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7 Abstract

Without any doubt rural-urban migration of the rural land owners has its own implication on 8 the development process of both in urban and rural areas of a country. Hence, the primary 9 purpose of this paper is to identify the determinants contributing for rural-urban migration of 10 the rural land owners and its negative impact on rural development in Hulet Eju Enese 11 Woreda of Eastern Gojjam zonal administration. The study further focused on the 12 characteristics of migrants and challenges they face at the destination. To achieve the 13 objectives, both primary and secondary data were employed. Data collection instruments like 14 structured questionnaire, semi-structured interview and secondary sources were largely 15 employed. To this end, a total of 110 migrants were selected through purposive snow ball 16 sampling technique for the survey and the data was analyzed both qualitatively and 17 quantitatively. The result of this study revealed that both rural push and urban pull factors 18 were determinants for rural land owners to migrate to Mota town from different parts of Hulet 19 Eju Enese Woreda. Small land holding, poor economic condition, natural disaster and lack of 20 social service in the rural area were serious problems that pushed rural land owners to migrate 21 to urban centers. Where as attractive climatic conditions, existence of urban amenities and 22 social facilities and employment opportunities in Mota town were strong pull forces. 23

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25 Index terms—rural-urban migration, land owners, migrant households, rural development, Ethiopia.

²⁶ 1 Introduction

igration is a form of spatial mobility, which involves a change of usual residence of a person between clearly designed geographical units. Migration has been an important component of population redistribution throughout the world. It is a multifaceted phenomenon which in general involves the movement of people from one place to the other ??NGS, 2005). The UN (1970), defines migration as a move from one migration defining area to another 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 at least once during the migration interval" (UN, 1970).

34 Central to the understanding of rural-urban migration flow is the traditional push-pull factors. "Push factor" 35 refers to circumstances at home that repel; examples include famine, drought, low agricultural productivity, 36 unemployment etc. While "pull factor" refers to those conditions found elsewhere (abroad) that attract migrants. 37 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 38 offer a chance to enjoy a better lifestyle (Jahan, 2012). For Bhattacharya (1993), rural-urban migration has been 39 historically connected with industrialization, urbanization and economic growth. Rural-urban migration eases 40 inter-sectoral factor mobility and plays a vital role for structural changes. Moreover, migration has also been a 41

42 key livelihood and survival strategy for many poor groups across the developing world, particularly in Africa.

4 A) STUDY AREA I. GEOGRAPHICAL LOCATION

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 (Adepoju, 1977;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).

Migration within Ethiopian borders has been common as well, mainly in the form of rural -urban migration flows ??Fransen & Kuschminder, 2009). The rural-urban migration trend in Ethiopia can be explained by a number of so-called push and pull factors (Kunz, 1973). Ezra and Kiros (2001) summarize the main push factors in Ethiopia being overpopulation, famine, poverty, land scarcity, governmental agricultural policies, and lack of agricultural resources. Many households, however, also participate in seasonal labor activities, leading to temporary rural-urban migration.

Researchers (Kidane, 1989;Kibreab, 1996; Berhanu& White, 2000; Kiros& White, 2004) have shown how the character, direction, and the volume of migration in Ethiopia during the last two to three decades have been shaped by political instability, official objective to prevent further famine and to attain food security (Gebre, 2001;Ezra, 2001). Under these circumstances, migration in Ethiopia was not only an individual and/or family response to adverse socio economic, physical and political environment, but also as a result of official government policy (Birhan, 2011).

