

RESEARCH ARTICLE

Internal youth migration in Uganda: Analyzing associates and employment outcomes

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Abstract: Youth internal migration is seen as a solution to youth unemployment, and this has resulted in over urbanization and its associated negative effects such as congestion, pollution, unemployment, underemployment, and increased crime rates. The study aimed at examining the employment status of youth migrants, assessing the relationship between demographic factors and youth internal migration, investigating the association between socio-economic factors and youth internal migration, and evaluating the association between reasons for migration and migrant employment status. The study used secondary data collected in the youth employment and migration in Eastern and Southern Africa project. In Uganda, the project was carried out in nine districts. The study focused on both men and women aged 18-35 years and a total number of 1524 respondents were interviewed. Results of the study revealed that age, residence, and region had a significant association with migration status ($p \leq 0.05$). Age, sex, number of children, region, and reasons for migration had a significant association with self-employment status of the migrant ($p < 0.05$). Marital status, sex, and reasons for migration had an association with the possibility of a migrant youth being employed ($p \leq 0.05$). The study recommends that local governments should provide the required infrastructures, social services, and amenities to encourage youths to carry out economic activities so as to develop their places of origin.

Keywords: Employment status; Migration associates; Social networks; Uganda; Youth internal migration

1. Introduction

Youth is all young person's female and male aged between 18 and 35 years (The Government of Uganda, 1995). The study used Uganda's definition of youth. Youth is a stage of human development during which young people make the transition from childhood to adulthood and from dependence to independence and interdependence. This transition (social, economic, and biological) is fundamental to safeguarding, shaping, further developing, and deploying their human and social capital. It is during this period that youth make important decisions about their lives particularly their ethical, social, economic, cultural, political, and civic positioning and role – setting the stage for adulthood (United Nations, 2014).

On the other hand, migration is the movement of a person or group of persons from one geographical unit to another across an administrative or political border wishing to settle definitely or temporarily in a place other than their place of origin (United Nations, 2003). Migration comprises internal and international migration. Internal migration is movement within the same country, from one administrative unit, such as a region, province or municipality to another. Internal migration is usually in the form of Rural Urban Migration (RUM) or Urban to Urban migration. In contrast, international migration involves the crossing of one or several international borders resulting in a change in the legal status

of the individual concerned. International migration also covers movements of refugees, displaced persons, and other persons forced to leave their country (United Nations, 2003).

Today, the world has the largest youth generation in human history. There are 1.8 billion young people living on the planet with approximately 85% of them living in developing states (United Nations, 2019). The number of youth migrants has continued to grow rapidly over the past 15 years because migration has become one of the mechanisms through which most youths try to escape the vicious cycle of poverty as a result of the high unemployment rates in the area/country of origin. Youth migrants constitute a relatively large proportion of international migrants, and their movement has a significant impact on origin, transit, and destination countries or communities (United Nations, 2013). In addition to that, 30% of all migrants are between ages of 20 and 29 and female youth migrants account for approximately 50% of international migrant population (United Nations, 2013). Africa is the world's youngest continent, as the proportion of youth among the region's total population is higher than in any other continent. In 2010, 70% of the region's population was under the age of 30 (United Nations, 2011) and in 2015, 52% of the migrants were youth migrants (United Nations, 2016).

Uganda being a politically stable country has over the years been a host country for majority of the refugees especially those from neighboring war-torn areas. The country has the youngest population with 78% below 30 years (Uganda Bureau of Statistics, 2014). Ugandan young labor force is rapidly growing, and it almost doubled in the past decade from 4.2 million in 2005-2006 to an estimated 9.5 million in 2015 (Goldin, Hobson, Glick *et al.*, 2015). In 2017, 16% of the population had lived in another place before their current residence. Of these, 18% were females and 14% were males. This means that more migrants are leaving their places of origin to new destination areas (Uganda Bureau of Statistics, 2017). On the other hand, unemployment and underemployment are big issues that youth in the country face. The overall unemployment rate stands at 9.4% and is particularly high among youth (60% of the unemployed) and those with higher levels of education. According to the Uganda National Planning Authority (NPA), the youth unemployment rate reaches up to 37.8% when including volunteers and unpaid family workers (National Planning Authority, 2015).

