

THE PUSH FACTORS IN THE PATTERNS OF RURAL-URBAN MIGRATION AND ITS IMPACT ON SERVICE DELIVERY” CASE OF ETHEKWINI”

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Abstract

Many big townships in South Africa were designed and established when apartheid was at its peak. The challenge the democratic government faces, specifically the developmental local sphere of government, is its inadequacy in providing effective and efficient services due to the continual increase in local inhabitant numbers caused by an increased rate of rural to urban migration. Urban planning concerns the manner in which cities and towns have been designed and municipal services delivered to the communities dwelling within these designed urban spaces. Rural to urban migration is the movement of people from rural to urban areas, mainly in search of better opportunities to improve their socio-economic conditions. The purpose of this paper is to examine the relationship between Push factors and rural to urban migration patterns, with reference to the Umlazi silver city the study was quantitative approach and used 5 Likert scale questionnaires which were distributed in the selected areas of eThekweni city. A total of 350 chosen from silver city. Whereas, qualitative aspects of the study were secondary data through extensive literature review, the study has found that indeed rural to urban migration has a negative impact on service delivery the study argue that service delivery, rural to urban migration, public participation need to be part of the government agenda holistically to improve service delivery and capacity of local authorities. This study recommends proactive urban planning and community involvement through public participation channels. The generalization of the findings of this study should be done with care.

Keywords: Service Delivery; Rural to Urban Immigration; Government; Municipalities.

1. INTRODUCTION

The South African government faces a tremendous task in addressing the issues that emerged as a product of imperialist and apartheid eras (Yampolsky and Amiot 2016). These problems stem from historical injustices, namely the displacement of African tribes' resources, ranging from farmland to minerals, including the oppression era's separatist laws, which permitted the State to fixate on certain regions where minorities previously lived (Nkabinde, Lekhanya and Dorasamy 2018: 11-24). As a result of having limited or no prosperity in native lands, alongside long-standing prohibitions on minorities in these native lands (Alexander 2013: 605-619), urbanisation remained possible (Verkuyten 2018: 10).

Following 1994, a fundamental shift with regards to politics took place, along with the modified Constitution in 1996, which enabled a modern and fair government (Agyabeng *et al.* 2022: 242-253).

As a consequence of State efforts to address racial inequality (Verkuyten 2018: 10), their desire to expedite development manifested with a record prevalence of city dwellers (Lawanson, Proverbs and Ibrahim 2023 1-16 11-80). This accompanied population growth, due to urbanisation, with individuals leaving their homelands in pursuit of better socio-economic conditions in the city (Kumar, Seay, and Karabenick 2015: 201). The need to migrate results in a flow of people from rural to urban areas, with informal settlements then built by migrants in urban spaces to keep families together.

Nonetheless, post-apartheid migratory movement saw municipalities declining to build houses for migrants, as it was usual for migrants to be provided with housing while working (Parnell and Robinson 2012: 593-617).

As migrant numbers increased, the demand exceeded municipal capacity to build houses for these residents (Patel 2016: 2738-2757). However, migrants from rural areas left behind their homes, structurally sound houses in good condition, preferring to live together as families in informal settlements in urban areas, able to respond and take advantage of economic opportunities (Agergaard and Broegger 2016: 71-81).

Thus, the demise of apartheid and the regulations that accompanied it contributed directly to SA's infamous inequality classes, although the transformation had been extensive, particularly with political ingress. However, the country's reintegration into the global community stimulated foreign interest, along with local migration, in respect of sparsely populated migration (Berry *et al.* 2010) Rural-urban migration push factors are situations and events that motivate migrants to migrate from one place to another (Bakewell, De Haas and Kubal 2012: 413-437), in this case; from rural to urban areas.

Push factors are factors that leave the victim with no choice but to move, even though they would have preferred to stay, for example, political violence in rural areas, climate change and persistent drought, among others (Munshi and Rosenzweig 2016: 46-98). Understanding the importance of push factors in relation to rural-urban migration is crucial (Singh A 2019: 81-107) and these are discussed in the following section.

Aims and Objectives

The aim of the study is to investigate the impact push factors in rural-urban migration patterns on service delivery within the eThekweni Municipality Local government in KwaZulu-Natal (KZN).

Objectives

In order to achieve the aim of this study, the following objectives will be pursued,

- To identify and explain the push factors in rural-urban migration patterns on service delivery by rural migrants;
- To investigate to what extent the impact of rural-urban migration patterns affects service delivery; and
- To suggest and recommend strategies that should be employed to improve the current state of service delivery, related to service delivery performance.

