

# THE IMPACT OF RURAL-URBAN MIGRATION TO YOUTH LIVELIHOODS IN TANZANIA: The Case of Mbeya City

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## **ABSTRACT**

*This paper discusses the impact of rural-urban migration to youth livelihoods in Mbeya city, Tanzania. In this research based on a study conducted in 2008. A sample of 200 youths was randomly drawn from wards and village/mtaa levels. This is an exploratory design study and was not guided by any pre-assumptions such as hypotheses but rather used research questions. Methods of data collection included interviews with the youth and key informants, focus group discussions, questionnaires and non-participant observations. The methods used for analysis were both qualitative and quantitative. The descriptive approach was used essentially in generating statistics. The paper focused on identifying push and pulls factors of youth migration from rural to urban areas. Poverty, to be precise, in the rural areas was one of the major factors pushing people from the rural areas, while availability of non-farm activities in the urban areas were pull factor attracting young people to urban areas. However, it showed that the majority of youths lacked formal education and necessary vocational skills to be employed in the urban labour market. Hence, most of the young people ended up being employed in marginal jobs like petty commodity trade, barmaids, commercial sex workers, street food vendors, commuter bus conductors, which are paying better compared to rural earnings hence improving their livelihoods. The study also showed that due to limited opportunity of wage employment in Mbeya city such the decay of industries and few formal employments, most of the youths were employed in informal sector. Moreover, the finding revealed that the movement of young people from rural to urban areas was slightly changing the livelihoods of the youth due to availability of business opportunities and other income generating activities in Mbeya city. This study concluded that the rural poverty was major driving force towards rural-urban migration among the youth in Mbeya city. Finally, the study recommends that effective rural development strategies, poverty alleviation, and provision of necessary physical and social infrastructure can become an effective tool of minimising young people moving away from rural areas.*

**Key words:** Youth rural-urban migration, better livelihoods, Mbeya city, Tanzania

## 1.0 INTRODUCTION

Youth rural-urban migration is a common phenomenon in the world today and in the developing countries in particular. Migration exists because of the dichotomy between rural and urban areas in terms of living standards, whereby urban living standards are relatively better than those in the rural areas. According to the International Organisation for Migration (2005) observed about 54 percent of global populations are youth migrants. Furthermore, the 2013 world migration reports released by the International Organisation for Migration revealed that the rate of youth migration to urban areas is increasing at alarming rate accounting 65 percent. UN population estimates 175 millions in 2000 to 192 millions in 2005 and half of them being youths. Youth rural-urban migration in Tanzania is growing very fast; this is because the process of youth rural-urban migration is found wherever there is rural to urban dichotomy. This dichotomy is a result of colonial penetration which accelerated the growth of modern centers as administrative and commercial centers surrounded by traditional subsistence economies of the rural sector. Migration of youth from rural to urban areas is a labour market issue, besides economic reasons, youths also migrates to avoid ethnic factions in rural areas and because of the desire to be urbanised. The classical development literature has tended to focus on structural change, which involves the transfer of labour between the rural and the urban sector of the economy (Lewis, 1954; Harris and Todaro, 1970). Youth rural to urban migration refers to as a case of mobility of labour between occupations involving semi permanent or permanent movement over a physical distance with respect to the choice between alternative occupations. It is not a marginal choice as a rule people's choice of occupation; it is governed by weighing the relative income offered in different occupation. Migration results from a geographical distribution of income differences (Gappert, 1971). Youth migration means labour force has been transferred from one type of occupation (farming) to other occupation (wage

employment and business). Youth rural–urban migration is linked to rural poverty. Tanzania is among the developing countries that are faced with this problem, after independence, post colonial states did little to break the situation, with the Structured Adjustment Programmes (SAPs) which led to the collapse of rural agriculture economy hence the rate of youth rural-urban migration have increased to the extent that, the urban centers are overcrowded. This has been a main aspect of migration in Tanzania for many years. The increase in youth rural-urban migration has led to the increasing rate of urbanisation especially in the major urban centers such as Dar-es-Salaam, Mbeya, Mwanza and Arusha. Dar-es-Salaam alone constituted about 25 percent of the total urban population in 2002 (Mbonile, 2002). The unprecedented migration of people from rural areas increase the burden on already overloaded public services and public infrastructure especially in the squatter areas. Youth rural to urban migration also contributes to the regional and district level, variations in terms of population pressure over resources (Roca, 1993)

Youth migration is radically changing the socio-economic demographic and development in developing countries, with far reaching implication for agricultural based economies. According to the UN (1995) estimates, 50 percent of the projected increases in the world population will come from rural to urban migration so that by 2025, over 1.1 billion of urban people in less developed countries would be rural migrants. This massive rural exodus will have a marked impact not only on rural areas but also on urban livelihoods. Youth rural to urban migration is a mechanism of individual and group adjustments to development gaps created between the dynamic and developing industrial sectors in urban and peri-urban areas and often more inert and less attractive agricultural sector in rural areas (Roca, 1993). Youth migration in most cases has been manifested in high unemployment and growing social unrest in urban areas, while in rural areas it

translates into declining agricultural output (at least for subsistence crops); growing pauperisation (particularly among women) and disruption of traditional family social structure.

