

Rural To Urban Migration Among Agricultural Households In Indonesia: Evidence From The 2015 Intercensal Population Survey (SUPAS)

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ABSTRACT

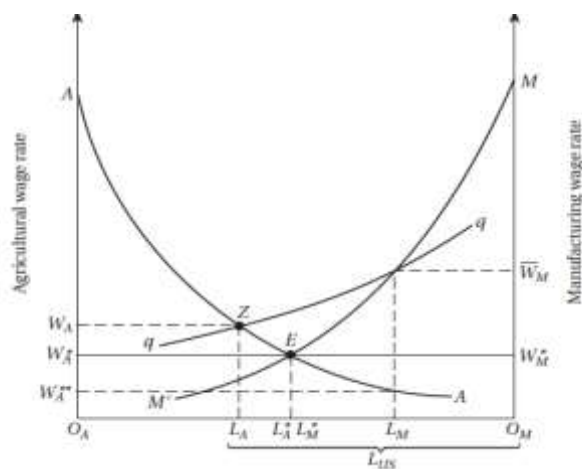
This study analyzes rural–urban migration and non-permanent mobility in Indonesia using secondary data from the Statistics Indonesia 2015 Intercensal Population Survey (SUPAS 2015). Grounded in the Harris–Todaro framework and contemporary migration theories, the research examines the socioeconomic determinants of migration decisions and the growing relevance of commuter and seasonal mobility patterns. Rural–urban migration is conceptualized as a rational decision based on expected income differentials, employment opportunities, and access to urban facilities, while recognizing structural imbalances in the labor market that may generate urban unemployment and informal sector expansion. This study employs a quantitative and qualitative research design supported by a systematic literature review. The literature review was conducted to identify theoretical frameworks, empirical findings, and methodological approaches related to rural–urban migration. Previous scholarly articles were carefully examined to construct the conceptual framework and to determine relevant variables for empirical analysis. Urbanization in Indonesia demonstrates both positive and negative implications. On the one hand, agglomeration economies enhance productivity, income, and access to education and health services. On the other hand, rapid urban growth contributes to congestion costs, informal employment, environmental degradation, and urban poverty. The study concludes that migration and non-permanent mobility are integral components of Indonesia’s demographic and economic transformation, requiring balanced regional development policies and improved urban governance to maximize benefits while minimizing social and economic costs.

Keywords: agricultural households, rural–urban migration, urbanization, agglomeration economies, SUPAS 2015

INTRODUCTION

The movement of the population from rural areas to urban areas is one part of development. Socioeconomic conditions in rural areas that do not allow to meet a person's maximum satisfaction, cause the person to want to go to a city that can fulfill that satisfaction. Today, the mobility of the population has varied. In addition to settling down, non-permanent mobility is a phenomenon in itself in coloring the world of mobility. Various economic and social activities are no longer carried out by having to change places of residence but with the availability of transportation and other adequate facilities cause them to be able to carry out activities not in the district/city where they live, but rather activities outside the district/city where they live by traveling back and forth, going/returning on the same day. So that the commuter phenomenon is growing.. In addition to looking at sedentary urban information, non-permanent mobility reviews need to be discussed to support the complexity of the mobility discussion supported by the latest data evidence. Based on the illustration below, According to Todaro, the decision to urbanize is rational because everyone definitely wants a better life through complete access and facilities. However, the decision to migrate is based on wage expectations alone, not on wage realization. Someone who is urbanized because they want a high salary turns out that this is not the reality. In the graph above, Todaro said that urbanization causes high unemployment because not all those who have lived in cities from rural areas are accommodated in the labor market. In the above model, initially in a competitive market, the wages manufactured and agricultural are the same and equilibrium. The existence of the UMP policy caused manufacturing wages to rise and encouraged rural workers to move to the city. However, there will be migrants from rural to urban who are not absorbed in the manufacturing sector. This is what causes unemployment as a result of urbanization. Thus, it can be concluded in this section that the factors that attract people to go to the city are the existence of more modern city life, more complete city facilities and infrastructure, Many jobs in the city, better and quality school and college education and others while the driving factors include Agricultural land is getting narrower, feels incompatible with the culture of the place where they come from, is unemployed because there are not many jobs in the village, limited facilities and infrastructure in the village, is expelled from the village of origin and has strong dreams of becoming rich and others.

