International Journal of Advance and Applied Research
www.ijaar.co.in
ISSN – 2347-7075 Impact Factor – 8.141
Peer Reviewed Bi-Monthly
Vol. 12 No. 5 May – June 2025

From ROOTS to ROUTE: Unpacking the Drivers and Consequences of RURAL-URBAN SHIFT in a Transition Country!!

Sajitha O. G[1] & Dayanandan R[2]

[1]*Associate Professor, Wollega University*

[2]*Professor, Hawassa University, Hawassa, Sidama Region, Ethiopia*

Corresponding Author - Dayanandan R

DOI - 10.5281/zenodo.15804719

Abstract:

*This study examines the key factors influencing rural-urban migration in Hawassa, Ethiopia, and its socioeconomic consequences. Based on theoretical frameworks including Push-Pull Theory, Neoclassical Economic Theory of Migration, **New Economics of Labor,** Cumulative Causation Theory, Migration Transition Theory, Human Capital Theory the study conceptualizes the drivers and consequences of migration. A cross-sectional research design incorporating both qualitative and quantitative methods was employed, using a snowball sampling technique to survey 196 migrants. Statistical tools, including frequency, percentages, mean, standard deviation, and binary logistic regression, were applied to analyse the data. The study identified age, education level, family size, distance from the place of origin, conflict, loss of family members, and previous employment as the primary push factors. Adverse effects of migration included increased living costs, unemployment, and involvement in illicit activities such as theft and substance abuse. However, migration also led to positive outcomes, such as improved access to healthcare and social services. The study suggests that policies fostering rural employment opportunities and addressing socio-economic inequalities, giving attention to the landless and disadvantaged groups is essential which could mitigate the high migration rates and retain the people in the rural area.*

Keywords: Rural-Urban Migration, Push and Pull Factors, Consequences, Strategies

Introduction:

Migration is a worldwide phenomenon and has become an undeniable reality in the present era. The process has been facilitated by globalization, which has enhanced global interconnectedness. Migration is primarily driven by various factors, including socioeconomic, political, cultural, environmental, health, education, and transportation aspects (Thet, 2012). Changes in population dynamics occur over time and across regions, influenced by fertility, mortality, and particularly migration. Additionally, migration is closely linked to other demographic trends as well as broader social and economic transformations (Gimba, 2010). Cumulative Causation Theory (Ravenstein, 1885) posits that migration is a cumulative process. When one individual or group migrates, they reduce the costs and barriers for others to follow. Migration patterns tend to be self-reinforcing, creating a feedback loop where migration continues to grow over time. Migration increases with the development of migrant networks that make it easier for subsequent migrants to adapt, find jobs, and integrate into new communities.

In Ethiopia, rural out-migration is a common trend, raising concerns among development planners, researchers, and policymakers. However, due to the absence of an effective registration system, the exact scale of migration remains unclear (Hailemariam & Adugna, 2011). Internal migration in the country takes various forms,

including settlement in new territories, individual movements, displacement due to famine, and government-led resettlement programs (Aynalem Adugna, 2014).

Empirical research in Ethiopia suggests that large-scale migration is triggered by factors such as population pressure, famine, poverty, limited land access, and inadequate agricultural resources (Markos & Gebre-Egziabher, 2001). Food insecurity (Ezra & Kiros, 2001), overall household destitution (Gebru & Beyene, 2012), low income, and restricted farmland access (Bezu & Holden, 2014) are also key drivers. Environmental issues, including ecological degradation and drought, contribute significantly (Berhanu & White, 2000; Ezra, Mberu, 2006; Gray & Mueller, 2012). Additionally, migration is influenced by government resettlement policies (Hammond, 2008) and employment prospects in other regions (Atnafu, Oucho, & Zeitlyn, 2014). With approximately 84% of Ethiopia's population residing in rural areas and primarily relying on agriculture for livelihood, population growth and land tenure issues further threaten rural sustainability by reducing per-capita farmland (Bezu & Holden, 2014).

Migration has historically been a key human response to social, political, economic, and environmental changes (Hall et al. 2010). However, at the local level, the complexity and consequences of migration remain insufficiently understood. Migration Transition Theory (Wilbur Zelinsky, 1971) suggests that migration patterns are linked to the demographic and socio-economic development of a country. It identifies a relationship between migration trends and a country's stage in the demographic transition model. As countries move from high birth and death rates (pre-industrial stage) to low birth and death rates (industrial/post-industrial stages), migration patterns change. In early stages, migration is mainly rural to rural, while in later stages, migration becomes more urban and international. In many developing nations, migration serves as a survival strategy for impoverished rural populations. Adamnesh et al. (2014) argue that rural-to-urban migration exacerbates urban poverty by straining essential services in major cities like those in Ethiopia. The influx of migrants is often perceived as a challenge to urban development efforts, prompting government concerns over the increased difficulty in providing housing, employment, and public services to urban dwellers (MoFED, 2009).

Habtamu (2015) further highlights that rural-to-urban migration significantly affects the socio-economic conditions of urban populations. Many rural migrants move to cities in search of employment and better services, leading to increased pressure on urban infrastructure and resources. Consequently, urban areas struggle to accommodate new arrivals with adequate job opportunities and living conditions. Despite these pressing challenges, there remains a limited understanding of the causes and consequences of rural-urban migration, particularly regarding its impact on both sending and receiving regions. While earlier studies indicated a scarcity of empirical research on rural-urban migration in Ethiopia, particularly concerning Hawassa, recent scholarly efforts have begun to address this gap. For instance, a study published in 2024 investigates the determinants of rural-urban migration in the Duna district of southern Ethiopia, providing valuable insights into the factors influencing migration patterns in the region. Additionally, research focusing on the dynamics of female rural-urban migration for educational purposes has shed light on the experiences of young women relocating to urban centers in Ethiopia. These studies contribute to a growing body of empirical literature examining the causes and consequences of rural-urban migration in Ethiopia, offering a more comprehensive

understanding of its impact on both rural and urban communities.

Between 2000 and 2020, Ethiopia's urban population grew at an annual rate of 4.7% (World Bank, 2020), driven by rural-to-urban migration, industrialization, and economic opportunities in cities (Gebreselassie et al. 2019). According to the Hawassa City Administration's development plan (2021), the city's population has grown by 10% annually, fuelling rapid urbanization. In 2019, the population was estimated at 436,992, with 292,525 people residing in urban areas and 144,467 in rural parts of the administration. Around 65% of the population is under the age of 25, while only 5.5% is over 50. This significant population influx impacts both origin and destination areas in social, economic, environmental, cultural, and political aspects. Hawassa, in particular, has experienced a high rate of in-migration from neighbouring zones, leading to severe challenges related to population pressure. Key issues identified by researchers include environmental pollution, natural resource depletion, overcrowding, social unrest (e.g., theft and crime), rising living costs, and inadequate urban infrastructure.

