impact on the state of poverty in all countries of the developing world.

2.1.3.2 Food Insecurity

In the Horn of Africa, 40 percent of the populations are undernourished and almost half live in areas prone to extreme food shortages. The same can be said for other African sub-regions. A recent study by the World Food Program (WFP) and IOM (2015) in Latin America revealed positive correlation between food insecurity and migration. Indeed, assessments conducted in drought-affected areas in 2014 highlighted that migration was a widely implemented coping strategy for dealing with deteriorating food security, adopted by 5–12 percent of all households

interviewed. Yang and Choi (2007) found similar results for the Philippines, with young adults migrating in response to weather shocks.

2.1.3.3 Urban Job Opportunities

Many factors influence people's decisions to relocate to urban areas, a disproportional number of these migrants are young adults, all of whom move to the cities for various, albeit mostly economic reasons. The majority of migrants to cities is young and has higher levels of education. They migrate because they have longer prospects of earnings and their probability of getting hired in the urban areas is higher. Employment in urban areas can fall under two broad categories, firstly the formal sector and secondly the informal sector. The formal sector characterizes all activities that are recognized by the government as being legal in nature and providing tax revenue. Traditional occupations such as banking, office clerks, and plumbing would fall under this category. These jobs tend to pay more than jobs in the informal sector, and they garner a greater deal of respect. Many migrants who move to cities would like to obtain a job in the formal sector, but find it difficult to do so. They need to have a certain level of education to be able to compete with the urban residents for these jobs. Worker productivity and income tend to be higher in the formal sector than the informal sector (McCatty 2004).

Workers in the formal sector enjoy job security, proper working conditions and retirement pensions. The second category, the urban informal sector, unlike its formal counterpart, includes all activities that are unregulated and small scale in nature. Not much attention was given to this unregulated, unorganized and mostly illegal sector till the 1970s. Observations were made in several developing countries that certain labor market activities failed to show up in statistics

relevant in the formal modern sector. The majority of the new workers in the urban labor force seemed to create their own employment and start their own businesses, or work for small-scale family run enterprises. The self-employed were engaged in variety of activities such as hustling, street vending, knife sharpening, prostitution, selling drugs and fire-woods. Other migrants found jobs as barbers, carpenters, mechanics, maids, personal servants and artisans. Others managed to become successful entrepreneurs with several employees making high incomes (Todaro 2003).

The majority of the workers entering the informal sector are recent rural migrants who are unable to find jobs in the formal sector. Their main reason for taking part in the informal sector is to use what little skills they have to earn enough income to sustain their daily lives. As mentioned before, urban informal sector activities can be labor intensive, the labor coming from every member of the household that is able to work. They work very long hours, sometimes making it difficult for the children to attend school regularly. The informal sector is connected to the formal sector, since it provides opportunities for people who are unable to find employment in the formal sector. While it serves as a conduit for excess labor to escape poverty and unemployment, depending on the developing country in question, wages in the informal sector are not much better than rural wages. Although living conditions and working conditions may not be better than in the rural areas, the informal sector wages have remained higher than the wages in the poorest rural areas. Migrants interested in getting employment in the formal sector, find the informal sector as a safety net to fall back on if things do not work out for them. The informal sector is therefore seen as a cause of rural-urban migration, because it lowers the risk of the individual being unemployed once they move to the cities.

2.1.3.4 Increased Competition for Natural Resources and Environmental Degradation

While it is hard to gauge whether environmental factors can be the sole driver of migration, there is no doubt that they have some influence by acting on the range of economic, social and political drivers that directly affect migration (Foresight. 2011). To mitigate climate-change-induced hazards and demographic growth pressures, rural communities sometimes adopt detrimental management practices, which degrade the land and water systems (FAO 2011); they may also resort to migration once their traditional livelihood strategies have been significantly eroded. In the online global survey conducted within the project “Facilitating youth access to agricultural activities”, supported by IFAD and FAO in 2012 (MIJARC et al. 2012), approximately 52 percent of young farmers cited access to land as the greatest challenge to farming. In a similar study in Ethiopia, almost 80 percent of respondents described the shortage of land as the major reason for migration (Zelege et al. 2008). Youth’s principal means for accessing land is inheritance, but prevailing inheritance laws and customs, as well as increasing life expectancy, are a hindrance. Moreover, the increasing fragmentation of family land can result in economically unviable parcels.