Figure 1. Harris Migration Model



Source: Todaro, Economic development

According to Todaro (2015), the decision to migrate, in this case urbanization, is rational because everyone wants a better life through complete access and facilities. For the workforce, the decision to move to urban areas is based on wage expectations alone, not on wage realization. Someone urbanizes because they want a high wage, but the realization is not so. Carr (2012) stated that the most essential motivation for moving to urban areas is *the imbalance* of opportunities in rural and urban areas, namely limited employment in rural areas. In this case, people who usually move from villages to cities because they want to get an increase in income from urban jobs. In the image below, Todaro (2015) in the Harris-Todaro model states that urbanization will cause high unemployment because not all those who have lived in cities from rural areas are accommodated in the manufacturing labor market. In this model, initially in a competitive market, wages in the manufacturing sector and the agricultural sector (*agricultural*) are the same and there is equilibrium. Consequently, the existence of an urban minimum wage policy causes manufacturing wages to rise and encourages *rural* workers to move to *the urban*. However, there will be migrants from *rural* to *urban* who are not absorbed in the manufacturing sector. Most urban jobs require high skills. Apart from the *low supply of labor* due to the unaccommodating of the workforce, jobs that require specifications cause those who lose competition in the labor market to become unemployed. This gives rise to informal jobs whose income is not fixed and securities are low or even non-existent. This is what causes high unemployment in urban areas as a result of urbanization. Imbalances in the job market (*insufficient employment opportunities*) will create an informal workforce characterized by 3D (*Dirty, Dangerous, Difficult*) in urban areas. In this paper on the topic of urbanization and non-permanent mobility, the preliminary discussion will begin with the discussion of urbanization first as one of the complex dilemmas and phenomena in the development process. A proof through the presentation of the portrait portrait of the latest Indonesian urbanization data is presented to strengthen the argument. Current issues such as the son of urbanization are also presented to illustrate the phenomenon and cases of urbanization in Indonesia

RESEARCH METHOD

This study employs a quantitative and qualitative research design supported by a systematic literature review. The literature review was conducted to identify theoretical frameworks, empirical findings, and methodological approaches related to rural–urban migration. Previous scholarly articles were carefully examined to construct the conceptual framework and to determine relevant variables for empirical analysis. A structured review of academic journal articles was conducted to synthesize prior research on rural–urban migration, urbanization dynamics, and demographic transition. The literature was collected from reputable academic databases, focusing on peer-reviewed

journal articles published in the fields of demography, development economics, and population studies. This study uses secondary data from the 2015 Intercensal Population Survey (SUPAS 2015) conducted by Statistics Indonesia. The dataset provides nationally representative microdata on migration status, demographic characteristics, education level, employment status, and other socioeconomic indicators. Based on the reviewed literature, rural–urban migration is treated as the dependent variable, defined as an individual's movement from rural to urban areas within a specified reference period. Independent variables include age, gender, education level, employment status, and marital status. The analysis applies descriptive statistics to illustrate migration patterns and logistic regression analysis to examine the determinants of rural–urban migration.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

In general, urbanization is usually defined as the movement of villagers to cities. In classical migration theory, this displacement is caused by two main factors, namely the push factor from the area of origin and the pull factor from the destination area. This move is due to the value of benefits from two different regions. In subsequent developments, the definition of urbanization underwent a broader change, not only talking about physical displacement, but urbanization is a multidimensional concept (Poungsomlee & Ross, 1992 in Keban, 1995) that urbanization must be understood from several approaches, namely demographic approaches, economic-political processes, modernization and legal administration. The demographic approach is interpreted as an increase in population concentration in urban areas, so that the proportion of the overall urban population increases. In terms of political economy approach, urbanization can be defined as economic and social transformation that arises as a result of the development and expansion of capitalism. This definition is often seen as the root of the problem of urbanization because international capitalism is accused of being the trigger. In the process of modernization, urbanization is seen as a change from a traditional orientation to a modern orientation where there is a diffusion of capital, technology, values, institutional management and political orientation from the modern world to a more traditional society. Not only the process of diffusion, but also the process of intensification in various ethnicities, tribes, religions and livelihoods. Some approaches, such as ecological, neoclassical, behavioral, structural and demographic approaches, can help to better understand urbanization. The ecological approach puts pressure on the results of the interaction of ecological components such as population, organization, environment and technology. From this approach, urbanization is seen as an "adaptation of organizational responses" that is, the interaction of changes that come from population, technology and the environment. The neoclassical approach is an effort to maximize "profit and utility" carried out by business or family organizations. Businessmen often attach importance to the efficiency aspect, namely maximizing profits (profit maximization) for the company, and for families often maximizing usability. This will provide an encouragement for entrepreneurs and families to find the right location, so cities are often the destination because they are considered very efficient. The behavioral approach is an individual decision that aggregates certain spatial patterns and social processes. Individual perceptions and their decisions are the focus of the structural approach because they both greatly influence the urbanization process. The structural approach is based on historical and political aspects. The increasing proportion of urban population since the colonial era in most Southeast Asian countries as concluded by Koyano (1996), is due to the establishment of new cities as economic, trade and government centers because these places have special values that serve to collect agricultural products. This activity has a positive influence on the formation of trade, economic and government processes.

