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Migration and Settlement: Exploring what drives Rural- Urban displacement in Kumasi, Ghana.

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MSc. International Relations

Migration and Settlement: Exploring what drives Rural- Urban displacement in Kumasi, Ghana.



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ABSTRACT

Rural- urban migration is a popular documented trend among developing countries. It is estimated that 64.7% of Ghana's migrants move within the country, mostly from the poor rural areas. Predominantly, the geographical north and adjoining towns have high numbers of the youthful population migrating downwards to the southern enclave. This is where most businesses are centred with robust economic activities and significant structural developments.

Using a qualitative research design, this study explores the drivers that underlie this influx of young migrants into the Kumasi city or towns. This work delves into the push and pull factors that harness this phenomenon. Using an interview guide, 10 respondents from the Upper East, Western, Brong Ahafo, Eastern and Northern region were purposely selected to give their motivations and reasons compelling them to relocate from their respective homes to Kumasi.

The study employs the two-sector theory and Todaro's theory to examine the interplay of push and pull factors within the context of rural youth who show unflinching desire to live in an economic viable city fused with glit and glamour. It is observed from the study that desire for comfort, pressure from family and social reputation is among the many reasons influencing the youth to migrate. The good and bad experiences of most migrants after arriving in the city is presented with documented pictures which unveils the hardships many must endure for survival. Other social dimensions that negatively affect health, gender, child abuse, threat to security etc. resulting from over population in urban centres is touched upon briefly. The dejected rural communities suffer this outmigration by their youthful population. The agricultural sector is hampered in terms of production yield due to lack of the needed labour force and mechanical farming equipment. All these factors account for the overall levels of poverty witnessed across these rural areas, increased crime rates in urban towns, filth accumulation, slums, child labour etc.

DEDICATION

I want to thank my parents for their love, encouragement and support throughout my education.

To Rev. Bro. Mark Williams Ikechukwu Iwu who has been my godfather throughout my formative years and still counting.

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DECLARATION

I, David Adambem Abolga, declare that this thesis is a result of my research investigations and findings. Sources of information other than my own have been acknowledged and a reference list has been appended.

This work has not been previously submitted to any other university for award of any type of academic degree.

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CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

1.1 Background of the Study

Rural urban migration has increased significantly in recent years, especially in developing countries. Most people move from one neighbourhood to the next for several reasons that are obvious in the quest for survival. Due to a multitude of challenges, people have been compelled to abandon their original habitats in search of a better living. Migration is described as the movement of people from one place to another for a specific motive (De Jong & Gardner, 2013). Similarly, migration is defined by Kok (1999) as the movement of one or more individuals engaged in a change of residence across spatial boundaries.

Equally, Ajaero and Onokala (2013) explain migration as the voluntary movement of people from less developed rural areas to more developed metropolitan areas in search of a better quality of life. Individuals move inside or internationally for a variety of reasons. These myriads of reasons informing the decision to move have been categorized into push and pull factors (Kainth, 2010; Parkins, 2010; Matsui & Raymer, 2020). The push factors are the factors present in the individual's present environment that nudge the person to leave one place and travel to another for various reasons. In contrast, pull factors refer to the factors that entice migrants to move to a location (Kainth, 2010).

According to existing literature, there are internal and external forms of migration (Etzo, 2008; King, Wickramasinghe & Wimalaratana, 2016). While external migration refers to the movement of active people beyond national borders, internal migration refers to the unrestricted movement of active persons inside the domestic economy. A vital form of internal migration is rural urban migration, which in the twenty-first century is increasingly exponentially globally leading to unprecedented urbanization of major cities (Hall & Pfeiffer, 2013). Nearly half of the world's population resides in cities, and in 2008, for the first time in human history, more people lived in cities than in rural areas (Goldstone, 2010). Approximately one million more people move into cities each year. By 2030, the urban population would have grown to 5 billion people, or 61 percent

of the total population whilst the rural population is predicted to fall from 3.3 billion to 3.2 billion people (Cohen, 2006).

The high population increase and its expected exponential increase in developing countries has been attributed to the prevalence of rural urban migration (Kundu, 2003; Tacoli, McGranahan & Satterthwaite, 2015). At least half of Africa's urban growth in the 1960s and 1970s was due to rural urban migration, and in the 1980s and 1990s, about 25 percent of urban growth was due to this movement of people from rural communities to urban centres (Cohen, 2006; Beauchemin, 2011). According to data from the Ghana Statistical Service (2012), Ghana's urban population has been significantly influenced by rural urban migration. Only 9.4 percent of the total population lived in urban areas in 1931; by 1948, that percentage had climbed to 13.9 percent. The total population was 23 percent in 1960; 28.9 percent in 1970, 31.3 percent in 1984, and 43.9 percent in 2000.

The 2010 population census revealed that 50.9 percent of Ghanaians reside in urban areas. The report indicates states that the rural urban migration played a critical role in this development with the degree of urbanization varying by region. The Greater Accra had the highest percentage of urban residents (90.5%), followed by the Ashanti Region (60.6%) (Ghana Statistical Service, 2014). It is important to reiterate that the Ashanti region has the greatest intra-regional migration rate of 23.6 percent implying that more than a quarter of its people have moved within the region especially to Kumasi and the Obuasi areas (Aryeetey, Quartey, Tsikata & Ampaabeng, 2009). Regional migration in Ghana, however, varies greatly from region to region and in terms of the magnitude and nature of the migration (Shimeles, 2010; Ackah & Medvedev, 2012). In the three northern regions, non-migrants (natives) constituted the majority in each region with shares of populations over 80 percent. However, in the Greater Accra and Ashanti regions, non-migrants (natives) are not in the significant majority as they have a reported share of 47.3 percent and 58.4 percent respectively of the total population in these regions (Ghana Statistical Service, 2014).

According to estimates, 96% of Ghana's migrants relocate inside the nation, largely from the nation's poor, rural, northern parts to its wealthier, urban, southern regions (Research Consortium Migration out of Poverty, 2011). Somanje *et al.* (2020) opines the main factors causing rural urban migration in Ghana are poverty, unemployment, higher wages, access to financial opportunities

and a need for basic amenities like schools, safe drinking water, hospitals, accessible roads, electricity, telecommunication, sports, and entertainment facilities among others are the primary drivers of rural urban migration in Ghana. Rural urban migration has positive effects to the migrants as they have access to life-changing opportunities such as job opportunities, access to education among others erstwhile not available in their rural areas (Awumbila, Owusu, & Teye, 2014; Pickbourn, 2018).

However, the negative effects of rural urban migration are evident in both the rural and urban areas. The movement of people from the rural to urban areas leads to the rapid deterioration of the rural economy. The rural economies are predominantly agrarian and with the movement of able-bodied men and women to the urban areas implies or translates into the loss of the labour for these farmlands ultimately leading to food insecurity and chronic poverty in these rural areas and the development of the country (Iruonagbe, 2009; Awumbila, Owusu & Teye, 2014; Villaronte, Yap & Rosete, 2022). Equally, the high incidence of rural urban migration puts more strain on urban public services and presents several socioeconomic and general welfare problems as there is an increased strain on the existing infrastructure with expansion of shantytowns and slums, public health, and social amenities (Awumbila, Owusu & Teye, 2014, Somanje, 2020).

1.2 Statement of the Problem

Ghana's internal migration is a well-developed and recurring phenomenon such that the migration of individuals from rural to urban areas has become a major economic force in Ghana. (Anarfi, Kwankye, Ababio & Tiemoko, 2003; Tutu, 2011; Awumbila, Owusu & Teye, 2014). For many Ghanaians, urban living means new job prospects and the ability to be less linked to family commitments, as opposed to working mostly on farms with significant family responsibilities (Porter *et al.*, 2011). The effects of rural urban migration are two-fold. First, in the rural area there is possibility of food insecurity and chronic poverty due to the migration of young people from rural areas, leaving only the elderly, women, and children to work there. Meanwhile at the urban areas, the increased migration translates into growing strain on the local governments capacity to address the social service needs of the growing urban populations in terms of their social service (Twumasi-Ankrah, 1995; Adaku, 2013).

Research on rural urban migration continues to be an essential and increasing topic of development research in Ghana. Existing studies have explored the relationship between migration and development (Twumasi-Ankrah, 1995; Kwankye, Anarfi, Tagoe & Castaldo, 2007; Adaku, 2013; Awumbila, Owusu, & Teye, 2014; Agyei, Kumi & Yeboah, 2016). These studies have focused on the pull factors specifically the lure of the urban centre as the driving force for rural urban migration neglecting the impact of the rural push factors. This study intends to provide a nuanced appreciation of internal migrant's decision to move in Ghana by focusing on the interplay between the push and pull factors. Furthermore, most of these quantitative studies have been conducted in the capital city Accra with its general appeal different from the other major cities in Ghana. This study focusing on Kumasi intends to provide a fresh perspective on rural urban migration in Ghana. Thus, the purpose of this study is to establish the push and pull factors influencing rural urban migration in the Ashanti region. Also, I will attempt to give a brief insight on the implications of these rapid movements on female migrants, agriculture, and the newfound habitats in the urban areas.

1.3 Research Questions

This research intends to answer the following questions:

1. How does the interplay of push and pull factors inform young people's decisions to migrate and experiences with migration in the Ashanti region?
2. What push factors drive rural urban displacement in Ghana's Ashanti region?
3. What pull factors influence rural urban migration in Ghana's Ashanti region?
4. What are migrants' experiences with migration in the Ashanti region?

1.4 Significance of the Study

This study makes two main contributions to empirical literature and policy directives. First and foremost, this study contributes to the existing literature on factors influencing rural urban migration in Ghana. Although the current literature offers interesting insights, the results of the studies are based on migrants in the Greater Accra region as the country's capital. This study intends to fill this lacuna by investigating the push and pull factors influencing rural urban migration in the Ashanti region. This is because it is the second largely populated city with nearly the same levels of structural development and economic market size comparable to the nation's capital.

Secondly, the paper also contributes to defining policy directives. The findings of the study will provide national and local policymakers, as well as development partners with valuable insight into the dynamics of rural urban migration. The findings of the study will further inform the policymakers the impact of push and pull factors influencing the decision of internal migrants in Ghana. This is expected to translate into the development of research-informed policies to define suitable policies to address the growing concern of rural urban migration in Ghana.

1.5 Organization of the study

This study is structured into five major chapters. In the first chapter, which is the introductory chapter, the background and the problem of the study is highlighted. The chapter also captures the questions guiding the study as well as the relevance of the study. In the second chapter of the study, the study focuses on examining the existing literature on the study. The empirical literature on the various research questions of the study as well as the theories guiding the study were examined before developing a conceptual framework to guide the study. The third chapter details the methods adopted for the study. The research design, sampling procedure and techniques are highlighted in this chapter. The processes of data collection and analysis were also specified. The fourth chapter details the presentation of the results of the data analysis and the discussion of the results within the light of existing literature and theories considered for the study. The fifth chapter summarizes the major findings of the study, draws conclusions and extending relevant recommendations for future studies and practice.