Internal migration flows within Ethiopia are currently larger than international migration flows from Ethiopia 62 (Fransen and Kuschminder, 2009). Migration is a common, yet often least desirable choice of coping strategy 63 for poor rural families. Migration occurs in response to livelihood degradation, an inability to grow enough 64 food, or to provide enough income for the family and is highly influenced by the five driver factor of migration, 65 namely political, social, economic, demographic, and environmental drivers (Hunnes, 2012). In a country like 66 67 Ethiopia where nearly 85 percent of the population is engaged in small-scale rain-fed agriculture, it is critical to understand how and why rural land owners' are migrated into cities from their rural origin. In developing 68 countries like Ethiopia rural-urban migration affects development in both urban and rural areas (Birhan, 2011). 69 Among Ethiopian regional states the Amhara region has the highest rural to urban migration. From the total 70 population of 17,222,800 registered migrants are 2,366,972 which are 13.7% from the total population (CSA, 71 72 2007). The same report also indicated that, from the total 2,366,972 migrants, 1,789,666 were from the rural 73 area to urban centers and the rest 577, 306 were migrants from urban to rural areas. This indicates that in Amhara region, rural to urban migration is higher than urban to rural migration. From the Amhara region Hulet 74 Eju Enese woreda experienced high rate of migration. From the total population of the woreda (275,638), 29, 75 472 are total registered migrants which constitutes around 10.7% of the total population (CSA, 2007). From the 76 total registered migrants, 15,579 are from the rural area and now their current place of resident is in the urban 77 area. The rest 13,893 are migrants from urban to the rural areas. The above data indicates that ruralurban 78 migration is more than urban-rural migration. 79

In spite of the above noted prevailing situations, there is lack of sound knowledge and understanding of rural land owners' migration to urban centers in connection to the causes and consequences in both areas of origin and destinations. At the same time, there is apparently little empirical research work on rural land owners' migration in the country at large and Hulet Eju Enese Woreda in particular. Therefore, this study is meant to analyze the determinant factors of rural land owners' migration to urban centers and its negative impact on rural development is important and thereby provides significant data and information for policy formulation for launching suitable planning and response strategies to the emerging challenges.

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3 Materials and Methods

⁸⁹ 4 a) Study area i. Geographical location

Hulet Eju Enese is one of the woreda's in the Amhara Region of Ethiopia. Being part of East Gojjam Zone, it is bordered in the south by DebayTelatgen, in the west by Bibugn, in the northwest by West Gojjam Zone (Gonji KolelaWoreda), in the north by the Abay River (which separates it from the Debub Gondar Zone), in the east by Goncha Siso Enese, and in the southeast by Enarj Enawga. Among the towns in this administrative division are Keraniyo, Mota and Sede among which Mota is the capital of the worada. The town is about 120 kilometres east of Bahir Dar, 202 km north of Debre markos and 368 km north-west of Addis Ababa. According to the current master plan, the total area of the town is 14,728 hectares and topographically the town's area is characterized by 68% alluvial plains, 4% gorge and 16% ups and downs at elevation of 1800-2415 meters above sea level. The absolute location of Hulet Eju Enese Woreda is 10049'09"-10043'10"N latitude and 37040'07"-37050'45"E

99 longitude. The total area of the worada is estimated to be 138,986 hectares (HEEWARDO, 2012).

¹⁰⁰ 5 b) Demographic profile

Based on the 2007 national census conducted by the Central Statistical Authority of Ethiopia (CSA, 2007), 101 Hulet Eju Enese worada had a total population of 275,638 of which 137,382 were male and 138,256 female (Table 102 3 Topographically the woreda has a relief features: 65% of plateau, 15% of mountainous and 20% of valley 103 (HEEWARDO, 2012). There are four main seasons in the woreda, namely bega (dry) from March to May, kremt 104 (rains) from June to August (main rainy season), tibi from September to November, and me her from December 105 to February (harvest season). Hulet Eiu Enese woreda is divided in three agro-ecological zones, namely Dega, 106 Woinadega and Kola which accounts 32%, 37% and 31% respectively. It is clear that much of the worada is found 107 within woinadega altitudinal zone. Regarding the distribution of peoples on the basis of physiographic region, 108 52% of the total population is found in woinadega altitudinal zone and the rest is found in dega (18%) and kola 109 (30%) agro climatic zone (HEEWARDO, 2012). 110

The rainfall distribution in the worada varies from year to year and across seasons. Accordingly the annual 111 rainfall distribution varies between 1150 mm-1189 mm which is bimodal in nature, receiving the greatest rainfall 112 in summer and the smallest portion in spring (HEEWARDO, 2012). The amount of rainfall distribution in the 113 worada is sufficient for annual crop production. The daily temperature varies from 80c which is the lowest to 300c 114 of the highest with the average temperature of 220c (ibid). Soils in the study area are various types. Based on 115 their color, soil type of the worada can be divided as Red (Borebor), Brown (Bodea) and Black (Debaye) which 116 accounts 86%, 6% and 8% respectively (HEEWARDO, 2012). The worada is rich in rivers with high potential for 117 irrigation purpose. These rivers drain annually and most of them are tributary rivers to Abay (Blue Nile). The 118 most important ones are Teme, Azuari, Sede, Tijan, Abeya, Amberis, Zema, Mai Temeko, Silmbiye, TejiBahir, 119 DinchWenz, etc (HEEWARDO, 2012). 120