At independence in 1961, Tanzania inherited the colonial system of education, which prepared few people for government posts and the majority were left as manual labourers. The period from 1961 to 1970s primary schools produced many primary school leavers who could not be absorbed into secondary schools. The type of education they received combined with youth aspirations formed the basis for the youth migration and situation is still persisting even today.

The Tanzania Development Vision 2025 provides broad guidance on goals of achieving social and economic development in the country. The Poverty Reduction Strategy Paper (PRSP) is an overarching policy framework to achieve this goal. In the rural sector, two policies were important, the Rural Development Strategy (RDS) and the Agricultural Sector Development Strategy. The ASDS aim for public and private sectors support in Tanzania's effort to stimulate agricultural growth and to reduce rural poverty (URT, 2001). The Government of Tanzania has prepared a Poverty Reduction Strategy Paper which is a key requirement for reaching the completion point under the enhanced initiative for poverty reduction. The strategy aimed at attacking the country's deep and pervasive poverty by raising growth and enhancing the participation of the poor in the development process.

The Rural Development Policy (URT, 2003) basically aims at promoting employment activities in rural areas as a response to the problem of out-migration. The policy spell out that, Tanzania has many resources, which of full utilised could accelerate employment creation. The policy objectives and major areas of implementation include: Promote shared and widely growth, through promoting agricultural productivity and intensification, promoting small and medium enterprises, enhancing community

based natural resources management, enhancing environmental management, maintaining good and macro-economic policies and performance, bolstering land resources management, and harmonisation and coordination of sector policies and strategies. However, these policies have not succeeded to stop/or reduce rural-urban migration of the youth. Between 15 million and 18 million Tanzanians, half the population lives below the poverty line of US \$1 a day. Of these, nearly 12.5 million live in abject poverty, spending less than US \$0.50 on consumption a day as poverty level in Tanzania incidence has stagnated or worsened during the 1990s (URT, 2001). Poverty remains predominantly a rural phenomenon, although the number of poor in urban areas, mainly the unemployed and those engaged in the informal sector, is growing fast. In both rural and urban areas, the poor typically lack capital and human assets: they are less educated, of ill health and have large families. The vulnerability of the poor is increased by preponderance of disease, including the rapid spread of HIV/AIDS. Moreover, Mushi (2005) reported that, about 700,000 youths migrate into urban areas annually; this means that in ten years, urban areas will be invaded by millions of youth from rural areas in addition to those who are born within the urban areas. Migration effects in urban areas include: social conflicts, increase of poverty, unemployment, stress and strains on provision of social services, human right violations which includes extortion, robbery, assault, sex abuse and creation of ghettos in squatter areas. Youths are migrating into the urban areas for search of jobs and better livelihoods as a way of changing livelihoods, as they are moving from rural areas to escape from poverty and help individuals to reach their full potential as active members of the society.

The URT (2001) highlights migration of youth from rural to urban areas as a growing problem in Tanzania. The strategy, therefore, places emphasis on empowering youth through various programs to reduce migration, incorporating agriculture and livestock

production subjects in primary and secondary school curriculum and facilitating the private sector to develop agro-industries in rural areas. However, little have been done to implement the program that is why there is an exodus of youth from rural to urban areas. There has been a lot of research on the impact of migration on society on employment, whether it depresses wages or improves them in the areas of destination, but relatively little attention has given to the impact of migration on the lives of migrants. That is why the overall objective of the study was to investigate the impact of rural-urban migration to youth livelihoods. Specifically, the study intended to: To examine the reasons for youth rural-urban migration and asses changes of youth livelihoods after migration. This paper contributes towards a better understanding of the impacts of rural to urban migration to better youth livelihoods. This article is, therefore, based on data from a total of 200 youth in Mbeya city.

The study was conducted in Mbeya city in Mbeya region. Mbeya city is the fourth largest town in Tanzania after Dar es Salaam, Mwanza and Arusha. Historically, the town began in 1935 as a settlement for European and agricultural trade centre in the Southern Highlands Province. Its growth was also supported by the discovery of gold in Chunya district in 1933. However, the town began to grow rapidly when the colonial government decided to transfer the capital of the then Southern Highlands Province from Iringa to Mbeya in 1952. Since then the town grew rapidly until it acquired a municipal status in 1980. It is still the capital of Mbeya region and major trade centre in the south-west of Tanzania (MMC, 2002). It lies between latitude 8°50'-80°37' south and longitude 33°30'-33°35'. It covers an area of about 214 km<sup>2</sup>. The city is divided into two major divisions and 36 wards.

This is an exploratory study and was not guided by any pre-assumptions such as hypotheses but rather used research questions, where a cross-sectional survey was used to collect both

primary and secondary data. Primary data was collected from youths, key informants such as officers at regional administration and local government, ward and village/mtaa executive officers (WEO, VEO, and MEO) and other stakeholders related information, which were collected through in-depth interviews and on several occasion they were supplemented by discussion and observations. Also, informal interviews with the extension personal of the central and local government departments including community development officers. In terms of questionnaires closed and open ended questionnaire were administered to the youths. The questionnaires were very helpful because of gathering the required information from the youths. Moreover, the use of questionnaire provided the chance to explain and clarify a point which appeared ambiguous. This was based on structured questionnaire which sought to establish the socio-economic and cultural characteristics of its research population and attitude towards employment opportunities in urban areas and their future prospect in terms of improving their livelihoods. The main survey was conducted between October 2008 and December 2008. The questionnaires was chosen as an important instrument of collecting information from the respondents, and check list was used to collect relevant information related to youths migration and change of livelihoods. Individual youth was taken as the ultimate sampling unit, since it is the most appropriate unit to measure when assessing the change of livelihoods. It is at individual level that one finds the change of livelihoods from migration.