CHAPTER TWO

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.0 Introduction

This chapter is the second chapter of the thesis. It focused on the review of literature relevant to the study. First, I highlighted the three main theoretical underlying reasons for migration. I briefly explain rural urban migration and its associated problems. This was followed by discussing various scholarly explanation of migrations issues in Ghana. Lastly, the chapter concludes by describing the conceptual framework explaining the phenomenon of rural urban migration.

2.1 Theoretical models Explanations

Theories are very vital for any research study. The theory explains, describes, evaluates, and predicts future perspectives. The main theories relevant to this study were the two-sector theory, Todaro theory, and the push-pull model. There are various dimensions of research on rural urban migration. One body of research investigates the reasons for migration and the factors that play a role in an individual's decision to move. Another stream investigates the attractiveness of rural urban migration in various circumstances, despite the effects of migration. The three theories below provide a more detailed scientific understanding on the rural urban migration.

2.1.1 The Two-sector theory

One of the earliest theories on migration is the two-sector model put forth by developmental economist Lewis in 1954. It analyzes rural urban migration with a focus on economic growth. Lewis differs from other economic experts in that he considers excess labor to be negligible, zero, or perhaps even negative in terms of human beings rather than man-hours. Several economists have been challenged by the Lewis model's theoretically and empirically (Serefoglu, 2016). The model focuses on the process of workforce transition as well as the growth of production and employment in the contemporary industry (Todaro & Smith, 2003). According to his model, he divides the economy into two sectors: a significant "subsistence" sector and a restricted "capitalist" sector.

As the traditional agricultural sector, the subsistence sector is characterized by backwardness, unemployment, and negligible, negative, or even diminishing marginal output gains. As a result,

it is possible to eliminate excess labor from the conventional "subsistence" sector without reducing output (Todaro & Smith, 2003). The increased female participation in the workforce due to their relieve from household work, employees from various types of casual jobs, as well as the increased unemployment brought on by increased efficiency have influenced high labor supply. These factors coupled with massive population growth brought on by low mortality and high birth rates have resulted in less demand for available labor (Aliyev, 2008). The traditional approach can both be used to estimate the subsistence wage.

Lewis defines the capitalist sector as the advanced modern urban manufacturing industries that dwarf the traditional sector in terms of income, capital, individual benefits, salaries, proportions of savings as well as the rate of scientific advancement (Bauer, 1956; Leeson, 1979). The key emphasis of Lewis's theory was on labor reallocation till the critical juncture, i.e., the point at which labor reallocation had surpassed population increase for long enough for the duality to decrease as well as the eventual commercialization of the economy (Ranis, 2004). He contends that the income gap between rural and urban areas widens as a result of the expansion of an industrial sector. When the "capitalist" sector grows, there are labor shortages that are gradually filled by extra workers from the subsistence sector. (Bauer, 1956; Leeson, 1979).

As a result, the capitalist sector provides surplus labor from the subsistence sector with higher earnings and more employment opportunities (Bauer, 1956; Leeson, 1979). Rural urban migration starts under these circumstances because rural labor surpluses make up for urban labor shortages (Timalsina, 2007). Workers from the subsistence sector are attracted or pulled as the capitalist sector grows. As a result, employees who move from subsistence to capitalist sectors produce more per person. Lewis believes that the supply of unskilled labor to the capitalist sector is limitless since his theory considers economies with excessive labor surpluses (Hunt, 1989). The rural urban movement will continue until the subsistence sector's excess labor is totally absorbed by the capitalist sector.

This theory has been adopted as relevant for this study and can be applied to the dissertation. This is because as agricultural output declines, particularly in rural areas based on the theory, more people are projected to relocate to the Ashanti region. Similarly, as the subsistence sector and rural

areas become characterized by backwardness with unemployment on the increase, rural urban migration also gets entrenched.

2.1.2 The Todaro theory

This was presented by Michael Todaro, that explains migration from an economic perspective (Todaro ,1969). Here migration as purely an economic issue, where variations in projected income between rural and urban areas are the primary driver of internal movement. The Harris-Todaro model's theory and predictions have been put to econometric analysis and have been confirmed by a number of studies. Harris and Todaro's core hypothesis stipulate that financial incentive, wage disparities, and the possibility of finding employment at the new location all significantly influence a migrants' decision to move. To put it another way, the theory posits that when there is significant difference in the wage in the rural and urban areas with the latter wages in excess then individuals will migrate to these urban areas (Ray, 1998; Yap, 1977; Williamson,1988).

Individuals choose to move from rural to urban locations if their predicted earnings in the urban sector are higher than their typical wages in the rural sector (Todaro, 1969). Harris and Todaro explored at worker migration in a two different economy: rural and urban. The type of products manufactured, the manufacturing technology, and the pay determination procedure are the differences between these sectors (Todaro, 1980). The author also considers the likelihood of landing a job in a city to be a major element in a person's decision to relocate.

As a result of substantial rural urban migration, the model also considers the high rates of urban unemployment and underemployment that have been observed in most emerging economies. Todaro (1969) describes rural urban migration as a two-stage process and views urban unemployment and underemployment as a typical scenario within the discourse of migration. A migrant works for a predetermined period of time in the urban traditional sector, which is made up of all employees who do not frequently work in the urban modern sector (Todaro, 1969). In the second stage, the migrants land a position in a modern industry that is more long-term. Here, the underlying premise is that rural-urban labor movement persists despite high unemployment and underemployment in urban areas because migrant workers anticipate finding a permanent urban job that can provide them with greater pay (Timalsina, 2007).

The theory was applied to this study in the sense that it will assist in determining the extent to which people will relocate from rural areas to the Ashanti region if their expected earnings in Kumasi are higher than their regular pay in their rural communities. The theory will benefit in the investigation of how people make decisions, particularly the likelihood of getting a job in a place that influenced their migration decisions. Thus, despite the unemployment and underemployment in Ashanti, rural migrants continued to migrate to the region. This theory will explain why this is the case.

2.1.3 Push and Pull model

The theories, two-sector theory and Todaro theory, focus exclusively on the economic factors influencing the decision to migrate at the neglect of other influencing factors. The push-pull model provides another dimension to explaining rural urban migration. The earliest mention of the push-pull model can be traced to Ravenstein's "The Law of Migration published in 1885. Ravenstein (1876) advanced that migration is influenced by a series of "push and pull" processes. His evolving migration model was based on the ideas of absorption and dispersion. A county is considered as an absorption county if its population is greater than or equal to the total number of native people. On the other hand, a county of dispersion would be one of the counties whose population has decreased over time. In contrast to dispersion counties, which were "nearly exclusively... agricultural," the absorption counties "are the principal centers of business and industry." Thus, it can be inferred that people relocate from dispersion counties to absorption counties in quest of possibilities that are unavailable in dispersion counties.

Lee (1966), who is regarded as the creator of the push and pull theory, categorizes migration decisions and processes into four groups. the push and pull factors, as well as any intervening hurdles and personal factors. Pull factors are present at the point of destination, whereas push forces are at the point of origin. Push factors are unfavorable conditions that compel people to shift or leave their current surroundings. Low productivity, unemployment, and underdevelopment are examples of push forces. Others include unfavorable economic circumstances, a lack of opportunities for advancement, the depletion of natural resources, and natural disasters. On the other hand, pull factors are the positive elements that entice people to relocate to the new location.

Similar to push forces, pull factors include things like improved employment opportunities, higher pay, facilities, better working conditions, and amenities.

The terms "intervening hurdles" allude to roadblocks, transit issues, and stringent immigration regulations. Recent technological developments and improved diplomatic ties have reduced their influence. The personal factors affect the actual act of migrating and are determined by how the individual perceives these circumstances. Examples include personal sensibilities, intellect, social networks, and understanding of circumstances overseas. Lee's push-pull theory suggests that in order for an individual or group to choose to leave, there must be more pull causes than push factors, and the hurdles in between also need to be easy to overcome. The push and pull theory add another dimension from the economic dominated theories of migration by highlighting the influence of socio-cultural, political and environmental factors in influencing peoples' decision to migrate. This presents an avenue for child trafficking, irregular migration and forced labor in some reported cases where victims are lured with juicy promises but end up treated inhumane (Andrees & Linden, 2005). In this study, it is expected that unfavorable factors present in their communities pushed people to move to Kumasi. Subsequently, the attractiveness of Kumasi was enough to pull them to migrate to the city.

2.2 Conceptualization of Migration

2.2.1 Migration

Migration is a multifaceted process making it difficult to provide a single definition to explain the process. De Jong and Gardner (2013) simplifies the concept of migration as the movement of people from one place to another for a specific motive. This definition highlights the core theme of migration- movement from one to another as such fails in its simplicity to touch on the other complexities of migration. Adewale (2005) attempts to upgrade the definition of migration by introducing the variable of intention to stay. The author explains as the movement of people, either temporarily or permanently, from one geographic area to another. This definition fails to acknowledge the importance of motive in defining migration. Thus, an aggregation of the shortcoming of the two highlighted definitions informs this research's operational definition of migration. This study defines migration as the movement of individuals or groups of individuals temporarily or permanent for myriad of reasons.

Migration can be classified based on numerous conditions. The popular conditions for classification include the individuals involved (workers, students among others); migrants' level of control of the process (voluntary or forced); flow of movement (internal or international); and destination (rural or urban) among others. The focus of this research is on the internal flow of migrants as such the ensuing paragraphs would advance definitions of internal migration within this context. Internal migration can be categorized as rural urban migration; urban rural migration; rural-rural migration; urban-urban migration; rural outmigration.

Rural urban migration is explained by Ajaero & Onokala (2013) as the voluntary movement of people from less developed rural areas to more developed metropolitan areas for a variety of reasons such as search of a better quality of life. Adewale (2005) explain urban rural migration as the reverse of the rural urban migration as people move from well-developed neighborhoods or cities to rural areas for reason such as inability to find work in the cities, retirement, and the high expense of living in urban areas. Rural-rural migration involves the movement of people from one rural area to another usually for purposes of farming, fishing, or other subsistent activities. On the other hand, urban-urban migration is the movement of people from one urban area to another urban area. According to Mensah *et al.* (2019), out- migration in Ghana is usually as a result of how people perceive and respond to the glaring disparities in socio-economic opportunities.

2.2.2 Factors influencing the decision to migrate

Existing studies have explored the factors responsible for individuals' decision to migrate (Czaika & Vothknecht, 2012; De Jong and Gardner; 2013; Boyd & Grieco, 2014; Bauer & Zimmermann, 2018; Castelli, 2018). These factors span across economic, social, cultural, political and/or environmental factors and are levied by the push and pull factors in explaining the decision of people to migrate. These factors are discussed in the ensuing paragraphs.