2.1.3.5 Limited Income-generating Opportunities

In rural areas, there are limited opportunities to engage in off-farm activities and few more attractive job prospects due to lack of investment and the scant socio-economic infrastructure. Youth lack the necessary training to improve their entrepreneurial, administrative, technical and social skills, and have only limited access to programs comprising opportunities for credit, savings, and insurance and matching grants. Existing small and medium agro-enterprises

2.1.3.6 Low or Stagnant Farm Productivity

SSA is the only region in the world where per capita agricultural productivity has remained stagnant over the past 40 years (Jama & Pizzarro 2008). It lags behind other developing regions in terms of the adoption of new technologies. Additional major constraints are market inefficiencies (Jack 2011) and high transaction costs (Kirsten et al. 2013), preventing SSA farmers from making productivity-enhancing investments. Moreover, aggregate data from 151 countries demonstrate that there is a wide “productivity gap” between agricultural and non-agricultural sectors (Gollin et al. 2013). Actual yields are considerably lower than potential yields, mainly due to climate change and rural population growth, which lead to overutilization and fragmentation of land. This situation is not compensated by increased use of improved seeds and fertilizers or adoption of drained irrigation systems (IFAD 2010); on the contrary, to compensate, family members engage in long working hours, limiting any opportunities to acquire new skills.

2.1.3.7 The Presence of Friends and Relatives as a Factor of Rural-Urban Migration

Many migrants are influenced by the presence of contacts such as friends and relatives or family members in urban areas and by the belief that these contacts can help the migrants move fairly and easily into jobs after arrival (Caldwell, 1969 cited in Adepaju (1982). Caldwell (1969 cited in IDRC, 1977) on his study showed that there is a very strong statistical association among both males and females between the presence of some rural household members in the town and the likelihood of other members visiting the city. The probability of becoming a rural-urban migrant appears to increase directly in response to the number of members of the household already in the city.

2.1.4 Consequences of Migration

According to Adaku (2013) in view of the fact that migration has been part of the economy, right from the supply and demand theories of Harris and Todaro (1970) and theories of rationality of the individual of Todaro and Maruszko (1987), it is quite clear that migration is no new thing. It is expected that agricultural households which have lost labor to migration will be able to adapt to shortage of labor. Existing methods of adaptation include transitioning to less labor intensive farming methods such as less labor intensive crops and mechanization (Jokisch, 2002). Mechanization has however been found to be inefficient in situations of decentralized small plots- which is the case in most parts of Africa- causing agricultural labor productivity to be below potential (White 2005).

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.

In many cases of migration economic gain has been the prime objective. The economic gain acquired by rural migrants from 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... Tiffen (1995) 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. 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).

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). According to Tiffen (1995) 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 the long turn can facilitate agricultural profitability.

Migration has significant influence on the population size of both receiving and sending areas.

As Standing (1984) 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). The UN (1991) 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 place 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 (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 1992).

Many scholars such as Adedeji & Rowland (1984) , Adejugbe (2004) and Todaro (1997), agreed that the drift of the rural populace to the urban areas has led to social, economic, environmental, physical, and other severe problems such as congestion in the urban centers which have increased the spread of communicable diseases in the centers, insufficient physical, and social infrastructural amenities such as, electricity, health, educational, recreational facilities, motorable roads, pipe borne water, housing are among others. This has caused overstretched use of physical and social infrastructural facilities. Other problems include: traffic congestion, unemployment, high crime rate – advance fee fraud (419), hired assassins, armed robbery, alcoholism, drug abuse, prostitution, hooliganism, health hazard from pollution; air, water, and noise, for example, toxic smoke from industrial plants and vehicles, inadequate refuse collection and disposal system, poor drainage system which results to flood and overflowing gutters and therefore causing cholera epidemics, growth of slums leading to shanty settlements, and long distance to work as well as serious traffic jam which makes commuters spend number of hours on the road to work and other places, cultural change, juvenile delinquency, and decline in traditional values.

Against these benefits, a major consequence of rural-urban migration is excessive urbanization. There is a very strong link between excessive urbanization and rural-urban migration. Migration has increased urban populations significantly over the years. A common view held by policymakers and economists in developing countries is that urban growth rates are excessive. This view is brought about by the large numbers of unemployed or underemployed young people in many Asian, African, and Latin American cities (McCatty 2004).

Most economists however, believe that urbanization is an inevitable consequence of rural stagnation and unsuccessful economic development, not an undesirable force that must be suppressed. Migration instead should be recognized as an equilibrating response to disequilibrium elsewhere in the economy. Excessive urbanization leads to high rates of city congestion, crime and poor infrastructure such as proper sewage systems, clean drinking water and other amenities. There is also the problem of chronic unemployment which is also a key cause of crime, as people need to find ways of putting food on their tables. Excessive urbanization has brought with it the creation of large slums and shanty towns, as new migrants find it difficult to get proper housing. In developing countries, slum settlements represent over one-third of the urban population; in many cases they account for more than 60% of the urban total (McCatty 2004).

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 diseases are important (Adepoju 1991). 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 sub-urban areas where lack of social services and police protection is pervasive (Zhao 1999).