The study employed a multi-stage sampling technique that involved several sampling methods at different stages. In response to this, the first stage involved selection of study area, whereby Mbeya city was purposively selected. The choice of the wards/villages/mtaa was based on logistical support and advices from district officials and ward executive officers. In the second stage, four wards were purposively selected as areas of study. The

last stage involved selection of respondents using a combination of sampling methods. Purposive was used to get district officials and ward/village/mtaa executive officers.

## 2.0 DEMOGRAPHIC AND SOCIO-ECONOMIC CHARACTERISTICS OF THE SURVEYED POPULATION

The age and sex distribution of the respondents in the study area comprised of 126 (63%) who were males and 74 (37%) female. This concurs with Ravenstein theory that migration is sex selective. Females are more predominant in short distance migration and males in long distance migration. Furthermore, the study sampled area showed that the people of age (10–20) was about 26 (13%), the population of age group (21–30) was about 126 (63%), the population of age group (31-40) was about 48 (24%) as indicated in Table 1 below. The greater proportion of youth migrants were aged 21–30 which reflected that this age had a great potential for youth migration to urban areas.

**Table 1: Proportion by Age of Respondents**

Age	Percentage (n=200)
10–20	13
21–30	63
31-40	24
41-50	-
<b>Total</b>	<b>100</b>

**Source:** *Field Survey, 2008*

Marriage is an important factor in determining migration. It is important to study the marital status of the respondents so as to know the type of marriage and its implications on youth migration. Demographers divide marital status into several categories, which include single person never married, married but legally separated, the widowed, spouse have died but not remarried and divorced persons who have broken marriage legally

(Wilson, 1985). The study of youths in Mbeya city indicated several glaring factors on the marital status of the youth. In fact, more than 60 percent of the youth were single (not married) and this may be an indication that they had not started building up their families due to difficult life experienced while being single. Groups like barmaids and commercial sex workers in which most of them were women; they did not like to get married due to their nature of their occupation. Hence ending up being isolated by the society by the mere fact that they were been prostitutes. Concurring with the findings of Caldwell (1969) and Sabot (1979) the second group which have the same freedom of migration as single female are the divorced and widowed women. On the other hand, widowed women worked as barmaids or commercial sex workers because their children depend on them. In most cases, their deceased husbands left nothing to inherit which would provide the young children with basic needs As indicated in the Table 2 below that about two third of the respondents were not married (63%), married (34.8%) and widowed (3%).

**Table 2: Marital Status of the Respondents**

<b>Response</b>	<b>Percentage (n=200)</b>
Married	34.5
Not married	62.5
Widowed	3.0
Separated	-
<b>Total</b>	<b>100</b>

**Source:** *Field Survey, 2008*

Occupation is an important livelihood aspect of the youths, (54%) of youth in the surveyed origin areas were peasants, followed by petty traders (24%) which reflected that they left such rural activities looking for better paying city activities. Todaro (1969) pointed out that the decision to move is related to two principal variables which are the urban-rural income differentials and

probability of obtaining wage employment as shown in Table 3 below.

**Table 3: Occupation of the Respondents in the Areas of Origin**

<b>Activity</b>	<b>Percentage (n=200)</b>
Pupils	4.5
Petty traders	24.0
Peasants	54.0
Peasants petty traders	4.5
Beggars	2.0
Teaching	4.5
Not employed	2.0
No answer	2.5
<b>Total</b>	<b>100</b>

**Source:** *Field Survey, 2008*

Question on the main occupation in area of destination was asked to show if there were any changes in the means of or better livelihoods in urban areas. The study findings showed that, petty commodity trading was the main occupation of about half (43%) of the respondents. A study of skills of youth in Mbeya city clearly showed that two-thirds most of the youth migrated to urban areas without skills (65%) as shown in Table 4 below. In fact, this signified that once they migrated to urban areas they were almost condemned to join the marginal jobs which employed them. Others indicated that they had marginal skills such as being casual labourers (4.5%) and barmaids (2.5%) and of the youth lacked entrepreneurial skills necessary to run business activities. As observed earlier, Rungwe district was leading in producing barmaids and petty commodity traders while Mbozi, Ileje, Chunya and Mbeya Rural districts contribute more street food vendors. Youth migrant at the place of destination were engaged in various activities in Mbeya city. In the Table 4 below shows that the majority of the youth migrants were employed in the informal sector or petty trade.

