



Rural-Urban Migration and deteriorating Standard of Living in Selected Cities South-South Nigeria

Okemini Emmanuel B¹ and Chukwuemeka Orlu²

¹Sociology Department, University of Port Harcourt, Choba

²Sociology Department, Ignatius Ajuru University of Education, Rumuolumeni

ARTICLE INFO

Article history:

Received: 12 December 2019;

Received in revised form:

20 January 2020;

Accepted: 31 January 2020;

Keywords

Urban Migration,
South-South Region,
Rural Development and
Cultural Factors.

ABSTRACT

The movement of people from one society to another society is called migration, this may be contemporary or permanent basis. This study assessed the consequences of rural-urban migration on the source region of Ughievwen clan in Ughelli South Local Government Area. secondary sources data were collected from journal publications and other published materials from textbooks and official gazette. The findings of the study show that females migrate more than the males in Ughievwen and migration is high within the age cohorts of 15-25 years and 26-35 years. Moreso, migration decreases with age, and this may be due to the higher psychological cost for migration associated with older people. Most of the persons in the community had acquired just their basic education. Thus, most of them are willing to migrate to major cities to obtain higher education. It has been widely observed that the propensity to migrate increases with education. Furthermore, the study revealed that migration is affected by socioeconomic, demographic and cultural factors. It was recommended that functional social amenities such as electricity, pipe borne water should be provided in the rural areas as a way forward against rural-urban movement

© 2020 Elixir All rights reserved.

Introduction

In most rural areas, the consequences of rural-urban migration is that it leads to deteriorating the rural societies and especially the socio-economy leading to chronic rural societies impoverished and food insecurity has suddenly become a major issue of concern. These mainly because the needed human power needed to develop our rural societies have all gone to the cities leaving our rural societies depopulated of youthful energy rural their by leaving only the older and aged members to constitute the labour force of the rural area. Migration to urban areas is placing increasing pressure on local government's ability to respond to social service needs of urban populations. (UNFPA, 2007). On-going migration to urban areas is placing pressure on limited appropriate housing, resulting in increases in the numbers of urban residents now found to reside in informal housing. Informal settlements present a range of health and development challenges to governments, some rural communities like Ughievwen Community have been experiencing massive drift of its youth population into neighbouring cities and towns particularly Warri, Sapele, Ughelli and Udu. This migrating population comprises mainly youths and unfortunately these people make up the largest proportion of the required manpower needed for the development of these societies. This movement obviously led to the reduction of the workforce and consequently decrease in the agricultural and socioeconomic output of such societies, because farming has been left in the hands of aged men and women. Furthermore leading to food insecurity, less income from agricultural activities and gradual increase in poverty level.

Prior to colonialism in Nigeria, the extended families lived a communal life. They carried out their daily activities together and shared their yield adequately following a well comprehended custom. Colonialism exposed Nigerians to international market by the introduction of cash crops and creation of administrative offices in planned zones which necessitated the investment in socio-economic amenities within these areas. This stimulated the quest for paid employment and migration of workforce into these areas and therefore prompted the commencement of rural-urban migration in Nigeria. This resulted in an increased migration into new cities such as Lagos, Port-Harcourt, Enugu, Jos and Kaduna: Unskilled labours were required for menial jobs in the urban centres of colonial administration (Omonigho, 2013). The theory upon which this study is based is Todaro's Model of Migration. This theory offers theoretical basis for proper understanding of rural-urban migration. It also related the impact of rural-urban migration on the urban centres to serious problems such as overpopulation, soil erosion, pollution and soil degradation. What are the causes and impacts of rural-urban migration in Nigeria? The researcher intends to find answers to these questions, using Enugu urban in Enugu state, Nigeria.