Migration has increased urban populations significantly over the years. A common view held by policymakers and economists in developing countries is that urban growth rates are excessive. This view is brought about by the large numbers of unemployed or underemployed young people in many Asian, African, and Latin American cities (McCatty 2004). Rural-urban migration increases the urban population and hence unplanned urban expansion with insufficient supply of social services like housing, electricity, water supply, proper sewerage system, road networks and transportation system. 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.

It is also difficult for the urban administration to have proper record of urban residents. Lack of proper record concerning residents made it difficult to control certain criminal activities like robbery and attacks on individual property and in some cases life of residents (Alemante et al. 2006). They also contend unplanned urban growth further contributes to the displacement of

farmers around expanding towns. This further aggravates production shortfall and family disruption. Displaced family members may decide to join urban where there is no job opportunity. As Alemante et al. (2006) pointed out that, growths of streets', urban unemployment and higher proportion of unskilled migrants negatively affect the peace and security of the city. In the absence of proper waste management system, environmental pollution is another area of concern for the wider public. Urbanization is connected with a variety of policies, spanning demographic economic and environmental concerns. Growing of cities is often seen as the agent of environmental pollution and urbanization can place stress on the land through sprawl; coincident industrial development may threaten air and water quality (White 1999).

According to Todaro (2003) cited on Bimerew (2015) most of the migration conventionally linked to these urban issues was seen, as a conventional pattern of migration does not always lead to increase incomes and impacts of migration perhaps, the migrant may face obstacles in availability of job and loss of much human labor and social capital. Many in migrants are not in a position to find space and/or materials to accumulate the necessary resources and materials to build a permanent house and they are forced to erect and live in temporary dwellings on the streets. Cities of developing countries, over one-third of their populations have the possibility of living in squatter and slum settlements (Todaro, 2003)

2.1.5 Rural-Urban Migration in Ethiopia

Although very little is known about the pattern and rate of rural-urban migration in Ethiopia, available few literatures considered migration as an issue that has not yet grown to a serious

problem. The low proportion of people living in urban areas seems to keep migration issues at a low profile. The World Bank document (2008), quoted in Brauw and Mueller (2011:3) indicated that in Sub-Saharan Africa, where 36 percent of the population live in cities, Ethiopian urban residents remained below 16 percent. There might be various reasons for this level of low urbanization in Ethiopia, but according to Abate (1995), cited in Ezra & Kiros (2001), adequate research has not been conducted on migration in Ethiopia due to lack of data.

Despite levels of decisions, studies conducted on migration agree that there are important factors that would lead to migration decisions. Zewdu & Malek (2010) indicated that rural urban migration in Ethiopia could be triggered by low income generated in the agriculture sector and need to diversify activities in other sectors. However, the majority of cases in Ethiopia show that the poor have more inclination for migration than the rich. Unlike experiences in other countries, with diminishing income opportunities, the poor tend to migrate than the rural rich in Ethiopia (De Haan et al, 2000, cited in Zewdu & Malek (2010). Hence, the nature of the factors would happen to be more of problem driven.

Migration in Ethiopia causes both positive and negative aspects. On the positive aspect, migration contributes in meeting the labor demands of receiving areas, bringing back skills, and playing a key role in the diversification and improvement of household income (Degefa 2005). On the effect of rural-urban migration, different researchers state that migration leads in increasing population exerting pressure on urban social services in the host environment, as well as creating a shortage of farm labor, placing burden of responsibilities on the person who left behind (Bimerew 2015b). According to Hailu (1983) cited on Kederalah, (1991), movement of

people from rural to urban areas of Ethiopia has considerable significance for urban growth. The development of urban centers was, thus, at the cost of the rural areas (Taye 1990). Accordingly, the rural push due to the prevailing poverty conditions in the rural areas and not the urban pull or attractions that had been the main force for migration (Befekadu 1978). Furthermore, 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).

Environmental change does, in some cases, trigger migration. However, ascribing sole agency to environmental factors is likely to be overly simplistic as it ignores the importance of social factors in mediating the decisions made by individuals whether or not to migrate. People try to escape from livelihoods which totally depend on the availability of water; as it is a strategy for managing drought. To this end, permanent migration to cities/towns is undertaken by certain members of a household who settled in urban areas so as to attain the capital necessary for the start-up and running costs of equipment (such as irrigation pumps) which will mitigate the impact of increasingly variable rainfall patterns in the highlands to which the rest of their household remains exposed (Morrissey 2002).

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.(Asmame 2011) Tiffen (1995) 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. Migrants are everywhere doing all kinds of jobs mostly in the service and informal sectors.