**Table 4: The Main Occupation of Youth in Urban Areas**

<b>Occupation</b>	<b>Percentage (n=200)</b>
Petty traders	35.0
Food street venders	21.5
Selling cooked food	6.5
Casual labourers	4.5
Barmaids	13.0
Motorbikes riding	10.5
<b>Total</b>	<b>100</b>

**Source:** *Field Survey, 2008*

It is important to know the skills of the respondents because it can influence formal and informal employment opportunities. Skills can make someone be self employed or employed by the government or non-government organisations hence change of youth livelihoods. Several studies revealed that most of the youth migrants in the urban areas lack necessary skills to be absorbed in the urban labour market. Lack of skills among youth is a more pronounced problem in developing countries and transition economies. In most countries that have initiated free education programmes these are limited to primary education, which provide basic skills that needed to be enhanced if they are to be applied in any substantive manner (UN, 1995). The study revealed that a third of the respondents had no skills (32.5%) making them less competitive in the labour market. Other skills included carpentry (24%), painters (11.0%), masonry (6.5%), drivers (8.5%) and welders (11%). Others were fresh from school (6.5%) as shown in Table 5 below.

**Table 5: Skills of the Respondents in the Areas of Origin**

<b>Skill acquired</b>	<b>Percentage (n=200)</b>
No skills	32.5
Carpentry	24
Painting	11
Masonry	6.5
Driving	8.5
Welding	11
Fresh from school	6.5
<b>Total</b>	<b>100</b>

**Source:** *Field Survey, 2008*

Generally, most barmaids do not need formal skills to be barmaids and so they had only primary education. Besides this, since most barmaids came from poor households and poor education background, they had little capital and skills to start their own small scale self help project. Hence they only alternatives remaining was to join this profession irrespective of their education level or job satisfaction.

It is also important to study the education level of the respondents because it influences migration of youths from rural to urban areas. According to Rapport (1977) education raises the socio-economic status of an individual and social identity. Education can influence employment opportunities for the youths to be absorbed in the urban labour market. Table 6 shows the percentage distribution of respondents by education level. The majority, (50.5%) of the respondents were educated to the levels of primary education which automatically disqualified them to be employed in modern sector.

**Table 6: Education Level of Respondents**

<b>Education level</b>	<b>Percentage (n=200)</b>
Never went	3
Standard seven	50.5
Form four	29.5
Form six	11.5
College /University	5.5
<b>Total</b>	<b>100</b>

**Source:** *Field Survey, 2008*

This reflects that most of the youths that migrated from rural areas to urban areas were primary school leavers which made it difficult for them to easily be absorbed in urban labour markets. The presence of big number of primary school leavers in urban areas was a threat to them since they could cope easily with rapid technological changes in the world of globalisation. Other respondents (29.5%) were educated to the level of secondary education (Form Four) due to the increase of ward secondary schools and (11.5%) were Form Six leavers and nine (5.5%) were tertiary education, that is college level and above. However, when education level was examined and the reasons for attaining such a level it become evident that most youths were not able to get secondary schools because they were not selected to join government secondary schools and their parents were unable to pay school fees in private secondary schools. The rest left school due to early forced marriage and truancy. Others feared that they would not perform well and hence saw no need to waste their parent's money. Therefore it was observed that a large proportion of respondents ended up being employed in marginal jobs like being barmaids, commercial sex workers, street food vendors and selling second hand clothes. The district origin of the respondents shows that Mbeya city has managed to pull youth migrants from nearly all districts in the Southern Highland Regions. It further

showed that, the two thirds of the youth originated from Rungwe district (32.5%). There were several reasons that made this district contribute more young population than other districts in the region. First, as reported by Hall (1945) this district had been facing population pressure. Secondly, as one of the most developed districts in the region more educated young people out migrate to urban areas and other places in the country. Districts that contributed more out-migration of young people were Mbozi and Mbeya (rural). Districts like Chunya, Kyela and Ileje contributes only a small proportion of youth population in the city.

**Table 7: District of Origin of the Respondents**

District	Percentage (n=200)
Rungwe	32.5
Kyela	4.0
Mbozi	17
Chunya	6.5
Ileje	6.5
Mbeya (rural)	11
Makete	8.5
Ludewa	2.5
Mufindi	4.5
Mbarali	4.5
Njombe	2.5
<b>Total</b>	<b>100</b>

**Source:** *Field Survey, 2008*

### 3.0 DETERMINANTS OF YOUTHS RURAL TO URBAN MIGRATION

There are several determinants of youth migration to urban areas and so the search for determinants of migration is not an easy task simplify because population movements are not only concerned with seeking employment or new settlements but searching business opportunities. Although people migrate for a range of reasons and some are forced to leave their areas of domicile by

conflicts, persecution or natural disaster, those who leave willingly usually do so because they are seeking a better livelihoods.