Earlier studies on rural-urban migration in Ethiopia have primarily focused on isolated cases, overlooking its multidimensional effects. This fragmented approach has resulted in a limited understanding of migration's impact on urban sustainability. Furthermore, past research has not sufficiently explored the negative implications of migration, including social inequalities, inadequate housing, environmental degradation, income disparities, strained social security systems, and limited access to basic services. To address these gaps, it is essential to investigate key questions: What is the trend of rural-urban migration in the study area? Which factors drive individuals to relocate to urban areas, either temporarily or permanently? What push and pull factors influence this movement? And what are the social, economic, and environmental consequences of migration? and What are the strategies to mitigate this problem?

Objectives:

1. To assess the scale of rural-urban migration in the study area.
2. To identify the key factors driving rural-urban migration in the study area.
3. To evaluate the consequences of migration on urban communities in the study area.
4. To explore the strategies to overcome the problem of rural-urban migration in the study area
5. To analyze the role of organizations in assisting migrants in the study area.

Methodology Adopted:

The study utilized a cross-sectional research design, incorporating both qualitative and quantitative data from various sources. This design is descriptive in nature, aiming to illustrate a specific effect on a particular population at a single point in time. To achieve the research objectives, both primary and secondary data were gathered. Primary data was obtained through surveys and key informant interviews, while secondary data was sourced from documents, books, publications, and organizational records.

Since the population size is unknown, the formula developed by Cochran (1977) $n = \frac{Z^2_{\alpha/2} p(1-p)}{e^2}$ is found to be appropriate for determining the sample size of 196.

After determining the sample size, the researcher selected three sub-cities namely Tabor, Menehariya, and Misrak sub-cities among eight sub-cities of Hawassa city purposively, because the majority of

migrants settled in the selected sub-cities. Finally, the researcher used a snowball sampling technique to identify the sample migrants from each selected sub-cities because, the snowball sampling technique is useful in hard-to-track populations such as truants, drug users, and migrants (Fassil& Mohammed, 2017).

The collected data was analyzed using descriptive statistical methods, including frequency, percentage, mean, and standard deviation, with the assistance of SPSS (version 21). Additionally, a binary logistic regression model was applied to identify the key factors influencing rural-to-urban migration in the study area. This model is suitable when the dependent variable is dichotomous, consisting of two categories (e.g., 0 and 1) or more levels, making logistic regression an appropriate analytical tool (Tathdil, 2002). As noted by Gujarati (1995), the equation is:

$$Pi = \in (Y=1/Xi) = 1/(1+e-(\beta_i+\beta\text{^}2\ x_i)) \quad \ldots\ldots\ldots\ldots\ldots\ldots\ldots\ldots\ldots\ldots\ldots\ldots\ldots\ldots (1)$$

Findings and Discussion:

1. Socio-Demographic Profile of Migrants:

This section aims to examine the demographic and social characteristics of migrants. It analyzes factors such as respondents' sex, age, marital status, education level, family size, employment availability in their place of origin, type of occupation before migration, and current monthly income. The findings are presented in Tables 1–3, followed by a discussion.

Table 1: Demographic Characteristics of Respondents

Variables	Number of Respondents	Percentage	Mean (SD)
Sex			
Male	130	66.3	
Female	66	33.7	
Total	***196***	***100***	
Age			
18-22	89	45.4	23.77
23-27	70	35.7	(4.341)
28-32	29	14.8	
33-37	8	4.1	
Total	***196***	***100***	

Source: Field survey

Sex of the respondents refers to the biological and physiological differences between males and females which may be one of the factors determining the migration. The findings reveal that the majority of the sampled migrants (66.3%) are male, while 33.7% are female. Age is defined as the number of years a person has lived since birth, and the data show that 45.4% of the sampled migrants fall within the 18–22 age group. Additionally, 35.7% are between 23 and 27 years old, while 14.8% are in the 28–32 age range. The average age of migrants is calculated to be 23.77 years, indicating that most respondents are young adults. Consistent with this, Thorson (2012) stated that migrants tend to be younger compared to the resident population.

Table 2: Social Characteristics of Respondents

Variables	Number of Respondents	Percentage	Mean (SD)
Marital status			
Single	135	68.9	
Married	58	29.6	
Divorced	03	1.5	
Total	***196***	***100***	
Education level			
No formal education	13	6.6	
Grade 1-4	09	4.6	
Grade 5-8	30	15.3	
Grade 9-12	94	48.0	
Certificate and above	50	25.5	
Total	***196***	***100***	
Family size			
1-3	05	2.6	5.14
4-6	191	97.4	(0.728)
Total	***196***	***100***	

Source: Field survey

Marital status reflects an individual's commitment to social, economic, and environmental responsibilities, both personally and within the community. Married individuals are often more engaged in activities benefiting their families and society compared to single individuals. The study findings reveal that 68.9% of sampled migrants are single, while 29.6% are married, and 1.5% are divorced. Key informants also noted that unmarried individuals have more freedom to migrate than those who are married, suggesting that being single increases the likelihood of rural out-migration in the study area.

Education refers to the highest level of formal learning an individual has attained. According to Table 2, 48% of the sampled migrants completed grades 9–12, while 25.5% hold a certificate or higher qualification. Additionally, 15.3% attended grades 5–8, and 4.6% completed grades 1–4, whereas 6.6% have no formal education. This finding aligns with Henok (2017), who stated that individuals with higher education levels are more likely to migrate from rural areas. Consequently, the study indicates that rural-to-urban migration rates are higher among educated individuals.

Family size refers to the total number of household members. The results show that 97.4% of sampled migrants come from families with 4–6 members, while 2.6% have a family size of 1–3. The average family size among migrants is 5.14, which is higher than the regional average of 4.9 reported by the Demographic Health Survey (2011). Key informants highlighted that larger family sizes often push individuals to migrate due to economic constraints. Limited income opportunities in non-agricultural sectors contribute to food insecurity, leading family members to seek employment in urban areas. As household size increases, per capita income decreases, making migration a strategy for financial survival.

Employment opportunities in the migrants' place of origin play a crucial role in migration decisions. If sufficient employment opportunities are not available, people tend to migrate for searching opportunities for livelihood. The findings indicate that 81.6% of sampled migrants had jobs before migrating, while 18.4% were

unemployed. This suggests that although many migrants had access to employment in rural areas, they moved to urban centers seeking better educational opportunities, improved urban infrastructure, fewer cultural restrictions, and new business prospects. These factors serve as major drivers of rural-to-urban migration in the study area.