In subsequent developments, urbanization is highly determined by political factors that reflect the relationship between domestic elites internally and externally with the international world which has an impact on the creation of infrastructure that greatly accelerates urbanization. Basically, urbanization has a negative impact as well as a positive impact. Keban, (1995) tries to explain Arthur Lewis and Myrdal's views on the opposite impact. According to Lewis, the modern sector in urban areas is much more productive than the traditional sector that is usually found in rural areas. For macro purposes, in order to increase national income, Lewis suggested that the less productive/unproductive workforce in rural areas should move to cities and work in the modern sector. In aggregate, all of these workers will contribute to the total national income. On the contrary, Myrdal then tries to provide an understanding of the negative impact that urbanization can have that rural areas (rural areas) will lose workers, thus

the agricultural sector will be hampered, due to the difficulty of finding labor in rural areas. This condition will affect agricultural productivity to decrease. The wider impact will also affect the growing industries in cities that require rural agricultural products. If the impact is large on the industry, then GNP growth will decrease. Both of these opinions are important, because thus urbanization must be controlled. Otherwise, urbanization will bring major problems that hinder the development process. Meanwhile, R. Bintarto (1984) looks at urbanization from several perspectives, for example: First, in terms of demographics, urbanization is seen as a process that is shown through changes in the number of people in an area. This means that the urbanization process is more emphasized on the population aspect in the sense that there is a population explosion that occurs both in rural and urban areas that are considered to tend to exceed the carrying capacity of the area. Not only that, the impact caused by the increase in population will of course have its own consequences for the need for housing facilities. Second, from the economic side. In this case, urbanization can be considered as a process of structural change in the economic field which can be observed in the emergence of changes in the work of the village community, namely from the agricultural sector who then switch to work as laborers or workers who are non-native in the city. Third, from a behavioral perspective, this is more focused on the process of human adjustment to situations that have changed, both caused by technological developments and the consequences caused by the emergence of new developments in human life. Fourth, from the sociological aspect, in this case urbanization is associated with changes in the lifestyle of villagers as a result of the influence of urban communities. And fifth from a geographical perspective. In this case, urbanization is seen as the process of distribution, diffusion, change and pattern according to time and place.

As for the opinion expressed by P.J.M.Nas (1979), urbanization is a process driven by structural changes in society so that areas that used to be rural areas with agrarian livelihood structures gradually or through a process that suddenly acquires the nature of urban life. Furthermore, this urbanization process can also be understood as a change resulting from the influence of urban expansion on the surrounding area, including rural areas, both from the social, economic, cultural and morphological dimensions. In other words, through urbanization, this will encourage the movement of people from villages to cities. In addition, there are also other opinions, such as those written by Louis Wirth in his work entitled "Urbanism as a way of life", which explains that: first, urbanization gives rise to innovation, specialization, diversity and anonymity. Second, area, density and heterogeneity are independent variables that determine urbanism, or urban lifestyle. Then Louis Wirth explained that urbanism, which is considered a way of life, is a success in the economic field on the one hand, but on the other hand related to the social aspect, he actually considers it as something destructive. According to Standing and Mantra, the scope of discussion on population mobility consists of vertical population mobility and horizontal population mobility. Vertical population mobility is often referred to as a change in status. Horizontal population mobility or geographic population mobility is the movement of population across regional boundaries to other regions within a certain period of time. Permanent population mobility (migration) is the movement of people across the boundaries of the asak area to other regions with the intention of settling in the destination area. Nonpermanent population mobility is the movement of people from one region to another with no intention of settling in the destination area. Shuttle is the movement of residents from the area of origin to the destination area within a certain time limit by returning to the area of origin on the same day. Overnight is the movement of residents from the area of origin to the destination area within a time limit of more than one day but less than six months. The topic that will be discussed in this paper is the topic of urbanization as part of permanent mobility and non-permanent mobility.