According to the report of ICPS 49% of the current urban population in Ethiopia are first generation migrants. A closer examination of the migration stream shows that, among all migrants in Ethiopia, rural to rural migrants account for 37% while rural to urban migrants account for 33%. The rest are migrants between urban areas (19%) and those who migrate from urban to rural areas (11%). This indicates that historically there has been more movement of people within rural areas than between rural and urban areas or within urban areas. But the shift in recent years towards more rural-urban migration is also very clear from the data. Among recent migrants (those who migrated in the last five years before the survey), rural to urban migrants account for 39% while the rural to rural migrants account for only 27%. Addis Ababa is the most favored destination for migrants, attracting 43% of all migrants originating from different parts of the country (CSA 2013).

There are more female migrants than male migrants in Ethiopia. The share of migrants among the female population is 50% for urban dwellers and 9.3% among rural dwellers while the rates for the male population are 46% in the urban areas and 7.8% in the rural areas (CSA 2013). This may be partly related to the varifocal marriage system practiced in most parts of Ethiopia which entails a relocation of women to the village of their husbands at the time of marriage. But, of course, there are also other factors that drive the larger female migration, especially to urban

areas where the varifocal system is of less importance. In Addis Ababa, 63% of the recent migrants are female while among the non-migrant city population the male to female ratio is equal. Only 4% of these recent migrants report marriage arrangement as their reason for migrating to the city (Moller 2012).

According to the ICPS data, youths are the most mobile section of the society. Youth migrants account for 60% of the recent migrants (CSA 2013). But the report does not show migration disaggregated by source and destination for each group. However, the migration to Addis Ababa, according to the ETUMS study, provides suggestive evidence that youths have higher rural-urban migration rate than other age groups. The migrants in the age group 15-35 account for 51% of recent migrants while migrants in the next age group (35-55) account for only 24% of recent migrants.

2.2 Empirical Studies

Asmame (2011) employed descriptive statistics in order to find out the causes and consequences of rural-urban migration in Woldiya town, Ethiopia. To achieve the objective 500 migrant households were selected randomly from three kebeles of the town. Both primary and secondary data were employed and were analyzed both qualitatively and quantitatively. He found out that migrants came to Woldiya town in search of employment and to utilize urban services and education. He also contended that 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.

Atnafu et al. (2014) made a qualitative study on Poverty, Youth and Rural-Urban Migration in Ethiopia. Basically, the study explores the relationships between poverty and rural-urban migration in Ethiopia. The paper describes and analyses migration from a poor rural woreda (district) in northern Ethiopia, to the nearby city of Bahir Dar and the capital, Addis Ababa. According to their findings extreme poverty was one of the main driving factors behind the flows of migration. Furthermore, they argue that there are important non-economic factors and long-term strategies that encourage migration even where working conditions are hard and returns are low.

Zelege (2011) used a mixed approach research design to examine the push and pull factors of rural-urban migration and its implication on the place of origin: the case of Ankesha wereda migrant street vendors and daily laborers in Addis Ababa. The study further focused on the analysis of major factors for migration to Addis Ababa; the characteristics of migrants; challenges they face at the destination and positive and negative aspects of migration. The result of the study reveals that most of the migrants were dominantly young aged, single male, at the level of primary education and they were from female headed households. The major push factors were identified as landlessness, land shortage and lack of social services like school. Furthermore, they described that besides the above mentioned points the social networks in Addis Ababa also exacerbate migration. The migrants are involved in street vending and daily labor work at the expense of psychological benefits due to drop-out of their schooling, culture of the society at origin and low success of their migration.

Uddin & Firoj (2013) employed Descriptive statistics and ordinary least square regression model in order to investigate causes and Consequences of Rural- Urban Migration in Bangladesh: An Empirical Study in Chittagong City; more specifically the study used qualitative and semi-quantitative data analysis. They took survey of 100 randomly selected migrants and their families. From their analysis they found that poverty, job search, landlessness, homelessness, various natural disaster are the main push factors for rural out migration, while easy access to informal sectors and slum area, higher income probability, better service facilities are the main pull factors behind migration.

Edwin & Glover (2016) conducted qualitative research methodology based study for the purpose of investigating the causes of rural-urban migration of youth from northern Ghana to southern Ghana. More specifically, the aim of the study was to investigate the pull factors influencing in-migration and to investigate the push factors influencing out-migration. The study involved a cross-sectional survey conducted with a total of 89 respondents randomly selected from the list of beneficiaries of a NGO program, through questionnaire-based interviews, focus group discussions and participant observation. Results of their study show that major factors triggering migration comprise a complex mix of pull and push factors which include learning vocation, social amenities, freedom, general poverty, inability of parents to play their roles, and poor job availability in the rural areas.