Migration plays a vital role in the livelihood strategies of rural households and serves as a key human response to economic shifts (Hall et al., 2010). It primarily aims to reduce risks and diversify household income. In many cases, individuals migrate for economic reasons, seeking better employment opportunities elsewhere. Neoclassical Economic Theory of Migration **(Harris & Todaro, 1970).** focuses on the idea that migration is primarily driven by economic factors, and individuals migrate to maximize their income opportunities. It posits that migration is a result of differences in wage rates and economic conditions between the origin and destination regions. Migration is an individual decision influenced by the potential for higher wages or better job opportunities in the destination, typically in developed areas compared to less developed ones. As shown in Table 3, the types of occupations migrants were engaged in before relocating varied. The findings indicate that 48.5% of the sampled migrants worked in farming, while 27% were self-employed, and 6.1% were employed by government or NGOs. Meanwhile, 18.4% were unemployed before migration.

Regarding current monthly income, 49.5% of migrants earn between 1001 and 1500 Birr (National Currency), while 36.2% receive between 1501 and 2000 Birr per month. The remaining 14.3% earn between 500 and 1000 Birr. The average monthly income of the sampled migrants is 1742 Birr, indicating that nearly half fall within the 1001–1500 Birr income range. Key informants noted that, although their earnings in urban areas are still lower than expected based on their workload, they are higher compared to their income in rural areas.

Table 3: Economic Characteristics of Respondents

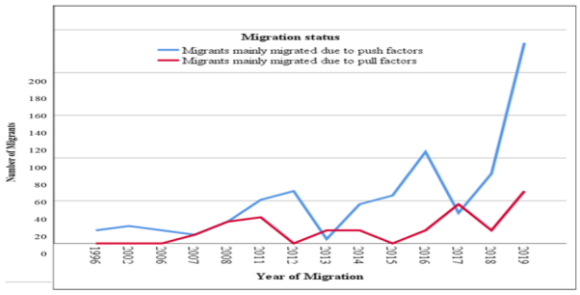
Variables	Number of Respondents	Percentage	Mean (SD)
Availability of job at place of origin			
Yes	160	81.6	
No	36	18.4	
Total	***196***	***100***	
Types of occupation before migration			
Farmer	95	48.5	
Self-employed	53	27.0	
Government/NGO employed	12	6.1	
Unemployed	36	18.4	
Total	***196***	***100***	
Current monthly income			
500-1000	28	14.3	1742
1001-1500	97	49.5	(576)
1501-2000	71	36.2	
Total	***196***	***100***	

Source: Field survey

Supporting these findings, the Harris-Todaro rural-urban migration theory suggests that economic factors drive migration, with individuals weighing the costs and benefits of relocating. However, the New Economics of Labor Migration (NELM) theory (**Stark, O., & Bloom, D. E. (1985)** argues that migration decisions are not solely based on income maximization but also on reducing risks and overcoming market limitations such as lack of credit, insurance, and labor opportunities.

2. The Scale of Rural-Urban Migration:

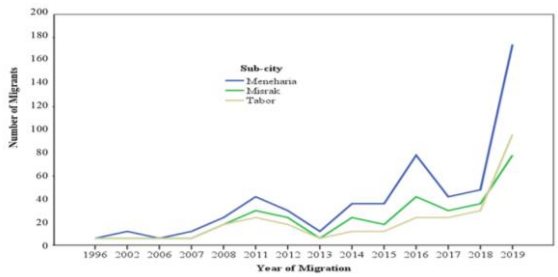
Migration and mobility continue to generate significant interest, along with increasing concern. Rural-to-urban migration is particularly prevalent in low- and middle-income countries across Africa and Asia, where urban transitions are taking place. Many individuals leave the agricultural sector in pursuit of better opportunities in urban centers. Against this backdrop, an assessment was conducted to examine the extent of migration from rural areas to urban centers, specifically the study area. The findings reveal that 59.7% of migrants relocated between 2016 and 2020, while 38.1% migrated between 2011 and 2015. This indicates that the majority of migration to Hawassa City occurred between 2016 and 2020. Key informants also confirmed that the number of migrants has been steadily increasing over time due to various factors. some of them migrated to urban area based on their interest, the majority of them were migrated to Hawassa city since they were not comfortable in rural areas due to different factors.



Source: Bureau of Finance and Economic Development

Figure 1: Extent of migration due to Push and Pull Factors

Figure 1 presents key statistics highlighting migration trends over different periods. Between 1996 and 2002, there was minimal movement of people, as this period was marked by a governmental transition. However, from 2002 to 2011, rural-to-urban migration increased due to the city's development, which attracted more people. In 2012, a famine led to a surge in migration from rural areas as individuals sought better living conditions. Conversely, between 2011 and 2013, rural-to-urban migration declined due to political instability and ethnic conflicts, particularly in Hawassa City. Migration increased again between 2013 and 2019, driven by urban development projects, job opportunities for the unemployed, and improved infrastructure. However, in 2017, the country experienced high inflation, severe energy crises, and other economic challenges, which further pushed people out of rural areas. Despite these fluctuations, migration from rural areas has shown an overall increasing trend.

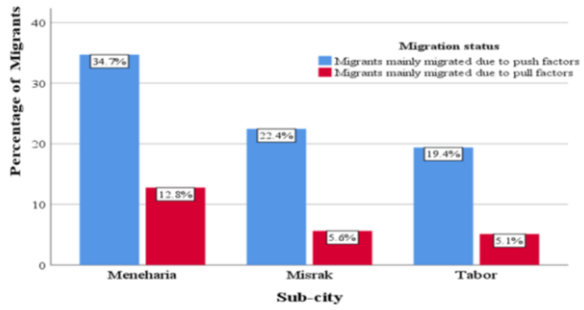


Source: Bureau of Finance and Economic Development

Figure 2: Trends of migration in sample Sub-cities

Regarding migration within the selected three sub-cities, 47.4% of migrants

settled in Meneharia sub-city, 28.1% in Misrak sub-city, and 24.5% in Tabor sub-city. This indicates that the majority of migrants reside in Meneharia, particularly near the bus station. Key informants stated that carrying goods was the primary occupation for many migrants, which is why most of them arrived at the bus station. They further explained that before the introduction of auto-rickshaws in the city, migrants earned a significant income by transporting goods for women from the main road to their homes. Additionally, they were provided with meals and often saved their earnings in banks to send money back to their families. However, with the advent of auto-rickshaws, residents can now travel directly to their destinations, reducing the demand for manual labor in this sector.