¹²¹ 6 ii. Socio-economic profile of the worada

Mixed production of crops and livestock are the cornerstone of this woreda's economy. Agriculture activities 122 are dependent on the kremt (summer) rains which fall from May to October. Some households use irrigation. 123 According to the data obtained from HEEWARDO, the worada has 15, 310 hectare of arable land which can 124 be used for irrigation purpose. From this currently 13,387 hectare of land is cultivated through irrigation 125 (HEEWARDO, 2012). The main crops cultivated are teff, barley, maize, Sorghum, Bean, potato, etc. The 126 bulk of the produce is used for household consumption. The major types of livestock's of the worada include 127 cattle, horse, mule, donkey, sheep, goat etc. Raising sheep, cattle and horses is a key economic strategy. Children 128 are responsible for herding livestock. 129

The main constraints on crop production among the poor are land degradation; shortage of farmland and 130 crop diseases. Livestock ownership is also important for building household capacity to cope with livelihood 131 shocks. The interest in generating new stock favors the ownership of mature female animals. Sheep provide most 132 of the regular income from livestock. Cattle are more valuable assets, and they are owned only by the middle 133 and better-off households. They are longer term investments. Beyond a lack of money, the biggest barrier to 134 ownership of livestock is lack of feed: livestock production in the worada is limited by diminishing availability of 135 grazing land. The better off at times grow pasture on a portion of their land to feed their cattle. The search for 136 137 work is the main livelihood strategy for poor households, and so they depend on the availability of workers in 138 the family for a significant portion of their income.

Teff, Potatoes, barley, wheat, and maize are the main crops traded. They are transported from local markets 139 to markets in Addis Ababa, Bahir Dar, and Gondar. Particularly teff is exported to different parts of Ethiopia. 140 Sheep and cattle are the popular livestock in the market. Poorly maintained roads winding through the mountains 141 are the biggest barrier to the inflow of traders and commodities into the woreda. In Hulet Eiu Enese woreda the 142 main determinants of wealth are the amount of land owned, the ownership of cattle and sheep, and the ownership 143 of horses for draught power. Ownership of horses is important for productivity because access to draught power 144 determines household capacity to utilize available land holdings. The poor who haven't the capital to obtain 145 their own draught power, or who lack family labor, are compelled arrangements usually divide the harvest from 146 the rented land equally between the two parties. The biggest barrier to poor household ownership of draught 147 power is the lack of capital. 148

Other important economic activities are wage labor and the sale of eucalyptus trees. Migratory labor opportunities are available in Shindi, Humera, Wollega, and Metemma for maize and sesame weeding and harvesting. Migration is a male activity, undertaken from June to August and from November to December.

¹⁵² 7 iii. Research design

In research of this kind the use of both quantitative and qualitative methods at the same time is more advisable. Quantitative data provide precise summaries and comparisons, while the qualitative data provide general elaborations, explanations, meanings and relatively new ideas. Taking all these into account, mixed research approach, which combine both quantitative and qualitative methods is used for this study.

These methods are believed to be more appropriate to investigate the topic under discussioncauses and consequences of rural-land owners' migration to urban center in Hulet Eju Enese Worada. Moreover, the

14 A) SOCIO-DEMOGRAPHIC AND ECONOMIC PROFILE OF RESPONDENTS I. GENDER AND AGE STRUCTURE OF THE RESPONDENTS

qualitative approach is useful to look carefully for flaws and inadequacies of quantitative data that might be induced unintentionally in this study.