CHAPTER THREE

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

3.1 Description of the Study Area

Addis Ababa is the capital city of Ethiopia, the seat of the African Union (AU) and the United Nations Economic Commissions for Africa (UNECA). It is situated between 80 55' and 90 05' North Latitude and 380 40' and 380 50' East Longitude in the central plateau of Ethiopia. It's covers an area of 540 sq. km. Addis Ababa is founded by the 19th century Ethiopian king Emperor Menelik II and his wife Empress Taitu in 1887 (Teshome, 2012). Due to its average elevation of 2,500 meters above sea level, Addis Ababa has a suitable climate and moderate weather conditions. Besides, for political and administrative reasons, the city is made to be structured in three tiers: City Government at the top, 10 sub cities Administrations in the Middle, and one hundred sixteen woreda administrations at the bottom (Mulugeta, 2011). It has a population of 3,384,569 according to the 2007 population census, with annual growth rate of 3.8%. This number has been increased from the originally published 2,738,248 figure and appears to be still largely underestimated.

The city is made up of urban and peri-urban areas, and is divided into ten sub-cities which are Addis Ketema, Akaki-Qality, Arada, Bole, Gulele, Kirkos, Kolfe-Keranio, Lideta, Nifasilk-Lafto, and Yeka sub-cities. The Addis Ababa city Council is responsible for administration of the city. Seven of the sub-cities have urban agriculture offices under their sub-city capacity building program offices; that is, except Arada, Addis-Ketema and Kirkos sub-cities. Based on Addis Ababa urban land use plan report (ORAAMP 1999), the total land area of Addis Ababa is 530.14 square-kilometers. As a chartered city (ras gez astedader), Addis Ababa has the status of both a city and a state. It is where the African Union is and its predecessor the OAU was based. It also

hosts the headquarters of the United Nations Economic Commission for Africa (ECA) and numerous other continental and international organizations. Addis Ababa is therefore often referred to as "the political capital of Africa" for its historical, diplomatic and political significance for the continent. The city is populated by people from different regions of Ethiopia. It is the home of the Addis Ababa University. The Federation of African Societies of Chemistry (FASC) and Horn of Africa Press Institute (HAPI) are also headquartered in Addis Ababa (fig 3.1)

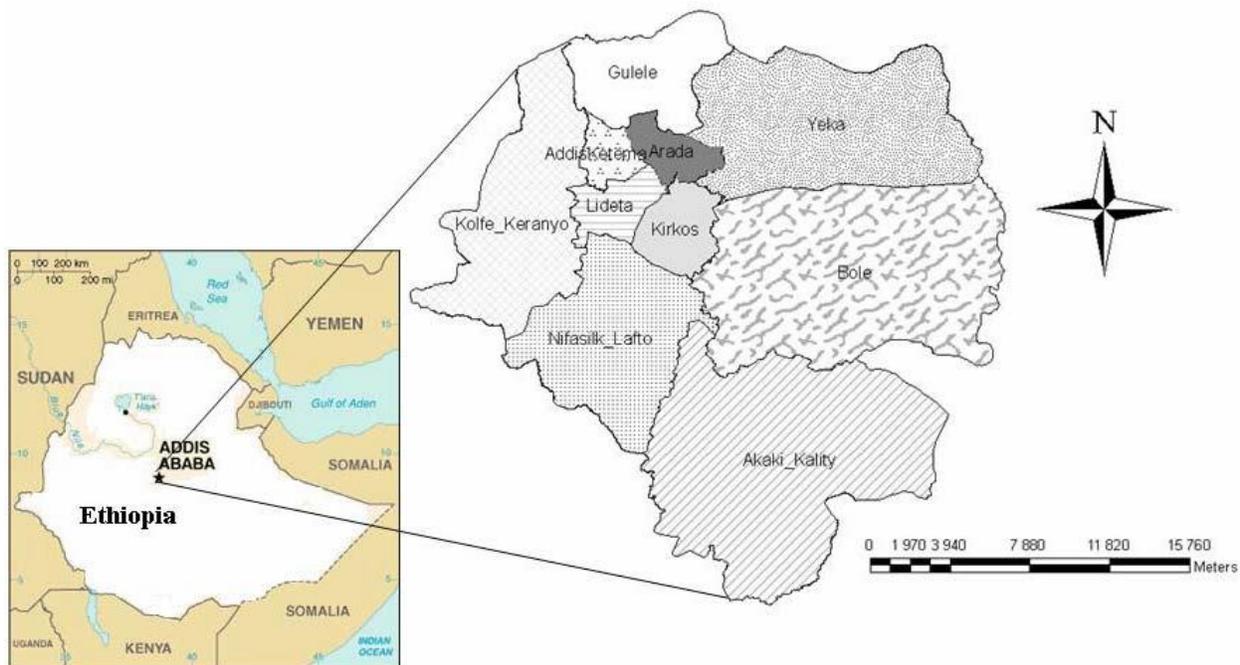


Fig 3.1 Map of Addis Ababa

3.2 Research Design and Approach

A research design is simply the framework or plan for a study that is used as a guide in collecting and analyzing the data. It is a blueprint that is followed in completing a study. Research design is the blue print for collection, measurement and analysis of data. Actually it is a map that is usually developed to guide the research (Pandey & Pandey 2015). Research design can have a