The influence of urbanization in economic development can have different impacts (Liddle, 2013; Bai, Chen, & Shi, 2011; Nguyen & Nguyen, 2018; Chen, Zhang, & Liu, 2014; Bakirtas & Akpolat, 2018; Turok & McGranahan, 2013; Lewis, 2013). Urbanization can make a positive contribution to the economy in the form of increased income due to economic agglomeration that supports economic development through GDP per capita (Brulhart & Sbergami, 2009) and increased urban economic productivity (Rosenthal & Strange, 2004; Nakamura 2012). However, the increase in population in urban areas can also cause economic slowdown, namely through infrastructure inefficiencies that result in economic losses (Alam & Butt, 2007), an increase in the number of poor people in low-income areas that cause the country to lose economic benefits (Glaeser, 2014). Therefore, analyzing the impact of urbanization on economic growth is not simple and can cause ambiguity because it depends on several factors such as the level of

development, stages in urbanization, natural economic activity (Castells & Gindelsky, 2017), spatial relationships between regions and the structure of the destination city (Castells & Royuela, 2014,; Clarke et al., 2008).

SUPAS 2015 informs that the number of urban population in Indonesia is 135,613,086 people higher than the number of rural population of 119,569,058 people. Indonesia's population projections present information related to the urbanization rate per province from 2010 to 2035. At the national level, the urbanization rate is projected to reach 66.6% by 2035. Then the urbanization rate for provinces in Java and Bali will be higher than the national total. The urbanization rate in four provinces on the island of Java by 2035 will have reached above 80%, namely DKI Jakarta, West Java, DI Yogyakarta and Banten. Urban Rural Growth Difference (URGD) which states the projected urban population based on the difference in population growth rate between rural and urban areas is the highest in Riau Islands Province, which is 1.06 (2010-2015), 0.95 for 2015-2020, 0.85 for 2020-2025 projections, 0.77 for 2025-2030 projections, 0.69 for 2030-2035 projections. So based on these projections, it can be indicated that the urban population projection based on the urban rural rate for the highest provincial URGD, in this case, the Riau Islands will decrease little by little until 2035. Today, the mobility of the population has varied. In addition to settling down, non-permanent mobility is a phenomenon in itself in coloring the world of mobility. Various economic and social activities are no longer carried out by having to change places of residence but with the availability of transportation and other adequate facilities cause them to be able to carry out activities not in the district/city where they live, but rather activities outside the district/city where they live by traveling back and forth, going/returning on the same day. So that the commuter phenomenon is growing. Circular mobility according to Zelinsky (1971) is characterized by short-term, repetitive or regular displacement, but there is no intention to change residences even if mobility activities have been carried out for a long time. Circular mobility includes daily (commuting), periodic and seasonal mobility patterns. According to Mantra (2004), the mobility of non-permanent residents is due to the difference between centrifugal forces (which encourage people to leave the area of origin) and centripetal forces (which are attractive to stay in the destination area). Operationally, the various forms of population mobility are measured based on the concept of space and time. For example, commuting mobility, the concept of time is measured by six hours or more leaving the area of origin and returning on the same day, stay/mondok is measured from leaving the area of origin for more than one day but less than six months, while permanent mobility is measured from the length of time left the area of origin for six months or more except for the person who originally intended to stay in the area of destination, like a wife who follows her husband.

