FACTORS ASSOCIATED WITH RURAL-URBAN MIGRATION AND ITS ASSOCIATED HEALTH HAZARDS ON THE FEMALE ADOLESCENT IN KUMASI METROPOLIS

[1]SAMUEL OPPONG BOAMPONG, [2]CHARLES GYAMFI, [3]STEPHEN BOANSI, [4]BENJAMIN ALORGE TETTEH

Olam Ghana Limited, Ghana

Abstract - The living and working environment of migrants and their access to healthcare services induce good or poor health.This study was conducted to assess the factors associated with rural-urban migration and its associated health hazards among female adolescents. A sample size of two hundred (200) was chosen in which all responded to questionnaires comprising closed-ended questions which were distributed to gather data from the respondents after which it was analysed using the Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) version 20. The utilised three causes of rural-urban migration thus political, economic and socio-cultural. The study revealed that political situations such as regional inequality (65.4%) and ethnic conflicts (78.2%) whereas economic factors such as lack of amenities (82.3%), lack of employment in rural communities (77.4%), lack of education (74%), and poverty (85.3%) as well as socio-cultural factors such as divorced parents (65.6%), media influence (79.1%), family conflicts (59.4%) and appealing urban informal sector (65.2%) are major causes of migration. Respondents' encountered challenges such as poor remuneration for services (87.2%), being maltreated by a colleague or worker (69%), sleeping in open space (73.3%), harassment by task force (71.4%) and teenage pregnancies (58.5%). The study concluded that the three variables plays a key role in adolescent migration and when they travel they end up getting involved in serious health hazardous behaviours such as rapes as well as physical and psychological harassments'. The study therefore recommends that vocational training of the rural people on small scale industries (non-farm) activities that could generate an income for the rural household should be introduced.

Keywords - Rural. Urban, Migration, Females, health haards

I. INTRODUCTION

Rural to urban migration has played a significant role in the urbanization process of several countries and continues to be significant in scale, even though migration rates have slowed down in some countries (Lall, Selod and Shalizi, 2016). Bhans in 2015 revealed that almost half the world population lives in cities and the number of people living in urban areas has risen steadily by around 1 million every year for the past decade.

According to a report from the United Nations Population Division (2013), the urban population is estimated to grow at 1.8 percent per annum, while total population rate is projected to be 1 per cent annually. This would result in an urban population of 5 billion, or 61 per cent, by 2030. The rural population on the other hand is expected to decrease from 3.3 to 3.2 billion between 2003 and 2030 (United Nations Population Division [UNDP], 2013).

Large scale urbanization is nothing unusual when seen from a historical viewpoint (Lall et al., 2016). During the industrialization period in Europe, migration was at its peak. However, most cities in the developed countries have now grown very slowly and city size may even be reducing thus growing at a decreasing rate (Bhans, 2015). As the population of an economy becomes wealthier, many prefer to live in the cleaner and quieter environments of the countryside (Bhans, 2015).

Many developing countries in the world are currently experiencing an unprecedented rate of urbanization. It is also clear that, unlike the experience of currently developed countries, the process of urbanization presently taking place in developing countries is not so much due to rapid industrialization. Rather, it is the consequence of growing population pressure on land in the rural areas (Kassahun, 2010). Urbanization has largely taken place as a result of the 'push' of rural inhabitants to urban areas (International Labour Organization (ILO), 2015). Thus in view of the high rates of urban population growth and the low level of urbanization, rural to urban migration appears to have been the major component of urban population growth in many developing countries (Bhans, 2015).

Migration has also been identified as a survival strategy utilized by the poor, especially the rural dwellers (International Labour Organization (ILO), 2015). The assessment of the effects of migration on rural areas has remained relevant since migration acts as a catalyst in the transformation process of not only the destiny of individual migrants but also the conditions of family members left behind, local communities, and the wider sending regions (Kassahun, 2010). One significant source of development for the rural populace as a result of this increasing drift towards the cities is remittances. Recently, migrants' remittances and the income multipliers they create are becoming critical resources for the sustenance strategies of receiving households as well as agents of regional and national development. Households that receive these remittances tend to use the proceeds primarily for

current consumption (food, clothing) as well as investments in children's education, health care, improvement in household food and security, and water and sanitation. Nevertheless, the ability of remittances to compensate the labour shortage in rural areas is still a function of the amounts and value of remittances received by migrants' households at home, especially in the developing countries (Bhans, 2015).