Rural-urban migration is growing progressively; this migration is as a result of high concentration of Infrastructure and amenities in the urban areas, coupled with favourable living conditions and standard of living. Some immigrants do not think about environmental hazard faced with the issue of re locating to the urban centres. Conceptual Issues Migration occurs as a response to economic development as well as social, cultural, environmental and political factors and

effects on areas of origin as well as destination (Adewale, 2005). People tend to move away from a place due to need to escape violence, political instability, drought, congestion in various dimensions and suspected or real persecution. Also, adverse physical conditions such as flood, landslide (erosion and earthquake), insects and pests, soil infertility contribute largely to the reasons why people leave one environment for another. Rural to Urban migration is a response to diverse economic opportunities across space. Historically it has played a significant role in the urbanization process of several countries and continues to be significant in scale, even though migration rates have slowed down in some countries (Lall, Selod and Shalizi, 2006). According to Torum (2002), the interplay of both "Push and Pull" factors at the points of origin and destination stimulates migrations. The push factors, which cause migration include: political fear, lack of food, unemployment, wars and unhappy lifestyle, etc. Similarly, the pull factors are the desire to better life, job opportunities, improved living conditions, desire for qualitative education, better housing, improved medical care and a good network of roads. Urban and rural areas all over the developing world are becoming more closely linked socially, economically and politically (Deshingkar, 2004). An important manifestation of this is the increasing mobility of rural populations through temporary migration and community. The burden of rural to urban migration in Nigeria is multifaceted and intertwining. As such, an analysis of one decomposable component or consequence, such as unbearable population density, impinges on other issues within the identifiable cycle of burdens. For instance, in examining the immediate effect of rural to urban migration, which is on increase in population or at the extreme its explosion, various other subsequent effects are expected to be considered. Population explosion activates the housing challenge both at micro family and macro society levels. Congestion in households and communities has implications for both the health and psychology of victims. Nigerian cities such as Lagos, Port-Harcourt, Kano, and Onitsha among others are characterized by human traffic, vehicular congestions, environmental pollution.

Theoretical Framework

Migration theory largely originates from early models of competing economic opportunities and constraints in the rural and urban sectors and different localities. Against Todaro's (1976) early work stressing job access, Lipton (1995) emphasizes that migration is but competitive labour absorption between different areas, not just about jobs at the urban end.

In this study, the researcher adopted Decision Making theory. Decision making theory has been emphasised in the study of international politics decades back. In early 1950s, Richard Snyder, N.W. Black and others undertook a theoretical exploration of the behaviour of actors in international relations. The decision-making theory focuses inquiry on actions of the decision maker. Snyder and other advocates of decision making theory argues that actions are not caused by objective situational factors because situations have no independent status on their own, but they exist in terms of the way the decision makers define them, so actions flow in a peripheral manner from the decision makers definition of the situation.

The decision-making theory proceeds from the assumption that the key to political actions lies in the way in which the decision maker defines the situation. However,

theorists of decision making differ from one another and follow different details. While some like Harold and Margaret Sprout put much emphasis on the environmental factors, others like Alexander and Juliette George stress on personality factors.

The famous migration theory is the migration decision making model, with Todaro postulating that an individual makes a rational choice to increase his/her welfare or utility by moving to another place where he/she expects to earn a higher income. According to this theory, individual search for places of higher potential advantage, and if any known place offers such advantage compared to the present locality, then the individual takes decision to migrate (Skelton, 1990). An individual makes a rational choice to increase his/her welfare or utility by moving to another place where he/she expects to earn a higher income. Individuals are motivated to search for places of higher potential advantage, and if any known place offers such advantage compared to the present locality, then the individual takes decision to migrate. Rural – urban drift syndrome especially of school leavers and university graduates with desire for paid employment and other green pastures is prevalent in all our urban centres. Even where opportunities for employment are not available, the unemployed prefer to remain in urban centres undertaking fringe jobs with the hope of having gainful employment. These expectations consequently turn to be a problem as these services becomes elusive.

According to this theoretical perspective, Jones 1992 observed that migration potentially leads to redistribution of resources and maintains social institutions. However, it is not fully accurate to argue that migration results largely from well-calculated rational choice, for there are circumstances that do not leave individuals or groups with any other choice but to migrate. In some instances, choices are limited for communities faced with war, famine, floods or any other man-made or natural disasters. This theory therefore pays little attention to the complexities of socio economic context, or to structural disparities and institutional arrangement.