1.1. Rationale

Youth decisions have a significant impact not only on their own lives and opportunities for human development but also on the lives of their societies and communities, both in the short and long term. Youth migrants always find themselves in irregular situations and face situations of exploitation, trafficking, exclusion, and detention. Many youth migrants always find themselves in the so-called 3-D jobs (dirty, dangerous, and degrading) despite these youths being educated and having the required skills (United Nations, 2014). Youth migrants are more vulnerable to migration experiences that result in isolation, exclusion, and insecurity. They are in most cases affected by xenophobia, discrimination and suffer marginalization due to lack of fluency in the local language, new and different cultural norms, and insufficient information about laws and regulations in their new destination areas (United Nations, 2014).

Most studies on migration in Uganda have focused on the determinants of RUM and its consequences (Mutandwa, Taremwa and Uwimana *et al.*, 2011; Stark and Bloom, 1985) while other studies (Thorat and Jones, 2011; Taylor, 1999; Ackah and Medvedev, 2012) have gone ahead to look at the benefits of remittances in socio-economic development of the countries of origin. A rich analysis of population migration in Uganda has focused on population redistribution with respect to Kigezi and Bugishu (Kabera, 1983), but the study did not isolate internal youth migrations, and a few studies have examined the associates of youth internal migration (Deotti and Estruch, 2016; Herrera and Sahn, 2013). Investigations about internal migration flow especially among the youth have been limited because of reliable data challenges and the fact that it has a less political connotation. Examination of internal mobility patterns including associates and employment outcomes is, however, essential as it provides information to policymakers in a bid to benefit from youth migration flows, as well as managing mobility costs and risks.

The main purpose of this study is to examine the associates of youth internal migration and how migration affected youth employment status in Uganda.

1.2. Theoretical Framework

The theoretical framework explaining individual-level factors of youth migration was based on propositions made by the pull and push theory of migration. According to the theory, globalization has changed the way people see the world. As people become more aware of living standards and lifestyles in other parts of the world, for example, through television or the stories (and sometimes wealth) of returning expatriates, their understanding of their "relative" poverty has increased, and their expectations have changed. This motivates people to migrate to secure greater income. There is also evidence

that young people, in particular, consider migration because they want to escape the drudgery of subsistence living and see “the bright lights of the big city.” The theory considers pull and push factors to appear in both areas of origin and areas of destination. In the areas of origin the factors are called push factors, and in the areas of destination pull factors. In both types of areas, we speak for the same factors, but the social conditions in one area are favorable, and in the other area are not. They are connected through the economic, political, and war relations of the areas of origin and destination. At the same time, the root causes of migration – both licit and illicit – lay in the unstable political, social, and economic conditions in areas of origin. Other causes include rapid growth of the population, high unemployment, abject poverty, internal conflicts resulting in civil disorder and widespread violence, unstable or oppressive political regimes, and grave violations of human rights (Stanojoska and Petrevski, 2012).

The conceptual framework in Figure 1 shows that migration can lead to employment (in situations where a youth leaves the place of origin to a new destination area to look for work), or employment can lead to migration (in situations where a youth employee is being given work transfer to operate organization activities in another area) (Estruch, 2016). Individual demographic factors such as age, sex, and residence are hypothesized to affect migration and employment in such a way that females are in most cases constrained by social-cultural values to migrate and look for work because they are expected to stay at home to look after family members (Lakuma, Marty, and Kuteesa, 2016); youths aged above 30 years are more likely to migrate to look for work because they have family responsibilities to fulfill (Konseiga, 2005). On the other hand, urban youths tend to have contacts of their friends within the urban centers and other areas which help them to get information about the existing opportunities in other areas (Lakuma, Marty, and Kuteesa, 2016).

