

EFFECT OF RURAL – URBAN MIGRATION AND RURAL INFRASTRUCTURE ON URBAN POVERTY IN TARABA STATE

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Abstract

This study investigated rural-urban migration and rural infrastructure on urban poverty in Taraba State using a survey research design. Questionnaires were used in a multi-stage sampling framework to sample 100 respondents from each of the selected local governments representing the southern, central and northern senatorial zones of the state accordingly. Both descriptive statistics and Logistic regression techniques were applied for data analysis. Findings revealed that rural-urban migrants in Taraba state were living above the poverty line as they earned more than the N1658.23k benchmark by the World Bank. It was also discovered that rural-urban migrants in Taraba state had access to necessities like healthcare, education, and housing options. These advancements in their well-being had a positive impact on their poverty status within the state. The study also found that rural-urban migration significantly reduced the level of rural productivity which could be checked by the provision of rural infrastructure. Based on the findings, the research recommended the elimination of lopsided provision of basic infrastructure and recommended promotion of agricultural mechanization to encourage youth engagement in agricultural activities in the state.

Key Words: Rural-Urban Migration, Urban Poverty and Rural Infrastructure

Introduction

Nigerians have been migrating from rural to urban areas at a growing rate in recent decades. The majority of the migrants are motivated by the desire for a better life and the pursuit of greener pastures, which they believe are easily found in urban areas. Nigeria has the greatest rate of rural-urban migration in the world, with an average annual growth rate of 4.3% which is worrisome (United Nations, 2014). Rural-urban migration is often associated with two-fold effects; on the one hand, it results in the loss of labour required for rural agriculture, and by progression deterioration of rural economies. On the other hand, it causes urban slumps, traffic jams, impure urban living conditions, joblessness, and several social vices such as prostitution, armed robbery and kidnapping (Amrevurajire and Ojeh, 2016).

Migration typically happens in developing nations when individuals relocate from rural areas to urban areas in search of higher living standards. According to Marshall, Waldman, Macgregor, and Mehta (2009), technological advancement, economic expansion, and social unrest may also have an impact on migration. It is influenced by push forces that push people out of rural regions and pull factors that draw people to cities. One of the primary factors drawing people to cities is the

availability of employment opportunities. Cities are home to a large number of industries that provide prospects for high urban earnings. Additionally, there are more educational establishments offering training programs and courses covering a broad range of topics and abilities. The "bright lights" of the metropolis and an urban lifestyle attract people to cities. Both temporary and permanent migration to metropolitan regions are direct results of these variables.

Push factors in rural areas include poor living circumstances and a dearth of opportunities for paid employment. The lack of access to adequate healthcare, restricted educational and employment possibilities, changing environmental conditions, droughts, floods, and other challenges to rural life are all contributing factors to the exodus of people from rural areas. Migration from rural to urban areas can be a selective process since different people have different moving probabilities. Gender is one of the determining elements, as there are significant differences in the jobs available to men and women. Age is an additional factor. It is more common for young people to relocate to cities, leaving older people and younger individuals in rural areas. Migration selectivity has an impact on both rural and urban populations. If more men than women relocate to towns and cities, rural communities will primarily be home to females.

In Nigeria's major metropolitan cities, absolute poverty – state of deprivation that is below any reasonable standard of human decency is unquestionably pervasive. According to Ojo, et al (2020), the main source of urban poverty in Nigeria is rural-urban migration. The country's urban centres are characterized by the predominance of slums and squatter settlements, poor infrastructure, human congestion, diseases, and general disrespect. Migration from rural to urban areas is a major barrier to achieving a reasonable standard of living in rural areas. Each year, a significant number of physically fit individuals leave rural communities, who were the majority of the labour force in the agriculture-the backbone of rural economies. Meanwhile, the same individuals move to urban areas, where they are met with inadequate housing, healthcare/education, jobs, and other necessities of life. The ultimate consequence is invariably twofold: the devastation of rural economies and the application of pressure on the urban centres' already insufficient infrastructure and oversaturated labour market. As correctly noted by (Ojo, Eusebius, Ifeanyi, & Aderemi, 2020), this practice has caused and perpetuated poverty in urban centres throughout Nigeria, where the average living standard is typically lower in urban centres (migration destination areas) than it is in rural communities (migration source areas).