### **3.2.1 Rural Poverty**

The findings revealed that 69.5 percent of the respondents mentioned that poverty in rural areas was the main determinant of rural-urban migration. Most of them migrated because in rural areas life was very difficult, and so they moved in order to improve their livelihoods. There is general agreement that poverty and destitution is at present more pervasive in rural areas in Tanzania. This confirms Todaro (1969) observed that the variations between non-economic and economic activities are the main cause of youth rural–urban migration and leading to poverty as the main cause of out-migration. The author regarded rural areas as poor and urban areas as rich. Also, non-economic activities are for the rural dwellers and economic activities are for urban dweller. The majority of youths from rural areas were from peasant farmers. They faced severe livelihoods crises due to the fact that their traditional subsistence agriculture could not solve the problem of poverty. Moreover, Sabot (1979) stated that poverty at the area of origin and the socio-economic background of a family in the rural hierarchy may influence the younger generation to migrate. In addition, Newman and Matzke (1984) observed that many migrants to the cities in developing countries are in fact at the bottom of the socio-economic scales i.e. land less and without market skills and so in one way or another they are internal refugees seeking for a way of escape rural poverty. Moreover, Liviga and Mekacha (1998) observed that poverty level have reached an alarming proportion in rural areas especially in the central and southern regions prompting youth to migrate to towns or cities in search of better livelihoods. The study also identified various factors of poverty, which included limited access to technology, poor infrastructure, poor access to safe

drinking water and inability to cope with various shocks such as insects, pests and lack of extension services. This situation has arisen because of many factors including ill prepared rural development programmes and weak monitoring and supervision of the implementation of development programmes and sectoral strategies. The observed shortcomings in the policy formulation, project identification, design, and implementation in the developing countries is in turn attributed to lack of reliable and adequate data and information on the rural development process.

### **3.2.2 Social Services**

As far as they are concerned reasons for youth migration (13%) revealed that rural areas were neglected in terms of provision of social services. Most of the social services were located in urban areas, making rural areas unattractive areas to stay. As observed by Mbonile (1995) observed that before SAPs the informal and non government formal sector had surpassed the government by employing more people. Hence, negligence of rural areas in social services, the unequal distribution of goods and social services forced people to migrate to urban areas. Furthermore, Lugalla (1995) observed that the government had neglected rural dwellers in providing social services such as health services like hospitals, dispensaries and health centers. However, this does not mean that urban areas such services are sufficient but they cannot be compared to those in rural areas. Moreover, Mbonile (1996) makes a similar observation that inadequate social amenities stimulated youth migration for most rural areas lack basic social services such as clean water supply, electricity, good transport, education opportunities, medical services, cultural and entertainment activities and many other facilities. Migration in Tanzania has been and it is still the product of uneven distribution of resources between urban areas and rural areas or between developed and less developed regions (Sabot, 1970; Lwoga, 1985, 1989).

### 3.2.3 Agricultural Sector

The findings revealed that negligence of agricultural sector in rural areas was one of the reasons of youth migration to urban areas. The government has neglected agricultural economy especially with the implementation of SAPs which restricted the provision of subsidies. Moreover, there was no adequate infrastructure in rural areas to transport goods to and from the market and lack of inputs. Agriculture production in rural Tanzania has been stagnating and declining. This has significantly contributed to the increase in the rural areas. Also, in rural areas business network was minimal compared to urban areas where transactions are facilitated by banks. Generally speaking, the information obtained from this study show that Mbeya city acted as a metro pole (core) area which was surrounded by periphery regions such as Rukwa, Ruvuma and Njombe and periphery districts such as Chunya, Ileje, Mbarali, Rungwe, Kyela, Momba and Mbozi. Mbeya city was both an administrative, business and education centre (or business town in the southern highlands regions) and pulled several thousands of youth.

The problem of employment in a rural subsistence economy is complex. It is also documented that the stagnant of the rural economy is one of major determinant of mass out-migration of young population in rural areas to urban areas (Todaro, 1970; Chilivumbo, 1985 and Mbonile, 1994). As a whole, it indicates that if there will be no change in rural agricultural technology, the young population will continue to move to urban areas despite of rampant unemployment in urban areas. Mbonile (1994) made a study in Morogoro town and observed that the decay of the plantation economy has led to a population drift into Morogoro town. The author also found that the predominant proportion migrants were the intra migrants which mean migrants who originate in Morogoro town were predominant. Also, Morogoro town took several migrants into developed region like Kilimanjaro

and Dar es Salaam. Mbonile pointed out on how SAPs affected the Wakinga after trade liberalisation. They started to work in informal sector and then migrated to the Central Business District (CBD). Mwangeni (1991) made a study in Mbeya town and observed that major factors contributed into urban growth is migration, natural increase and reclassification. Mbonile (1996) made a similar observation that the low prices for peasant's products can be tolerated by the old generation rather than the young generation which require quick sources of monetary income. Besides this rural areas are adversely affected by poor infrastructure and the effective business training and advisory services. Most often peasants have been forced to sell their crops on credit and in some areas crops have not been bought at all by the inefficient cooperative unions. As a whole this discourage peasants attempt to increase their income through agriculture which is the backbone of rural economy. For example, those people living in border areas such as Ileje, Kyela and Mbozi have sometimes been forced to illegally sell their crops to neighbouring countries such as Zambia and Malawi to make their ends meet. This in fact gives little choice for peasants in the rural areas but to allow their children to migrate to urban areas so that they can help supplement daily needs.