Socioeconomic factors such as marital status, highest education level, and reasons for migration are hypothesized to affect migration and employment (Lakuma, Marty, and Kuteesa, 2016). For example, the never-married youths are more likely to migrate to look for work because they are not constrained by their spouses in the places of origin (Gubhaju and Gordon, 2009). Economic reasons of a youth are more likely to drive a youth to migrant to look for work/set up small businesses in the new destination area while highly educated youths are likely to migrant to look for greener pastures in new destination areas because they have the contacts of the youths they have studied with and as well can access information through the media about the existing opportunities in other areas (Lakuma, Marty, and Kuteesa, 2016).

2. Data and Methods

2.1. Data Source

The study used secondary data collected in a survey of Youth Employment and Migration in Eastern and Southern Africa (YEMESA) coordinated by African Migration and Development Policy Centre (AMADPOC) in December 2017. The main objective of the survey was to enhance the understanding of how migration influences youth employment, self-employment, and entrepreneurship in Eastern and Southern Africa. In Uganda, the YEMESA project was carried out in

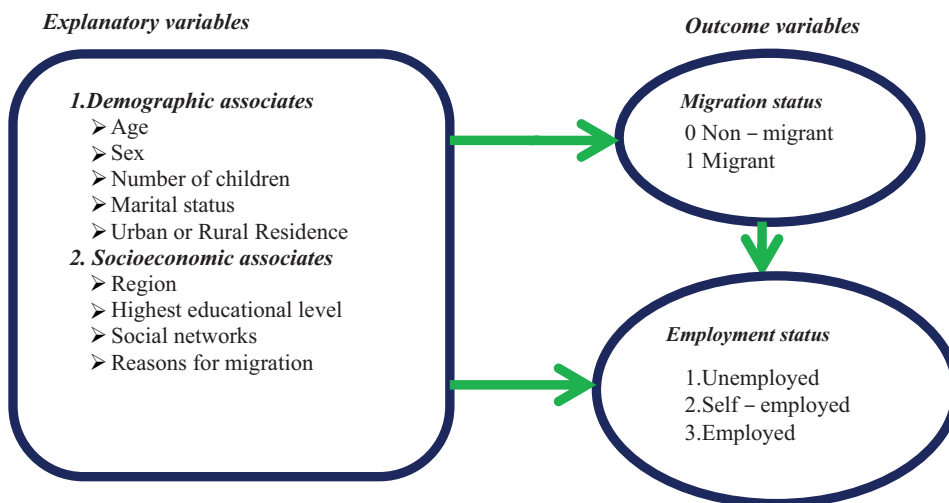


Figure 1. Conceptual framework for associates of youth migration and employment status.
Source: Adapted from Deotti and Estruch (2016) with permission.

nine districts. The study was conducted through face to face interviews. Age was the key inclusion/exclusion criterion whereby persons aged 18-35 were eligible for inclusion in the study. The study administered an individual questionnaire, which meant that members of the household who were present at the time of the interviews and were in the age range of 18-35 years would be considered in the study. A total number of 1148 migrants and 376 nonmigrants were considered in the study.

2.2. Study Design

The study considered four broad national regions (Central, East, North, and West) plus the capital city Kampala. From each region, two districts were selected at random. These were Masaka and Mubende (Central region), Busia and Mbale (Eastern region), Arua and Gulu (Northern region), and Mbarara and Hoima (Western region). Kampala the capital city was purposely selected as the ninth district due to its primate city status, destination of 4612 large in-migrants and prevalence of complex employment dynamics. Respondents were proportionally allocated to the nine districts factoring in the proportion of youths in each district as informed by the National Population and Housing Census. Simple random sampling was used to select the youths from each district for the interview. The study operationally considered youths to be persons aged 18-35 years and this population subgroup constitutes about 33% of the population in the selected districts. In addition, a total of 48 shortlisted enumerators and nine supervisors were ultimately recruited, trained, and deployed to collect the data. A pre-test was carried out in November 2017 followed by the main data collection exercise in the subsequent month. Both the pre-test and the main data collection exercises used computer-assisted personal interviewing method. Uploads of data were effected onto the server for survey chief technology officer – a digital platform used for data collection where information could be accessed in real time.