Rural-urban migration has also increased in Taraba state, perhaps as a result of residents' discontent with their inability to access the essential facilities required for a respectable life in the state's rural districts (Danejo, Abubakar, Haruna, Usman & Bawuro, 2015). Urban slums, poor infrastructure, unemployment, and other urban social vices that are probably the result of rural-urban migration are signs that the state capital and other metropolitan centres are progressively experiencing urban poverty. Research on the effects of rural-urban migration on rural productivity and urban poverty and the role of rural infrastructure in reducing rural-urban migration in the state

is necessary, given the state's increasing rural-urban migration. Major urban centres in Taraba state have seen a large-scale migration in recent years due to several factors including instability, lack of basic infrastructure in rural areas, and the desire for a better living. Suppose nothing is done to stop or discourage rural-urban migration. In that case, the tendency is not going away, and urban centres within the state may eventually experience a severe lack of basic infrastructure and turn into severe slums with grim consequences. Against this backdrop, research on the relationship between rural-urban migration, urban poverty, and rural infrastructure is imperative.

Literature Review

Conceptual Clarification

Rural-Urban Migration

According to Devon (2023), migration is the act of physically relocating from one place to another. Migration from rural to urban areas occurs when people decide to relocate from less populous places to areas with higher densities of people because these areas frequently provide more job possibilities, higher wages, or better quality of life. One factor contributing to urbanization, or the process of many people dwelling in a comparatively compact and concentrated region, is movement from rural to urban areas. To provide context for the need for families to relocate to more urban locations, that is, areas that are more developed and densely populated, it is first necessary to have an awareness of the living conditions that exist in rural areas. Long hours of difficult labour, frequently including manual labour, and meagre remuneration characterize rural life. According to Kanu and Ukonze (2018), one of the most upsetting issues affecting Nigeria's socioeconomic progress is the migration of people from rural to urban areas. a scenario when the young and old are driven from rural to urban areas by the quest for better jobs, economic, and educational options.

Urban Poverty

According to Ann (2023), urban poverty is the collection of social and economic issues that arise in industrialized cities as a result of several factors, including the rise in individualism, the establishment of comfortable living standards, social fragmentation processes, and labour market dualization, which leads to social dualization. One of the main characteristics of urban poverty is that it is a typology of poverty that is found in industrialized civilizations. This causes it to have characteristics in common with other realities of poverty, such as those observed in rural areas, while also setting it apart. Urban poverty, in contrast to rural poverty, is complex and multifaceted (Asian Development Bank, 2014). Its many dimensions relate to the poor's vulnerability due to their lack of access to land and housing, physical infrastructure and services, sources of income and employment, health and education facilities, social security networks, and voice and empowerment.

Rural Infrastructure

Rural infrastructure is described by Junaid and Hamid (2019) as the facilities and infrastructure delivering services, including energy/electricity, transportation, housing, drinking water and sanitation, ICT, health, and education in rural regions. Rural infrastructure can be broadly categorized as physical capital. To achieve the more general objectives of reducing poverty and promoting economic growth, rural infrastructure can be defined as the complex of physical structures or networks that house social and economic activities. These structures are a means to an end, serving as a vehicle for the transmission and exchange of knowledge and information, as well as the provision of basic services like water and sanitation, energy for cooking, heat, and light, and employment-generating commercial activities (World Bank, 2021).

Many researchers hold that rural infrastructure can support increased agricultural productivity, draw in foreign direct investment (FDI), ease factor mobility, boost material resources, raise income levels, lower poverty and encourage urban-rural integration (Fernald, 1999), (Caldero, Moral-Benito & Serve, 2015)

Theoretical Framework

This work is anchored on the Everett Lee comprehensive theory of migration developed in 1966. He begins his formulations with certain factors, which lead to the spatial mobility of the population in any area. These factors are; factors associated with the place of origin, factors related to the place of destination, intervening obstacles, and personal factors. The theory highlights the interplay between push factors, pull factors, and intervening obstacles in shaping migration patterns (Lee, 1966). It suggests that migration is a complex process influenced by a combination of factors at the individual, household, and societal levels. Moreover, the theory underscores the dynamic nature of migration, as changes in push and pull factors or the removal of intervening obstacles can alter migration patterns over time. Lee argued that each place (source and destination areas) has a set of negative and positive factors that persuade and dissuade people to leave accordingly. Lee noted also that there are neutral factors to which people are indifferent to the effects of these factors on people differently.