¹⁶¹ 8 iv. Sources and method of data collection

Based on the research problem and objectives, both primary and secondary data sources are used. Multiple data collection strategy is more advantageous than single data collection strategy in research work. There are strengths and weaknesses to any single data collection strategy and using more than one data collection approach give opportunity to the researcher to combine the strengths and correct some of the deficiencies of any one source of data. More specifically, the methods used to collect the necessary primary data were questionnaire and interview.

¹⁶⁸ 9 v. Survey

In this data collection instrument, primary data were obtained from individual respondents who complete and 169 return questions concerning the issue under study. Under this technique the researcher distributed printed open 170 and close-ended questions for selected participants. A total of four enumerators (teachers of Mota preparatory 171 172 school) including the researcher (as a supervisor) participated in the actual survey where all the enumerators were 173 selected based on their previous experience of collecting data through this instrument. Accordingly those four enumerators were assigned to the four kebeles of Mota town (one enumerator to one Kebele). Each enumerator, 174 through snow ball sampling technique, collected data from respondents who came from different parts of the 175 176 worada.

177 10 vi. In-depth interview

During Interview people with ample knowledge and experiences regarding the issue raised were purposefully 178 selected. It is believed that, employing interview is important to this study since the study aimed to investigate 179 and in depth understanding regarding the current problem of rural land owners' migration to the capital of the 180 Woradas under the study area. To do so, structured interview guidelines were conducted. While interviewing the 181 key informants, the researcher followed the pre-determined questions and standardized techniques of recording 182 the information for structured interview. Generally the researcher collected data through this method from 183 responsible officials at worada level. For the interview, representatives were taken from Mota town municipality, 184 Hulet Eju Enese worada agriculture and rural development office, land administration office, health office and 185 education bureau as well as from the four Kebele officials of Mota town. 186

¹⁸⁷ 11 vii. Sampling technique and sample size

Hulet Eju Enese Worada is amongst the agriculturally productive areas in the country. However, according to 188 CSA (2007) the rate of rural to urban migration is very high. As per the information obtained from Mota town 189 municipality, there are high numbers of in-migrants in Mota town. Therefore the worada is selected based on 190 the high magnitude of rural-urban migration of the rural land owners to urban center purposefully. But due to 191 192 the absence of records of the migrants in the municipality, sample migrants were approached through snowball sampling method. This method enables to locate migrants by themselves. Accordingly, 110 sample migrants' 193 household heads in Mota town were searched. On top of this, published and unpublished materials which include 194 research works, books, official documents and journal articles on the issues of migration, were used in this study. 195

¹⁹⁶ 12 viii. Method of data analysis

Different methods of data analysis are used depending on the nature of data. Accordingly, the quantitative data are analyzed using descriptive statistics (like percentage and frequency). Moreover, qualitative data collected through interview were used to triangulate the results of quantitative data. The researcher used SPSS 16 to carry out the statistical analysis III.

201 13 Results and Discussion

²⁰² 14 a) Socio-demographic and economic profile of respondents i. ²⁰³ Gender and Age structure of the respondents

204 For this study a total of 110 sampled household heads were participated. Therefore, 110 questionnaires were 205 analyzed. Of the surveyed household heads 68 (61.8%) were male respondents, while 42 (38.2%) were females 206 (Table ??.1). According to table 4.1 majority of the respondents were between the age group of 40-49(32.72%) followed by 30-39 (24.56%), 21-29 (20.9%), >=60(11.81%) and 50-59(10%). Age specific sex ratio of the study 207 migrants indicate that females dominate above the age of 50 years, whereas males dominate below this age limit. 208 209 However, this doesn't show the age specific sex ratio at the time of migration in similar with the age specific ratio of Ethiopia. Because the age-specific sex ratios of migrants from the 1994 Ethiopian census shows that males 210 dominate females in the age groups between 30-59 years, while females dominate males at young and old ages of 211 0-14 and 60-65 years ??Mberu, 2006). 212

ii. Educational status of the respondents at the time of migration Literacy status and educational attainment 213 are significantly linked to rural-urban mobility. This is to mean that selectivity of migration varies according to 214 education of migrants. Those who are better educated are relatively more involved in different migration streams 215 than those who are not. Strong association between the propensity to migrate and level of education is observed 216 in many developing countries ?? Oberai, 1978). The study conducted by ?? Mberu, 2006) indicates that literacy 217 status and educational attainment are significantly linked to rural-urban mobility in the country, with more than 218 half (51 percent) of migrants literate. On the other hand the findings of CSA (1999) in Ethiopia showed that 219 70% of the internal migrants were illiterate. But the survey result of this study is different (Figure ??.1). 220