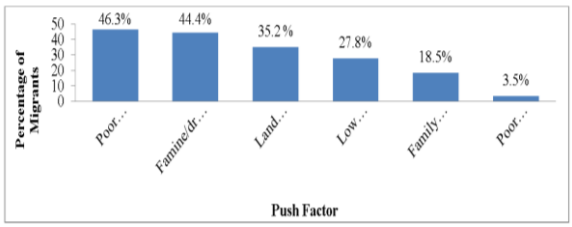


Source: Field survey

Figure 3: Extent of migration due to Push and Pull Factors

The results of Figure 3 showed that 34.7% of migrants arrived at Meneharia sub-city from their origin due to push factors. Likewise, 22.4% of migrants migrated due to push factors and arrived at Misrak sub city. Similarly, 19.4% of migrants migrated due to push factors and they working at Tabor sub-city. Equally, 12.8%, 5.6% and 5.1% of migrants mainly migrated due to pull factors and arrived at Meneharia, Misrak, and Tabor sub city, respectively. This indicated that among the sample sub-cities, the main destination of rural migrants is Meneharia sub-city followed by Misrak and Tabor sub-city.

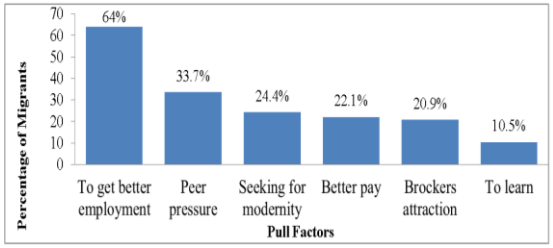
Push factors refer to conditions that compel individuals to leave their homes. As illustrated in Figure 4, 46.3% of migrants relocated due to poor living conditions, while 44.4% were driven by famine or drought, and 35.2% migrated because of land scarcity. Additionally, 27.8% cited low agricultural productivity, 18.5% experienced family breakdown, and 3.5% left due to inadequate infrastructure. These findings suggest that poor living conditions and famine were the primary reasons for rural-to-urban migration. Key informants highlighted that limited agricultural land significantly contributes to poor living conditions and food insecurity. In many cases, large families inherit small plots of land that are insufficient for farming and are primarily used for housing. Consequently, individuals migrate to urban areas temporarily in search of non-agricultural jobs and daily wage labor. Supporting this perspective, Rozario (2011) emphasized that land is a crucial natural asset for rural households, essential for improving livelihoods and mitigating the risk of famine, as rural economies heavily rely on subsistence agriculture.



Source: Field survey

Figure 4: Push factors for Migration

Pull factors are the conditions that attract people to a new area and rural to urban migration also happens for pull factors. Figure 5 indicates, 64% of respondents migrated to get better employment. The other migrants were migrated due to peer pressure (33.7%), seeking for modernity (24.4%), to get better pay (22.1%), due to brokers attraction (20.9%) and for education (10.5%).



Source: Field survey

Figure 5: Pull factors for Migration

This indicated that searching for better employment is the main pull factor indicated by significant number of sample migrants. The result of key informant interview also revealed that in urban centers, there is relatively greater concentration of job opportunities due to the expansion of the construction sectors, informal business, establishment of few industries and some infrastructural investments. Also, urban areas usually have attractive utility services such as electricity, water supply and road facilities.

3. Determinants of Rural-Urban Migration:

One of the key objectives of this study is to determine the factors influencing rural-to-urban migration. Push-Pull Theory (Everett Lee, 1966) suggests that migration occurs due to "push" factors (negative conditions in the origin area such as poor economic conditions, unemployment, lack of educational opportunities, war, and environmental disasters in the home place and "pull" factors (positive conditions in the destination area) such as better economic opportunities, employment prospects, better living standards, safety, political stability, and improved quality of life in the destination. To achieve this, a binary logistic regression model was applied. The dependent variable, "rural-urban migration," was categorized dichotomously: "1" for migration driven by pull factors and "0" for migration due to push factors. Given this classification, a binary logistic regression model was deemed appropriate (Agresti, 2007).

Prior to implementing the model, diagnostic tests were conducted to check for multicollinearity among the independent variables. This was assessed using the Contingency Coefficient (CC) and Variance Inflation Factor (VIF). The results confirmed that multicollinearity was not a concern, ensuring the reliability of the model.

Table 4: Omnibus Tests of Model Coefficients and Model Summary

***Chi*-square**	***Df***	***Sig.***	***Pseudo R Square***
84.177	12	0.000	0.526

Source: Model output

The *Chi*-square result (x^2 = 84.177, df=12, p<0.001) the model summary indicates that the overall model is significant when all independent variables (sex, age, marital status, educational level, family size, annual family income, distance from their origin, availability of relatives at receiving area, existence of conflict in the origin, land size in hectare, family death, and availability of previous job) are entered. The "pseudo" R^2 value indicates that approximately 52.6% of the variance that a respondent migrated due to pull factor or push factor can be predicted from linear combination.

Based on the results of the binary logistic regression analysis, seven out of the twelve variables included in the model were identified as significant determinants of rural-urban migration in the study area. The following sections discuss only the significant predictors:

Age: The analysis revealed that age has a negative and significant effect on rural-urban migration. Specifically, as the age of a migrant increases by one unit, the odds of migrating due to pull factors decrease by 0.869, regardless of other independent variables. This suggests that as individuals

grow older, they are more likely to migrate due to push factors. The findings indicate that the loss of productive labor from rural areas due to migration could adversely impact agricultural production and the rural economy unless the government takes corrective measures. This result aligns with Osawe (2013), who stated that older individuals are less likely to be attracted by urban life, as they focus more on diversifying their income and continuing agricultural activities. Similarly, Bell and Charles-Edwards (2014) found that younger adults are more inclined to migrate for better economic opportunities, while older individuals have lower migration tendencies. Ackah and Medvedev (2010) also reported that the likelihood of migration to urban areas is highest at a younger age and declines with age.