What Is Rural Area. In general, a *rural area* or countryside is a geographic *area* that is located outside towns and cities. ... Whatever is not urban is considered *rural*." Typical *rural areas* have a low population density and small settlements.

What Is Urban Area An *urban area* or *urban* agglomeration is a human settlement with high population density and infrastructure of built *environment*. *Urban areas* are created through urbanization and are categorized by *urban* morphology as cities, towns, conurbations or suburbs.

Key Factors of Migration

Human migration is the movement by people from one place to another with the intentions of settling, permanently or temporarily in a new location. The movement is often over long distances and from one country to another, but internal migration is also possible; indeed, this is the dominant form of global movements that compels individuals or groups to migrate.

Firstly, migration has some positive impact on the area which the migrant leaves behind. It results in unemployment rate reduction in the sending country. The demand for land, water, food and natural resources goes down. The total stress on the economy of the region and the state gradually decreases. The money sent by international migrants to their families gets into the national economy and is spent on various goods and services. Those remittances have a serious

impact on the development of the country the migrant has left. When such a person gets back, he or she brings not only the savings, but also new skills, experience and knowledge, that can be used in the home country. It helps to foster economic and social development of the sending countries and ensures training for the labor force. Young people get new prospects, attitudes and spirit. Migration facilitates modernization of traditional societies.

Secondly, migration exercises significant influence on the host countries. In case of labor shortage due to aging population, newcomers fill the open job vacancies. It happens that there are certain skill gaps; then the services of the experts from other countries can be beneficial for both sides. Experienced doctors or other highly skilled specialists are always in great demand. Construction workers, welders or other manual workers are never thrown idle either. There are certain jobs which the locals are unwilling to take, like those of babysitters, cleaners or scullery maids, so they are taken by immigrants. Young immigrant workers pay taxes and fill the pension gap in the host country. Besides, new people always bring innovations, change and development, transforming the obsolete long-established approaches. Thus, migration can help the economic growth to be sustained. Moreover, it results in cultural diversity that makes a sustainable contribution to the history of the host country. It even has a potential of uniting people of different cultural backgrounds.

Once upon a time, immigrants were found only in specific immigration hot spots around the country. The U.S.-Mexico border has a lot of Hispanic immigrants. New York was a hub for immigration from around the world. These hot spots still exist, but the immigrant labor force is integrated in additional parts of the country. In some instances, the language barriers between immigrant employees and managers or customers are problematic. Business owners need to find ways to address this problem as immigrants make their way to America from diverse places around the world and speak languages that aren't common in most parts of the country.

Hiring an immigrant may have legal issues that the small-business owner might have to deal with. At the least, an immigrant files a Form I-9, Employment Eligibility Verification instead of a Form W-9 when completing payroll paperwork. Immigrants don't have Social Security numbers; they have a Tax Identification Numbers recorded on Form I-9. If an employee needs an H1-B visa, there are costs associated with applying for and maintaining the visa. There are also calendar requirements and quotas that affect application approval.

The Concept of Urbanization

In studying urban change processes it is useful to disaggregate the generalised concept of 'urbanisation' into four distinct spatial demographic phenomena of interest: urbanisation, urban growth, urban expansion and urban system.

The term 'urbanisation' is used here to refer specifically to an increase in the *proportion of a country or region's population residing in urban settlements*, while 'urban growth' refers to an increase in the *absolute size of a country or region's urban population*. These terms are often confused in both academic and policy circles, but it is important to recognise the difference between them, particularly in the context of sub-Saharan Africa (SSA) where urban population growth rates are generally high but overall urbanisation rates

relatively low. This has important policy implications which will be discussed following the analysis of drivers below.

We use the term 'urban expansion' in this report to indicate the spatial or physical enlargement of built-up areas. This generally accompanies urban growth, but the dynamics of urban expansion also depend upon the nature of physical developments and the population densities they promote. It is possible, for example, for a city to experience urban growth without expansion if this growth is absorbed within existing settlement boundaries. Conversely, expansion can occur without growth where new developments are created to facilitate lower population densities for an existing community.

'Urban structure' is the arrangement of land use in urban areas. As noted above, it is closely related to urban expansion, as the physical configuration of a settlement influences its population density, with the amount of land required varying for different activities.