The survey result of this study indicates that 55(50%) respondents are found to be as cannot read and write, while the rest can read and write. From the literate respondents 29(26.4%) have completed first cycle elementary school (grade 1-4), 15(13.6%) attended from 5-8 grades and 11(10%) joined high school. But no one is found who joined college or university. Thus, this falsifies the above assumption that most migrants are literate and vice versa.

²²⁶ 15 Marital status of the respondents at the time of migration

According to the surveyed data, out of the total respondents 55 (50%) are married which is followed by divorced, widowed and single which accounts 26 (23.64%), 16 (14.55%), and 13 (11.82%) respectively. Out of the total single and married respondents male respondents accounts 9.09% and 45.45% respectively which indicates that male respondents were more single and married than female respondents whereas from the total respondents of divorced and widowed, females were more divorced and widowed than males at the time of migration which accounts 20% and 10.91% respectively (Fig. ??.2).

²³³ 16 iii. Religion and household size of the respondents

From the surveyed respondents the majorities are found as followers of Ethiopian orthodox Christianity 234 87(79.09%) and the rest 23(20.91%) are Muslims. When the family size of household in which the migrants 235 arise was seen, the majority of migrants came from the large family size. ??ig 4.4 shows that most of the 236 migrants came from family size of 4-6 members (64.55%) followed by 1-3 members (29.09%) and a small number 237 of migrants (6.36%) came from a family size of 7-9 members. In addition to the decisions made by household 238 head (father/ mother) and relatives, friends also influence the decision to migration. Getahun ??2007) states 239 that pioneer migrants and the existences of networks were very important in attracting potential migrants to 240 Addis Ababa. According to the survey result of this study, 39.1% household head respondents made the decision 241 242 to migrate by the household heads (father/mother), 27.3% migrated by the commonly agreed decision of the whole family members which indicates that family bondage for decision making is important. The survey also 243 emphasis that family-parent decision was more important than relatives' and friends decisions." 244

²⁴⁵ 17 Head of family at the time of migration

²⁴⁶ 18 Global Journal of Human Social Science

In order to assess the role of land holding as factor of migration the respondents were asked the size of their 247 land or their family at the time of migration. From Table ??.5 we can understand that the farm size of 30.9%248 respondents was 0.5 hectare of land whereas 36.4% respondents reported that they had a farm land size of 0.5-1 249 hectare of land. From this one can understand that the majorities 74 (67.3%) had one and below one hectare of 250 arable land. The rest 20.9% and 11.8% respondents had 1-2 hectare and 2-3 hectare of farm land respectively. 251 No one respondent migrant was found who had above three hectare of land. This implies that decline of farm 252 land size facilitated rural land owners out migration since migrants farm land size in the rural area is an average 253 of 0.5-1hectare per household. 254

255 ? Respondents were also asked the type of use of their farm land and all of them reported that they utilized 256 their farm land for annual crop production. From this it is simple to understand that crop production is the 257 backbone for the livelihood of the migrants. Therefore, according to the data gained from interview, to engage 258 in urban informal sectors, most people migrated to urban center from their rural origin.

v. Determinant of rural urban migration of the rural land owners

There are several reasons for population mobility from place to place. Most of the studies indicate that migration is primarily motivated by push and pull factors. The survey result of this study also confirmed that both push and pull factors are determinants for rural urban migration of the rural land owners. To analyze the factors for rural to urban migration in the area a set of 14 statements (7 push factor and 7 pull factor) that determine the process of rural urban migration were studied (Table **??**.6).

vi. Push factors The respondents were asked how much they are agreed about small land holding as a major push factor for their migration. They responded that 49 (44.5%) of them strongly agreed, 42 (38.2%) agreed, 12 (10.9%) disagree and 1 (0.9%) strongly disagree. This indicates small land holding is one of the determinant factors for rural land owner's migration to Mota town since the agreed and strongly agreed respondent's together accounted for 82.75%.