Commuting mobility is generally carried out in the workforce. Non-permanent mobility is an individual and household decision in determining the location of the workplace (the main reason for mobility and where to live) maximizing its utility function by paying attention to wage gradients and housing and land price gradients (White, 1986). Again, commuting is a compromise on the decision to migrate or not by considering the advantages and disadvantages. It is an option for workers as the main reason for living in the area of origin not too far from the destination area where wages apply in the area of origin are low and wages are in the area of high destination. In this case, distance, which is a function of cost, is the main consideration. The sustainability of commuters is determined by the infrastructure and transportation facilities that connect between regions. Technological developments, low costs, easy access and fast travel are increasingly supporting commuting and commuting. The factors that cause the emergence of circular mobility are centrifugal and centripetal factors. Centripetal force is the force that exists in an area that encourages people to leave their area. Such as the lack of job opportunities in the agricultural and non-agricultural sectors and the limited educational facilities that exist so that it encourages residents to go to areas where the above opportunities are available. Like a close brotherhood and kinship relationship, the system of mutual cooperation in a close community, tied to agricultural land. Improving transportation infrastructure is the second factor. In this factor, the push for circular mobility for migrants was stimulated by improvements in transport infrastructure connecting villages with cities in the 1970s. With the availability of relatively cheap transportation infrastructure, many villagers go to the city (trading, school and labor) as well as city people go to the village. So in accordance with the changes above, there is a change in the form of population mobility, for example, from sedentary to non-sedentary from mondok to nglaju. Job opportunities in the formal and informal sectors are the third factor. High population pressure in rural areas and insufficient availability of jobs outside the agricultural sector. From here, it causes people to try life in the surrounding city.

The small income of the people who work in the city and the high cost of living make it impossible for migrants to live in the city with their families. This is why some of them live in villages. For migrants who live in the city, generally live alone and their families stay in the village, this is done to reduce the cost of living in the city. One simple explanation for the fragmentation of research on transient mobility is the imcomplecity of transient mobility data. That temporary mobility data, specifically for overnight data as part of temporary mobility, is not available at BPS. The available temporary mobility data are commuter and seasonal. Non-permanent mobility data for seasonality is also the first time BPS has conducted it in SUPAS 2015. Judging from age characteristics, the percentage of the population 5 years and older who travel by commuter is 3.17 percent of the population. In the table, it can be seen that the largest commuters are in DKI Jakarta Province, followed by D.I. Yogyakarta, Banten, Bali, and West Java. In accordance with the theory, it is proven that the existence of commuters is usually found in the suburban areas surrounding major cities in Indonesia. Jakarta commuters are quite large, namely 12.09%. Followed by Komuter D.I. Yogyakarta 9.97%. Banten commuters by 7.01%. Bali's commuters 6.16%. Meanwhile, in West Java it is 4.44%. Switch to seasonal mobility. BPS informed in the results of the 2015 SUPAS that in various BPS population surveys, seasonal mobility is only included this time indicating that seasonal mobility data cannot be compared so that the data is still only preliminary information. Seasonal mobility includes whether respondents return to their hometowns outside their districts/cities of residence. The table informs that the highest percentage of the population that does seasonal mobility is owned by the provinces of DKI Jakarta (65.98%), the Riau Islands (60.56%), and West Papua (53.84%). Throughout the history of mobility data, the flow of lifelong migration to DKI Jakarta in the 90s era was very high. The phenomenon of migration flows into the Riau Islands and West Papua is still high. However, detailed information about this is not available in the SUPAS data on whether this migration pattern is related to the respondent's area of origin, where the respondent will always return to his hometown where he was born so this still needs a more in-depth study. Based on the characteristics of commuter marital status, most of the commuting is carried out by those with married status (52.0 percent) compared to those with unmarried status (45.7 percent), this indicates that commuting actors have their own characteristics where those with married status are more likely to commute. In general, commuters come from those who are highly educated, where a total of 50.9 percent are sourced from those with high school and college education (SMTA/equivalent 35.4 percent and diploma/bachelor 15.5 percent). This indicates that commuters make work for commuting. The higher the education, the greater the chance to find a job or work in an urban area. The largest reason commuters are carried out are related to the main work activities of 70.6 percent, school or course activities 25.3 percent. The large percentage of commuters for school activities seems to explain the unavailability of schools in the area where they live or perhaps the choice of the residents for the desired school cannot be obtained in their area of residence or for the reason of better quality of the commuter destination.