### **3.2.4 Lack of Non-farm Income Activities**

The search for the causes of migration is a bit illusive because it is very difficult to isolate natural and anthropogenic factors which cause poverty in the rural areas (Mitchell, 1989). Therefore, the reasons for youth migration to the Mbeya city was that it offered better business opportunities compared to rural areas. Furthermore, the study observed that the collapse of the cash crops economy, particularly coffee and tea in Mbozi and Rungwe districts led to the out migration of youth from these districts to major urban areas, in the country searching for better livelihoods to overcome poverty. As a whole, the push factors in rural areas were strong and encouraged youth to out migrate. Trade

Liberalisation promotes rural–urban migration in Tanzania. However, for migrants who did not have an access to resources, an adaptation to hard economic conditions imposed by structural adjustment programmes (SAPs) was needed. For this the return migration has one likely option (Mbonile, 1994). The SAPs created a free market economy that created free movement of capital investment. Trade liberalisation open up chances for self-employment. Mbonile (1994) observed that before SAPs informal and non governmental formal sector has overlapped the government by employing many people. Unemployment is on the rise triggering off mass migration of youth from the rural areas into already overcrowded urban centres; in Mbeya city.

**Table 8: Basic Reasons for Migration from Rural Areas**

<b>Reasons</b>	<b>Percentage (n=200)</b>
Business purpose	13
Lack of services	13
Poverty in the rural	69
Lack of non-farm	4.5
<b>Total</b>	<b>100</b>

**Source:** *Field Survey, 2008*

Therefore, youth rural-urban migrations are taking place almost all over the country but in different levels and rates, that is age, time and sex. There are some regions where the speed of youth rural-urban migrations are greater than others, Mbeya city is among of cities in Tanzania that receives larger number of migrants from the rural areas.

### **3.2.5 Reasons for not Returning Home (Areas of Origin)**

Respondents were asked if they had any intention of going back to the area of origin. The study findings showed that two fifths, (43%), of the youth in urban areas made independent decision about migrating out and going back to the area of origin. Some youth migrants were willing to return back (place of origin) if and

only if employment, social services, credit facilities agriculture extension, rural markets, entertainment and other basic infrastructure were to be reasonably improved. Moreover, a third, (32.5%), of youth indicated that they did not intend to go back despite of lack of employment. They remarked that only the dead body will go to the rural areas for burial.

They cannot return home due to hard life (43%), lack of social service (32.5%). Others showed that it was better to remain in the city instead of going back to rural areas. They also suggested that in order to ensure young people remain in rural areas government should invest in basic social and physical infrastructure. Poverty should be alleviated because in rural areas people cannot afford to buy basic needs like salt, sugar and soap. They also suggested that in order to control people from migrating into urban areas, there was a need to eradicate poverty in rural areas. Therefore, it was important to have agricultural extension and irrigation schemes in rural areas.

**Table 9: Reasons for not Returning in Rural Areas**

<b>Reasons</b>	<b>Percentage (n=200)</b>
Difficult life in rural	43.0
Land scarcity	11.0
Lack of services	32.5
better life in urban	13.5
<b>Total</b>	<b>100</b>

**Source:** *Field Survey, 2008*

#### **4.0 BETTER LIVELIHOODS OF YOUTH AFTER MIGRATION**

According to Bromley (1988) these street occupations include retail distribution of foodstuffs and manufactured goods, small scale transport such as the operation of three wheel motor cycles, motorbikes and personal services such as shoe-shining and watch repair. They also include gambling services like selling of lottery

tickets, security, like night watchmen, recuperation like the door to door collection of old newspapers, prostitution, begging etc. These activities are frequently described as parasitic occupations and conventionally included within the categories called traditional or informal sector (Harris and Todaro, 1970; Bromley, 1988). More recently, the concept of treating the informal sector as marginal has been strongly challenged because in the presence of capital intensive technology the modern sector generates very few jobs for the urban population. As outlined above the informal sector is heterogeneous which enables it to employ large numbers of the urban population (Roberts, 1978; McGee, 1982).

#### **4 1.1 Availability of Non-farm Employment Opportunities**

This paper revealed that there was better livelihoods after migration as 65 percent of the respondents said life was better in urban areas due to possibility of running businesses and other income generating activities compared to rural areas. Whereas 32.5 percent of the respondents said that, that life was still difficult. However, there was a better opportunity of earning more money here than in rural areas. One of the youth from Mbozi lamented as depicted in Box 1

##### **Box 1**

*Life in rural areas is terrible because cash crops like coffee have extremely low price in such a way that most old people who still stick to this crop have started wearing clothes with patches are highly indebted. It is only beans and maize which pay well but insects attack it. If you start business you dig your own grave because thieves may heck you with a machete (panga).*

The majority of youth migrants in Mbeya city were engaged in selling of second hand clothes, food vending, bar attending, motorbike riding and casual labourers, which were paid activities. However, they suffered from poor formal education background and vocational training skills. As indicated above, the majority of respondents were educated to primary and secondary level

without any vocational training skills that makes it difficult to be absorbed in the modern sector. As observed by Olivier and Garcia (1983) that those who migrate from rural areas to urban areas were not successfully integrated into urban areas because they were employed in low income service occupations found in street and other public places. According to Bromley (1988), these street occupations include retail distribution of food stuffs and manufactured goods, small scale transport like the operation of three wheel motor cycles and services like shoe shining and watch repair. They also includes, grumbling services like selling of lottery tickets, being security guards (night watchmen), newspaper vendors, prostitution, begging etc. These activities are frequently described as parasitic occupations and conventionally included within the categories called traditional or informal sector (Todaro, 1970; Bromley, 1988).