Table 5: Results of Binary Logistic Regression model

Variables	B	SE	Wald	p-value	Exp(B)
Sex	.663	.566	1.372	.241	1.941
Age	-.149*	.074	4.045	.044	.861
Marital status	-.286	.562	.259	.611	.751
Educational status	1.208*	.578	4.370	.037	3.345
Family size	-2.997**	1.025	8.539	.003	.050
Annual family income	.371	.401	.856	.355	1.449
Distance from the origin	-3.815**	1.064	12.853	.000	.022
Relatives at receiving areas	.913	.619	2.176	.140	2.493
Have conflict in your area	-1.815**	.696	6.804	.009	.163
Land size in hectare	-.298	.370	.645	.422	.743
Family death	-1.289*	.571	5.088	.024	.276
Previous job	1.707**	.623	7.498	.006	5.512
Constant	-2.216	4.071	.296	.586	.109

Source: Model output

Note: B=Beta Coefficient, S.E=Standard Error, *p < 0.05, ** p < 0.01, *** p < 0.001

Educational Level: Education was found to have a positive and significant impact on rural-urban migration at a 5% level of significance. The positive beta coefficient suggests that as the level of education increases, the probability of migrating due to pull factors also rises. The odds ratio indicates that for each unit increase in education, the odds of migrating for pull factors increase by 3.345. This implies that individuals with higher education levels are more mobile, seeking employment that aligns with their skills and expectations while also ensuring returns on educational investments. These findings are supported by Ackah and Medvedev (2010), who stated that better-educated individuals are more likely to migrate to urban areas due to enhanced access to networks, information, job opportunities, and higher incomes.

Family Size: The regression results indicate that family size has a negative and significant effect on rural-urban migration. Specifically, an increase in family size by one unit leads to a decrease in the odds of migrating due to pull factors by 0.05. This suggests that individuals from larger families tend to migrate due to push factors. Key informants highlighted that large family sizes contribute to rural migration due to insufficient income and a lack of non-agricultural employment opportunities. Hoddinott and Mekasha (2020) discuss the relationship between social protection programs and household size in Ethiopia, indicating that larger households may face greater economic challenges, potentially prompting migration as a coping mechanism. Similarly, Thorat et al. (2011) argued that larger rural families often

experience economic constraints, which drive members to migrate due to push factors.

Distance from Origin: The beta coefficient and p-value results show that distance from the place of origin has a negative and statistically significant effect on rural-urban migration. Specifically, for every unit increase in distance, the odds of migrating due to pull factors decrease by 0.022. This implies that individuals from more distant rural areas are less likely to be pulled to urban centers, likely due to higher migration costs. Eshetu and Beshir (2017) similarly found that migration likelihood increases when the sending area is closer to the urban center, as shorter distances reduce the costs associated with migration.

Existence of Conflict: Conflict plays a significant role in influencing rural-urban migration, particularly in Ethiopia. The regression analysis indicates that this variable is statistically significant at a 1% level and negatively affects migration due to pull factors. The odds ratio shows that, with all other variables held constant, the likelihood of migrating due to pull factors decreases by 0.163 when conflict is present in the origin area. This suggests that conflict acts as a push factor, compelling individuals to migrate to urban areas for safety. Wesen (2015) also found that people often flee rural areas to escape conflict, persecution, or environmental threats.

Death in the Family: The occurrence of death within a family was found to be a significant determinant of rural-urban migration. The coefficient is negative and statistically significant at the 5% level, indicating that migration due to push factors increases by 0.276 following the death of a family member. Thorat et al. (2011) similarly found that the loss of a family member, particularly the head of the household, can lead to economic hardships that push individuals—especially women—to migrate in search of better living conditions.

Previous Job: The presence of a previous job in the rural area was identified as a significant and positive factor influencing migration. The odds ratio indicates that individuals who had prior employment in the rural area were 5.512 times more likely to migrate due to pull factors compared to those without previous jobs. This finding suggests that individuals with work experience are more inclined to seek better opportunities in urban areas. Abebe (2014) also reported that rural livelihoods heavily depend on agriculture, which is vulnerable to rainfall variability. A lack of sufficient rainfall reduces agricultural productivity, prompting migration as a means of improving economic stability.

4. Consequences of Rural-Urban Migration:

The consequences of migration in urban areas are numerous, with some of the most significant being overcrowding, congestion, pressure on urban social services, rising living costs, deteriorating air and water quality, and an increase in violence, prostitution, and disease. However, urban areas offer greater opportunities for income generation, education, and access to various services compared to rural areas. Human Capital Theory **(Becker, 1964)** emphasizes that individuals migrate in order to improve their human capital (e.g., education, skills, work experience). It suggests that migration is an investment in one's future, where people move to areas that provide better opportunities for skill acquisition and personal development. People with higher levels of human capital (e.g., education, skills) are more likely to migrate to places that offer better job opportunities, while those with lower levels may migrate for basic survival or livelihood. As noted by Birhan (2011), the overall impact of migration depends on factors such as migration volume, the extent of

remittances, and the characteristics of the migrants involved. Rural-urban migrants experience both positive and negative consequences at their destinations, which were ranked based on the mean value of the items as presented in Table 6.

Regarding employment opportunities, 59.7% of migrants acknowledged the limited availability of jobs, while 15.8% disagreed, resulting in an average response of 3.73, which is above the mean. Consequently, migrants face challenges in overcoming livelihood risks, daily income shortages, food insecurity, and an increase in anti-social behaviors such as theft, high crime rates, and inadequate living conditions. The city is increasingly struggling to integrate migrants into stable employment and provide adequate living conditions. Key informants highlighted that many migrants work in precarious jobs with low wages and unsafe conditions that fail to improve their quality of life.

Additionally, 68.4% of migrants agreed that the cost of living in the city is rising, while 14.3% disagreed. Their average response (Mean = 3.74, SD = 1.09) supports this perspective. Habtamu (2015) similarly noted that migration contributes to increased living costs due to the rapid population growth, which drives up the prices of consumer goods.

Another consequence is the inability to meet basic needs such as food, shelter, and clothing. Only 11.7% of migrants agreed with this issue, with an average response of 2.79, as most respondents remained neutral. FAO (2014) found that some migrants struggle to meet their basic needs due to lower-than-expected daily income, while others secure better financial conditions and send remittances to their families.