Empirical evidences of researchers also support the result of this study. For example Hunnes 2012) suggests 271 that in Ethiopia, land tenure laws are such that each successive generation obtains parcels of land from their 272 parents thereby decreasing overall land size for each family. Less land provides less ability to grow adequate 273 food or to derive an adequate income. Markos (2001) also demonstrates that declining size of landholdings is 274 a major push factor for migration to urban center in the northern part of Ethiopia. He added that scarcity of 275 arable land in combination with population on the smaller landholdings facilitated migration to areas with better 276 employment opportunities. Other study done by Hossain (2001) also found that rural out-migration is closely 277 associated with unequal distribution of resources, particularly land. 278

The other push factor examined for the rural land owners' migration to urban center in the study area is poor 270 economic condition in the rural area. The survey data indicates that out of the total respondents 21(19.1%)280 strongly agreed, 73(66.4%) agreed and 12(10.9%) while disagreed and strongly disagreed accounted 2.7% and 281 10.9% respectively. From the result one can understand that 94(85.5%) respondents perceived poor economic 282 condition in the rural area as their major factor for their migration from rural origin by leaving their farm land. 283 The research conducted by Birhan (2011) also supports the result of this survey. He elaborates that because 284 of lack of investment and economic growth rural areas are suffering from lack of agricultural or alternative 285 employment opportunities and is amongst reasons for migration. 286

Respondents were also asked their agreement on natural disaster (drought, famine) as a determinant factor of rural-urban migration. The surveyed data reveals that 28 (25.5%) respondents strongly agreed, 66 (60%) agreed, and 6(5.5%) disagreed. According to this data the respondents who agreed and strongly agreed together accounts 94(85.5%) that shows it is also among the determinant factors of rural-urban migration of rural land owners in the study area.

Prior research has indicated that environmental degradation, population pressure, drought and famine have all been responsible for spatial mobility in Ethiopia ??Ezra, 2000; ??erhanu and White 1998). Factors that may increase the likelihood of migration in Ethiopia include, decreasing soil productivity and decreasing arable land area, both of which decrease a household's ability to provide for their family, thus, increasing the risk of out migration (Hunnes, 2012).

297 It is also the undeniable fact that poor infrastructure and social service in the rural area push peoples to urban areas to get better social service and infrastructure. This is because availability of social and economic 298 infrastructures is essential both for agricultural and rural development ??FDRE, 2003). It is not possible to attain 299 rapid and sustainable agricultural or overall rural development where there is a lack of services in the fields of: 300 education, training, health, rural road and transport. Rural development and infrastructural facilities and services 301 are almost inseparable. The expansion of rural infrastructural facilities is a major government responsibility in 302 view of its crucial role in expanding these facilities and services in general. In fact, the government's main tasks 303 are to expand rural infrastructure, motivate and coordinate farmers and generally create favourable conditions 304 for development (Hunnes, 2012). 305

Though rural infrastructures and good provision of social services are essential for rural peoples, none or less existence of them currently become a major factor for rural to urban migration. Belay (2011) demonstrates that poor infrastructure and less access to basic services pushed rural people to urban areas. The survey result of this study also shows that lack of social service and poor infrastructure in the rural area are among the push factors for rural urban migration of the rural land owners. Out of the total respondents those who strongly agreed and agreed accounted 56(50.9%) and 40(36.4%) respectively a total of 96(87.3%).

The data gained through interview from Hulet Eju Enese Worada Rural Development office strongly support the result of this survey. The interviewed expert said that "land owner farmers migrate to Mota town due to the less expansion of rural infrastructure in their former place". On the other hand the countries rural development policy and strategy give more emphasis for the expansion of rural infrastructure, health institution as well as other social service institutions particularly the provisions listed from sub article 8.1 to 8.4 to bring rural development. From this one can understand that there is less implementation of the country's rural development policy and strategy in the study area which may facilitate rural land owners' migration to urban center.

Other push factors like lack of justice in the rural area, fear of enemy, and marital factors were also studied in this research. The surveyed data indicates that the sum of agreed and strongly agreed respondents' constituted 17(15.5%) for lack of justice in the rural area and 37(33.7%) for marital factors. For these three push factors the sums of disagreed and strongly disagreed respondents is by far greater than the sum of agreed and strongly agreed respondents.