#### **4.1.2 Perception of Change of Youth Livelihoods**

This study revealed that 54 percent of the youth had better livelihoods since coming from rural areas. Life in the urban areas was better compared to rural areas due to availability of non-farm activities. It was clear that many were either self employed or employed in small business of various types, which was better paying. The findings of this paper showed clearly that there had been a change in livelihoods among the youth migrants in Mbeya city. This finding depicts a situation where most of the youth led a relatively better life in urban areas. Whatever they earned from their businesses and other activities was spent virtually for survival and for buying other properties such as houses. They had budget plans and estimates for food, water, medical expenses, power, house rents and transports and they had recorded expenditure statements. Thus, each need was observed when resources were available, and records were maintained for these expenditures. This showed that the high level of life security of the studied respondents as regards to the change of livelihoods.

### 4.1.3 Properties Acquired after Migration

It clearly indicated that 40 percent had acquired plots to build a house in Mbeya city, 10 percent having private houses, whereas 15 percent had motorbikes and 10 percent had television set and radio. Whereas, 25 percent had acquired goods such as cellular phones and other small utensils as shown in Table 8 below. In fact, this signified that once they migrated to urban areas there were better livelihoods compared to rural areas.

**Table 8: Properties Acquired after Migration**

<b>Properties</b>	<b>Percentage (n=200)</b>
Plots to build a house	40
Private houses	10
Motorbikes	15
Television set ,radio	10
Cellular phones and other small utensils	25
<b>Total</b>	<b>100</b>

**Source:** *Field Survey, 2008*

### 4 1.3 Skills Acquired after Migration

It was important to know the skills the young people had acquired at the place of destination in order to assess whether they could be employed in the modern sector and improve their livelihoods. A study of skills of young people in Mbeya city clearly showed that most of the young people who migrated to Mbeya city had acquired skills (95%). Moreover, there was improvement of skills since they arrived in urban areas. A few had been trained as cooks and drivers but had no cookery certificates or driving licenses. It further showed that some retrenched workers were retrenched because they had no skills or just rudimentary skills, only a few had clerical skills which at least enabled them to penetrate the modern sector. It was also interesting to note that some of the unemployed had basic skills like plumbing, carpentry, brick laying and others. This showed that they were unemployed because of the higher levels of unemployment in most urban or city centers in

Tanzania especially during the period of globalisation, but they were able to employ themselves in the informal sector.

**Table 8: Type of Skills Acquired at the Place of Destination**

<b>Type of Skills</b>	<b>Percentage (n=200)</b>
Craftsmen	20
Cooks	10
Clerical	5
Computer skills	9
Carpentry	10
Driving	25
Business education	7.5
Others	8.5
Non	5
<b>Total</b>	<b>100</b>

**Source:** *Field Survey, 2008*

#### **4.1.4 Earnings of the Respondents**

To ascertain how much youth migrants earned through various activities especially in petty commodity trading and other income generating activities, respondents were asked how much money they earned per month. It was striking to note that less than half respondent, (45%), said that their income earning per month ranged between Tshs. 401,000/= to Tshs.500, 000/= Likewise, nine percent earned amounts less than Tshs. 100,000/= especially for barmaids. Therefore, from these findings it was clear that this income earning was improving youth livelihoods and future investment. On the other hand, they were able to pay school fees for their children (for those with them), to have a private houses or plots to build, or a car/motorbikes. They had acquired goods like cellular phones, radios, TVs and other utensils which could not be acquired in rural areas and majority either acquired private houses or plot to build their houses after five years.

**Table 12: Respondents Earnings per Month**

Amount in Tshs	Percentage(n=200)
< 100,000	9
101,000–200,000	4.5
201,000–300,000	13
301,000–400,000	26
401,000–500,000	45
< 501,000	2.5
<b>Total</b>	<b>100</b>

**Source:** *Field Survey, 2008*

**Table 13: Average Income in Urban Areas per Month**

Amount in Tshs	Respondents	Percentage	Mid income	Total income
< 100,000	5	2.5	50,000	250,000
101,000–200,000	14	7	150,500	2,107,000
201,000–300,000	22	11	250,500	5,511,000
301,000–400,000	50	25	350,500	17,525,000
401,000–500,000	90	45	450,500	40,545,000
< 501,000	19	9.5	250,500	4,759,500
<b>Total</b>	<b>200</b>	<b>100</b>	<b>1,502,500</b>	<b>70,697,500</b>

**Source:** *Field Survey, 2008*

Total income = **70,697,500**

Total = 200

Average monthly per capita income = **70,697,500/200**

Average income (per month) = **Tshs. 353,487.50**

**Table 14: Average Income in Rural Areas per Month**

Amount in Tshs	Respondents	Percentage	Mid income	Total income
< 100,000	108	54	50,000	5,400,000
101,000–200,000	53	26.5	150,500	7,976,500
201,000–300,000	22	11	250,500	5,511,000
301,000–400,000	15	7.5	350,500	5,257,500
401,000–500,000	02	1	450,500	901,000
< 501,000	-	-	250,500	250,500
<b>Total</b>	<b>200</b>	<b>100</b>	<b>1,502,500</b>	<b>25296500</b>