2. LITERATURE REVIEW

Economic Push Factors

Urbanisation and rural-urban migration are inter-related and intricately linked to socio economic changes (Kandpal *et al.* 2018: 463-469). The urbanisation processes, when well-managed, can bear the fruits of economic growth (Breakfast *et al.* 2019: 106-126). However, the rapid growth in the urban population in developing economies calls for government interventions using local authorities (Chigwata, O'Donovan and Powell 2017: 2). In SA, rural-urban migration is high due to apartheid laws and a quest for better economic opportunities (Long and Crisp 2010: 56). However, amongst pursued economic opportunities, jobs being sought, education and entrepreneurship are priorities (Cetin 2019: 1237-1249). There is, furthermore, an inconclusive debate in the policy development space, whether the redirection of rural-urban migration into urban-rural migration can reduce the flow and improve rural areas in terms of development (Klug 2010:99-100).

Another aspect requiring consideration is that agricultural production is what comes to mind when we speak of rural development in developing countries, while there are other forms of production in rural areas of developed countries, such as textile production and more (Njwambe *et al.* 2019: 413-431). Furthermore, informal settlements mushrooming in urban areas are damaging the natural environment that can be used for urban agricultural economy (Kahanji, Walls and Cicione 2019: 101-146). With the population in urban areas rapidly expanding, rural development is key in changing migration, inequalities, and reducing urban poverty in the process (Kumar 2011: 662–673).

An overabundance of small cities in the peripheries of the big metros could also be well-integrated in the urban expansion, which could lead to economic growth that is holistic in nature, in terms of both urban and rural areas (Chiloane-Tsoka and Mmako 2014: 377-383). There are several studies that suggest most inhabitants of small cities in SA are living below the poverty line, in addition to prevalent issues of lacking water supply and sanitation (Patrolia *et al.* 2017: 252-258). In the one extreme, well-managed migration leads to economic growth (Börsch-Supan, Leite, and Rausch 2019: 193), while on the other hand, uncapped urbanisation negatively impacts economic growth, breeds an unhealthy environment, and causes traffic congestion that can lead to accidents, among other things (Sinatti 2019: 609-623).

Social Push Factors

Metropolitan municipalities face a major challenge of service delivery demands motivated by the increased urban population (Zhu, Wei & Niu 2020: 1-3), with this population increase merely assisting to increase crime in the urban areas (Singhal 2020: 281-286). Informal settlements are increasing fast and this has highlighted the need for urban planning and proper urban expansion in urban areas, in order to harness the power of urbanisation in the economic growth of developing economies (Van Vliet 2019: 755-763). In addition to other social issues, there is lack of service delivery in developing economies such as SA (Woods 2018: 164-176). Furthermore, with the apartheid era government policies having trapped people in rural areas, this has resulted in high rural-urban migration flows that have further implications in relation to municipal capacity (Ziervogel 2019: 494-506). This population increase leads to overcrowding in urban spaces, with

rapidly growing informal settlement numbers in townships and cities where there is poor housing delivery, with little to no service delivered in some parts of the community (Forbes 2019: 95-117). Moreover, urban planners pay less attention to the link between rural-urban migration and urban populations that, in turn, increase the demand for services (Kyed 2019: 65-94). Urbanisation and urban growth can, thus, only worsen poverty in developing economies when not managed well or ignored, which is a trend amongst all developing economies (Matelski and Sabrié 2019: 11-31). Another social factor that needs to be investigated is that there is urban poverty because of rural-urban migration overpopulation (Goodwin and Hetland 2013: 83– 102). Changing rural areas that are peripheries to the big cities, together with small cities being integrated in metropolitan municipalities, are also a major contributor to the rapid growth in the urban populace (Missinne and Bracke 2012: 97-109). Nonetheless, the international community assumes big cities administered by municipalities, such as the eThekweni Municipality, lack good strategies on urban policies and planning (Bala and Kang’ethe 2021: 584-596).

Niva *et al.* (2019: 34-87) contend rural-urban migration has been a major factor in the rapid population growth in municipality governed areas, straining water infrastructure and service delivery, resulting in poor urban dwellers consuming mostly clean water at expensive prices, while wealthier groups enjoy highly subsidised services. Rural areas have limited infrastructure and facilities needed to maintain a healthy standard of living, whereas urban areas have all the necessary infrastructure and facilities that make it ideal for rural dwellers to migrate to urban areas, with lack of water supply in rural areas a major contributing factor (Bernzen, Jenkins and Braun 2019: 51).