number of classifications which could incorporate the degree to which the research question has been crystallized, the method of data collection, and the research environment (Njambi 2014). According to Kothari (2007), a research design is the arrangement of conditions for collection and analysis of data in a manner that aims to combine relevance to the research purpose with economy in procedure. The objective of this study is to explore the causes of migration of rural youths. For the purpose of this study a qualitative research design will be employed. Since the purpose of this study is to understand and explore the root causes of young people migration from rural to urban areas and the consequences they will face in the destination place; it will be appropriate to use a qualitative method. This method provides possibilities for the researcher to gain a deeper understanding for the scientific problem at hand than before.

3.3 Population and Sampling Design

3.3.1 Population

Population or universe means, the entire mass of observations, which is the parent group from which a sample is to be formed. The term population or universe conveys a different meaning than a traditional one. In census survey, the count of individuals (men, women and children) is known as population (Pandey & Pandey 2015). According to Singh (2006), a population or universe means, the entire mass of observations, which is the parent group from which a sample is to be formed. Accordingly, the population or universe of this particular study will be youth migrants who are residents of Addis ketema and Bole sub-city areas.

3.3.2 Sampling Design

3.3.2.1 Sampling Technique

The target populations of this study will be households who are the residents of Bole and Addis-Ketema sub-cities; two stage sampling will be employed in order to select the sample

respondents, on the first stage among ten (10) sub-cities two, Bole and Addis-Ketema Sub-cities and their respective weredas were selected purposely which have high number of migrant residents. From Bole sub-city five weredas (wereda 11, 12, 13, 17 and 05) and from Addis-Ketema sub-city the same five weredas (wereda 1,3,7,8, and 9) will be selected and then the sample respondents will be selected using random sampling.

Purposive or judgmental sampling technique will be employed in the selection of target areas and population. Therefore, the study will cover those youth migrants whose resident is in Bole and Addis Ketema sub-cities, this is because compared to other sub-cities these particular areas have youth migrants who came from different parts of the country sides. Since the distribution is high the researcher believes that it would help to find out the basic and core reasons of migration from at least major directions of the country. Therefore, the researcher will interview randomly any youth migrants he finds accidentally on the streets, villages and village surroundings.

Furthermore, for the purpose of selecting the sample respondents the researcher will employ a non-probability convenience sampling.

3.3.2.2 Sample Size

A sample is a finite part of a statistical population whose properties are studied to gain information about the whole (Webster 1985). According to Cooper and Schindler, (2001) cited on Njambi (2014) some of the principles which influence sample size comprise: the greater the dispersion or variance within the population, the larger the sample must be to provide estimation precision, the greater the desired precision of the estimate, the larger the sample must be, the narrower the interval range, the larger the sample must be, the higher the confidence level in the estimate, the larger the sample must be, the greater the number of subgroups of interest within a

sample, the greater the sample size must be, as each sub group must meet minimum sample size requirements, and if the calculated sample size exceeds five percent of the population, sample size may be reduced without sacrificing precision. Field (2005) mentioned that as the non-probability sampling is applied, there is no specific method in determining sample size. But, it is not practical to collect data from the entire target population, so the researcher will use a sample instead. Furthermore, according to Lindeman *et al.*, (1980) and Loo, (1983) cited on Kashan (2012) a minimum sample size of 100 to 200 is often recommended, accordingly, a minimum of 104 migrants will be interviewed.

3.4 Source and Methods of Data Collection

The study will be based on both primary and secondary data. Using more than one data collection approach gives an opportunity to the researcher to combine the strengths and correct some of the deficiencies of any source of data. Both primary and secondary data will be gathered. Primary data will be collected from youth migrants using unstructured and semi-structured questionnaires and interviews; and the secondary data will be taken from different books, journals and previous studies. In-depth interviews will also be conducted to substantiate the responses acquired using questionnaires. In addition to this Focus Group Discussion and Observation will also be conducted.

3.5 Method of Data Analysis

After the completion of data collection, the data will be analyzed quantitatively and qualitatively using descriptive statistics including percentages and graphs. Data collected through the open-ended items, responses of interviewees, personal observation and group discussion will also be considered during data analysis.