2.3. Outcome Variables

There are two dependent/outcome variables. The first (migration status) was a binary outcome (migrant vs. nonmigrant). In the YEMESA project, internal migration was captured by asking for the district in which the respondent was born. With such a question data pertaining to whether a person migrated or not was obtained. The second dependent variable was the current employment status of the migrants at the time of the interview with three outcomes: Employed, self-employed, and unemployed.

2.4. Explanatory Variables

The explanatory or independent variables were the individual-level factors which influenced migration status. These factors were divided into demographic and socioeconomic factors. The demographic factors included age, sex, marital status, and number of children. The socioeconomic factors considered were urban or rural residence, region, educational level, reasons for migration, and social networks. In the study, social network was defined as a network of social interactions and personal relationships with friends, relatives or coworkers. Reasons for migration included economic reasons for a better job, new business or higher income in destination; social reasons for better or new relations with relatives, friends or partner in the destination; and forced reasons where an individual unwillingly left the place of origin due to factors such as wars, insecurity, disease outbreak, hunger, and other environmental disasters.

2.5. Analytical Strategies

The univariate analysis involved the use of frequency distributions for the explanatory variables both demographic and socioeconomic factors as well as the outcome variables. Multivariable binary logit model was done to test which explanatory variables affected migration status among all the respondents. The multinomial logit model was adopted to assess whether migration status affected employment in the presence of other covariates and what factors associated with employment. The model used relative risk ratios (RRR), which mean that for a unit change in the predictor variable, the logit of an outcome relative to the reference group is expected to change by its respective parameter estimate given that the variables in the model are held constant. For this case, all variables included at bivariate analysis were included in the multinomial logit model. In the model, un-employed response was chosen as the comparison category.

3. Results

Results in Table 1 show that 75.3% of the sample were migrants, 46.0% were self-employed and 40.9% were employed. A majority (40.2%) of the sample were aged 23-27, 55.6% were males and 76.1% were coming from rural areas. Almost

Table 1. Background characteristics of the respondents (n=1524).

Variable	Number	Percentage
Migration status		
Nonmigrant	376	24.7
Migrant	1148	75.3
Current employment status		
Unemployed	200	13.1
Self-employed	701	46.0
Employed	623	40.9
Age		
18-22	462	30.3
23-27	612	40.2
28-32	323	21.2
33-35	127	8.3
Sex		
Male	848	55.6
Female	676	44.4
Residence		
Rural	1159	76.0
Urban	365	24.0
Number of children		
None	749	49.1
Have a child and more	775	50.9
Region		
North	326	21.4
East	250	16.4
West	269	17.7
Central	301	19.8
Kampala	378	24.8
Highest education level		
Primary education or lower	438	28.7
Secondary education or more	1,086	71.3
Marital status		
Currently married	411	27.0
Widowed/divorced	278	18.2
Never married	835	54.8
Social networks		
None	889	77.4
Social group	259	22.6
*Missing data	376	0.0
Reasons for migration		
Economic reasons	913	79.5
Social reasons	145	12.6
Forced reasons	90	7.8
*Missing data	376	0.0

Note: *Missing data on nonmigrants and the differences in totals are due missing data for nonmigrants.

half (50.9%) of the sample had a child, 71.3% had secondary or more education while 28.7% had primary or low-level educational attainment. More than half (54.8%) of the sample had never been married while only 27.0% were married. A majority (77.4%) of the sample did not belong to any social network, 79.5% of the migrants had left their places of origin due to economic reasons, and 24.8% of the migrants were residing in Kampala region.