2.2.2.1 Economic factors

The economic factors are one of the driving forces influencing peoples' decision to migrate. This has been highlighted extensively in economic migration theories. The decision to migrate from the poor countries to the rich countries is sourced from the economic gap between the two countries.

The motivation for poor country migrants moving to rich countries is to bridge the economic gap between developed and developing nations in order to improve their standards of living. The economic push factors include poverty, low wages, and unemployment among others whilst economic pull factors include prospects for higher wages, improved living standards and job opportunities among others.

2.2.2.2 Socio-cultural factors

Equally, socio-cultural factors play a role in individuals' decisions to migrate to other countries. These factors are sourced from the individuals' social network and cultural orientation. The socio-cultural push factors include discrimination, societal pressure, absence of family ties whilst socio-cultural pull factors include familiarization with different cultures, social network, life experience abroad among others.

2.2.2.3 Political factors

In addition, political situations are also influential in individuals' decision to migrate to other countries. Political factors are sourced from political power and people's interactions with these laws. These adverse political situations that inform people to leave their home countries include political persecution, civil war, military coups whilst the favorable political situations include political freedom, security, and tolerance towards minorities.

2.2.2.4 Environmental factors

The effect of climate change has seeped into the migration discourse as the change in the environment affects the lives of individuals and their livelihoods as such individuals are forced to move to escape the harsh realities caused by the climate change. The environmental push factors include famine or drought, disasters and, pollution whilst the environmental pull factors include good climatic conditions and arable lands among others.

2.2.3 Youth and Migration

The acknowledged role of the youth in defining the course of a country's fortune has deepened interest in exploring their migration intentions. Existing literature have advanced that young people

have the stronger intention to migrate (Belmonte & McMahon, 2019; Migali & Scipioni, 2019). These factors are discussed in the ensuing paragraphs.

2.2.3.1 Demographic Characteristics

Existing studies have explored the relationship between the individuals' socio-demographic characteristics and his or her decision to migrate. The studies have established a mixed results on the influence of gender indicating that the decision to migrate is not dependent on an individual being male or female (Mora & Taylor, 2006; Hoang, 2011). In addition, with regards to age, studies indicate that younger people are more likely to migrate (Mora & Taylor, 2006; Plane & Jurjevich, 2009; Migali & Scipioni, 2019). This young cohorts are open to experiencing the world hence are open to migrating. Finally, Williams, Jephcote, Janta and Li (2018) exploring motivation for youth migration in Europe concedes that individuals without any marital relationship that is single and childfree are open to migrating to another countries. In effect, these relationships can serve as anchor to their countries of origin as such the absence of these relationship reflect freedom to migrate.

2.2.3.2 Social Networks

The influence of social networks in influencing the decision of the youth to migrate has been explored in existing studies. The role of social networks is in two folds: as an enabler and equally as a deterrent to decision to migrate. Cairns and Smyth (2011) concede that social networks can enable the youths' decision to migrate when the individual has access to networks of friends who have travelled abroad especially in their desired country. Equally, Williams *et al.* (2018) posit that social networks can hinder the decision to migrate when individual has strong links with family members and the community.

2.2.3.3 Education

The youths' desire to gain quality education and the decision to migrate has been explored in literature. This is supported by the growing studies on international student mobility literature. It is estimated that by 2025 the global international student population will increase to 7.2 million (Prazeres, 2013; Choudaha, 2017). These studies acknowledge that students move to other countries for a myriad of reasons. Key among them is the lack of quality education, unavailability

of the desired program, among others in the home countries whilst the destinations countries and institutions have become attractive options for international students because of the higher quality of education, better career opportunities, tuition fees, among others (Mazzarol & Soutar, 2002).

2.2.3.4 Employment

The search for employment remains one of the important drivers for the migration intention of the youth. The young person's decision to immigrate may be influenced by macroeconomic and labor market conditions of their country. This is particularly true for highly educated young as they will consider migrating when there are inadequate job opportunities (Bartolini, Gropas & Triandafyllidou, 2017). Studies indicate that unemployed and high-educated youth are more likely to intend to emigrate, especially from countries with high ratios of youth to adult unemployment (Öztürk, 2017; Milasi, 2020). According to Dibeh, Fakih and Marrouch (2019), a lack of employment possibilities can be a significant factor in young people's decision to migrate from the Middle East/ North Africa region.

2.3 Rural Urban Migration and the associated challenges.

Rural urban migration refers to people moving from rural areas to urban areas in search of better living conditions (Min-Harris, 2010). Urbanization is a multidimensional concept that encompasses not only the increase in the population of towns and cities but also the extensiveness to which this expansion is associated by structural changing economic conditions and employment, as well as the socioeconomic and cultural changes that can come when people live in large, multinucleate settlements (Pickett and Zhou, 2015). Potts (2012) have highlighted the completely conflicting trends in last several urbanization rates throughout Sub-Saharan Africa, attempting to point out that population increase, as seen in almost all the region's towns and cities, does not always translate into rapid increases in population densities.

Many countries have undergone rural urban migration at some point in time, and it has had a significant impact on their economic and social lives. Migration can indeed contribute to urban poverty and the growth of informal settlements. Migrant communities, or pockets of domestic and foreign migrants of the same country, place of origin, or ethnic group, are a regular occurrence around the world, and have been documented in Africa's urban centers from the pre-colonial era.

Various considerations, including as social networks, exclusion from housing or employment in indigenous neighborhoods, xenophobia, and safety in numbers, encourage migrants to gather in specific sections of the city (Agyei-Mensah & Owusu, 2010).

According to Weeks (1999), the natural order ensures the safety of the part of the labor force that is required in urban areas but is stranded in rural areas and jobless. However, to Deshingkar and Grimm (2005), rural urban migration has recently developed into a societal problem. For instance, there is high employment competition characterizes urban regions, where the affluent prefer working in formal employment whereas the poor work in more precarious and low-paying informal settlements (Grant, 2012). In addition, most rural migrants endure occupational constraints and prejudice in cities (Fan & Stark, 2012), and they often labour in jobs that many urban locals consider substandard and unattractive (Chen *et al.*, 2011). They are paid far less than city employees and tend to be more eager than locals to do (Roberts, 2018).

For Rigg *et al.* (2014), such unattractive jobs are sometimes the only source of money for rural migrants, and they frequently take on tasks in the informal sector, which are often dangerous. In the event of an underlying medical condition, migrants are likely to lose a significant level of income in addition to healthcare expenses, forcing them to sell possessions or become indebted (Tacoli, McGranahan & Satterthwaite, 2008). Also, to Yang *et al.* (2008), critics of rural urban migration believe that it is to blame for the rise in deviant behaviors and the problem of overcrowding, which has resulted in the formation of slums in urban centers. This situation is most widespread in third-world countries like Ghana posing more danger for the urban population.

Rural urban migration is a complicated subject influenced by economic, social, geographical, and demographic characteristics. However, experts disagree about the causes or determinants, and their effects of rural and urban areas (Ishtiaque, and Ullah, 2013). In fact, despite the challenges associated with rural urban migrations illustrated above, many people from the rural areas migrate to the urban areas. In the following sections, this research discusses what account for the rural - urban migration in Ghana.

2.4 Influencing factors of rural urban migration in Ghana

Migration is influenced by a variety of factors at the individual, family, community, and national levels. The absence of adequate rural employment possibilities, restricted or non-existent access to capital, commodities, and markets, and the lack of attraction and feasibility of traditional agricultural labor are all key reasons driving rural outmigration in Sub-Saharan Africa (Vargas-Lundius, Basu, and Suttie, 2014). Ghana's rapid population expansion over the previous decades has increased domestic labor supply and put strain on available cultivable land in areas promoting migration (Abdulai, 1999). People have traditionally viewed migration as a means of moving from a less comfortable location to a better location with better opportunities. In Ghana, migration is frequently a result of a combination of causes, ranging from economic, social, and political issues to environmental considerations (Awumbila *et al.*, 2011).

Rural poverty, evident in low agricultural revenues, low productivity, and lack of job opportunities, is driving many people away from rural areas in search of better possibilities (Awumbila, & Ardayfio-Schandorf, 2008). Similarly, according to Lindius *et al.* (2014), these lack of lucrative occupations, financial facilities, market outlets, and resources are some of the variables that influence rural migrants' decisions and has been affecting Ghana.

Another important reason is education. According to Agyei *et al.*, (2015), most migrants in Ghana's southern regions lack access to higher education, which prevents them from having access to better career possibilities, leaving them with little choice but to migrate to urban areas for hard works. Migrants' lack of higher education is largely due to financial constraints that prevent them from covering academic expenditures. As a result, migrants are unable to get lucrative and long-term jobs even in urban areas and must instead settle for repetitive but low-paying jobs, making it impossible for them to pay for housing, instill savings habits, and cover other vital expenses (Shakya *et al.*, 2010).

Additional research on the elements that impact people's decision to relocate to urban reveals that socio-cultural factors play a key role in many of these decisions (Martin *et al.*, 2014). The need for comfort and better social amenities such as potable water, availability of electricity, and good health care, among other things, has been seen to encourage people to migrate to urban areas. Most

rural areas lack such basic amenities which has necessitate the need to move to a better place (Zetter & Morrissey, 2014).

The macroeconomic environment has also had an impact on rural urban migration in the country. The conditions of trade were shifted against agriculture and rural areas because of urban-biased policies, contributing to large rural urban income disparities. Programs that discriminated against farmers and rural communities in general included overvalued currency rates, industrial protection, and cheap food policies. These policies stifled farm prices and rural incomes, causing a shift in labor away from agriculture and a rise in rural urban migration as a result. However, beginning in 1983, macro and industry government interventions aided in strengthening the rural company's overall domestic terms of trade, hence increasing urban-rural migration. The anticipation of greater salaries in the target location has significantly promoted rural urban migration in the economy, which is clearly compatible with the comparative advantage concept (Anarfi & Kwankye, 2003).

Environmental issues, notably climatic change, are another key source of rural urban migration, as seen in most of Africa (Tacoli 2008; Tacoli 2009). Climate change displaced millions of people in Sub-Saharan Africa between 1960 and 2000. The situation is especially acute in nations like Ghana, where agriculture is the primary source of income (Marchiori, Maystadt, & Scumacher, 2012). According to Van den Berg (2007), the seasonal structure of labor migration, which is dependent on alternating slow and active periods across Northern and Southern Ghana, makes north-south mobility appear to be a natural adaptation to climate change. Throughout dry seasons, migration from rural areas to cities is substantial due to a lack of rain to help farmers. People then go to urban areas in search of something else to do.