II. THE CURRENT OF RURAL-URBAN MIGRATION IN GHANA

Rural-urban migration is the most popular type of migration in Ghana. However, other types of migration also exist, even though on a smaller scale. Figures from the Ghana Statistical Service (GSS, 2000) indicate that about 35% of migratory movements within the country are rural-urban, followed by 18% seasonal migration, 14% rural-rural and 23% urban-urban migration.

According to Tutu (2015), the major forms of migration (based on the 1991 Migration Research Study) are rural-rural, rural-urban, and urban-rural, in that order. Using data from the fourth wave of the Ghana Living Standards Survey (GLSS), Tutu identifies the dominant Regions of destination as the Greater Accra (Accra), Ashanti (Kumasi) and Western Regions (SekondiTakoradi) of the ten Regions, with the Upper East (Bolgatanga) as the least attractive destination. The GSS (2010) also computed the percentage shares of migration flows for 1998/99 as follows: urban-rural (35%), rural-rural (32%), urban-urban (23%), and rural-urban (10%).

In Ghana, for over a decade now there has been a high rate of migration of teenage girls and who have never been to school, as well as those who have some limited schooling, into leading market centres in southern Ghana (GSS, 2012). Those teenage girls come principally from the savanna regions of northern Ghana and contiguous areas in Burkina Faso and Togo (Awumbilla, 2017). A small number of them come from other parts of southern Ghana. They travel to the city sometimes not having a definitive place to stay as well as work to do and hence usually end up carrying luggages on their heads for a fee (GSS, 2012). Others are been traded into risky sexual and health behavious and end up with contagious and communicable conditions as well as sexually transmitted diseases (UN Habitat, 2017).

III. CAUSES OF RURAL-URBAN MIGRATIONS

Political Factors

Smith (2010) identified that there are a number of ways in which a central commitment to regional balance can be expressed by a government. Populists' nationalism should thus be replaced by embracing diversity and difference. The representation of poor regions in the elite in government and the degree to which elites are fractured (e.g. economic and political elites) bring opportunities for the underdeveloped regions to develop the regional case (Brisgten, 2010). Regional administrative capacity is essential, as this also requires central commitment since poor regions cannot easily resource their own administrations. It may be appreciation of the political risks of increased or constant spatial inequality, which underlies a commitment to balance development. Ghana's underdeveloped regions in the north might become flashpoints for broader conflicts with unresolved conflicts in the north periodically escalating since 1980s. This may partly be a result of absence of a dynamic economy capable of absorbing and using the energies of the youth who usually are at the heart of conflicts (Brukum, 2011). There is an ensuing debate about the relative merits of federal versus unitary political system in addressing spatial inequality. The orthodox position is that a unitary position is better in redistributing national resources among regions. There is however, evidence that federal or decentralized systems which have inbuilt political autonomy for the poor regions to make their case, are more powerful than centralized system. This system reduces the risk of secession and underpins redistribution (Shankar and Shah, 2013).

Economic Factors

According to Black (2012), migration is fuelled by infertile soils and lack of local services in Ghana's Northern Regions, including Sankana in the Upper West Region. Kwankye (2009) stresses the natural resource distribution as a major reason for migration in Northern Ghana.

"Migration flows have largely been in response to the spatial pattern of natural resource distribution across the three ecological zones, namely the coastal belt, forest middle belt and the Northern savannah. There has, consequently, been a north-south pattern of internal migration flow in the country with regions that are less-endowed with natural resources becoming the main sources of migrants while those with rich natural resources have become the main destination centres for many internal migrants" (Kwankye, 2009).

Generally, the main causes of rural-urban migration in Ghana includes the lack of social amenities and employment in the rural communities, unavailability of fertile lands for farming, long dry seasons and the lack of good education (Kwankye et al., 2009). Ominda (2011) lists a number of reasons, including the attraction of the areas migrants' wants to go, and the ease of means through which these movements take place. There are also environmental pressures, such as soil depletion, erratic rainfall, drought, floods, as well as other natural disasters. For some people, environmental reasons are the main push factors.