The relationship between urbanization and non-permanent mobility can be explained through the transition of mobility by Zelinsky which was then developed by Skeldon (1990) into seven stages by analyzing the migration patterns of the population of developing countries, namely: Pre-transition societies where most of the mobility that occurs is non-permanent mobility, although it does not have to be short-term mobility and permanent mobility also occurs in the form of colonization or opening-up new agricultural areas. The initial transition community was marked by an acceleration in non-permanent mobility to cities, plantation areas, and mining areas which were useful to support rural development so that there was a rapid increase in mobility to new areas. There is also a migration from small cities to medium-sized cities with the main goal being to large cities, until there is stagnation in the growth of small and medium-sized cities. Middle-class transition communities are marked by migration from areas adjacent to cities to big cities themselves. This migration caused stagnation in the area around the big city. Mobility from village to village decreases and mobility from city to city increases accompanied by women's mobility. The final transition society was marked by the emergence of *megacities*, urban village mobility increased with big cities as the main destination. Migration is no longer gradual, from the village directly to the big city. As a result, the proportion of rural population decreased. The community began to advance, where the urbanization rate had exceeded fifty percent and the mobility of urban villages began to decline. Suburbanization and urban deconcentration began to occur (increased mobility of large cities to the surrounding areas and spread urban population growth). Non-permanent mobility, especially commuting, is increasing. The community is advanced, marked by the deconcentration of urban

populations. The urban population is spreading to smaller urban areas and there is an increase in the flow of foreign workers, especially migrants from stage four countries. Commuting occurs rapidly and is carried out by both men and women without striking differences. A super developed society is characterized by the existence of high technology, including information technology. That permanent mobility is decreasing and non-permaen mobility, especially commuting, is increasing. Theories or concepts that apply to permanent mobility can be used to explain the direction or movement of commuters. Lowry (1966) stated that migration as a social interaction is a force of attraction between the population in the area of origin and the population in the destination area which is connected by distance. This synthesis is based on a gravitational model developed by Isac Newton and is often used to estimate migration patterns and trends. Using gravity models, commuter patterns and trends can also be mapped. As part of permanent mobility, urbanization with all its driving and pulling factors will be directly related to non-permanent mobility. This is explained in the stages of a super developed society where a person for various economic and social activities and supported by the availability of transportation and other adequate facilities allows people to carry out activities not in the village where they live, but rather activities in the village where they live, in this case the city by commuting as part of non-permanent mobility. In addition, urbanization in relation to commuter mobility occurs due to the high cost of living, including the high price of houses in urban centers that absorb a lot of labor. With all the considerations of the dilemma of the high cost of living and land prices, they still take advantage of the opportunity to remain part of the city by working in the city, causing them to choose to do this non-permanent mobility. Cities have enormous potential to improve people's lives, but inadequate urban management, often based on inaccurate perceptions and information, can turn an opportunity into a disaster. Rural settlements are considered centers of poverty and human suffering whether measured by income, consumption or expenditure. In fact, in this day and age, there have been many villages that have shown changes for the better.

In addition, Lee (1987) stated with the variety of entertainment facilities that exist in the city, the city then becomes a crowded place for the flourishing of various forms of entertainment and there are even some of these facilities open until the early hours of the morning. The more advanced a city is, the higher the intention of people to flock to the city, causing a high flow of urbanization in the city. The context is that the higher the Gross Domestic Product (GDP), the higher the urban population. This is supported by Lewis' theory that the population in the agricultural sector will shift to the industrial sector but not all of them will be absorbed. It should be noted that urbanization does not only occur in the capital city but in mega cities with a population of more than ten million. An important trend of the urbanization problem is the accumulation of sectoral centers that cause urban bias. For example, Jakarta as the center of the economy, government and politics in Indonesia. However, urbanization has given rise to agglomeration. Judging from economic agglomeration as a benefit to the city (profits of consumers, producers and labor). Economic agglomeration that allows the creation of economic urbanization where industries are centered in the city so that this triggers the creation of low production costs which leads to product efficiency because production factors are available in the city. For example, *high skill and productivity of labor*, high capital, high technology accompanied by complete infrastructure that triggers production transportation costs that are getting lower. For workers, it will be easier for them to find a company that suits their skills because various companies have been based in the city, in addition to that they will be triggered to increase their productivity in the midst of many competitors in the workplace. Promising wages that match their qualifications are also available in the city. For consumers, it will be easier for them to get the goods they want because of the many choices so as to create high utility along with purchasing power, of course. Access to get the goods they want will be easier because of the support of adequate facilities and infrastructure. For companies, they will save because of low costs (availability of resources), economic benefits of production due to complete infrastructure in the city, and product efficiency. As explained earlier, the more advanced a city is, the higher the urbanization, but we need to analyze the Cost and Benefit (CBA) of urbanization that places the benefits of agglomeration in it. The cost aspect can be calculated from the higher the quality of the city, the higher the city's financing such as infrastructure, roads, capital and other financing. This is a congestion cost. In terms of benefits, although the urban social cost is high, this results in more efficient economy because complete infrastructure and the availability of productive capital help the economic process. Those who are urbanized with the aim of gaining access to higher education levels can be fulfilled because cities that provide many educational facilities at all strata and are also supported by more modern information technology which is not only