Political Push Factors

Public participation of marginalised community members in policies is seen as empowerment around the world (Van Loon, Oosterlynck and Aalbers 2019:400- 418). The significance of community participation in politics is used to, for instance, examine housing delivery performance (Smith and Brown 2019: 102-061). Therefore, the lack of foresight and urban planning is “setting the government up for failure”, with political parties elected into power by people believing their parties to “be their messiahs and deliver them from poverty” (Lewis 2021: 189-206). In addition, the failure by political parties to deliver on campaign objectives leads to dissatisfaction and anger in both urban and rural populations (De Jager and Steenekamp 2019: 147-169). This has further increased uncertainty in SA, a country with a violent past, leaving the only way to communicate dissatisfaction through service delivery protests (Namberger *et al.* 2019: 452-472).

Since the 1950s, the minority-led government ensured no mixing of races, “with blacks at the bottom of the food chain”, and rigid urban planning based on segregation focused development in suburbs, where whites and Indians lived, and less focus on townships, where other people of colour lived (Stillwell and Dennett 2012: 23-44). In addition, international migration is “a drop in the ocean” where urban population growth in SA is concerned, since rural-urban migration contributes to most incoming populations in cities (Nkabinde *et al.* 2018: 11-24). A carefully planned urbanisation process, along with balanced rural-urban migration, can lead to economic growth, sustainable development and excellent service delivery performance (Magidi and Ahmed 2019: 335-346). Urban population growth requires a holistic view, as there is natural population growth

due to births. Recently, incorporation of small cities in the peripheries and its impact on rural-urban migration is a major growth contributor (Gu 2019: 1351-1360). The difficulty of the SA local government system, is it does not have a ground-breaking method, aimed at recovery of the way cities plan and financially plan their Municipal Infrastructure Grant (MIG) projects, to improve basic service delivery to poor communities (Danielle and Masilela 2020: 33-47). Local governments have been the principal providers but have been hampered by limited ability to bear the associated costs, especially where population density is low and service delivery is costly or difficult (Sambo 2019:1-12)

Global Push Factors

International socio-economic organisations, such as the UN Children's Fund, World Health Organisation (WHO) and UN-Habitat, have agreed the number of pit latrines still in use in Africa has partly improved (Tembo *et al.* 2019: 260-272). Njuguna (2019: 1-8) departs from this notion, contending wide-spread use of the pit latrine, especially in Southern Africa, is relative to the prevalent lack of employment opportunities in the countryside, due to the rural and urban populace facing serious institutional barriers, along with the respective labour markets and their distinctive natures, based in urban and rural centres (Kannan and Raveendran 2019: 38-44). Labour migration never reduced rural-urban migration, instead, it put migrants into more disadvantaged positions in their access to basic services and workers' rights (Yousefifar and Riahi 2017: 169).

The economic rates of countries in the southern region of Africa, such as SA, experience faster growth, in relation to the economy and urbanisation. In this regard, internal migration seems to be more rapid in developing than in developed economies (Mau 2019: 5-28). Nonetheless, the absence of access to water, sewage or solid waste administration schemes in informal dwellings contaminates streams, affecting the presence, air quality and health of urban spaces (Segal 2019: 135- 142). This has a severe impact on health costs; for example, reports show infants and adults die every year due to infections related to poor sanitation and water provision (Hackl 2018: 150-162). Globalisation and decentralisation have advanced the issue of overcrowding in urban spaces, to where production industries are further situated in peripheries and rural spaces, while urban businesses are growing more than the actual populace (Chen 2018: 35-58). However, more of this nature of development tends to be projected as problematic for future populations, pertaining to the incorporation of such development as a bridge to interlink urban centres (Kienast, Buchecker and Hunziker 2018: 1669-1677), as there is little focus of this phenomenon in developing economies (Saghir and Santoro 2018: 1-7).

Moreover, urbanisation and internal migration levels in the world are difficult to measure, because the common census and surveys are only used to capture places of birth and current location, with less attention on migration indicators (Kühn 2018: 1747-1762).