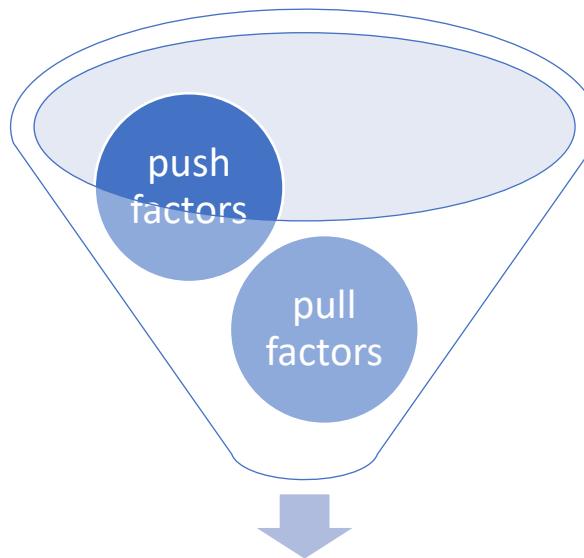
Natural calamities like as droughts, floods, and bushfires, reduce livestock raising and agricultural production, causing the workforce to migrate from rural to urban areas to work in non-farming jobs (Mbonile & Lihawa, 1996). This was collaborated by study conducted in Ghana by Van der Geest *et al.* (2010). It was discovered that environmental factors were important motivators of rural urban movement. For instance, poor rain conditions and low farming practices play a significant role in causing migration from Northern Ghana to Ghana's middle belt.

As may be observed, past study has conducted many studies. However, a comprehensive review of the literature reveals that the impact of push and pull dynamics in migration literatures has not been properly investigated in Ghana's Ashanti region. To address this knowledge gap, this study looked at the impact of migration's push and pull factors. As a result, the focus of this research is to explore into the factors that influence rural urban migration in the Ashanti Region. This will also include examining into mitigation measures taken to reduce rural urban displacement in the Ashanti region. Furthermore, the scholarship on rural urban migrant issues described above only highlights the difficulties that migrants face and the fundamental causes for their migration, but it fails to address how individuals manage to cope with all these hurdles and struggle. This dissertation will address these problems.

This paper will rely on these three main theoretical models advanced in this dissertation. Indeed, the preceding theoretical considerations recognize that migration is a complex process driven by a variety of interconnected and multifaceted causes. Each of the explanations offered provides a possible explanation for the phenomena. The theories and paradigms discussed above will be useful in collection of data, and analysis of the findings in the context of the present study in order to properly address the research questions and meet the expected objectives of this research. In conclusion, despite the theories' contentious nature, they have influenced numerous existing studies on rural urban migration. To provide a comprehensive analysis, this study used the above discussed theories to provide support or otherwise for the empirical section.

2.5 Conceptual Framework

Figure 1: Migrants' decision to migrate to Kumasi



(Source: Author's own Construct, 2021)

Figure 1 presents the conceptual framework of the push and pull factors influencing rural urban migration in the Ashanti region. This study develops the framework based on existing studies to explain the factors influencing migrants' decision to move to the Ashanti region. The push factors are the unfavorable factors present in the migrants' rural area whilst the pull factors are the factors present in Kumasi that attract migrants to move to the region. The decision to migrate is conscious effort that involves the interactions of both push and pull factors as well as other intervening factors. The individual, in deciding to migrate, interacts with the push factors examples limited job opportunities, inadequate social amenities, lack of educational opportunities among others and acknowledges the deficiencies within his or her rural community. The individual then proceeds to identify the urban communities where these conditions are in abundance and makes efforts to migrate to the region.

2.6 Summary

The related literature on the concept of rural urban migration, its related problems as well as the existing challenges were discussed in this chapter. The literature suggests that the complexity of the push and pull dynamics in migration literatures has not been properly investigated in Ghana's Ashanti region. The chapter also highlighted the theoretical and conceptual framework guiding the research.

CHAPTER THREE

METHODOLOGY

3.0 Introduction

This chapter details the research methodology applied in the study. It presents the research design, population, sample, sampling technique(s), data collection, and data analysis procedure utilized in establishing the push and pull factors informing rural urban migration in the Ashanti region.

3.1 Research Design

According to Creswell (2012), research design is the technique or approach that entails the major decisions and assumptions of data collection and data analysis aimed at solving the research problem. This study is guided by the principles of qualitative research approach. Qualitative research is used to discover patterns in thinking and beliefs, as well as to delve deeper into an issue. It is used by researchers to critically examine what is driving people's decisions, thoughts, and motives (Ritchie *et al.*, 2013). Thus, the qualitative method affords this study the opportunity to provide a nuanced appreciation of the push and pull factors informing rural urban migration in the Ashanti Region.

3.2 Description of the study area

The Ashanti region is the third largest of then sixteen administrative regions in Ghana with a total land surface area of 24,389 kilometers per square miles (9,417 square miles) or occupying 10.2 percent of the country's total land area. The region is bordered by six of the sixteen political regions, including the Bono, Bono East, and Ahafo Regions in the north, Eastern Region in the east, Central Region in the south, and Western Region in the southwest. In the Ashanti Region, there are significant gold mining operations and a booming cocoa industry. The Ashanti region is home to three public universities in addition to several private universities and university colleges. According to the recent census, conducted in 2021 by the Ghana Statistical Service, the Ashanti region has a population of 5,440,463 inhabitants representing 17.6 percent of Ghana's total population.

The Kumasi Metropolis is the largest city and the regional capital. According to the 2010 Population and Housing Census report, the metropolis was home to 1,722,806 inhabitants with

migrants making up 53.7 percent of this population. These figures are projected to increase in the yet to be released 2021 census. This implies that it is expected that the migrants in the Kumasi Metropolis would outnumber natives of the metropolis. The population of Metropolis was made up of 63 percent of the prospective labor force (those aged 15 to 64); 37 percent of the dependent population (people aged 65 and more as well as people under the age of 14). These numbers differ slightly from national statistics, which show that 43 percent of the population is dependent and that the active labor force (ages 15 to 64) makes up 57 percent of the entire population (Ghana Statistical Service, 2012).

In addition, according to the Ghana Statistical Service report on employment in the city, 91.4 percent of those who are economically active are working, compared to 8.6 percent who are jobless. About 90.5 percent of the city's working population is employed in the private sector, while just 8.6 percent of the working population is employed in the public sector. In short, the Kumasi metropolis is an attractive place of destination for migrants from all over Ghana and other West African countries. This is due to its advantageous location and growing prominence as Ghana's commercial hub. The increasing movement of people to the Kumasi Metropolis coupled with the resultant government and metropolitan authorities' response to the problem has made it imperative to understand the factors influencing the decision of migrants to move to the region.

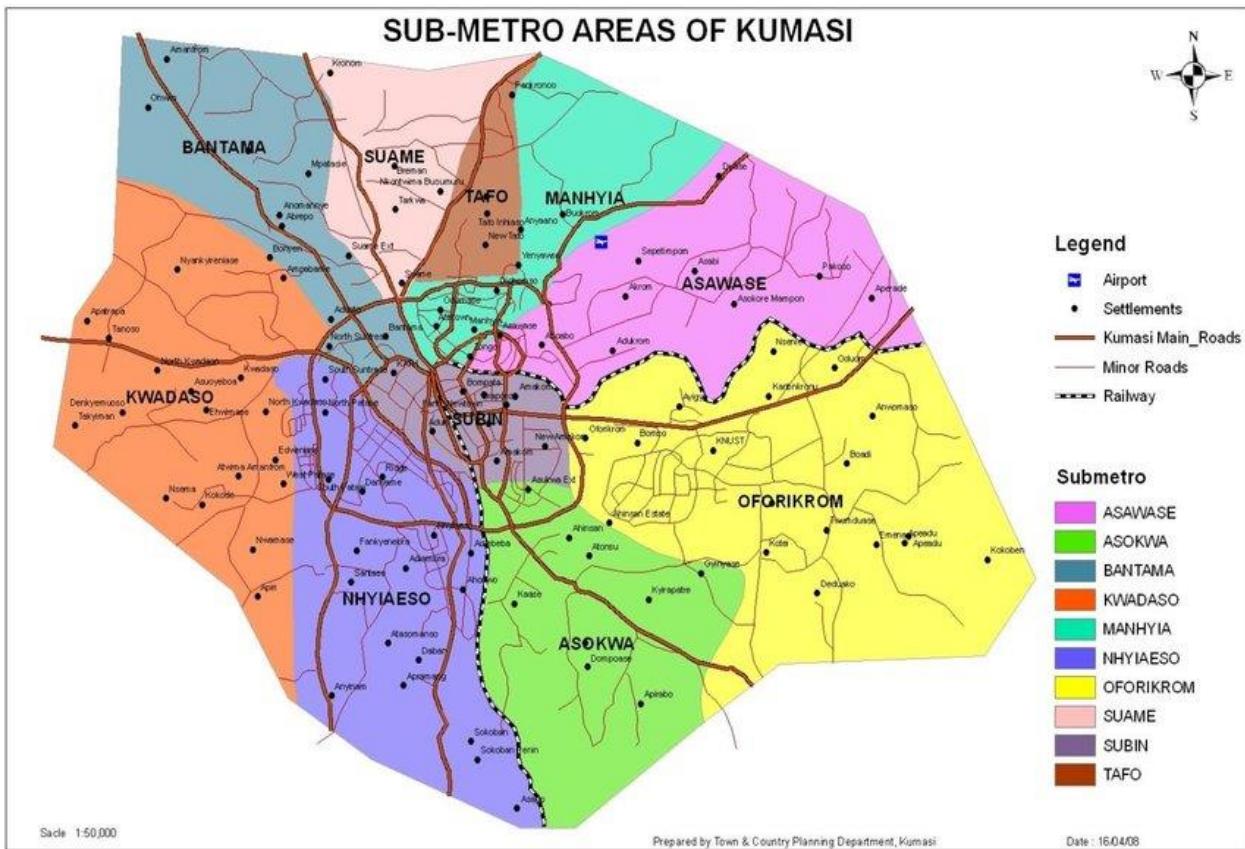


Figure 2: Map of Kumasi

Source: google maps, 2022.

3.3 Population

Bryman (2008) explains population as the total number of cases that meet the criteria of study. For this study, the target population is the entire number of migrants from rural communities in other parts of Ghana residing in the Ashanti region whilst the accessible population consists of these sets of migrants in the Kumasi Metropolis. This study focuses on the accessible population because focusing on the target population would prove a herculean task. The accessible population includes migrants who have resided in Kumasi for more than six months as this extended stay in the metropolis would afford them opportunity to account for their experienced challenges.