3.1. Associates of Migration Status

The binary logistic regression model was run to assess the association between both demographic and socioeconomic individual-level variables with migration status, as shown in Table 2. Results in Table 2 showed that age, residence, and region had a significant association with migration status ($p < 0.05$). With age, youths aged 23-27 had increased odds to be migrants as compared to those aged 18-22 (Odds Ratio [OR] = 1.4; 95% confidence interval [CI]: 1.0-1.8) and youths aged 33-35 had almost three more odds to be migrants compared to those aged 18-22 years (OR = 2.5; 95% CI: 1.3-4.5). In other words, the likelihood of youth being a migrant increased with the increase in a youth's age. Youths from urban areas had less odds to be migrants as compared to those from rural areas (OR = 0.4, 95% CI: 0.3-0.6) and youths from central region had more odds be migrants as compared to those from Northern region (OR = 1.0; 95% CI: 0.5-1.0). On the other hand, sex, number of children, marital status, and highest education level had no association with the likelihood of a youth being a migrant ($p > 0.05$).

3.2. Association between Migration Status and Employment Status

The multinomial logistic regression model was run to assess the association between migration status and employment status. This association could not be tested with other individual level factors because of collinearity (Table 3). Results showed that migrant status had a significant association with self-employment because the risk of a youth being self-employed over being unemployed was higher for a migrant youth than a non - migrant youth (RRR = 1.4, 95% CI: 1.0-2.0). On the other hand, migrant status did not have any association with employed status of the migrant ($p > 0.05$).

Table 2. Factors predicting migration status.

Migration status	Odds ratio
Age	
23-27 (18-22)	1.4 (1.0-1.8)*
28-32 (18-22)	1.5 (1.0-2.2)
33-35 (18-22)	2.5 (1.4-4.5)**
Sex	
Female (Male)	1.1 (0.9-1.5)
Residence	
Urban (Rural)	0.4 (0.3-0.6)**
Number of children	
Have a child and more (None)	0.9 (0.6-1.2)
Region	
East (North)	0.7 (0.5-1.1)
West (North)	0.7 (0.5-1.0)
Central (North)	1.0 (0.5-1.0)*
Kampala (North)	1.0 (0.7-1.4)
Marital status	
Widowed/Separated (Currently married)	1.2 (0.8-1.8)
Never married (Currently married)	0.9 (0.6-1.3)
Highest education level	
Secondary education or more (Primary education or lower)	0.6 (0.4-0.8)

(1) There were 1524 observations. (2) The category of a variable in the parentheses is the reference group of the variable. (3) ORs (odds ratios) in the parentheses are the 95% confidence intervals. All ORs were adjusted for covariates in Table 1. (4) * $p < 0.05$, ** $p = 0.01$.

3.3. Associates of Employment Status

The multinomial logistic regression model was run to assess the association between both demographic and socioeconomic individual – level factors with employment status as shown in Table 4.

Results showed that age, sex, number of children, region and reasons for migration had a significant association with self-employment status of the migrant ($p < 0.05$). Whereby, the risk of a youth being self-employed over being unemployed was 2 times higher for a youth aged 23-27 years than a youth aged 18-22 years (RRR = 2.0, 95% CI: 1.3-3.3), the risk of a youth being self-employed over being unemployed was 2 times higher for a youth aged 28-32 years than a youth aged 18-22 years (RRR = 2.3, 95% CI 1.2-4.4) and the risk of a youth being self-employment over being unemployed was almost four times higher for a youth aged 33-35 years compared to a youth aged 18-22 years (RRR= 3.5, 95% CI: 1.4-9.1). In addition, the risk of a youth being self-employment over being unemployed was lower for a female youth compared to a male youth (RRR=0.6, 95% CI: 0.4-1.0) and the risk of a youth being self-employed over being unemployed was almost two times higher for a youth who had a child and more compared to a youth who had no children (RRR= 1.8, 95% CI: 1.0-3.0). With region, the risk of a youth being self-employed over being unemployed was lower for a youth from Eastern region compared to a youth from Northern region (RRR= 0.5, 95% CI: 0.3-0.9). Lastly the risk of a youth being self-employment over being unemployed was lower for a youth who migrated due to social reasons compared to a youth who migrated due to economic reasons (RRR=0.4, 95% CI:0.2-0.7). On the other hand, residence, marital status, highest education level, and social networks did not have any association with self-employment status of the migrant youth ($p > 0.05$).

Table 3. Association between migration status and employment status.