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APPENDIX

1. Time and Budget breakdown

1.1 Time table

In order to accomplish the overall planned activities of the study the following tentative time schedule is tabulated as under:

<i>Activities</i>	Months in which activities are implemented												Year
	Sep	Oct	Nov	Dec	Jan	Feb	Mar	Apr	May	Jun	July	Aug	
Problem identification	X												2016
Preliminary survey of Literature review	X	X											2016
Literature review in detail		X	X	X									2016
Writing research proposal			X	X									2016
Submission of first draft proposal				X									2016
Final submission of proposal				X									2016
Developing research Questionnaire					X								2017
Collecting data						X	X						2017
Data organization and analysis								X					2017
Thesis writing								X	X				2017
Submission of first draft thesis										X	X		2017
Submission of final draft thesis												X	2017

1.2 Budget breakdown

Tentative Material and Service (activities) Costs are tabulated in detail as follows,

Materials /activities	Amount	Price/ unit in Eth. Birr	Total Birr
Stationary(photo copy, printing, binding ,note book, secretary etc)	Lump some		3800
Compensation for key Informants			2500
Field assistants selected from study sites	10	200 per day for 5 days	7500
Advisor		300 birr per day for 10 days	3000
For transportation during data collection			1500
For focus group participants discussion			3000
Contingency(10%) of the total cost			2130
Total			23,430

2. Curriculum Vitae

Bio data	Name: Mulugeta Taye Nationality: Ethiopian Sex and Marital Status: Male and Married
Address	Addis Ababa, Zone/subcity: Nefasilk/Lafto – Woreda 01 P.o.box 23352 Mobile: 0911-345728 Gmail: mulutaye45@gmail.com
Qualifications/degrees	a. Doctor of Philosophy (PhD) : Production Ecology and Resource Conservation, Wageningen University, the Netherlands b. Master of science in Agriculture (Horticulture), Alemaya University of Agriculture, Ethiopia c. Bachelor of science in Agriculture (Plant science), Addis Ababa University: Alemaya College of Agriculture, Ethiopia
Academic rank	PhD, Associate Professor (Hawassa University, Ethiopia)
Trainings (diploma, certificate)	<ul style="list-style-type: none">• Championship for change leadership training on food security, Kenya (Nairobi), (organizers: USAID and CAADP)• Horticulture production, processing and protection technology• Participatory Rural appraisal (PRA) Training (FARM AFRICA-Ethiopia),• International potato course: production, storage and seed technology , the Netherlands,• Recent development in potato technology for rural development in sub-Saharan Africa ,• Action research program on the improvement of peeper production SOS-Sahel• Modeling: Applying Innovation System Concept in Agricultural Research for Development (Haramaya University)• Human resource management• Project management

Employment -Educator, Researcher and consulting, Hawassa University (over 25 years), St Mary's University (about four years), Unity University(One year)

Skill and Expertise Food crops production, food systems, rural development, production, processing and marketing of coffee, tea, vegetables, temperate and tropical fruits, vegetables, spices , tuber and root crops. Seed production, home gardening, post harvest handling, seed system, , honey production and marketing, biodiversity, food security and livelihood, organic farming, ecophysiology, feeding crops, soil nutrients, organic agriculture, environment

Office management

- Head of Horticulture division, Awassa College of Agriculture
- Coordinator of Horticulture, Research and Farm center, Awassa College of Agriculture
- Head of Horticulture section: Plant Production and Dryland Farming department
- Research coordinator of Horticulture (Ground nut program) , Dryland Coordination Group (Norwegian group), Hawassa University

Research and Publication, and Training coordinator: Hope College of Business, Science and Technology

Dean, Unity University/Ethiopia

Thesis research advising Advising over two hundred graduate students on development, food security, livelihood, microfinance, irrigation, cooperative, honey production and marketing, production, processing, quality and marketing of vegetables, tropical and temperate fruit crops, coffee, tea and spices; cassava production and cyanide, at Hwassa University, Addis Ababa University, and MA students of Indra-Ghandi Open University/India-St Mary's University/Ethiopia

Consultancy

Consulted several national and international institutions/organizations in several subjects, which some of them are:

experiences

- At ILRI and African RISE: an assessment on highland fruit crops and vegetable production under the title: Understanding production and marketing constraints of vegetables and fruit crops across the value chain in the Ethiopian highlands: case study at Sinana, Mahoney and Debreberhan. Supervisor Dr Tilahun Amede ICRISAT-Principal Scientist and Country Representatives, Tel :251-911230135, (in the year 2014)
- CIP and USAID project: Evaluating the potato and sweet potato programs in north and south Ethiopia with HEDBEZ Business and Consultancy PLC. Project title: Tackling food insecurity and malnutrition through diversification: exploiting the potential of potato and sweet potato to reduce food insecurity and dependence on cereal in SNNPR and Tigray (in the year 2014).
- With SOS/SAHEL/Ethiopia- Establishing peeper value chain project in south region particularly in Gurage area. An action research program financed by smallholder livelihood Improvement project (SLIP of SOS/SAHEL).
- With SOS/SAHEL/Ethiopia- Establishing an extension manual on pepper production and processing. Financed by smallholder livelihood Improvement project(SLIP of SOS/SAHEL).
- With Dryland Coordination Group (DCG- Norway): Consulting a project entitled : Contributing to wealth creation and food safety to farmers by reducing yield loss and mycotoxin contaminations of ground nut in selected drylands of Ethiopia”.
- With Dryland Coordination Group (DCG- Norway): reviewing, and compiling a report entitled “Impact of Resettlement on the Livelihood, Food Security and Natural Resource Utilization in Ethiopia”