3.4 Sampling Technique and Sample Size

Bryman (2008) explained sampling as the process of choosing a representative group of individuals from the larger population. With the focus of this research on the experiences of rural migrants from different areas in Ghana residing in the Kumasi Metropolis, it would be essentially impossible to interview every rural migrant in the metropolis. As such respondents were carefully sampled to participate in the study. The sampled respondents were selected purposively. These respondents were chosen via purposive sampling based on their familiarity and expertise with the research questions. This sampling methods helped in eliciting different views on the influences for moving as well as their lived experiences whilst residing in Kumasi. As the Kumasi Metropolis is famous as an attractive option for migrants from different parts of Ghana and Africa, the snowball technique was used to identify respondents who were from rural communities in Ghana. The sample of ten respondents were selected for the interviews.

3.5 Data Collection

This study relied on primary data. The primary data was collected from the sampled respondents through in-depth interviews. Interviews were chosen because they afforded me flexibility, improved focus during the data collection period and the potential to collect detailed, and rich information. The interview guide was developed with inspiration from existing literature and guided within the current research questions. The Interviews guide allowed for the collection of data from the respondents on individual basis to gain insights on why and how migrants left the rural area to the city and their experiences in the metropolis.

Initial pre-test of the interview guide revealed that some migrants were not comfortable expressing themselves in English. Therefore, the interview guide was translated into the major local language (Twi) for migrants who were not comfortable expressing themselves in English. The respondents were approached for interviews at certain times. The interviews were usually conducted at the leisure of the respondents. The interview guide contained questions focusing on the reasons for migrants' decision to leave their rural communities, their choice of Kumasi and their experienced challenges. The interview time ranged from 40 minutes to 1 hour.

In addition, due to covid restrictions and the resultant limited travel opportunities, the data collection was sourced out to research assistants.

These research assistants were selected from the Graduate Assistants at a local University in the Kumasi Metropolis- Kwame Nkrumah University of Science and Technology (KNUST). They were trained via zoom on the processes of conducting in depth interviews. They were also instructed on the interview guide. Training lasted for a week and a practical fieldwork was conducted to ensure that the research assistants understood the interview guide. The field activity was conducted on the 7th of June 2022 as a busy Tuesday within the major business and marketing centers of Kumasi. According to my team some of the potential respondents were either too busy or shy to interact, it however was not much frustrating as the snowballing went on. After the data collection, a field supervisor was sent out to evaluate the data collected. The result of the evaluation indicates that the interview protocols were followed to the latter.

3.6 Data Analysis

The data was analyzed thematically. The transcribed interview notes were treated to open coding and labels generated for the transcript notes. The labels were then categorized into themes. Data analysis was conducted thematically to explore the push and pull factors influencing respondents' decision to move to the Ashanti region. The analysis went beyond the description of the push and pull factors as it included an appreciation of importance of these factors in their decision to migrate.

3.7 Limitations to the study

The study is limited with its focus on rural migrants in the Kumasi metropolis. Thus, generalizations of the findings should be made consciously as their lived experiences may differ for other rural migrants in other urban communities in Ghana as well as in other countries. The results of this study therefore reflect the state of migrants' experiences at the time of the investigation.

3.8 Ethical Issues

This study followed all ethical guidelines as informants voluntarily and anonymously participated in the study with their full agreement. The information gathered was held in strict confidence. The respondents' consent was sought before they were allowed to participate in the study. This involved clearly explaining the purpose of the study and informed of their right to refuse to answer

any questions they found uncomfortable or to withdraw from the research at any moment if it was deemed suitable for them. The respondents were also given the assurance that the information they gave would only be used for academic purposes. As a result, in order to safeguard the identity and confidentiality of the informants, their names were not included in the presentation of the results as their reflections were anonymized with pseudonyms.

3.9 Confirmability

This ensures absolute neutrality on the part of the researcher (Bryman, 2012). My design plan was structured to ensure no personal influence on the participants or collection of data. This thereby qualifies the study to be reproduced by other scholars using different variables in a similar case study.

4.0 Dependability

This describes how consistent and reliable a research finding concludes on (Bryman, 2012). In order for a study to be described as dependable, the selection of respondents, conducting interviews and analyzing data should follow a well laid out plan from identifying the target population, sampling until findings are made. This study was structured to follow these standards. This study starts off with a background information defining the purpose of our research and an appropriate sampling method which data collected would reflect or answer the purposes for carrying out the study.

CHAPTER FOUR

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

4.0 Introduction

This chapter presents the results and discussion of the study. The chapter begins with a brief profile of each of the participants. The results of the thematic analysis are presented and concurrently discussed within the context of exiting literature. The key themes indicate that the push factors that influence the decision to leave the area of origin include a lack of job opportunities; family obligations; education; and prestige. The themes for the pull factors that influence the choice of Kumasi include the Kumasi Appeal, job prospects, and influence of friends and families.

4.1 Respondents

- Respondent one is a thirty-years old man from the Upper East region. His highest level of education is the Junior High School certificate. He has been in Kumasi for twelve years and currently working as a Trader. He has an extended family size of forty-five members who are predominantly farmers.
- Respondent two is a thirty-one-years old man from the Western region. He has a diploma and currently works as a trader. He has been in Kumasi for three years, having left behind a family of ten members who are mostly traders back in the Western region.
- Respondent three is a twenty-years-old woman from the Brong Ahafo region. She holds a Senior High School Certificate and has been in Kumasi for five years. She works as a Cleaner. She has an extended family size of thirty-five members who are mainly into farming.
- Respondent four is also from the Upper East region aged fifty-four-years old. He has an O-level certificate, he has been in Kumasi for thirty-two years and currently works as a cleaner. He has an extended family size of fifty members who are mainly traders.
- Respondent five is from the Eastern region, a graduate from a vocational school and currently works as a carpenter. He is the oldest respondent, at fifty-eight years and has been in Kumasi for twenty-six years and left behind a family of thirty members who are mostly traders.
- Respondent six is a twenty-four-year-old woman from the Northern region. The Junior High School diploma is her highest level of education. She has been in Kumasi for three

years and is currently working as a hairdresser. She comes from a family of twenty-two people, with most of them as farmers.

- Respondent seven is also a twenty-five-year-old woman from the Northern region. She has been in Kumasi for six years and only completed her primary school education. She is employed as a hawker. Her family consists of 10 individuals, the majority of them are farmers.
- Respondent eight is from the Volta region, a teacher who holds an undergraduate certificate. He is thirty-one-years-old and has been in Kumasi for eight years, leaving behind a family of eleven people who are mostly into fishing.
- Respondent nine is a nineteen-year-old man from the Western region with a Junior High School certificate. He has been in Kumasi for two years and currently works as a Bus Conductor. His family back in the Western region consists of 15 members who are mostly into farming.
- Respondent ten is a thirty-three-years-old nurse originally from the Eastern region. She has a nursing degree and has been in Kumasi for seven years. Her family in the Eastern region comprises of 8 individuals, the majority of which are farmers.

4.2 Push factors influencing the decision to leave their area of origin

4.2.1 Job Opportunities

The lack of job opportunities was indicated as an important motive for respondents to leave their home. The scarcity of jobs in their areas of origin informed their desire to move to seek better opportunities. A respondent explained that:

“You can say we are a family of farmers. See my father is a farmer, his father was a farmer and his father’s father. When I was a child, I wanted to be a farmer too, but the problem is that farming is not as productive as it used to be. I started looking for different options for work in my community but there were no new jobs, so I decided to leave to find a new job somewhere” (Respondent 1)

Another posited that

“I live in a small village, and I used to work as a hairdresser on special days like weddings, naming ceremonies and funerals because that was the only days people wanted to look their best. Because of this, it was always difficult to find

work. I used to move to the other villages, but they also had their own hairdressers, and we always end up fighting for the customers. You know without work, you cannot eat. I decided to leave my village and go to the bigger towns where there will be lot of customers for me.” (Respondent 6).

Some respondents explain that their level of education narrowed their job options in the community. With higher levels of education, they could not find suitable jobs in their area of origin as such had to move.

“After completing my diploma, I wanted to come back and work as a teacher in the primary school I attended. Unfortunately, the headmaster explained that there was no vacancy. I worked briefly in the next town but because of the small number of students in the school, the school was closed. I had to leave to find somewhere better” (Respondent 8)

Another respondent echoed the same sentiments, saying

“When I finished the vocation school, I worked with my master for about two years, and I must tell you in like a month only a handful of people brought us work. It was difficult for him to keep me on as he could not even get enough money to pay for his tools and materials let alone pay me. With his blessing, I decided to leave my town and go ply my carpentry job somewhere” (Respondent 5)

Consistent with the theory of Todaro (1980) on economic reasons for migration as well as the two-sector theory analysis of Lewis (1954), the respondents in this study reported that, the search for non-existent jobs within their rural areas (subsistent) economies pushed them to move to the city to search for jobs. Considering that rural Ghanaian communities are agrarian in nature and have limited job options, this finding offers credence to the theoretical position of Lewis (1984) who posited that traditional agricultural sector, is marked by backwardness and joblessness, with insignificant, zero, or even diminishing marginal productivity growth. Because rural dwellers generally lacked job opportunities, rural people who were motivated by their economic drive to make better income through better jobs migrated to the city in pursuit of this (see Bauer 1956; Lewis, 1984; Todaro 1980).

Empirically, the current study coincides with earlier works which indicated that absence of adequate rural employment possibilities, restricted or non-existent access to capital, commodities, and markets, and the lack of attraction and feasibility of traditional agricultural labor are all key reasons driving rural outmigration in Sub-Saharan Africa (Vargas-Lundius, Basu, and Suttie, 2014). This study adds to the literature on rural urban migration by indicating that even people who worked outside the agrarian sector in rural communities still were compelled to migrate to urban areas because of limited customers. Artisans such as hairdressers for example as was found in this study moved to urban areas because they lacked customers and thus realized low income within their communities of origin. Even though this study focused on a limited number of participants, it gives some insight to some of the specific explanations offered by rural urban migrants for migrating to Kumasi.

4.2.2 Family Obligations

All the respondents acknowledged the influence of family obligations in their decision to move from their hometowns. However, it was particularly prominent among the male respondents. The decision to move is based on a sense of duty with the ultimate goal of making the lives of their family members better.

A respondent reported that:

“I am the first person to complete university in my family. My father and his brothers sacrificed to pay for my school fees from primary through to the university. I owe it to them and the rest of my family to find a good paying job. I was not going to find such a job in my hometown, so I had to move”
(Respondent 8)

This sentiment is echoed by another respondent:

“I am the first born and with the untimely death of my parents, I have become like the father for the rest of my family members. I have taken up the role and responsibilities of making sure that they are taken care of, though some of my uncles when they can. Honestly, if I was still in my hometown, I know I would not be able to work. Now I am working here, and I am able to send money for their upkeep and school fees. Our second brother is almost done with his vocational

school. He will join me here soon so he can also work to make money for us to take care of the rest of the family. (Respondent 2)

For the female respondents, the decision to move was made for them and they had to uphold it because of a sense of duty and loyalty to the person making the decision.