Natural Push Factors

Environmental factors are drivers of rural-urban migration (Garip 2014: 673–698), where environmental situations fluctuate from natural disasters to life-threatening weather events, and more gradual weather dissimilarities that might encourage individuals to use migration as a variation strategy for economic growth (Patrolia *et al.* 2017: 252-258). Moreover, individual

migration choices are affected by ecological influences and migration is conceived through a multifaceted fundamental relations web (Nagar-Ron and Motzafi-Haller 2011: 653-663). These include potentially fewer “argumentative environmental situations” in the short and long-term; the protection of households or societies; individual health deterioration; and reduced “household strength value through terrestrial and property deprivation” (Jokisch *et al.* 2019:12- 60). Bernzen *et al.* (2019: 51) found the interrelation of environmental influences with monetary activities may be encountered in little recognised ways and also indirectly affects separate migration choices. Furthermore, changes in weather situations may decrease agricultural production and increase food product prices (Brøgger 2019: 97-105).

Implementation of lockdown restrictions by the SA government in response to the COVID-19 pandemic led to most people, with the exception of essential workers, staying at home. The stricter measures enforced by the government “exposed the (un)responsiveness of the physical planning and architecture of informal settlements in SA” (Cattaneo *et al.* 2019: 189-206). Informal settlements are defined as “residential areas with no security of tenure vis-à-vis the land, the dwelling area, or permission to inhabit,” in addition to “neighbourhoods with a lack of or being cut off from basic facilities, services and city infrastructure,” as well as “housing that not necessarily complies with current planning and building regulations,” frequently located within an environmentally hazardous area (Soyinka *et al.* 2016: 52-64).

COVID-19, as with all pandemics, has a spatial element that needs to be managed (Chowell and Mizumoto 2020: 1093-1094). As lockdown continued, it became evident the impact of the COVID-19 crisis would differ, “evidently not only across countries, but also across regions and municipalities within countries, both in terms of declared cases and related deaths” (Hartnett *et al.* 2020: 699). The outbreak of COVID-19 has, furthermore, triggered a wider shock for informal settlements, as most of the population in SA live in densely populated areas (Usher, Durkin and Bhullar 2020: 315). Characterised by high population density, these poverty-stricken, informal settlements also have limited access to water, sanitation, and adequate infrastructure (Bhatti *et al.* 2020: 14-49). This leaves many uncertainties around virus control measures in informal settlements, possibly attributed to the controversial relationship that exists involving local government and those living in informal settlements (Smit 2020: 1-3).

Broad Economic Community Participation Push Factor

Community participation entails government involving citizens in decisions, ranging from distribution of public funds to policy design, as well as development of monitoring and evaluation of government spending (Omodan *et al.* 2019: 1-17). This participation plays a role in the improvement of service delivery, in terms of the 3Es (Economic, Efficient and Effective) and in strengthening the relationship between the government and citizenry (Kanyane 2014: 90-110). SA should include the community in agricultural projects, to emancipate people in rural areas and reduce the number of people migrating from rural areas (Masuku and Jili 2019: 19-35). In addition, most land in rural areas is owned by tribal chiefs and kings, creating difficulty for the government to access the land to benefit the entire rural population, and enable the provision and maintenance of service standards. As a result, the rural community often feels it is a country within SA due to poor service delivery (Weimann and Oni 2019). Thus, the issue of not owning land in rural areas

is another motivation for rural-urban migration, coupled with feeling excluded in service delivery and governance (Khoza-Shangase 2019: 73-78). Furthermore, people are forced to move to urban areas where there is high community participation (Weaver *et al.* 2019: 14-23). The major issue, however, is that urban land invaded by informal migrant settlements can be used for urban agricultural development and urban planning in cities (Dinbabo *et al.* 2019: 13-86). Local establishments have, occasionally, been expected to perform functions of a broader nature for historical motives and, at other times, from pure need conditions (Mlambo 2019: 207-224; Alexander 2013: 605-619). It makes sense that local governments must execute specific, related functions to realise their goals and objectives (Gram-Hansen *et al.* 2019: 361-368; Akhmat, Khan and Ali 2011: 301-317).

3. METHODOLOGY

Primary data was collected using a traditional 5-point Likert scale questionnaire as measuring instrument for statistical purposes. The use of the Statistical Package for Social Science (SPSS) was deemed relevant as it is a commonly used statistical programmed for the interpretation and summarizing of findings and results for this study.

4. FINDINGS

The following chapter presents findings from 350 respondents obtained through the distribution and collection of 5 Likert scale questionnaire and the frequency table, Component test table and chi-square test table are used to present the Data.