**Source:** *Field Survey, 2008*

Average income (per month) =  $25,296,500/200 = 126,482.50$

Source of data: Respondents were asked about their income earned in rural areas especially by selling cash crops and other income generating activities, and then what they earned in the new areas that was urban areas both formal and informal sector. Finally, total income was calculated to obtain average income of the respondents per month. This signifies that there was higher per capita income of youth who were in urban areas Tshs. 353,487/50 per month compared with per capita income T.shs. 126,482/50 per month for those in rural areas Table 14. Therefore, this indicated that there were better youth livelihoods in spite of high levels of unemployment in the urban areas, but possibility of business activities were there compared to rural areas. Therefore, this paper showed that rural urban migration among youths was relatively improving their livelihoods because of more business opportunities and development of the informal sector in urban areas. It was revealed that youth had adapted livelihoods strategies that enabled them to survive and cope with specific urban environment. For example, youth performed many jobs in addition to their primary occupation working as painters, construction workers, plasterers, plumbers, electricians, and carpenters, depending on the availability of work. Others were drivers, porters, artisans producing seasonal items and unskilled labourers who were engaged in hard manual work when available.

Also, youth were involved in multiple sources of income, which each member of the youth brought a contribution. A considerable number of youth were involved in petty trading like selling buns, groundnuts, fruits, and dried fish, vegetable and hawking. The paper revealed that youth rural to urban migration in Tanzania occurred to a large extent because rural areas were poor in that they were willing to try their chances in the promising urban labour market. The paper has further revealed that stagnant rural economy or poverty was the major driving force of migration among the youth from rural area to urban areas. Moreover, the study finding indicated that most young people were motivated to start their own businesses because of the limited employment opportunities in urban labour market. However, sustainability was a major constraining factor, as it was governed by the availability of investment capital and entrepreneurial skills among the youth. Poor and lack of access to credit and other financial sources and market accessibility hindered the youth from improving their livelihoods. Hence, the study finding showed that urban youth were relatively better off than those in rural areas.

## **5.0 CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS**

### **5.1 Conclusion**

This paper discussed the determinants of youth rural urban migration and the changes of livelihoods after migration. From the study it is quite vivid that rural poverty was major driving force towards rural-urban migration among the youth in Mbeya city. The increase of youth in the urban areas was closely related to the impact of the rural economy, which was based on agriculture. It was also a surprise to see that the government had neglected rural areas in terms of providing basic physical and social infrastructure. Despite the fact that, there were several factors showing why youths were moving from rural areas to urban areas the study in Mbeya city showed that the high level of poverty in rural areas caused by poor technology and rain fed agriculture.

This low productivity in turn led to rural-urban migration among the youth. Lack of employment in the modern sector had been the major cause of the youth to join the marginal works in urban areas or end up either being totally unemployed or underemployed. The study managed to identify various activities done by the youth, namely, petty commodity traders, barmaids, commercial sex workers, food street vendor, kiosk traders and other marginal jobs. It further showed that the majorities of youth had primary education and had acquired necessarily skills enabling them to be self-employed in the informal sector. The areas of origin of the youth migrants covered nearly all districts in Mbeya region, but majority originated from Rungwe and Mbozi districts due to the collapse of cash crop economy such as tea and coffee. These crops had been the major sources of income in these districts. Others were coming from neighbouring regions namely Rukwa, Iringa and Ruvuma, because Mbeya is a core region, hence, more business opportunities were there. In one way or another, this indicated that there was a need to address the issue of rural poverty and regional disparities in the country.

The findings of the study also showed that youth expectations had been achieved in urban areas. Two third of the youth, 65.2 percent, said that their expectations like having a plot, private house, motorbikes and other income generating activities had been achieved due to the availability of income generating activities in the city. The study findings further indicated that less than half the youth, (45.5%) earned their monthly income ranging between Tshs. 401,000/= to 500,000/=, and there are very few who earn below Tshs. 100,000/=, which meant that they could invests or improve their livelihoods. The study has also revealed that lack of social services and agricultural incentives in rural areas would continue to make youth drift to major urban centres like the Mbeya city. Generally, this was a major challenge to the government, NGOs, and civil society organisations that seemed not aware that it was a future time bomb. This future time bomb

will explode any time when these large masses of youths do not get the necessary means of livelihoods. Moreover, the study identified that urban and rural sector faced different type of employment problems. In urban areas there was outright unemployment among the youth but still there was a continuing rural–urban migration trend, reflecting not only the attractive wage rates in the urban areas, but also the limited formal employment opportunities in urban areas.

## **5.2 Recommendations**

The study, thus, recommends that the government should create better employment opportunities in rural areas, not only to reduce rural poverty but also to slow down youth rural-urban migration. This would require an increase in non-farm activities and rise of productivity from farm activities. Although agricultural employment is likely to keep pace with rural population growth the quality and quantity of these opportunities will depend on the level of rural sector development as a whole. In order to improve agriculture employment it is essential to pursue overall rural development strategies which will improve rural infrastructure, education, extension services, land tenure security, efficient input, output markets and availability of consumable goods. These development efforts would enable the growth of activities beyond subsistence farming. The increase in returns of agricultural labour and creating on-farm opportunities for additional cash income will retain the youth in rural areas. Enhancement of employment opportunities in the rural agricultural sector in particular is important in easing the concentration of unemployment in urban areas.

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