“Me leaving my hometown was due to the condition of my aunt. She had just given birth to twins and needed someone to help her around the house and at her store”
(Respondent 3)

Another reported that

“I left my hometown for Kumasi because I was supposed to marry a guy from my village who was already living in Kumasi. It did not work out, but I decided to stay anyway” (Respondent 7).

The economic push for migration to urban areas as was postulated in the Todaro (1980) was evident in the finding here. This study however adds a new dimension to the economic decisions by indicating that people do not necessarily move because of personal economic needs but the desire to meet family needs. While subtly echoing the issues of rural poverty, evident in low agricultural revenues, low productivity, and lack of job opportunities, is driving many people away from rural areas in search of better possibilities (Awumbila, & Ardayfio-Schandorf 2008), rural outmigration was mainly for search of better jobs which educated people cannot find in rural settings. Also, the culture of reciprocity that characterises caregiving in rural Ghana became the basis especially for males to migrate affirming the idea of Martin *et al.* (2014) that socio-cultural factors play a key role in many of these decisions.

This study however delineates the gendered differences that characterized the push for rural outmigration by adding that while males moved because of the need to reciprocate care received during their formative and development years, females moved because they were compelled to move either as caregivers or because of the migration decisions of their spouses. While the work of Fan (2004) for example suggest that single women moved into cities in search of jobs and tend to return to their villages when they get married, this current work highlights how females moved because their male spouses migrated. That is, marriage could become a reason for rural outmigration for females even though earlier works suggest that single outmigrants normally experience delayed marriage (Teye, Boakye-Yiadom, Awumbila & Yeboah, 2016).

The finding that females moved into cities in Ghana to serve as unpaid caregivers adds to earlier works such as that of Awumbila (2015) which highlight those young females migrate from Northern Ghana into Southern Ghanaian cities where they work in low scale, mostly unskilled occupations. In essence the finding partly disagrees with Awumbila (2015) by showing that some female migrants do not lose contact with their families but connect with family members who may be more settled within the urban communities. This study however did not find direct evidence from any of the participants in support of earlier studies that cited environmental situations of drought and climate change that displaces people, seasonality deriving from climate conditions (Marchiori, Maystadt, and Scumacher, 2010; Tacoli 2008; 2009). This may be because of the limited sample of this current study and may not be enough grounds to discredit earlier findings in that regard.

4.2.3 Education

Education as a motive for leaving the area of origin was reported by respondents with higher levels of education. The respondents acknowledged the absence of quality schools in their area of origin to cater for their educational needs hence had to move.

One respondent reported that

“I have always wanted to be a nurse, so after secondary school, I looked for the best nursing training schools in Ghana. Interestingly, the one in my region was ranked poorly so I bought the forms for nursing schools in Accra and Kumasi”
(Respondent 10)

Another respondent asserted confirmed this saying,

“I left the Volta region to go and study at the Kwame Nkrumah university of Science and Technology. Though the region had a university, I wanted to pursue a degree in sociology, and this was not available at the university.” (Respondent 8).

The findings further add that people were not only moving because they were educated and not finding better jobs in their villages, but people moved because they could not find quality higher educational facilities in their communities. The nonexistent of schools was therefore a push to urban areas like Kumasi where these facilities could be found.

This finding validates the earlier study of Agyei *et al.* (2016) that even though those with education assumedly move to the city to further their career opportunities in the formal economy, most migrants in Ghana's southern regions lack access to higher education, which prevents them from having access to better career possibilities and so move to urban areas to access these. Again, the work opposes the ideas that migrants were generally unskilled and uneducated people who came to cities to do menial jobs (Awumbila, & Ardayfio-Schandorf, 2008; Shakya *et al.*, 2010). Even though there is some venerable evidence to that effect, this study shows that, there are situations where rural outmigrants were educated and in search of jobs or are people who migrated to take advantage of better educational facilities.

The implication is that a concerted effort to decentralize higher education or efforts aimed at spreading such facilities to deprived rural can potentially reduce the labor drain that rural communities in developing countries are faced with. Again, this study holds that people within rural communities are educated to live and work in urban areas but not in the rural areas they have received their education at. Even though the sample size for this study does not warrant the generalizability of the study findings, it is important to note that when education within rural communities continue to train people for jobs which can only be found in urban areas, the situation of rural urban migration would continue to be on the surge. As such, educational curriculum reviews need to capture rural-relevant skill training to ensure that the skills acquired from school can be applied within rural communities as a way of improving rural development and livelihoods.

4.2.4 Prestige

Prestige was also identified as a push factor informing respondents' desire to leave their hometowns. This prestige was not attached to merely leaving to another town but returning back to the hometown with money. These returnees popularly called *borgas* are accorded respect and this prestige is something a lot of people aspire to command.

One respondent reported that:

"I do not want to stay in the village all my life. I have seen borgas (people who have returned after travelling to big cities), you can see that they have money and command respect from everyone" (Respondent 9).

Another respondent purported that:

“See my brother, staying in my hometown was like staying in a pond, you don’t go anywhere, no job nothing and everything is just the same. I want to enjoy life and the best way to do it is to move from the village” (Respondent 2)

From the foregoing, a better life is a life outside the village, and it bestows prestige on those who are able to pursue it within their communities. While earlier researchers such as Rahman Khan, & Ahmed (2001) held that higher incomes lured rural people to engage in jobs of low social esteem, this study unravels the paradox by indicating that, rural people held outmigrants in high esteem. As such indigenes desired such statuses within their communities and so were inspired to migrate to cities. Singh and Parmar (2020) also opined that people out migrated sometimes because they have lost prestige in their communities and go in search of prestige in urban areas. That is, the desire to earn a better social prestige is a reason for outmigration. People moved to escape difficulties and also enjoy the expected good life of the city (Rahman Khan & Ahmed, 2001; Singh & Parmar, 2020).

4.3 Pull factors that influence the choice of Kumasi

4.3.1 Kumasi Appeal

As eventual residents of Kumasi, all the respondents reported that the town itself played a part in their decision to move here. As a capital of the Ashanti region and only coming second to Accra in the most prominent cities in Ghana, their choice comes as no surprise. The Metropolis has social amenities which makes it an attractive place to emigrate to. This position is confirmed by a respondent.

“Compared to my hometown, Kumasi is like heaven. It is well developed with good roads. The town has everything you need” (Respondent 4).

Another respondent argued that the security in the Metropolis was enough to dissuade his decision to move to Accra and settle in Kumasi.

“I was looking for a place to move to. Ordinarily a lot of people in my area moved to Accra but their bad experiences in the city made the capital unattractive for me. Those who stayed in Kumasi informed me that the town had fewer criminal elements in comparison to Accra and this was enough for me to choose here. I did not want to work, earn money, and lose it to criminals” (Respondent 5)

For other respondents, the metropolis provided prime resources that were absent in other parts of Ghana hence their decision to move.

“For me Kumasi has the best university in Ghana, and this was why I decided to move here” (Respondent 8).

As rational beings, migrants decided to compare Kumasi to their places of origin and found more factors alluring them into Kumasi in agreement with Awumbila *et al.* (2011). In essence, the attractiveness or appeal of Kumasi as a capital city is a main pull factor drawing rural migrants. The city being the second largest city in Ghana with above par social amenities compared to rural areas had an appeal to the migrants. Additionally, the city was safer compared to the Accra for migrants and thus their choice. These findings coincide with those of Zetter and Morrissey (2014) which held that the need for comfort and better social amenities such as potable water, availability of electricity, and good health care, among other things, has been seen to encourage people to migrate to urban areas. Most rural areas lack such basic amenities which has necessitate the need to move to a better place. This shows that development in Ghana is skewed towards urban areas making rural dwelling not desirable. This means that urban communities in Ghana would continue to bulge in population from the effect rural urban migration (McCatty, 2004; Tacoli, McGranahan, and Satterthwaite, 2012) until rural areas receive a facelift in terms of needed social amenities that make living there desirable.

4.3.2 Job Prospects

With the absence of job opportunities as a major push factor, it comes as no surprise that job prospects in Kumasi was a major pull factor for the respondents. The metropolis has a vibrant local economy with numerous job opportunities which the respondents have taken advantage of. The jobs available range from unskilled that is requiring no training and special skills to highly specialized jobs.

A respondent reported that:

“Kumasi has better job opportunities compared to my hometown. I think it might because of the large number of people staying here because everybody needs some carpentry work to be done for them. The thing is if you are very serious, you will find work to do in Kumasi” (Respondent 1)

Another echoed the sentiment that

“Initially, the idea was to stay with some friends in Kumasi before I move to Accra. Kumasi has lot of job opportunities because less than a week here, I joined my friends in their mason work and I was able to make my first fifty cedis. I decided to continue staying in Kumasi and I found a nice cleaning job”
(Respondent 2)

People move because of the assurance that they can gain better job and higher levels of income in Kumasi compared to their places of origin in agreement with the two-sector theory of Lewis (1954). While people were pushed away from their hometowns because they could not find enough customers for the skills or trade they have learned, Kumasi was a preferred migrant destination for rural migrants because it promised better job prospects. Further affirming the propositions of the two-sector theory, rural dwellers moved into the more capitalist Kumasi from their subsistence rural places, thereby transferring the surplus rural labor (Todaro & Smith, 2003).

The nature of Kumasi where people are able to earn from manufacturing work such as construction makes it the capitalist sector of the two-sector theory (Lewis, 1954; Bauer, 1956). The increased growth of Kumasi as an industrial city compared to the subsistence agrarian communities means an ease of job avenues with higher income, which is typical of capitalist sectors (Bauer, 1956). Also, moving into Kumasi implies that rural people have a likelihood of earning wage income which helps them to close income gaps that may exist between rural and urban settlements. The data agrees with the explanation that the labor surpluses in rural areas supplements the labor shortfall in urban areas, and hence rural urban migration begins under these conditions (Timalsina, 2007)

4.3.3 Influence of Friends and Families

The influence of friends and families was also reported as a pull factor informing respondents decision to move to Kumasi. Here, the respondents explained that their decision to move to Kumasi was dependent on the advice of family and friends. This involved direct or subtle mentions of opportunities in the town. The influence translated into direct support as these friends and families sponsored the initial trip to Kumasi.

One respondent for example highlighted that:

“One of the borgas was my brother’s close friend. He talked about how Kumasi was a town of opportunities, and this was enough for my brother to join him. One month in Kumasi, and my brother sent money for me to buy my bus ticket to Kumasi.” (Respondent 4)

Not only are people lured by the picture of good things that Kumasi may offer. As has been pointed out by another respondent, those who invite people into the cities sometimes bear the cost in ensuring people from their places of origin are able to come to Kumasi. This is captured by the statement that:

“My aunt was staying in Kumasi and as I said earlier with the twins and the shop, she was keen on me coming to Kumasi to help her. She sent money for me to buy the ticket to Kumasi.” (Respondent 3)

Sometimes, good memories shared by forbears became the basis for migration as is narrated here.