The phrase 'urban system' is used here to characterise the distribution of urban populations across settlements within a national territory. A country is considered to have a highly 'concentrated' or 'primate' urban system when a large, single city dominates the distribution (i.e., it is significantly more than twice the size of the second largest city in the territory). Classic examples of concentrated or primate urban systems include the United Kingdom and France, while countries such as Germany and the United States exhibit more evenly distributed settlement patterns.

Pollution

Human activities generate tremendous amount of waste materials, which increases as production and consumption activities increases, especially in urban areas as population agglomerates. The waste generated may find their way into the major components of the environment (air, water and land) bringing about environmental pollution. Environmental pollution is an undesirable change in the physical, chemical or biological characteristics of air, water or land that will be or may be harmful to human and other life, industrial process, living conditions and cultural assets or cause wastages of our raw material resources.

Water Pollution

In most Nigerian urban areas, waste management is a big challenge, which has brought about severe pollution of the major environmental components, with dire consequences on the inhabitants. For instance, reported that rain water in Warri metropolis contain a high level of acidity due to the high emission of particulate matters and gases into the urban atmospheric environment. He stated further that the resultant acid rain pollutes both surface and groundwater sources with negative effects on the health of the inhabitants. Similarly, reveals that some of the selected quality parameters of hand-dug wells in Warri-Effurun metropolis have concentrations, which are not within the World Health Organization (WHO) thresholds. For instance, PortHarcourt city concentrations in all the sampled well water are not within the 6.5-8.5 WHO thresholds for drinking water, as all the values are below the minimum 6.5 WHO range. This shows that well water supply in the metropolis is acidic, (which agrees with). Also, the report revealed that all well water samples contain total coliform counts, as against the WHO zero thresholds. This indicates that there might be the presence of disease causing pathogenic bacteria, which may pose a threat to human health if such water is consumed without treatment.

This scenario in Warri metropolis is not different from what is obtainable in other urban areas in Nigeria. For instance, a study by reveals that some of the selected quality parameters of borehole water in Yenagoa metropolis, have concentrations above the WHO thresholds for potable water. They reported that turbidity values in all the sampled water were above the WHO 5 NTU thresholds; while 46.67% samples have pH values below the WHO minimum value of 6.5, indicating acidity.

Studies have identified several human activities that cause water pollution. These activities pollute both surface and groundwater resources in Nigerian urban centres. One of the major sources of water pollution in the urban areas of the Niger Delta is oil spills, which has brought about massive pollution of the water resources in this area, killing aquatic lives and rendering the affected water sources unsafe for human consumption. In addition, buried chemical waste and poorly maintained dumpsites, which are common features in most Nigerian cities can pollute both surface and groundwater sources. The poor sewage treatment and solid waste disposal in most cities in Nigeria, is another veritable source of water resources pollution. Unrestricted use of pesticides, insecticides, herbicides and indiscriminate dumping of refuse, excreta and animal dung as well as spillages from refineries, large scale bush burning are identified as some of the leading factors of environmental pollution in Nigeria. Furthermore, soil erosion, siltation, salinization, irrigation, saltwater incursion and pollution from urban and municipal sources each pose grave threats to Nigeria's freshwater resources. In times of drought, and/or with areas confronted with desertification these threats are even more exacerbated. In the dry land areas of the north, human habitation relies heavily on groundwater resources that are recharged from freshwater percolation and runoff during the rainy season. Anything that upsets this balance threatens the livelihoods and economy of the people who live there.

A major source of water pollution in Nigeria urban areas is fertilizer used in agriculture. Urban agricultural practices make extensive use of fertilizers, which usually contain large amounts of nitrogen and phosphorus. When it rains the fertilizer is washed into streams, rivers and creeks, which pollutes and facilitates the process of eutrophication that degrade the quality of the surface water, which makes it unfit for human consumption.