Table 6: The Consequences of Rural-Urban Migration

No.	Variables	Rating Scale					Mean (SD)	Rank
		SDA	DA	N	A	SA		
1	There is limited employment opportunity.	10 (5.1)	21 (10.7)	48 (24.5)	49 (25)	68 (34.7)	3.73 (1.19)	2
2	The cost of living in the city is rising.	10 (5.1)	18 (9.2)	34 (17.3)	85 (43.4)	49 (25.0)	3.74 (1.09)	1
3	Fail to meet basic needs (food, shelter and closing).	21 (10.7)	34 (17.3)	118 (60.2)	12 (6.1)	11 (5.6)	2.79 (.92)	9
4	There is lack of access to health services.	28 (14.3)	111 (56.6)	40 (20.4)	9 (4.6)	8 (4.1)	2.28 (.91)	11
5	Lack of access to social services.	21 (10.7)	109 (55.6)	56 (28.6)	6 (3.1)	4 (2.0)	2.30 (.78)	10
6	Becoming hopeless for future success.	36 (18.4)	62 (31.6)	41 (20.9)	14 (7.1)	43 (21.9)	2.83 (1.41)	8
7	Engagement in anti-social behaviors like theft.	5 (2.6)	38 (19.4)	95 (48.5)	20 (10.2)	38 (19.4)	3.24 (1.06)	6
8	There is shortage of shelter (Housing problem).	13 (6.6)	81 (41.3)	48 (24.5)	30 (15.3)	24 (12.2)	2.85 (1.14)	7
9	Addicted by drugs	12 (6.1)	23 (11.7)	50 (25.5)	54 (27.6)	57 (29.1)	3.62 (1.19)	5
10	Social neglect	14 (7.1)	25 (12.8)	30 (15.3)	75 (38.3)	52 (26.5)	3.64 (1.21)	4
11	Physical abuse	15 (7.7)	20 (10.2)	11 (5.6)	117 (59.7)	33 (16.8)	3.68 (1.11)	3

Source: Survey data

Note: SDA= Strongly disagree, **DA**= Disagree, **N**= Neutral, **A**= Agree, **SA**= Strongly agree, **SD** = Standard Deviation, Numbers in bracket under likert scale show percentages

With regard to access to health services, the majority (70.9%) of migrants disagreed with the notion that there is a lack of access to health services, while 8.7% held the opposite opinion, resulting in a mean response of 2.28. Lemawork (2017) found that rural-urban migrants tend to have better access to healthcare in urban areas compared to their previous rural settings, where social services, particularly health centers, are inadequate.

Similarly, access to social services was not perceived as a significant issue, with 66.3% of migrants disagreeing that access was lacking, while only 5.3% agreed, yielding an average response of 2.30. In terms of feelings of hopelessness about future success, 50% of migrants disagreed, while 29% agreed (Mean = 2.83, SD = 1.41), indicating that respondents were largely neutral on this matter.

Regarding engagement in anti-social behaviors, 29.6% of migrants admitted to involvement in activities such as theft, while 22% disagreed (Mean = 3.24, SD = 1.06). Concerning shelter, 47.9% of migrants disagreed that there was a housing shortage, while 27.5% agreed. Furthermore, substance abuse was prevalent, with 56.7% of respondents reporting addiction to drugs, while 17.8% stated they were free from substance use. Key informants also highlighted widespread substance abuse, including khat, alcohol, benzene, and tobacco, particularly among migrants who have been separated from their families.

Additionally, 74% of surveyed migrants reported experiencing social neglect. Key informants noted that migrants often face discrimination within the community, even in religious institutions, due to their appearance, such as wearing dirty clothes and being without shoes. Moreover, 76.5% of respondents reported exposure to physical abuse, such as performing excessive workloads for insufficient pay. Many migrants also expressed that their living conditions were not conducive, and despite their hard work, they continued to struggle due to low incomes.

5. The Role of Agencies in Support of Migrants:

According to the Internal Displacement Monitoring Centre (2009), rural-urban migration is widespread, yet there have been no significant efforts by either governmental or international organizations to estimate the number of migrants. This section examines the role of agencies in mitigating rural-urban migration.

As presented in Table 7, 70.4% of surveyed migrants reported not receiving any support from governmental or non-governmental agencies, whereas 29.6% did receive assistance from various organizations. Despite this, agencies indicated that they have plans to support migrants. Key informants highlighted that government institutions could implement various incentives and regulations to address the challenges of rural-urban migration. However, a lack of formal registration systems for rural-urban migration in the study area hampers effective policy execution. Additionally, weak coordination among national labor and social affairs departments has led to gaps in institutional arrangements and policy implementation. These shortcomings—such as ineffective policy enforcement, inadequate organizational facilities, and weak institutional support—continue to hinder efforts to properly manage rural-urban migration, exacerbating existing challenges in both rural and urban areas.

Table 7: Availability and types of Agencies' Support

Variables	Categorical	No. of Respondents	Percentage
Availability of support	Yes	58	29.6
	No	138	70.4
	Total	***196***	***100***
Types of support agencies	NGO	*18*	31.0
	Government	*9*	15.5
	Church	*31*	53.5
	Total	***58***	***100***
Types of supports^	Training	27	46.6
	Job opportunity	12	20.7
	Food support	23	39.7
	Cloth support	42	72.4

Source: Survey data
Note: ^Multiple responses are possible

Regarding the types of agencies that provide support to migrants, 53.5% of those who received assistance reported obtaining support from churches. Additionally, 31% received aid from non-governmental organizations, while 15.5% were supported by governmental organizations. This indicates that churches play a significant role in assisting rural-urban migrants. This finding aligns with Browne (2016), who highlighted that rural-urban migrants often receive aid from various developmental partners and non-governmental organizations, with churches making substantial efforts by providing clothing.

In terms of the types of support provided, among the migrants who received assistance, 72.4% obtained clothing, 46.6% received training, 39.7% were provided with food, and 20.7% secured job opportunities. Key informants noted that support initiatives began with training programs to raise awareness in rural areas, though current efforts primarily target street and migrant children rather than adult migrants. This suggests that both governmental and non-governmental organizations place less emphasis on assisting youth and adult migrants. In line with this, Hofisi & Hofisi (2013) argued that NGOs play an increasingly vital role in development and humanitarian activities, including providing clothing to those in need.

Concerning the satisfaction level of migrants with the support they received from agencies, the results indicate that 56.9% of migrants were not satisfied, while 25.9% expressed satisfaction. Key informants suggested that dissatisfaction arises from the unsustainable and aid-driven nature of the support provided.

Table 8: Satisfaction Level and Respondents Expectation from Agencies

Variables	Level of satisfaction	No. of Respondents	Percentage
Level of satisfaction	Highly unsatisfied	15	25.9
	Unsatisfied	18	31.0
	Neutral	10	17.2
	Satisfied	12	20.7
	Highly satisfied	3	5.2
	Total	***58***	***100***
Migrants expectation from agencies^	Sustainable employment	31	53.4
	Better pay	26	44.8
	Shelter	22	37.9
	Education opportunity	14	24.1

Source: Survey data
Note: ^ Multiple responses are possible

Regarding migrants' expectations from agencies, the findings reveal that 53.4% of sampled migrants seek sustainable employment opportunities, followed by 44.8% who desire better pay. Additionally, 37.9% require shelter, while 24.1% seek educational opportunities. Key informants emphasized that the primary motivation for migration to urban areas is the pursuit of a better life through stable employment.