Luginaah (2012) wrote in a study of migrants in Techiman in the Brong Ahafo Region of Ghana that

permanent migration from the Upper West Region (UWR) to the more fertile lands of the Brong Ahafo Region increased where migrants are able to access farmland through different leasehold arrangements. The findings of the study suggest that UWR migrants view their growing settlement in the Brong Ahafo Region to be a long-term phenomenon, and that many of these migrants have no intention of returning to their villages of origin in the UWR due to the poor soils in UWR as compared to the fertile lands in the Brong Ahafo Region (Luginaah, 2012). Luginaah (2012) went on to assert that the main reason for these migrants to leave their places of origin is to accumulate more food for their families back home in the UWR. Van der Geest also noted that they send back food and money as a way of helping relatives to cope with food insecurity (Van der Geest, 2011).

More so, poverty is often cited as a cause of migration in Ghana (Anarfi&Kwankye, 2013). Awumbila and Ardayfio-Schandorf (2008) argue that poverty may also be a result of migration, especially in the UWR, the poorest region among the three Northern regions. In conclusion, a major cause of rural-urban migration in Ghana is urban bias. Government policies supporting disproportionate increases in wage rates and employment opportunities in the urban areas contribute to imbalances in the rural-urban landscape.

As rural economy in developing countries is characterized by low productivity, fragmentation of land, poor adoption of technology, poor resource management, ill government policy, rural people always prefer to migrate to urban areas wishing to secure a better life (Aliyev, 2008). Yet from the economic point of view, most of the urban areas in developing countries are not promising (Faruk and Islam, 2010; Kainth, 2009).

Social and Cultural Factors

Social and cultural factors play an important role in rural-urban migration. People with better-off in their income could migrate to urban centers to get a better social infrastructure (education, health) driven by urban amenities, urban culture and lifestyle (Weeks, 2016).Besides this, family conflicts and the quest for independence also cause rural-urban migration especially, of those who are in the younger generation (Jamilah, 2011).

Improved communication facilities, such as, transportation, influence of the media, the urban oriented education and resultant change in attitudes and values promote rural-urban migration (Jamilah, 2011). People could also migrate due to unfavorable social conditions and segregations and pressure that they receive from the society in their place of origin (Kainth, 2009).

On the other hand, how the prospective migrants perceive living conditions in destination areas may have a decisive influence on migration. Migrants are attracted to towns by the favorable attitudes they have regarding city living (Jamilah, 2011).

Migrants to the urban areas in developing countries have been reinforced by oral and written accounts of conditions about urban areas. Returning migrants were more inclined to speak about their success and their gains than about the problems and obstacles they had to face. Besides these, it has been noted that books used in primary schools of developing countries often give a pleasant impression of the towns and cities. Such images may tend to exaggerate some aspects of reality, so that the potential migrant bases his/her decision to move to cities (UNDP, 2013).

Many migrants are influenced by the presence of contacts such as friends and relatives or family members in urban areas and by the belief that these contacts can help the migrants move fairly easily into jobs after arrival (Adepoju, 2010). Adepoju cited Caldwell‘s study in which he showed that there is a very strong statistical association among both males and females in Ghana between the presence of some rural household members in the town and the likelihood of other members visiting the town. The probability of becoming a rural-urban migrant appears to increase directly in response to the number of members of the household already in town (Adepoju, 2010).

The urban informal sector, unlike its formal counterpart, includes all activities that are unregulated and small scale in nature. A majority of migrant workers find work in the urban informal sector which then leads to low productivity and limited prospects for exiting poverty (Deshingkar and Grimm, 2015). However, there is also compelling evidence that migrants can escape poverty even when they have remained in the informal sector. The majority of the new workers in the urban labor force seemed to create their own employment and start their own businesses. Self-employment comprises a greater share of informal employment than wage employment and represents 70 per cent of informal employment in sub-Saharan Africa (SSA), 62 per cent in North Africa, 60 per cent in Latin America and 59 per cent in Asia (Deshigkar and Grimm, 2015). The self-employed were engaged in a variety of activities such as street vending, prostitution, selling different items. Other migrants found jobs as daily labourers, barbers, carpenters, mechanics, maids, personal servants and artisans (McCatty, 2014).

The majority of the workers entering the urban informal sector are recent rural migrants who are unable to find jobs in the formal sector and the main reason for taking part in the informal sector is to use what little skills they have to earn enough income to sustain their daily lives (Acharya and Cervatus, 2009). The informal sector is connected to the formal sector, since it provides opportunities for people who are unable to find employment in the formal sector.

Thus, the informal sector is therefore seen as a cause of rural-urban migration, because it lowers the risk of the individual being unemployed once they move to the cities (McCatty, 2014).