Migration status	RRR
Self-employed versus unemployment	
Migrant versus Non – migrant	1.4 (1.0-2.0)*
Employed versus unemployment	
Migrant versus Non – migrant	1.3 (0.9-1.8)

(1) There were 1,524 observations. (2) The category of a variable in the parentheses is the reference group of the variable. (3) RRRs (relative risk ratios) in the parentheses are the 95% confidence intervals. All RRRs were adjusted for covariates in Table 1. (4) * $p < 0.05$.

Table 4. Factors predicting employment status.

Employment status	RRR
Self-employed versus unemployment	
Age	
23-27 (18-22)	2.0 (1.3-3.3)**
28-32 (18-22)	2.3 (1.2-4.2)*
33-35 (18-22)	3.5 (1.4-9.1)*
Sex	
Female (Male)	0.6 (0.4-1.0)*
Residence	
Urban (Rural)	0.8 (0.5-1.4)
Number of children	
Have a child and more (None)	1.8 (1.1-3.1)*
Region	
East (North)	0.5 (0.3-1.0)*
West (North)	0.7 (0.4-1.3)
Central (North)	0.8 (0.4-1.6)
Kampala (North)	0.9 (0.5-1.8)

(Contd...)

Table 4. (Continued)

Employed versus unemployed	
Marital status	
Widowed/Separated (Currently married)	1.5 (0.8-2.9)
Never married (Currently married)	0.7 (0.4-1.2)
Highest educational level	
Secondary education or more (Primary education or lower)	1.2 (0.8-1.8)
Reasons for migration	
Social reasons (Economic reasons)	0.4 (0.2-0.7)**
Forced reasons (Economic reasons)	1.0 (0.5-2.0)
Social networks	
Social group (None)	1.6 (1.0-2.7)
Employed versus unemployed	
Age	
23-27 (18-22)	1.4 (0.9-2.3)
28-32 (18-22)	1.1 (0.6-2.0)
33-35 (18-22)	1.2 (0.4-3.3)
Sex	
Female (Male)	0.6 (0.4-0.9)*
Residence	
Urban (Rural)	0.9 (0.5-1.4)
Number of children	
Have a child and more (None)	1.3 (0.8-2.2)
Region	
East (North)	0.7 (0.4-1.2)
West (North)	0.8 (0.4-1.5)
Central (North)	1.5 (0.8-2.7)
Kampala (North)	1.7 (0.9-3.1)
Marital status	
Widowed/Separated (Currently married)	2.2 (1.1-4.5)*
Never married (Currently married)	1.8 (0.9-3.3)
Highest educational level	
Secondary education or more (Primary education or lower)	1.6 (1.1-2.5)*
Reasons for migration	
Social reasons (Economic reasons)	0.5 (0.3-0.7)**
Forced reasons (Economic reasons)	0.8 (0.4-1.6)
Social networks	
Social group (None)	1.3 (0.8-2.3)

(1) There were 1,524 observations. (2) The category of a variable in the parentheses is the reference group of the variable. (3) RRRs (relative risk ratios) in the parentheses are the 95% confidence intervals. All RRR were adjusted for covariates in Table 1. (4) * $p < 0.05$, ** $p < 0.01$.

In addition, sex, marital status, highest educational level and reasons for migration had an association with the possibility of a migrant youth being employed ($p < 0.05$) whereby, the risk of a youth being employed over being unemployed was lower for a female youth compared to a male youth (RRR = 0.6, 95% CI:0.4-1.0), the risk of a youth being employed over being unemployed was two times higher for a youth who was widowed/separated compared to a youth who was currently

married (RRR=2.3, 95% CI:1.2-4.5). In addition, the risk of a youth being employed over being unemployed was higher for a youth who had acquired secondary education or more than a youth who had acquired primary education or lower and the risk of a youth being employed over being unemployed was lower for a youth who had migrated due to social reasons compared to a youth who had migrated due to economic reasons (RRR = 0.5, 95% CI: 0.3-0.7). On the other hand, age, residence, number of children, region and social networks did not have any association with the possibility of a migrant youth being employed ($p>0.05$).