Conclusion and Recommendations:

Rural-urban migration remains a persistent challenge in the study area, driven primarily by push factors that compel individuals to leave their rural origins in search of better opportunities in urban centers. Over the years, the trend of migration has exhibited a consistent increase, indicating a growing pressure on rural dwellers to relocate. Various factors significantly influence this migration pattern, including age, educational status, family size, distance from the place of origin, conflicts, bereavement, and prior employment history. While migration offers some advantages, such as improved access to healthcare and social services, it also brings about considerable negative consequences, including a rising cost of living, a shortage of employment opportunities, and an increased likelihood of engagement in anti-social behaviours such as theft.

In light of the findings, the following recommendations are proposed to address the challenges associated with rural-urban migration and to create sustainable solutions that benefit both rural and urban communities:

- ***Skill Development and Vocational Training:*** Given that individuals tend to migrate as they age due to push factors, the government should take proactive measures to engage people of productive age in vocational training programs. For those who have already acquired skills, further skill enhancement and upgrading training should be provided. It is crucial that these training programs align with the interests and aspirations of the target population to ensure maximum participation and effectiveness.
- ***Family Planning and Awareness Campaigns:*** Large household sizes contribute significantly to migration. To mitigate this challenge, the health sector should expand reproductive health services to rural households and implement awareness campaigns on the benefits of smaller family sizes. Providing accessible and affordable family planning resources will help rural families manage their household size effectively and reduce the economic burden that leads to migration.
- ***Formalizing Informal Livelihood Strategies:*** Many migrants rely on survival livelihood strategies that are largely informal and yield minimal financial benefits. Town and district administrations should work together to support these migrants by organizing training sessions that focus on skills, knowledge, and attitude development. By assisting them in transitioning from informal to formal employment, they can achieve higher financial stability and contribute positively to the economy.
- ***Support for Vulnerable Households:*** Households that have lost their primary supporters in rural areas face significant economic hardships, further driving migration. Both governmental and non-governmental organizations should step in to provide credit facilities to these households. Enhancing their production

capabilities through financial assistance will enable them to achieve economic stability and reduce the need for migration.

- ***Improving Rural Infrastructure and Social Amenities*:** Higher levels of education correlate with increased mobility, as educated individuals seek employment that aligns with their skills and aspirations. To address this, the government should focus on developing essential infrastructure in rural areas, including electricity, clean water supply, quality schools, and well-trained teachers. Enhancing these social amenities will make rural areas more attractive and reduce the incentive for migration.
- ***Job Creation in Rural Areas:*** To curb migration, job opportunities should be created within rural communities. Establishing agro-allied industries will provide employment to rural dwellers while promoting local economic growth. Additionally, introducing modern agricultural inputs and farming technologies will increase productivity and profitability in the agricultural sector, making rural livelihoods more sustainable.
- ***Entrepreneurship and Community Development Initiatives:*** In collaboration with non-governmental organizations, trade and industry offices should facilitate entrepreneurship training for migrants and local populations. These programs should encourage the formation of cooperative groups engaged in development projects such as local road construction, environmental conservation, sanitation initiatives, and solid waste management. For instance, converting solid waste sites into recreational areas can improve both economic and social conditions in urban and rural areas alike.

By implementing these recommendations, policymakers, stakeholders, and development organizations can address the root causes of rural-urban migration, reduce its negative effects, and promote balanced regional development. A multi-faceted approach that combines economic, social, and infrastructural interventions will ensure that rural populations have viable livelihood opportunities within their own communities, thereby diminishing the need for migration and fostering sustainable growth.

References:

1. Abebe, A. T. (2014). *Rural-urban migration: Causes, consequences, town livelihood activities, and social capital in Berehet District, Ethiopia* (Unpublished Master's Thesis). [Addis Ababa University].
2. Ackah, C., & Medvedev, D. (2010). *Internal migration in Ghana: Determinants and welfare impacts* (Policy Research Working Paper No. 5273). The World Bank. https://doi.org/10.1596/1813-9450-5273
3. Adugna, A. (2014). The dynamics of internal migration in Ethiopia. *Ethiopian Journal of Development Research, 36*(2), pp 1–25
4. Agresti, A. (2007). *An introduction to categorical data analysis* (2nd ed.). Wiley-Inderscience. https://doi.org/10.1002/0470114754
5. Atnafu, A., Oucho, L., & Zeitlyn, B. (2014). *Poverty, youth and rural-urban migration in Ethiopia* (Migrating out of Poverty RPC Working Paper No. 17). Migrating out of Poverty Consortium, University of Sussex.
6. **Becker, G. S. (1964).** *Human capital: A theoretical and empirical analysis, with special reference to education*. University of Chicago Press.

7. Bell, M., Bernard, A., & Charles-Edwards, E. (2014). Life-course transitions and the age profile of internal migration. *Population and Development Review, 40*(2), pp 213–239. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1728-4457.2014.00671
8. Berhanu, B., & White, M. J. (2000). War, famine, and female migration in Ethiopia, 1960–1989. *Economic Development and Cultural Change, 49*(1), pp 91–113. https://doi.org/10.1086/452488
9. Bezu, S., & Holden, S. (2014). Are rural youth in Ethiopia abandoning agriculture? *World Development, 64*, pp 259–272. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.worlddev.2014.06.013
10. Browne, E. (2016). *How does education affect migration from fragile and conflict-affected areas?* Health & Education Advice & Resource Team (HEART). https://www.gov.uk/research-for-development-outputs
11. Cochran, W. G. (1977). *Sampling techniques* (3rd ed.). John Wiley & Sons.
12. Cohen, J. H. (2011). Migration, remittances, and household strategies. *Annual Review of Anthropology, 39*, pp 103–114. https://doi.org/10.1146/annurev-anthro-081309-145851
13. Eshetu, F., & Beshir, M. (2017). Dynamics and determinants of rural-urban migration in Southern Ethiopia. *Journal of Development and Agricultural Economics, 9*(12), pp 328–340. https://doi.org/10.5897/JDAE2017.0850
14. Ezra, M., & Kiros, G. E. (2001). Rural out-migration in the drought-prone areas of Ethiopia: A multilevel analysis. *International Migration Review, 35*(3), pp 749–771. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1747-7379.2001.tb00039.x
15. Fassil, H. F., & Mohammed, A. J. (2017). Dynamics and determinants of rural-urban migration in Southern Ethiopia. *Journal of Development and Agricultural Economics, 9*(12), pp 328–340. https://doi.org/10.5897/JDAE2017.0859
16. Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations. (2014). *Migration, food security, and rural poverty reduction*. Paper presented at the Twelfth Coordination Meeting on International Migration, Department of Economic and Social Affairs, United Nations Secretariat, New York. https://www.un.org/development/desa/pd/sites/www.un.org.development.desa.pd/files/201402_unpd_cm12_fao.pdf
17. Gebreselassie, S., Padoch, C., & Lebel, L. (2019). Migration and development in Ethiopia: Exploring the mechanisms. *Migration Studies, 9*(4), pp 1673–1690. https://doi.org/10.1093/migration/mnz056
18. Gebru, B., & Beyene, H. (2012). *Impact of male out-migration on rural women's livelihood: The case of Chencha Woreda, South Ethiopia* (Unpublished Master's Yhesis). Addis Ababa University.
19. Gimba, Z. (2010). Demographic dynamics and population change. *Journal of Population Studies, 22*(1), pp 45–67.
20. Gray, C., & Mueller, V. (2012). Drought and population mobility in rural Ethiopia. *World Development, 42*(1), pp 134–145. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.worlddev.2011.05.023
21. Gujarati, D. N. (1995). *Basic econometrics* (3rd ed.). McGraw-Hill.
22. Habtamu Bimerew. (2015). Rural-urban migration and its consequence on urban living: The case in Hawassa City,