Air Pollution

In Nigeria, ambient air pollution emanates from three major sources-energy generation, industry and transportation-all of which increase with population and economic growth. Rapid urbanization is a major contributing factor to all the three major sources. Degraded air quality in key urban centers, such as Lagos, Port Harcourt, Kano amongst others, is as a result of the heavy dependence on oil-dominated transportation. Motor vehicles produce more air pollution than any other single human activity.

Transportation requires huge amounts of energy. Globally, 20% of all energy produced is used for transportation. Of this, between 60 and 70% goes toward transporting people, and the rest toward moving freight. In addition, power plants, factories, and other stationary sources including the thousands of privately owned petrol and diesel generators used for power failure backups degrade the air quality of major urban centres in Nigeria.

The situation is compounded by poor urban transportation planning as manifested by congestion in both

large and small cities of Nigeria. Clogged city streets exact a major toll on economic productivity and exacerbate air pollution. In highly congested city centers, traffic can be responsible for as much as 90 to 95% of the ambient carbon monoxide levels, 80 to 90% of the nitrogen oxides and hydrocarbons and a large portion of the particulates, all posing a significant threat to human health and natural resources. Nigeria's current use of leaded gasoline contributes to the high levels of lead in the ambient air. Producing the energy required to run modern urban systems often involves burning fossil fuels, which releases such greenhouse gases as carbon monoxide, carbon dioxide, and nitrogen oxides. These emissions lead to global warming, which can cause destruction of the ozone layer, climate change, rising sea levels, changes in vegetation, and severe weather events.

Land Pollution

Several studies have identified industrial and agricultural activities, indiscriminate waste disposal and oil spills as major causes of land pollution in Nigeria. In urban areas in Nigeria, there are more concentrations of industrial activities and high level of waste generation, coupled with poor disposal and management, which increases the probability of land pollution. For instance, the World Health Organization observed that almost all industrial activities cause some pollution and produce waste. However, relatively few industries (without pollution control and waste treatment facilities) are responsible for the bulk of the pollution. Adebisi and Fayemiwo identified three kinds of industrial pollution, which affect the land. They include construction debris, petrochemicals from transport and fuel and heavy metals and chemicals. Industrial wastes and emissions contain toxic and hazardous substances, most of which are detrimental to human health.

In most urban centres in Nigeria there are heaps of municipal solid wastes unattended to; and many of the objects that are thrown away contain toxic substances, which leach into soil and water affecting the health of plants, animals and humans. Electronic waste contains mercury, lead, arsenic cadmium, chromium and other metals that have environmental health implications. Construction waste may contain asbestos, fossil fuel derivatives, and other toxic substances. Measures to control these substances are hampered by the fact that they are dispersed within less toxic trash in millions of tons, making their removal very problematic. As a result, some of these toxic wastes linger in the soil surface for a long time and makes it unsuitable for human use.

Effect of Urbanization on Unemployment

It is well-established that in denser and more populated areas (such as big cities), individuals have more random contacts (weak ties) and thus are more likely to have bigger networks than in less dense areas. Sociologists argue that relationships in large cities are less personal. People in large cities, in comparison with people in small towns or rural areas, experience general deficits in the quality of interpersonal relations (strong ties).¹ However, people in small towns or rural areas base their social networks on the limited number of people who live nearby whereas people in large cities have a great deal of choice in constructing their social networks and can seek out others with similar values, interests, and life-styles.² As a result, urbanites are less likely than rural dwellers to base their personal networks on traditional sources (such as family) and are more likely to

include voluntary sources, such as friends, co-workers and club members.

Conclusion

All these negative impacts can be upturned if the disparity in development between the urban and rural areas is substantially eliminated. This would make what the youths sort for in the urban areas available in the rural areas, therefore making them remain in the rural communities.

Recommendations

The study recommends that policy makers In Nigeria Should Carry Out An intense effort to Transform the Rural Areas Holistically, by making available more socio-economic and infrastructural amenities such As: Higher Income Earning Jobs, Educational Institutions Especially Higher Educational Institutions such as Polytechnics, Universities, Sanitation, Health-care Services, Electricity, Motorable Roads, Pipe Borne Water, Good Housing Condition.

A concerted effort should also be made towards financing the rural enterprises And encouraging effective And efficient agricultural activities through national policy framework and rolling plans.