324 20 vii. Pull factors

The respondents were also asked about the major pull factors for their rural to urban migration. According to the surveyed data the sum of agreed and strongly agreed respondents of existence of urban amenities and social facilities as a pull factor of migration accounts 101 (91.8%) which is followed by attractive climatic condition of Mota town 98 (89.1%) while 90 (81.9%) respondents considered easy access to job in Mota town as a pull factor for their migration. In addition to this 30 (27.3%) respondents shows their agreement by perceive expectation of higher income earning in Mota town as their pull factor. Others considers political freedom, marital factor and joining relatives as a pull factor which constitutes the sum of agreed and strongly agreed respondents of 16 (14.5%), 13 (11.8%) and 22 (20%) respectively.

The collected data show that lure of attractive climatic conditions, existence of urban amenities and social facilities, and easy access to job are found as the major pull factors in the worada. From the study, one can conclude that small land holding, poor economic condition, natural disaster and lack of social service in the rural area of the study woreda were serious problems that pushed rural land owners to migrate to urban centers. IV.

337 21 Conclusion

This study basically has presented the determinant push and pull factors of rural land owners', current living condition of migrants in their destination area and its negative impact on rural development in general and agricultural production and natural resource management in particular of Hulet Eju Enese Worada. The important data for this study were collected from migrants in Mota town as well as from concerned officials and experts of the worada. The empirical result of this study can be deducted as follows.

343 Rural-urban migrants of the rural land owners are selective group formed on the basis of one or combinations 344 of characteristics, such as age, gender, educational status, marital status, family size, farm land size and the like. Accordingly, the survey result revealed that at the time of migration males household heads dominates female 345 heads between the age group of 21-41 while females dominate between the age group of 60 and above. In terms 346 347 of educational status at the time of migration, 50% migrants were illiterate. Among literate migrants' most of them attended primary schooling. With regard to marital status, at the time of migration majority of them 348 were married (50%). The family size of migrants at the time of migration was found large, average family size 349 of 4-6 per household. Migrants farm land size in the rural area was found small, an average of 0.5-1hectare per 350 household (most of it utilized for crop production). Regarding the decision made to migrate, the survey revealed 351 that family/parent decision was more important than relatives' and friends" decisions. 352

Both push and pull factors are found as determinants for rural urban migration in the study area. Small land holding, poor economic condition, natural disaster and lack of social service in the rural area are serious

³⁵⁵ problems that pushed rural land owners to migrate to urban centers. The less realization of the country's rural

development policy and strategy contributed a lot which facilitated migrants to be pushed from their rural origin

to Mota town. On the other hand attractive climatic conditions, existence of urban amenities and social facilities, and easy access to job in Mota town are strong pull forces.

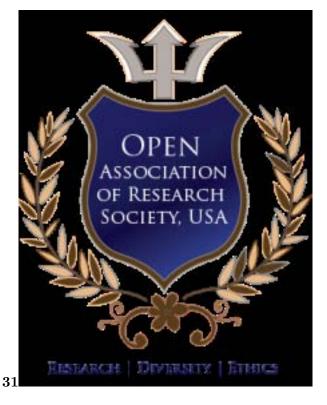
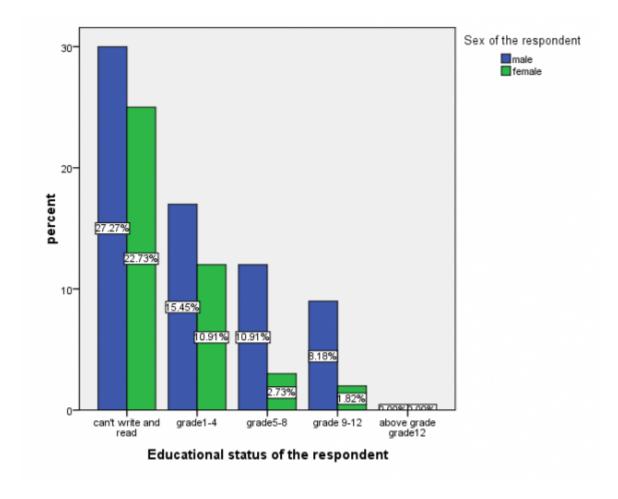


Figure 1: Figure $3 \cdot 1$:

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Figure 2: Figure 3 . 2 :





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1 : Distribution of the Population in

Hulet Eju Enese Wora	ida by age and sex		
	Total	Male	Female
0 -14	$120,\!441$	60,631	$59,\!810$
15-64	$147,\!409$	72400	75009
64 +	7,788	$4,\!351$	3437
Total	$275,\!638$	$137,\!382$	$138,\!256$
Source: CSA (2007)			

Figure 4: Table 3 .