Table 1: Frequency Table

Variable Tested	Statement	Frequency	Percentage	Variable test	Statement	Frequency	Percentage
There is no Proper Transport in rural Areas	Agree	260	75	More Learners in Classrooms due to rural-urban migration	Agree	270	77
	Neutral	40	10		Neutral	40	11
	Disagree	50	15		Disagree	50	12
Need for Infrastructure In rural areas	Agree	140	40	Delays in Hospitals	Agree	290	83
	Neutral	20	5		Neutral	45	13
	Disagree	190	55		Disagree	15	4
No roads and Bridges in The rural	Agree	250	71	More money Needed For policing	Agree	300	86
	Neutral	50	14		Neutral	30	9
	Disagree	50	15		Disagree	20	6
Lack of Hospitals in Rural	Agree	290	83	More Power Stations needed	Agree	309	88
	Neutral	45	13		Neutral	30	9
	Disagree	15	4		Disagree	11	3
Do you come From rural areas	Yes	210	60				
	NO	140	40				

Table 1: indicate 260(75%) respondents that agree with the statement, with 40(10%) respondents neutral and 50(15%) respondents that disagree with statement on whether there is no proper transport in rural areas. The table also indicates 140(40%) respondents that agree with the statement, with 20(5%) respondents neutral and 190(55%) respondents disagree with the statement

on whether there is a need for infrastructural development in rural areas. The table further indicate 250(71%) of respondents that agree with the statement, with 50(14%) respondents neutral and 50(15%) respondents disagree with the statement on whether there are no roads and bridges in the rural areas. The table further indicates 290(83%) respondents that agree with the statement, with 45(13%) respondents neutral and 15(4%) respondents disagree with the statement that in the rural areas there is lack of hospitals. The table also indicates 210(60%) respondents agree to the statement on where they come from rural areas with 140(40%) respondents that disagree, with the statement. the table also indicates 270(77%) respondents agree with the statement, with 40(11%) respondents neutral, and 50(12%) respondents disagree with the statement on whether there are more learners in classrooms in the city as a result of rural-urban migration pattern. The table further indicates 290(83%) respondent agree with the statement, with 45(13%) respondents neutral, and 15(4%) disagree with the statement on whether there are delays in hospitals as a result of rural-urban migration patterns. The table also indicates 300(86%) agree with the statement, with 30(9%) respondents neutral, and 20(6%) respondents that disagree with the statement on whether more money is needed for policing in urban areas. The table indicates 309(88%) respondents agree with the statement, with 30(9%) respondents neutral, and 11(3%) respondents disagree with the statement on whether more power station are needed.

Rotated Component Matrix^a

Table 2: Push factors in Rural-urban Migration Patterns

Description	Component	
	1	2
There is no proper transport system in the rural areas which makes it difficult to travel to work	0.807	0.534
The infrastructure development of rural areas can minimize rural to urban rural-urban patterns	0.443	0.788
There is no roads and bridges in my area of origin	0.711	0.638
there is ever-increasing numbers of patients in urban areas because of rural to urban rural-urban migration patterns leads to shortages in medical staff	0.855	0.465
Learner overload in classrooms is increasing the workload for teachers	0.677	0.665
Rural-urban migration causes delays in urban hospitals	0.598	0.741
More money from government needs to be prioritized for policing and crime	0.900	0.373
More power stations are needed in urban areas to curb the demand created by rural-urban migration	0.890	0.370
Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis. Rotation Method: Varimax with Kaiser Normalization. ^a Rotation converged in 3 iterations.		

Table 2: a component test was conducted in relation to the Push factors in rural-urban migration patterns. There is no proper transport system in the rural areas, which makes it difficult to travel to work results, came as (0.807) which is significant. On The infrastructure development of rural areas can minimize rural to urban rural-urban patterns results came as (0.788) which is significant. On There is no roads and bridges in my area of origin (0.711) which is significant. on there is ever-increasing numbers of patients in urban areas because of rural to urban rural-urban migration

patterns leads to shortages in medical staff results came as (0.855) which is significant. On Learner overload in classrooms is increasing the workload for teachers results came as (0.677) which is significant. On Rural-urban migration causes delays in urban hospitals results came as (0.741) which is significant. On More money from government needs to be prioritized for policing and crime results came as (0.900) which is highly significant. On More power stations are needed in urban areas to curb the demand created by rural-urban migration results came as (0.890) which is significant.