References

- Abiodun F.P. (2014). *Technical Report Writing*. Nigerian Army Institute of Technology and Environmental Studies (NAITES), Makurdi Benue State. (Unpublished Lecture Notes).
- Aniker M. (1973): Concept of Rural Development in Nigeria: Oxford University Press.
- Aworemi, J.R., Abdulazeez, I.A. & Popoola, N.A. (2011). *An Appraisal of the Factors Influencing Rural-Urban Migration in Some Selected Local Government Areas of Lagos State Nigeria*. Department of management science Ladoke Akintola University of Technology. Journal of Sustainable Development. Vol. 4, No. 3.
- Banerjee B. (1984). Information Flow, Expectations and Job search: Rural-to-Urban migration process in India. Journal of Development Economics. Vol. 15 pp. 239–257. Retrieved from: www.ccsenet.org/jsd Journal of Sustainable Development Vol. 4, No. 3; June 2011.
- Edo State Local Government Development Programs (2010). Retrieved from the state website: <http://www.edostate.gov.ng>
- Elsvier M. P. (2001). Urban and Regional Economics. Oxford University Press.
- Isah M. A. (2013). *Trends of Rural-urban Migration in Nigeria*. Department of Political Science, Ahmadu Bello University, Zaria, Nigeria. European Scientific Journal February edition vol. 8, No.3 ISSN: 1857–7881 (Print) E-ISSN 1857-7431.
- Ledent J. (1982). Rural-urban Migration, Urbanization, and Economic Development, Economic Development and Cultural Change, Vol. 30 no 3, 507-538.

Mabawonku, A.F. (1973). The Impact of Rural-Urban Migration on the Economy of Selected Rural Communities in Western Nigeria. Unpublished M.Sc. Thesis, Department of Agricultural Economics, University of Ibadan.

Mabogunje, A. L (2002), Land Management in Nigeria: Issues, Opportunities and Threats”, Paper presented at the National Conference on Land Management and Taxation, Department of Estate Management, University of Lagos.

Mabogunje, A. L (2007) Land Reform in Nigeria: Progress, Problems & Prospects Microsoft Word Compaq Presario V2000.

Maureen Z., Mukata W. and Johnny M. (2011). Socio-economic analysis of land management practices in the agricultural highlands of Uganda: Research report series. ISSN 0856-9681 Vol. I Issue No.

Microsoft Encarta Dictionaries. (2009 Ed.) Microsoft Cooperation.

Murtala M. (2014). *Rural Land Use Economics*. Nigerian Army Institute of Technology and Environmental Studies (NAITES), Makurdi Benue State. (Unpublished Lecture Notes).

Murtala M. (2014). *Urban Land Use Economics*. Nigerian Army Institute of Technology and Environmental Studies (NAITES), Makurdi Benue State. (Unpublished Lecture Notes).

Obiakara N. (2015). *Rural Management as a Strategy for Reducing Rural- Urban Migration in Nigeria*. Department of Estate Management and Valuation. Institute of Management and Technology (IMT) Enugu. (Unpublished materials).

Olisa B.I. (1992): Internal Migration and Rural Development in Nigeria, Ibadan Caxton press (West Africa Ltd). Tossy Printers, Iwo Lagos.

Onokerhoraje (1985): Rural – Urban Migration in Nigeria Consequences on Housing Health Care and Employment.

Sadiq E. R. (2011). *The Land Use Act of 1978: Appraisal, Problems and Prospects*. An essay submitted to the faculty of law, university of Ilorin, Ilorin, Nigeria.

Salako F. K., & Adejuyigbe C. O. (2003). *Land Use Management*. University of Nigerian Nnsuka (UNN) Enugu State. (Unpublished Lecture Notes).

Ugochukwu M.E. (2011). *Rural Management as a Mean of Minimizing Rural Urban Migration in Nigeria*. Department of Estate Management and Valuation. Auchu Polytechnic Auchu. (Unpublished materials).

Zakariyao I.O. (1944). The History of Auchu kingdom in South Central Nigeria. Department of Religions. University of Ilorin, Nigeria. (Unpublished Article).