4. Discussion

Results of the study showed that age is the only demographic factor that had a significant association with migration status. Whereby the likelihood of a youth being a migrant increased with the increase in a youth's age because youths aged 23-27 were 1.4 times more likely to be migrants as compared to youths aged 18-22 and youths aged 33-35 were almost 3 times more likely to be migrants as compared to youths aged 18-22 years. The study results are in support of the studies conducted by Bell and Muhidin (2009); Ackah and Medvedev (2012); Lakuma, Marty, and Kuteesa (2016) which found a positive association between age and migration status. This is true because usually young adults aged between 23 and 36 years, have completed tertiary education, are flexible, open minded, in good health and in most cases want to stabilize financially (for example, having their own house and a personal business which can raise daily income to take care of the day to day expenses of the household) (United Nations Department of Economic and Social Affairs, 2016). This makes it easier for them to look for opportunities elsewhere other than their original places of origin.

On the other hand, youths from urban areas were more likely to be migrants as compared to youths from rural areas. The results are in support of the study conducted by Ackah and Medvedev (2012); Lakuma, Marty, and Kuteesa (2016) which also revealed that there existed a significant association between place of residence and the possibility of someone being a migrant. The association exists because in most cases, youths residing in urban areas can easily have access to the social media and phone contacts which helps to maintain contacts of their friends with whom they had either worked or studied with. With such contacts, a youth migrant is able to get all the necessary information about the available opportunities, existing cultures and the language spoken in the proposed new destination area hence making movement easier (United Nations, 2013).

Youths from urban areas had fewer odds to be migrants as compared to those from rural areas and youths from central region had more odds to be migrants as compared to those from Northern region. On the other hand, sex, number of children, marital status, and highest education level had no association with the likelihood of youth being a migrant.

However, the results of the study revealed that there was no relationship between sex and number of children with migration status. The results are in contradiction with several (Awumbila, Teye, Litchfield *et al.*, 2015; Herrera and Sahn 2013; Nzabona and Maniragaba, 2016) which reported an association between sex and migration as well as studies (Dobson, 2009; Dustmann, 2003; Mushomi, 2016) which suggested that number of children had an association with migration. In the study, sex and number of children were not statistically significant probably because youths are ambitious to explore and will certainly move to new destination areas regardless of their gender or parenthood background (United Nations, 2016).

Results of the study also showed that region is the only socioeconomic factor that had an association with migration status. With, youths from central region were more likely to be migrants as compared to youths from the Northern region. Results of the study are in agreement with the results of the study conducted by Osawe (2013) in Nigeria and Mushomi (2016) in Uganda which showed that region was significantly associated with migration. The region stands out to be significantly associated with migration status because youths formerly residing in the central region are nearer to Kampala which is the country's capital city, therefore, these youths move to provide labor to the economic activities taking place in the city (Magelah and Ntambirweki-Karugonjo, 2014).

On the other hand, the study results revealed that marital status and highest education level did not have any association with migration status. The results are in contradiction to studies by Ackah and Medvedev (2012); Boutin (2016) and Lakuma, Marty, and Kuteesa (2016) which found an association between highest education level and migration as well as studies conducted by Gubhaju and Gordon (2009); Herrin, Knight, and Balihuta (2008) which also found an association between marital status and migration. Education level did not have an association with migration status probably because most of the jobs in the cities or urban areas in the country are mainly in the informal sector which requires limited trained skills but rather who connects the youth to the job (Pletscher, 2015).

The self-employed youths are employers not only to themselves but also to others. The study results revealed that residence, marital status, highest education level, fuel used for cooking, and social networks did not have any association with self-employment status of the migrant youth while age, sex, number of children, region, and reasons for migration

had a significant association with employment status of the migrant. As regard to self-employed youths in the country, self-employed youths spend most of their time working in their own small scale business and they are largely engaged in petty businesses such as operating chapatti stalls, retail shops, restaurants, mobile money outlets, saloons, bars, boutiques, artisanry, motorcycle cyclists, selling narcotic drugs, market stalls, petty trade, bricklaying, building and construction, mechanical repair, maintenance and food processing, and operating taxi vehicles (Magelah and Ntambirweki-Karugonjo, 2014). Given the fact that there are limited jobs in the country, self-employment is actually the dream of each and every youth in the country. The various advantages attached to it, that is, independence, control, and freedom from routine make it the most preferable employment status among the youths. In other words, the youth is able to decide when, where and how to work (Goldin, Hobson, Glick *et al.*, 2015)).