Table 3: Chi-Squire Test

Description	Chi-Square	df	ASYMP. Sig.
There is no proper transport system in the rural areas which makes it difficult to travel to work	305.802	8	<0.001
The infrastructure development of rural areas can minimize rural to urban rural-urban patterns	563.557	8	<0.001
There is no roads and bridges in my area of origin	233.333	12	<0.001
there is ever-increasing numbers of patients in urban areas because of rural to urban rural-urban migration patterns leads to shortages in medical staff	354.429	8	<0.001
Do you come from rural areas	44.444	3	<0.001
Learner overload in classrooms is increasing the workload for teachers	395.842	12	<0.001
Rural-urban migration causes delays in urban hospitals	523.678	8	<0.001
More money from government needs to be prioritized for policing and crime	333.390	8	<0.001
More power stations are needed in urban areas to curb the demand created by rural-urban migration	392.953	8	<0.001

Table 3; Chi-square analysis of the results was performed to determine if There is no proper transport system in the rural areas which makes it difficult to travel to work have strong value as a Push factor in rural-urban migration patterns. The statistical results were found to be significant at (305.802; DF= 8; P<0.001). On The infrastructure development of rural areas can minimize rural to urban rural-urban patterns results were found at (563.557; DF= 8; P<0.001). On There is no roads and bridges in my area of origin results were found at (233.333; DF= 12; P<0.001). on there is ever-increasing numbers of patients in urban areas because of rural to urban rural-urban migration patterns leads to shortages in medical staff results were found at (354.429; DF= 8; P<0.001).On Do you come from rural areas results were found at (44.444; DF= 3; P<0.001). On Learner overload in classrooms is increasing the workload for teachers results were found at (395.842; DF= 12; P<0.001). On Rural-urban migration causes delays in urban hospitals results were found at (523.678; DF=8; P<0.001). On More money from government needs to be prioritized for policing and crime results were found at (333.390; DF= 8; P<0.001).on More power stations are needed in urban areas to curb the demand created by rural-urban migration results were found at (392.953; DF= 8; P<0.001).

Limitations

The limitation of this study is that it was specifically confined and limited to the eThekweni metropolitan municipal area and its residents and the findings could therefore, not be generalized to similar areas.



The Implication of the Study

The study has highlighted some of the critical factors affecting the impact of rural-Urban migration patterns on service delivery at selected areas within the eThekweni Municipality.

5. CONCLUSION

Undesirably, multiple motivators force migrants from their place of nationality. This can cause many justifications relating to both the environment along with economic factors. On the one hand, this “creates a stream of migrants rippling from countryside to the cities,” which results in many migrants throughout big centres (Stillwell and Dennett 2012: 50). Pull forces on the other hand, actively draw individuals from remote regions, such as modern living, careers, education, and healthcare, which are believed to be superior to those in remote areas.

This causes urban overpopulation, which affects the level of service supplied, affecting the populace previously present within city areas (Satterthwaite 2010: 33). However, an unresolved disagreement remains regarding how population movement adds to rapid urbanisation and urban sprawl. Urban leaders and officials need to design policies and urban planning that function as a method to regulate rural-urban migration trends for local municipalities to oversee internal migration (Turok 2012: 20).

The overwhelming migrant movement within South African provinces is undoubtedly intra-provincial or intra-district, motivated by socio-economic factors and is dominated by women (UN 2011). Furthermore, in statistical terms, it is anticipated the number of rural-urban migrants across SA is increasing and becoming a norm (Asamoah-Gyadu 2015: 189–192). Conversely, in certain migration contexts, there seems to be a substantial percentage of rural-urban migration trends (Rivera-Pagán 2013: 31–51).

6. RECOMMENDATIONS

The study recommends to enhance service delivery, there is a need for the government to understand the pull and push factors in rural-urban migration, as migrants are attracted to urban areas by better service and economic opportunities such as jobs and education, while they are pushed from rural to urban areas by poor service delivery and lack of economic opportunities such as education and employment, which also increase the unemployment rate in cities. Hence, there is a need to maintain local economic growth and development, while ensuring service delivery performance is at an optimum level. The study recommends the need for a strong relationship between rural-urban migration patterns and urban service delivery. Hence, there is service demand in cities since migrants end up living and occupying cities, which only leads to overcrowding. The study further concludes the government needs to put money aside for urban policing in order to eradicate crime in eThekweni municipality. The study also concludes there is fierce competition for jobs in urban areas, as well as illegal water connections, and more patients in urban hospitals, while air pollution and pit latrines are major factors in urban pollution indicating poor service delivery. Other factors include network infrastructure theft and more water demand in eThekweni municipality as a result of rural-urban migration patterns.

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