able to meet the needs of students but also the quality of human resources among students can be further improved. They also get access to more adequate health services, so surely the city can be considered a place that is able to meet all human needs for much better health services compared to rural areas. In the midst of the glamour of city life, it turns out that there is a serious problem behind the grandeur of the city's function. Urbanites who have no place to live usually use vacant land as their illegal settlements. The formation of slums that damage the urban layout is often underestimated. The damage to the layout of the city due to this slum landscape is supported by the garbage that accumulates around the settlement. For example, the slum where homeless people and poor families are nested behind Thamrin City, Jakarta, Indonesia. Most cities in Indonesia experience pollution problems as a result of the urbanization process, both by the increasing number of vehicles and by growing industries. The suburban area of the Watershed (DAS) is used to erect illegal buildings even though it should be useful to absorb rainwater, which is actually the cause of flooding in addition to garbage.

The number of unemployed in the city causes poverty and in the end to be able to meet their living needs, they will be desperate to commit crimes. Most urban jobs require high skills. Apart from the low supply of labor due to the unaccommodating of the workforce, jobs that require specifications cause those who lose competition in the labor market to become unemployed. This gives rise to informal jobs whose income is not fixed and securities are low or even non-existent. However, seen from another aspect, with the creation of jobs in the informal sector, it allows for a positive influence for those with low education. Like poor women because they will be able to work, let's say the informal sector in small restaurants, which leads to an increase in the income of the population compared to their previous situation when they did not have a job in the village. In more depth, Gmelch and Zenner (1980) discuss the social impact caused by urbanization based on psychological arguments and social structures. focusing his attention on the way of life in the city that changes the way of thinking and the personality of individuals. How rapid and disconnected stimulation is altered by stimulation that comes from within and outside the individual. The most influential stimuli according to Simmel include sights, sounds, smells, actions of others, so that individuals respond to protect themselves and adapt to the mind and heart. With stimulation and the way individuals respond to it, individuals are more intellectual, rational, and emotionally distant from others. The sound of horns, telephones, light reflections, the gaze and behavior of strangers, newspaper news affect the behavior of individuals with varying reactions. In economic competition, job specialization, achieving excellence, and city pluralism produce a diversity of social life activities, such as in the world of work, neighbor life, household, and so on. This diversity of activities makes individuals isolated from their social life and this is what provides the opportunity for anomies due to the loss of social bonds that contain values.

In Lewis Mumford's 1956 paper, *The Natural History of Urbanization* presents important information from the natural history of urbanization. It dates back to the Neolithic era with the habit of humans going to caves in the context of magical ceremonial performances where they lived in caves and hollow rock walls. The outline of the city both as an outward form and a lifestyle can be found in this ancient group. Because it does not have the size and complexity of a city, the village can still show its characteristics, namely: a circular mound or palisade located in a field, the existence of a permanent shelter, a storage place and a garbage can, the existence of a garbage disposal and a burial place. At this early stage, at least, Mark Jefferson's observation [Jefferson, 1931] held that urban and rural areas are a closely related entity. Early cities, such as those in Mesopotamia and Egypt, maintained a symbiotic relationship with the agricultural areas that we find in the villages. In countries still governed by the principles of rural economics such as China, even contemporary cities with high population densities, can show the same reciprocal relationship between village and city. With the surplus of labor in the village in the neolithic era, it moved to other forms of work such as administration, mechanical arts, warfare, systematic thinking, and in the field of religion. So the population of the Neolithic era that used to be scattered, lived and concentrated in the city. These early cities had many characteristics such as rapidly increasing means of transportation and the development of centralized control systems, but for a long time, they were unable to grow due to limited local water supplies and local food sources. One of the facts circulating about urbanization at the time was that while the urban population in the world in 1930 amounted to about 415,000,000 inhabitants, or about one-fifth of the total population. In densely populated countries such as India, until 1939, less than 10 percent of the total population lived in cities. By the early 1900s, Britain and the United States had become predominantly urban countries; Since then, urbanization has been happening around the world at