Employed status is a situation in which a youth is engaged or hired into a service with an intention of being paid at the end of either a day, a week, or a month (Shamchiyeva, 2017). The study results revealed that age, residence, number of children, region, fuel used for cooking, and social networks did not have any association with employed status while sex, marital status, highest education level, and reasons for migration had an association with the possibility of a migrant youth being employed. In Uganda, most of the male youths are employed in activities such as mechanics, welding, mobile money, and carpentry and most female youths are employed in activities such as hair dressing, shop attendants, and mobile money businesses. However, most of the youths take on employed status as a means of surviving and as well be able to raise capital to start up their own businesses (Shamchiyeva, 2017).

In the study, reasons for migration were subdivided into social, economic, and forced reasons. Results of the study revealed that reasons for migration have a significant association with self-employment status and employed status. With self-employment status, the relative risk of a youth being self-employed over one who was unemployed was lower for a youth who migrated due to social reasons relative to a youth who migrated due to economic reasons. On the other hand, the relative risk of a youth being employed over a youth who was unemployed was also lower for a youth who had migrated due to social reasons relative to a youth who had migrated due to economic reasons. Results of the study are in agreement with a study conducted by United Nations (2011) in developing countries which also suggested that there was a significant association between reasons for migration and employment status because youths usually leave their places of origin to new destination areas where they believe they can easily access employment to stabilize their income as well as have a stronger and greater engagement in the society (United Nations, 2011).

5. Policy Implications

Our findings have important policy implications. Local governments should include the needs of the youths, especially those aged 33-35 years because they have almost three more odds to be migrants as compared to youths aged 18-22 years. This could be done through infrastructural development and provision of social services and amenities (such as electricity, improvement and construction of new education facilities, improve health-care delivery, safe water, tightening of security, and upgrading of local markets) to their local communities so as to encourage the youths to stay and carry out economic activities in their places of origin other than moving away to the nearby urban areas which are already worsened with effects of unplanned urbanization.

With the region having a strong association with migration status, informal settlement evictions should be ended. Many rural to urban migrants live in informal settlements and face intense disruptions to both their home life and livelihoods through the threat of eviction. There should be increase in the capacity of state and nonstate stakeholders to upgrade informal settlements and orientate urban planning that supports access to basic services and affordable housing.

There is also a need to overcome the problem of regional imbalance which is one of the causes of migration. To do this, governments should work in hand with the private sector to improve service delivery, create more employment opportunities and redistribute tax revenues so that poorer localities can have the capacity to provide adequate local public services hence leading to equitable growth in the country.

While we stressed the strengths of our study, the study has some limitations. For example, some information about nonmigrants was not available, such as socioeconomic status of the migrant's place of origin/sending household, living conditions, wages, which made the dataset rather lacking on some variables which would otherwise have enriched the study. Age was also a limitation because it is usually affected by social desirability bias, cultural, and other issues in the country.

6. Conclusions

The study has provided insights about associates of migration status and migrant employment status. Further research is needed to assess reasons for migration with other individual or household level factors.

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Authors' Contribution

SM conceived, designed, and implemented the study inclusive of data analysis and presentation, interpretation and discussion of results. AN provided guidance on study conceptualization, data analysis and interpretation of results. JM guided on study conceptualization and advised on data analysis. All authors participated in drafting the manuscript, read and approved the final version.

Conflicts of Interest

The authors declare that they have no conflicts of interests.

Ethical Approval

Permission and access to use the dataset were granted by AMADPOC, the institution that coordinated the migration survey on behalf of IDRC.

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