No.	Land use	Area in	Percentage
		hectare	_
1	Annual farm crop	47, 626	34.87
	production		
2	Fallow land	1,505	1.08
3	Pasture	33, 549	24.14
4	Construction/settlement	18, 247	13.13
5	Tree plantation	33,247	23.92
	(forestry)		
6	Other	4812	2.86
	Total	138, 986	100.00
Source:	HEEWARDO (2012)		

Figure 5: Table 3 . 2 :

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Age group in	Male		Female		Total	
years	Count	%	Count	%	Count	%
21-29	16	14.54	7	6.36	23	20.9
30-39	18	16.36	9	8.2	27	24.56
40-49	23	20.9	13	11.82	36	32.72
50-59	5	4.55	6	5.45	11	10
60	6	5.45	7	6.36	13	11.81
Total	68	61.8	42	38.2	110	100
Source: Own survey (2014)						

Figure 6: Table 3 . 3 :

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		iii. Decision maker for migrationWho made the decision whenyou decide to migrate to		
		Mota?	-	iency
			Per- cent	
		Household head mother/father	43	39.1
		Relatives who are living in Mota	19	17.3
		Common decision by family mem-	30	27.3
		bers		
		Friend who are living in Mota	18	16.4
		Total	110	100.0
		Source: own survey (2014)		
Head of the family	Freq	uency Percent		
Father	68	61.8		
Mother	40	36.4		
Brother/sister	2	1.8		
Total	110	100.0		
Source: own survey (2014)				
According to table 4.3 rural-urban mig	grants	from		
female headed households accounted fe	or 36.	4%, male		
headed households accounted for 61.8%	%, and	l migrants		
from brother/sister headed households	acco	unted 1.8% .		

Figure 7: Table 4 . 2 :

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Push factors	Strongly		Agree		Undecided		Disagree		Strongly	
	agree								disagree	
	No	%	No	%	No	%	No	%	No	%
Lack of social service	56	50.9	40	36.4	6	5.5	8	7.3	0	0.0
Poor economic condition in the	21	19.1	73	66.4	12	10.9	3	2.7	1	0.9
rural area										
Run away from Natural disaster	28	25.5	66	60	10	9.1	6	5.5	0	0.0
Small land holding	49	44.5	42	38.2	6	5.5	12	10.9	1	0.9
Marital factors	8	7.3	29	26.4	1	0.9	65	59.1	42	38.2
Lack of justice in the rural area	0	0.0	17	15.5	43	39.1	40	36.4	19	9.1
Fear of enemy	0	0.0	0	0.0	6	5.5	62	56.4	42	38.2
Source: Own survey (2014)										

Figure 8: Table 4 . 5 :

Pull factors	Strongly		Agree		Undecided		Disagree			Strongly
	agree								disagree	
	No	%	No	%	No	%	No	%	No	%
Existence of social services	45	40.9	56	50.9	5	4.5	4	3.6	0	0.0
Attractive climatic condition	23	20.9	75	68.2	7	6.4	5	4.5	0	0.0
Easy access to job	39	35.5	51	46.4	12	10.9	8	7.3	0	0.0
Expectation of higher income earning	1	0.9	29	26.4	65	59.1	14	12.7	1	0.9
Joining relatives	19	17.3	3	2.7	11	10	54	49.1	23	20.9
Existence of political freedom	1	0.9	15	13.6	38	34.5	50	45.5	6	5.5
Marriage	9	8.2	4	3.6	4	3.6	54	49.1	39	35.5
Source: Own survey (2014)										

Figure 9: Table 4 . 6 :

21 CONCLUSION

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