According to International Organization for Migration (IOM, 2008) report, about 192 million people lived outside their place of origin. Overtime, people have chosen the option of migration as a means of coping with the effect of environmental change both a sudden and disastrous nature and those of slow onset environmental deterioration.

IV. METHODS

This study wasa quantitative research design which was descriptive in nature. The study was undertaken at Kumasi Central Market. This study utilised the convenient sampling technique. As such, in this study, the adolescent migrants who were met first were sampled till the target sampling size of 200 was met and this took from October to November of 2018. A set of questionnaire was used to collect data. The questions on the questionnaire consisted of both closed and open-ended questions. The questionnaire focused on parameters such as sociodemographic factors, causes and health challenges.

Data analysis was carried out using the Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) software version 21. Descriptive analysis wasperformed and the results expressed as means and percentages. The Pearson's test was used to test the difference between two independent groups.

V. RESULTS PRESENTATION AND DISCUSSIONS

As indicated by the Ghana Statistical Service (2014)likewise in this study, as indicated in Table 1, majority of respondents (64.5%) were less than 20 years whilst 35.5% were above 20 years with 53.8% stating that they were single. Also, most of respondents (51%) were Northerner whilst 49% were from the middle and the southern belt. Clearly this result indicates that the rural-urban shift dynamics of Northern to the Southern part of Ghana has changed relatively and it is now more about leaving the village and trying to experience city life.

Socio-Demographics	Frequency (N=200)	Percent (%)
Age		
10-14years	50	25.0
15-19years	79	39.5
20-24years	71	35.5
Educational		
None	36	18.3
Primary school	77	39.1
JHS	44	22.3
SHS	18	9.1
Vocational school	11	5.6
Tertiary	10	5.1
Marital Status		
Married	13	6.5
Single	107	53.8
Co-habitation	71	35.7
Separated	7	3.5
Widow	1	0.5
Ethnicity		
Akan	29	14.5
Northerner	102	51.0
Ga	27	13.5
Ewe	41	20.5
Religion		
Christian	127	63.5
Muslim	73	36.5
Type of house		
Wooden structure	92	46.0
Block house	42	21.0

Kiosks	39	19.5
Open space	27	13.5
Have child/children		
Yes	82	82.0
No	18	18.0
How many		
1	71	71.0
2	28	28.0
3	1	1.0
NHIS subscriber		
Yes	93	46.5
No	107	53.5
Earn a month		
10	7	3.5
20	5	2.5
30	5	2.5
40	5	2.5
50	5	2.5
More than 50	173	86.5
Account to		
Myself	96	49.0
Someone	100	51.0
Someone else, who		
Sister	10	10.1
Brother	4	4.0
Mother	20	20.0
Father	2	2.0
Master	50	50.5
Others	13	13.1

Table 1: Socio-Demographic characteristics of the respondents

VI. CONCLUSION

The results of the present survey affirm the notion that migration is a survival strategy utilized by the poor, especially the rural dwellers since the major causes of migrating wereregional inequality, ethnic conflicts, lack of amenities, lack of employment in rural communities, lack of education, poverty,divorced parents, media influence, family conflicts, appealing urban informal sector large family members in a house, forced into early marriages and death of parents.

They travel to the city with the perception of getting jobs, be well protected, have good health, good nutrition and acquire materials for personal life.But when they get to the city, they encounter challenges such as poor remuneration for services, being maltreated by a colleague or worker, sleeping in open space, being harassed by task force and teenage pregnancies, frequent diarrheal diseases, skin infections, daring exposures to being raped accompanied with STIs and hence have to do abortions and they attested that they frequently fall sick.

RECOMMENDATION

Following the findings of the study, the following actions are recommended:

1. Problems with rural unemployment and underemployment greatly impact the rural economy causing rural people to migrate. Therefore, there is the need for integrated rural development strategy to increase agricultural production by increasing rural labour productivity by improving farm technology, increasing farm inputs such as fertilizers, high yielding variety of seeds, insecticides, adequate agricultural extension services, price incentives and improve access to financial credit and market facilities.
2. Government and other support groups should make efforts to expand school, healthcare and adult education coverage's.

3. Provision of different social services such as better medical facilities, education, infrastructure, water and electricity to the rural areas may reduce the amount of flow of population to urban centres.
4. There should be viable regional planning strategies for the mutual development of the towns and their hinterlands at different hierarchical scales it is recommended that it will check or slow down the rural outflow.
5. Vocational training of the rural people on small scale industries (non-farm) activities that could generate an income for the rural household should be introduced in rural areas.

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