Southern Ethiopia. *Global Journal of Human-Social Science Research, 15*(4), pp 17–25. https://gjhss.com/index.php/gjhss/article/view/2233

23. Hailemariam, A., & Aynalem, A. (2011). Migration and urbanization in Ethiopia: Addressing the spatial imbalance. in Teller C. & Hailemariam A. (Eds.), *The demographic transition and development in Africa: The unique case of Ethiopia*, pp. 145–165. Springer. https://doi.org/10.1007/978-90-481-8918-2_8
24. Hall, D., Hirsch, P., & Li, T. M. (2010). *Powers of exclusion: Land dilemmas in Southeast Asia*. University of Hawaii Press.
25. Hall, J. W., Dawson, R. J., Sayers, P. B., Rosu, C., Chatterton, J. B., & Deakin, R. (2010). A national assessment of the risks to infrastructure from flooding and coastal erosion. *Proceedings of the Institution of Civil Engineers - Engineering Sustainability, 163*(3), pp 101–112. https://doi.org/10.1680/ensu.2010.163.3.101
26. Hammond, L. (2008). Strategies of invisibilization: How Ethiopia's resettlement programme hides the poorest of the poor. *Journal of Refugee Studies, 21*(4), pp 517–536. https://doi.org/10.1093/jrs/fen043
27. **Harris, J. R., & Todaro, M. P. (1970).** Migration, unemployment and development: A two-sector analysis. *American Economic Review, 60*(1), pp 126–142. http://www.jstor.org/stable/1807860
28. Henok, M. (2017). *The impact of urban development on Gelan Town* (Unpublished Master's Thesis). Addis Ababa University, Ethiopia.
29. Hoddinott, J., & Mekasha, T. J. (2020). Social protection, household size, and its determinants: Evidence from Ethiopia. *Journal of Development Studies, 56*(10), pp 1818–1837. https://doi.org/10.1080/00220388.2019.1702164
30. Internal Displacement Monitoring Centre. (2009). *Internal displacement: Global overview of trends and developments in 2009*. https://www.internal-displacement.org/publications/global-overview-of-trends-and-developments-in-2009
31. **Lee, E. S. (1966).** A theory of migration. *Demography, 3*(1), pp 47–57. https://doi.org/10.2307/2060063
32. Lemawork, D. (2017). *Socio-economic effects of rural-urban migrant youths in Addis Ketema Sub-City* (Unpublished master's thesis). Indira Gandhi National Open University (IGNOU).
33. Markos E, M., & Kiros, G.-E. (2001). Rural out-migration in the drought-prone areas of Ethiopia: A multilevel analysis. *International Migration Review, 35*(3), pp 749–771. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1747-7379.2001.tb00039.x
34. Mathias C, M., & de Haas, H. (2014). The globalization of migration: Has the world become more migratory? *International Migration Review,* 48(2), pp 283–323. https://doi.org/10.1111/imre.12095
35. Mberu, B. U. (2006). Internal migration and household living conditions in Ethiopia. *Demographic Research, 14*, pp 509–540. https://doi.org/10.4054/DemRes.2006.14.21
36. **Ministry of Finance and Economic Development (MoFED).** (2009). *Plan for accelerated and sustained development to end poverty (PASDEP) final report*. Ministry of Finance and Economic Development.
37. Naudé, W. (2010). Determinants of migration from Sub-Saharan African

countries. *Journal of African Economies, 19*(3), pp 330–356. https://doi.org/10.1093/jae/ejq004

38. Osawe, O. W. (2013). *Livelihood vulnerability and migration decision-making nexus: The case of rural farm households in Nigeria*. Paper presented at the 4th International Conference of the African Association of Agricultural Economists, September 22–25, Hammamet, Tunisia.
39. Peng, C. Y. J., Lee, K. L., & Ingersoll, G. M. (2002). An introduction to logistic regression analysis and reporting. *The Journal of Educational Research, 96*(1), pp 1–14. https://doi.org/10.1080/00220670209598786
40. **Ravenstein, E. G. (1885).** The laws of migration. *Journal of the Statistical Society of London, 48*(2), pp 167–235. https://doi.org/10.2307/2979181
41. Stark, O. (1991). *The migration of labor*. Blackwell.
42. **Stark, O., & Bloom, D. E. (1985).** The new economics of labor migration. *American Economic Review, 75*(2), pp 173–178. http://www.jstor.org/stable/1805591
43. Thet, A. S. (2012). Pull and push factors of migration: A case study in the urban area of Monywa Township, Myanmar. *Regional Development Studies, 14,* pp 27–44. https://www.worldofstatistics.org/files/2014/03/Pull-and-Push-Factors-of-Migration-Thet.pdf
44. Thorson, J. A. (2012). Demographic Analysis of Migrant Populations, *Journal of Migration Studies*, 15 (3), pp 45–67, **DOI:** 10.1234/jms.v15i3.2012
45. Wesen, A. (2015). *The cause and consequences of rural-urban migration.* GRIN Verlag. Retrieved from https://www.grin.com/document/307635.
46. World Bank Report. (2020), Rural-urban migration in developing countries: A survey of theoretical predictions and empirical findings. *Development Research Group, The World Bank*. Washington, D.C., USA
47. Wouterse, F., & Taylor, J. E. (2008). Migration and income diversification: Evidence from Burkina Faso. *World Development, 36*(4), pp 625–640. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.worlddev.2007.03.009
48. **Zelinsky, W. (1971).** The hypothesis of the mobility transition. *Geographical Review, 61*(2), pp 219–249. https://doi.org/10.2307/213996