“My father had spent a brief time of his adult life in Kumasi and always had fond memories of the place. When I told him of my decision to leave our hometown, he was insistent on me going to Kumasi though I preferred Accra. I am glad I heeded his advice as my time in Kumasi so far has been the best” (Respondent 1)

From the above, it can be said that migration begets more migration as was proposed by Gerber & Zavisca (2020). In this case however, the findings show that those in urban areas of Kumasi tend to lure people in their places of origin to migrate because of the possible opportunities they are likely to get. Beyond an invite, the data of this study showed that those who invite others to come also facilitate the movement of invitees by paying for their fare to Kumasi. Females move as caregivers to urban areas as was found in the work of (Coe, 2016).

4.4 Migrants’ experiences with migration in the Ashanti region.

The research also explored migrants’ experiences with migration and specifically focused on the challenges they experienced in their move to the Kumasi Metropolis. The challenges reflect a harsh reality of moving and adjusting to this new environment.

4.4.1 High cost of living

A major challenge experienced by the migrants was the high cost of living in the metropolis. This sentiment was shared by majority of respondents who recognized how expensive it was to stay in Kumasi.

A respondent reported that

“Living in Kumasi is not easy at all. I know that we had almost nothing in my hometown but at least you could survive on the small things you have. I mean things are expensive in the big cities, but I just feel like Kumasi is very expensive. The small money I get is for food, rent, and my survival in the city. I also have family back home, so I need to send something to them to use to survive” (Respondent 2)

Another respondent narrated that

“My initial stay in Kumasi has not been an easy ride. I was literally struggling to survive, and I was practically living from hand to mouth. My job was not paying that much so it means that the small money I get is for my survival in the city and I could not save some of the money for future use or in case I need it for an emergency” (Respondent 9).

The economy of big cities like everywhere else is influenced by the dictates of the market forces of demand and supply. With the growing population, it would be natural that things will be expensive. Thus, affording services such as food, housing among others would be a reported challenge. The migrants are not only supporting themselves with the meagre wages but have to remit a portion of this wage to their families back home. It must reiterate that the challenge of high cost of living is not limited to migrants with extended family obligations but also experienced by individuals with no such limitations. The challenge however arises as they have to struggle to survive in the city whilst trying to save money for future use.

Furthermore, this research probed on how the respondents addressed this challenge with high cost of living in the metropolis. The consensus was cutting back on spending and using the money judiciously.

“I have planned to cut down on expenses. Living in this city is not easy and with my family obligations back home, I have decided to cut back on things like the occasional beer and going out to parties on the weekend. This will help me to save some money that I can use and send some to my family” (Respondent 2)

4.4.2 Initial difficulty in getting a job

The search for employment is established as an important driver in shaping the decision to migrate and this equally makes the difficulty in getting a job a challenge for migrants. Here the respondents narrate the initial challenges with securing a job on their arrival to the metropolis.

A respondent described that;

“Initially getting a job was a big challenge for me. People make it seem like as soon as you arrive in Kumasi there are jobs waiting for you, but it is not easy like that because a lot of people are also here looking for jobs. I knew it was going to take time before I could get a good job. So, the first few weeks were not easy at all as I had to do some small jobs here and there to survive” (Respondent 1)

From the above it can be observed that the respondents were not spared from the frustrations of securing a job as experienced by all other members of society. The chances of securing a job are dependent on numerous factors key among them is the skillset of the applicant who as rural migrants usually have limited skills. This creates a situation of increased competition for the available positions from equally skilled migrants and indigenes in the metropolis. It is important to note that this study did not sample indigenes of the metropolis on their view of migrants and the competition for limited jobs. However, it is expected that the sentiment will not be overtly negative as with migrant and natives across international borders.

This struggle for searching for a job can demoralize and make the migrant question their decision to migrate, especially in the instance where the decision to migrate was solely based on finding employment. Thus, when probed on the strategy used in addressing this challenge, the respondents narrate that they exclusively relied on their social networks in securing their jobs.

“So, the first few weeks were not easy at all as I had to do some small jobs here and there to survive. These jobs were from recommendations from friends. They kept me posted on any available menial job. Eventually, I found something permanent” (Respondent 1)

4.5 The interplay of push and pull factors in informing young people's decisions to migrate and experiences with migration in the Ashanti region

The decision to migrate is not an isolated even but an interconnected phenomenon involving individual and societal pressure. This section explores the complexities of the push factors (factors informing migrants' decision to move away from their rural community) and pull factors (factors attracting people to Kumasi) within the context of their lived experiences after migration. The push factors include limited job opportunities, family obligations, unavailability of quality educational institutions and the desire for social prestige. On the other hand, the pull factors include the appeal of Kumasi, availability of job opportunities and influence of family and friends.

Existing studies on rural urban migration (and other forms of migration) have emphasized the role of economic factors in shaping the desire of young people to migrate. This study has also confirmed this finding. The economic factors influencing young people's decision to migrate is expressed in both economic push factor: lack of jobs and economic pull factor: availability of jobs. With regards to the influence of economic factor in young people decision to migrate, it can be deduced that the youth acknowledge the limited job opportunities in their communities and proceed to identify different avenues to find employment. These avenues might include change of jobs or moving to another rural area but ultimately the rural economy is unable to support the saturated services provided. For example, a carpenter can get work assignments regularly from members in his community or other adjourning communities. In this instance, when other carpentry shops spring up, competition for customers will start and the first carpenter would eventually lose his regular customers.

The competition would drive businesses down and even result in the closure of rendering services. Thus, the youth would be faced with the prospect of unemployment and would begin considering external options. This is where the lure of the big cities come into play as these cities have millions of people and this would translate into more services to be rendered. This belief in the availability of jobs in the cities like Kumasi are propagated through self-deduction- more people equal more jobs, or third parties (family, friends, acquaintances) speak positively about the chances of gaining employment in the big cities.

The position is always that despite the huge number of people and possible competition for the same client base, hard work sets the individual apart. This implies that people will employ you if they can get the best services from you. In summary, the desire for economic progress due to the limited job opportunities pushes young people out of their rural communities into urban communities where there is perceived or assured job opportunities. Equally, the influence of socio-cultural push and pull factors in informing young people's decision to migrate has been addressed in literature. Their influence has always been treated as secondary to the economic factors, however, these findings indicates that this might not be the case for migrants moving from their rural areas into Kumasi.

The desire to be educated is a lifelong dream of most people as it is believed that education would open the doors to achieving the desired economic progress. Thus, parents use their limited resources to get their wards enrolled in schools with the hope that the education would provide them with better employment options in the future. This dream is always under serious jeopardy because the schools in the rural areas lack the physical structures, learning resources and quality teachers to help in the teaching and learning process. National figures indicate that schools in rural areas perform abysmal in comparison with their urban counterparts. This statistic is popular knowledge hence the youth search for urban communities with quality educational institutions and move to these cities to fulfil their dream of being educated. The schools in the cities charge expensive tuition fees but the results of producing good students are assured so most parents enrol their wards in these schools.

In addition, the findings also highlight the influence of the socio-cultural push factors of family obligations, and the desire for social prestige as well as the socio-cultural pull factor of the influence of family and friends in young people's decision to migrate. The socio-cultural push factors are tied to the economic push factor that is the lack of good paying rural jobs. First, this is because young people feel burdened to find better paying jobs to give back to their kin and kith who offered them support during their education. This also connects to the fact that rural settlements did not offer people who have received family support for formal education the needed jobs to reciprocate their care and support received. Secondly, social prestige is tied to wealth as such young people without any jobs feel like they are not regarded in their communities in

comparison with their counterparts who have well-paying jobs. This strong desire to help their immediate families and secure their position in their communities push the young people to migrate in search of well-paying jobs to achieve these objectives. This search for the well-paying jobs benefits from the recommendations of friends and families who use their experience to influence the new migrants to move to Kumasi. This courtesy is also extended by the migrants as they support and facilitate the movement of friends and families remaining in the rural setting to come and see the light of the city (Gerber & Zavisca, 2020).

4.6 IMPLICATIONS OF RURAL-URBAN MIGRATION

Undoubtedly, the consistent outflow of people from rural- areas to urban centers have devastating impacts on both neglected towns and urban areas. Characteristically, this desire and motivation to migrate stems from unequal distribution of the national cake or economic resources. This can be observed by the deficit and wide gab levels in terms of economic developments and physical infrastructure. The effects of unbalanced flow of economic resources trickles down to the youthful population who are offered no ready job or market opportunities and therefore compelled to flee to urban areas for greener pastures.

The underlying reasons for this trend have been outlined above with most of the arguments pointing to the fact that, the desire for self-fulfillment and comfort is the major drive force of migration among the youth from these villages or rural- areas. However, with the non-existence of a lasting solution to the root causes of rural- urban migration, which is underdevelopment and unequal distribution of economic opportunities, lies various implications on gender, agriculture and the accommodating urban areas.

4.6.1 GENDER

Opportunities available to women who migrate is usually limited as compared to male counterparts (Charmmartin, 2002). Often, female migrants usually find legal jobs in the construction sector, farmlands and the catering sector as that is more decent for a desperate immigrant. This supposes that regardless of a female migrant's level of education, unprofessional or less skilled jobs are readily available with informal contract terms much more like a favor from an employer. This is verifiable from the interview guide where, females within the age

range of 20yrs- 35yrs, out of four respondents, three do menial jobs for a living having settled in Kumasi for over three years and still counting.



Figure 3. A young girl engaging in head potter (Kayaye) service.

Source:https://1.bp.blogspot.com/xSwzVK_VpzY/XMNYmocd2BI/AAAAAAAAsA/9NCU29UsUtI-C471jqAIPaPx2vVhfqixwCLcBGAs/s1600/956c7fdd033a46049da4aa1f4b206abc_18.jpg

Moreover, gender empowerment has encouraged most women who are either single mother's, self-motivated (Charmmartin, 2002) to break the odds of female stereotypes by society and set out for self- fulfilment regardless of the dangers involved. Women from these local towns have a firm conviction in fending for themselves and in most cases render support to their families back home. From local news most end up as street hawkers, head potters, prostitutes and engage in other unpleasant activities in order to afford a space for accommodation and daily survival.