a rapid pace. Currently, as many as 50 percent of the world's population lives in urban areas. Sociologists who study urbanization trends note three distinct historical stages in urban development: the pre-industrial, industrial, and metropolitan-megalopolitan stages.

For most of human history, people traveled for a living. They collect edible plants and animals to hunt. Our ancestors could never find enough food in one area to sustain life for a long time. As a result, they must continue to move until they can find another place to settle temporarily. Continuous technological improvements – such as simple tools and information on how to farm and raise animals allow people to settle into one place. About 5,000 years ago, humans developed innovations such as irrigation, metallurgy, and plows pulled from animals. This development allows farmers to produce more food and exceed their needs. The excess food produced by them causes some people to earn a living in other ways because they no longer feel that they need to worry about food shortages: for example, by making pottery, weaving, and doing other non-agricultural activities that they can sell or exchange with others for surplus food. As a result, people moved from farming to trading until cities began to form.

Between 1700 and 1900, the number of people moving to the city increased, resulting in an urban revolution. For example, in 1700 less than 2 percent of the British lived in cities. The United States and other European countries eventually reached a level of urbanization driven by the development of the industrial revolution. The lack of workers in the industrial sector forced farm workers to move to the city to find work. The migration of workers from rural to urban areas then gave rise to industrial cities. As a larger industrial city, the city spread outward in the early 1900s to form large cities (large cities that encompass the surrounding area, which are outside the city limits, usually with separate governments). While some suburban areas maintain strong geographical, economic, and cultural ties. As economic hardship hit the cities in the 1900s, many families decided to move from urban neighborhoods to suburban areas. Starting in the 1970s, most suburbs are mostly "commuter communities," meaning that suburban residents return to the city for work and shopping, and then return to the suburbs at night.

Today, suburban areas continue to grow and develop. Many have become economic centers, cantons, hospitals, and factories adjacent to shopping malls, sports complexes, and residential subdivisions. Because of all this growth, many suburban areas have developed "urban" problems, such as air and water pollution, traffic congestion, and crime gangs. To avoid this problem, some people choose to move to rural areas but others survive by choosing to return and revitalize their city by renovating buildings and the surrounding environment. Vast urban complexes known as megalopolises were created as suburbs continued to grow and merged with suburbs and other metropolitan areas. That is, some suburban and urban areas have grown so large that they have finally merged with other areas and cities, forming an almost continuous region.

CONCLUSION

Rural–urban migration in Indonesia is strongly influenced by expected wage differentials, employment opportunities, and access to better public services. Consistent with the Harris–Todaro model, migration decisions are primarily based on expected income rather than realized income, which partly explains the persistence of urban unemployment and the expansion of the informal sector. Empirical evidence from SUPAS 2015 confirms that age, education level, employment status, and marital status significantly affect migration probability. Younger and more educated individuals are more likely to migrate, reflecting human capital mobility toward urban economic centers. In addition to permanent migration, non-permanent mobility—particularly commuting—has become increasingly significant. Improved infrastructure and transportation systems enable individuals to access urban labor markets without permanently relocating. This pattern reflects a transitional stage of mobility in which individuals seek to balance economic opportunities in cities with social and economic ties in rural areas. Urbanization generates both agglomeration benefits and congestion costs. While cities provide higher productivity, educational access, and economic diversification, uncontrolled urban expansion may lead to unemployment, informal sector growth, slum formation, environmental degradation, and rising living costs. Therefore, effective urban management, balanced regional development, rural economic strengthening, and labor market policy reforms are essential to ensure that urbanization contributes positively to sustainable economic development in Indonesia.

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