Engaged in several out-reach and community services, which

Community services

include:

- Several communities in Sidama/Hawassa, Woliyta on the production and protection of root and tuber crops: potato, *Plectranthus edulis*, enset, cassava, yam,

- Several farming communities on the production of groundnut in Eastern and Southern Ethiopia with the Dryland Coordination Group/ Norwegian Church Aid
- Several farming communities on the value Chain of pepper with SOS/Sahel at Hawassa/Sidama, and Gurage zone/Butagera,
- On the production of apple and olive crops at Debreberhan

Research Project leading

- Studies on agronomy and crop physiology of *Plectranths edulis* (Vatke) Agnew
- Studies on the growing and utilization of cassava plant, and its anti-nutritional factor: cyanide,

Publications:

- Tilahun Amede and Mulugeta Taye. 2015. Home garden assessment: System niches, production and marketing constraints and intensification barriers in the Ethiopian highlands, africa-rising.net , ICRISAT.
- MulugetaTaye, Lommen, W.J.M. ,Struik, P.C.(2013) Seasonal light interception, radiation use efficiency, growth and tuber production of the tuber crop *Plectranthusedulis*_European Journal of Agronomy 45:p. 153 - 164.
- MulugetaTaye, Lommen, W.J.M. ,Struik, P.C.(2012). Ontogeny of the tuber crop *Plectranthusedulis* (Lamiaceae) African Journal of Agricultural ResearchVol. 7(30), pp. 4236-4249
- MulugetaTaye, Lommen, W.J.M. ,Struik, P.C. (2012).Effects of breaking seed tubers on yield components of the tuber crop *Plectranthus edulis*. Journal of Agricultural Science, Cambridge pp 1-13
- Moti Jaleta, Adugna Tolera, AnshaMoti Jaleta, Mekonnen Yohannes, Adugna Tolera, Mitiku Haile, Ansha Yesufe, Kindeya Geberehiwot, Kelemework Tafere, Yemane Gegziabher, and Mekonnen Teferi, Nigatu Regassa, Mulugeta Taye, Abiye Alemu and Kiros Meles Yesufe. 2011. Impact of Resettlement on the Livelihood, Food Security and Natural Resource Utilization in Ethiopia, GCOZA, Rapport No.65. Dryland Coordination group, Norway

- MulugetaTaye, Lommen, W.J.M. ,Struik, P.C. (2011).Effects of shoot tipping on development and yield of the tuber crop *Plectranthusedulis*. Journal of Agricultural Science, Cambridge, 150:484-494.
- MulugetaTaye, Lommen, W.J.M. ,Struik, P.C. (2007). Indigenous multiplication and production practices for the tuber crop, *Plectranthusedulis* in Chench and Wolaita, southern Ethiopia. Experimental Agriculture, 43: 381-400
- Gulelat Dessie and MulugetaTaye (2001) Microbial load and microflora of cassava (*Manihot esculenta*,Crantz) and effect of cassava juice on some food borne pathogens. The Journal of Food Technology in Africa, Vol. 6, No. 1, , pp. 21-24
- MulugetaTaye (2000) Some quality changes during storage of cassava roots. The Journal of Food Technology in Africa, 5 (2): 64-66.
- MulugetaTaye, and EskindirBiratu (1999).Effect of storage and utilization methods on the total cyanide content of two cassava cultivars. SINET, Ethiopian Journal of Sciences, 22(1) 55-656.
- Alemayehu Chala, Berhanu Abate, Mulugeta Taye, Abdi Mohammed, Tameru Alemu and Helge Skinnen..2014. (DCG Report No. 74). Opportunities and constraints of groundnut production in selected drylands of Ethiopia , Dryland coordination group, Norway
- Mulugeta T., Girma T., Lideta S., Shimeles A., Waga M., Kebede A., (2011) Peeper production, post harvest and marketing, Manual. (with the help of SOS—SAHEL.
- MulugetaTaye (2000). Principles and Practices of Coffee and Tea production. Hawassa University, Institute of Plant and Horticultural Sciences.
- Mulugeta Taye (2010) Spices and herbs production and management, Hawassa University,College of Agriculture
- Mulugeta Taye (2010) Fruit crops production and management, Hawassa University, College of Agriculture

Reading materials

- MulugetaTaye (2009) Root and tuber crops production, Hawassa University, College of Agriculture

Manuscript reviewing

Editor : International journal of biodiversity and
conservation, India

Reviewer: African journal of agricultural research, Uganda