Making reference to Onyango *et al.* (2015) a sex worker confessed to engaging in prostitution because of the unbearable hardships she was exposed to. According to her "*when I came to Kumasi, these friends I met at the station informed me about what they did to survive and I joined in order to survive*". According to Kuyini *et al.* (2011) this development also presents another complex of streetism where most migrants give birth without putting in adequate measures for child safety and care. Notably, most of these children sleep on pavements and

corridors leading to shops after daily active business (Awatey, 2014). The increased number of street children mostly come from the camps of migrants who dwell in slums and shanties. It can be seen in most parts of the capital where children below the legal age are hawking pure water, toiletries, picking up scrap metals and other commercial activities instead of going to school and catered for. According to Charmmartin (2002), the official and unofficial flows of migrants when summed and divided, indicates the number of female migrants far outweigh male counterparts.



Figure 4: Head potters (kayaye) by day, sex workers by night.

Source; <https://i1.wp.com/asepanews.com/wp-content/uploads/2019/01/Kayaye.jpg?fit=608%2C388&ssl=1>



Figure 5. Head potters (Kayeyei) trade in Kumasi

Source; <https://www.myjoyonline.com/wp-content/uploads/2020/05/Kayayo.jpg>

4.6.2 AGRICULTURE

Most of the towns and villages within the Bono-Ahafo enclave are agrarian by occupation. Agriculture in this region evolved from the hunter-gathering practices of past decades where most villagers acted on survival instincts. That is by traditional standards the inhabitants of this region are predominantly farmers who are used to life in the wild. Most families engage in small scale farming to feed themselves and in critical times go on barter trade or exchange for essential commodities they could not produce on their own.

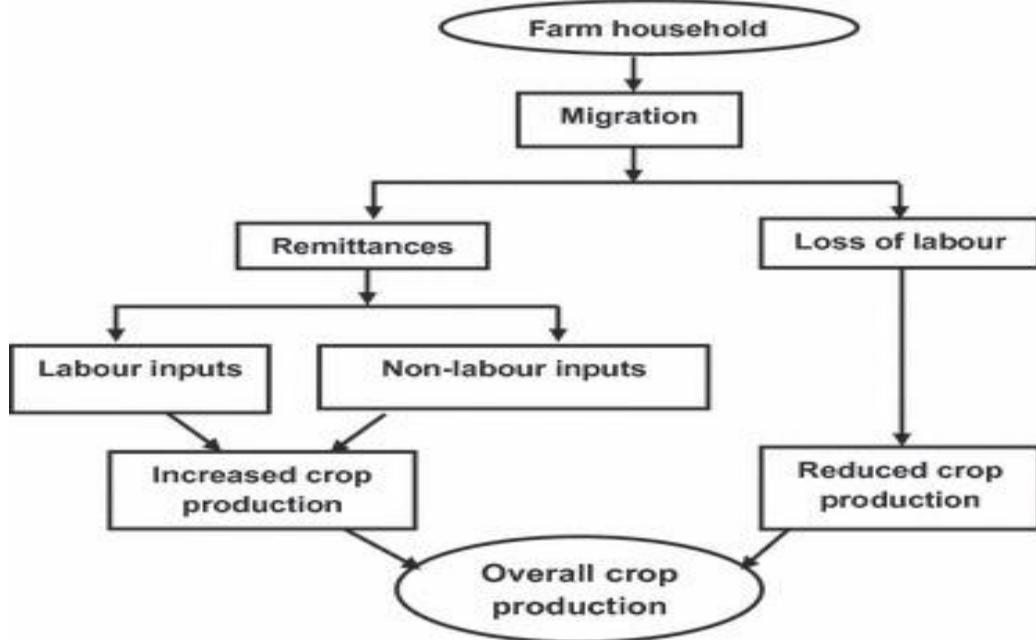


Figure 6. Impact of migration on crop production

Source: <https://www.researchgate.net/profile/Amina-Maharjan/publication/235780797/figure/fig1/AS:290273339953157@1446217965089/IMPACT-OF-INTERNATIONAL-MIGRATION-ON-CROP-PRODUCTION.png>

With the experiences of the youthful population moving in large numbers to the cities, it has proven to have massive effect on the agricultural sector and sustenance of livelihoods within the region. The influx of youth migrating to urban areas causes loss of skill labour and innovation to the rural communities (Mlambo, 2018). This also means that, the major activities of agriculture from preparation of land, tilling and application of manure, planting, pest control and harvest are all left in the care of the older folks. These are people over the active working age with little strength and are mostly accustomed to the traditional modes of farming.

Considering the increasing population size and global food shortages, mechanized farming has proven to be effective and efficient which indicates low yields with production output from traditional farms (Cossar, 2019). This is because in the case of the rural areas under review, both essential factors of mechanized equipment and labour is absent or missing given the rapid flow

of outmigration by the youth. These missing factors contribute to food shortages, poverty and the increased cycle of rural- urban migration since the root causes are prevalent and held constant.



Figure: 7 An old woman using a traditional tool (cutlass) for farming.

Source; https://borgenproject.org/wp-content/uploads/Top_10_Facts_About_Living_Conditions_in_Ghana-530x353.jpg

4.6.3 URBAN AREAS

Ghana as a developing country certainly has infrastructural deficit which means that most parts of the regions have unequal development in terms of roads, hospitals, Higher education facilities etc. Meanwhile, the effect of globalization and city transformation has introduced ultra-modern buildings with an outlook of the cooperate world. This has watered the appetite of most graduates from rural areas to seek opportunities in these establishments. With easy and accessible roads, good healthcare and exposure, most rural dwellers conform to the Kumasi appeal. Unfortunately, most migrants resort to petty trades for survival earning minimum wages which cannot take of their basic needs and the upkeep of their children. Most of these young ones engage in all sorts of commercial activities for survival.



Figure 8; Underage young boys engaging in scrap metal business.

Source; <https://www.researchgate.net/profile/Evans-Donkor/publication/326814316/figure/fig1/AS:657742226264065@1533829375579/Scrap-dealers-extract-valuable-metals-like-silver-and-copper-from-burnt-electronics-in.png>

However, with over population in these urban centers coupled with lack of sufficient social infrastructure to meet the inflow of numbers presents another social burden. Most slums and shanties are convenient establishments made by migrants with no places to stay. These places

overtime becomes breeding grounds for most social vices and criminal activities (Owusu et al, 2016).



Figure: 9 A slum with informal structures for migrants

Source: <https://www.gna.org.gh/kitnes/cache/images/800x/0/1.20834912.jpg>

CHAPTER 5

CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATION

In this chapter, the conclusion of the study based on the study objectives backed with data obtained from field interviews and analysed are presented. The research questions which examine the push and pull factors as well as the interplay between these variables influencing rural urban migration in Kumasi are summarised. The implications of the regular outmigration pattern are touched on briefly. The study then proposes key recommendations, both in areas of job creation, development planning and further research are highlighted in this chapter of the work.

5.1 Conclusion

It is evident from the findings that, the push and pull variables go hand in hand or have a positive correlation. The push factors significantly have no overbearing influence on young people's decision to migrate without the presence of pull factors. In this context, the pull factors play a pivotal role in giving reality to the aspirations of desperate migrants. The study proves that lack of employment opportunities, access to improved social infrastructure, education etc. with an assurance of improving upon these pitfalls in urban areas or cities is a major motivation behind rural urban migration.

It can be concluded that a greater percentage of the rural migrants emigrated to Kumasi because jobs were scarce in their places of origin or to find better rewarding jobs. Rural communities do not have higher educational institutions, so residents are pushed into urban communities in their quest for higher education. Higher levels of formal education for rural dwellers reduces the jobs they can take up within their communities. The study affirms the two-sector theory that people migrate for economic reasons and move out of the subsistent economies to cities because they cannot find jobs. The rural agrarian economy does not offer opportunities of employment to people who receive higher levels of formal education, forcing educated people into urban areas in search for jobs.

Aside the economic factors, the social influence from rural folks giving undue pressure to young people who have not achieved anything substantial like having a property or gainfully employed at a certain age is a drive force influencing rural urban migration. For instance, the study ascertained that even artisans such as hairdressers who worked outside the agrarian sector in rural communities still were compelled to migrate to urban areas because of limited customers. The

need to earn enough to reciprocate family support also compelled males to leave rural communities into urban areas in search of income generating opportunities. While males moved because of the need to reciprocate care received during their formative and development years, females moved because they were compelled to move either as caregivers or because of the migration decisions of their spouses. Some residents migrate to urban areas to earn prestige that is normally bestowed upon returnee migrants in rural communities.

Also, the appeal for the good and safe life in Kumasi where there are better social amenities, better paying job prospects, influence of family and friends, pulled people to migrate to Kumasi. Amidst these motivations lies numerous effects on both the dejected rural areas in terms of short labour in the agricultural sector while the urban centres is usually saddled with condensed population coupled with insufficient infrastructure to absorb them.

In sum, the unattractive and stifling nature of work, the push for prestige and economic success pushes rural dwellers out of their communities in the search of better opportunities which are expected to be found in urban centres. Also, the implications of these movements have not received the needed reforms with the influx of migrants held constant on yearly basis.

5.2 Recommendations

Based on the findings of the study, the following recommendations are put forth.

1. Based on the finding that rural communities generally lacked improved educational institutions, it is recommended that the Ministry of Education, Youth and Sports in collaboration with the Ghana Education Service ensure that the decentralisation of education ensures that rural communities are given such facilities such as higher educational institutional institutions to improve access. This would allow people to get access to higher levels of education within their communities without having to move into urban areas. In making this economically prudent, schools should be positioned in such a way that multiple adjoining rural communities can have access to the same institution within their areas.
2. In addition, to address the problem of a comparatively unattractive rural community, it is recommended that, rural development is intentional with a backed-up statutory provision. That is, national budgets must focus on supplying rural communities with essential social amenities by making annual budgetary commitments that target provision of roads,

electricity, health centres, potable water among other things. This would ensure that rural people are not pushed out of rural areas and drawn into urban centres because of the seeming glit and glamour of the city.

3. Further, to ensure that jobs are available in rural communities, rural agriculture needs to be mechanised to improved yield and profitability. This would also reduce the labour-intensive and unattractive nature of rural agrarian economy. Again, local governments in collaboration with educational and research institutions need to assess major crops grown in various areas and set up processing factories within these communities. This would not only reduce production cost but would also ensure that there are relatively better paying jobs outside the traditional peasant agricultural activities.
4. Again, rural artisans need to be trained in such a way that their products can penetrate urban markets. That way, they would not need to depend only on the limited rural market to make sales. This would make rural artisan work rewarding and thus prevent rural urban migration to an extent. Moreover, it is recommended that, seminars are organized in these rural areas to sensitize the youth to endeavour in transforming their villages into the ideal community they envisage.
5. Considering that this study relied on a limited number of respondents, there is the need to broaden the scope of the study by expanding the number of respondents. Further studies need to also consider adopting a mixed method approach across other major cities to be able to arrive at a comprehensive conclusion on the subject under study.

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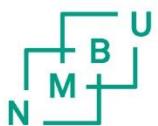
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