Empirical Review

Scholars worldwide have utilized diverse approaches at different points in time to examine the relationship between rural-urban migration, urban poverty, and rural infrastructure. Their findings have yielded conflicting conclusions regarding the relationship between these factors. In Plateau State, North Central Nigeria, Joshua, Mariney, and Aziz (2021) investigate the effects of rural-urban migration on rural communities and urban centres. Using a purposive sampling technique on a sample size of 1325, a qualitative descriptive method was applied to the study of rural migrants and non-migrants. Information from a well-structured questionnaire, in-depth interviews, and systematic observations was extracted, and descriptive statistics and multiple regression analysis

were used for analysis. Both good and negative effects on rural and urban areas were highlighted by the research. While the decline in population, low agricultural productivity, and food insecurity were the effects of migration, rural areas benefit from remittances, enhanced welfare, and community projects. While urban congestion, excessive use of facilities, and unemployment were some of the drawbacks of rural-urban migration in metropolitan centres, cheaper labour, increased population, and improved output were some advantages.

In a similar spirit, Tunde (2019) investigates this pattern of occurrences, the multiplier effects of people migrating from rural to urban areas in pursuit of white-collar professions, and the dire consequences this has had on Nigeria's rural agricultural output. Using both content analysis and survey research incorporating descriptive statistics and chi-square analysis, the study is both exploratory and descriptive. The results showed that the main driver of rural-urban migration is the desire to improve one's economic situation, with age, marital status, and educational background being additional determining factors.

Further study by Edeh et al. (2021) interrogates the cause-effect of intra and inters people's movements in South East Nigeria. The Push-pull theory of migration was adopted as the theoretical framework. The results of the investigation revealed that: the quest for greener pastures is the major reason for the persistent rural-urban migration among the people of the south-east region and the resultant effects have been the congestion of the available towns, intimidation and harassment of residents and migrants, rise in unemployment rates, crimes, youth restiveness, prostitution and at the other end, positive social, economic, structural and political developments and integration.

However, Olabode et al. (2015) looked into how migration from rural to urban areas affected national development, concentrating on the southwest region of Nigeria. It examined the reasons behind the rural-urban movement, the government's prior attempts to lower this rate in various regions, and the socioeconomic variables affecting this migration. The study also examined the body of research on migration from rural to urban areas. A systematic questionnaire was used to gather information from the respondents in the southwestern Nigerian states of Lagos, Ondo, Ogun, Osun, and Ekiti. The study found that a few of the causes of the rural-urban movement were the quest to modernize, neglect of the rural population, and a lack of social infrastructure.

In Abia State, Nigeria, Ehirim et al. (2019) investigated the impact and prospects of rural-urban migration on the poverty status of migrants. A multi-stage sample strategy was used to gather data from 116 houses using a well-structured questionnaire. Descriptive statistics, the Foster-Greer-Thorbecke (FGT) model, and the logit regression model were used to analyze the data. It became evident that poverty permeates both the local community and the migratory population's socioeconomic circumstances. Based on the results of the binary logit regression, households' rural-urban migration status was correlated with education, marital status, and per capita

expenditure of migrants. In addition to formal schooling, which had a negative impact, other factors also directly affected rural-urban migration.

Methodology

Research Design

This study assessed the effect of rural-urban migration and rural infrastructure on urban poverty in Taraba State. The study used survey research to generate and collect primary data among migrants who have migrated to urban centres in Taraba state within the last five years, household heads that have had at least one migrant to an urban centre within the last five years and staff of the ministry of rural development in Taraba state accordingly. The multi-stage sampling technique was used in drawing the sample for the study. First, a purposive sampling technique was used to select the biggest local governments from each of the three senatorial zones of the state; Jalingo for the Northern, Gassol for the Central and Wukari for the Southern senatorial zones respectively. A simple random sampling was then used to randomly select 100 respondents each from every sampled local government for the study. The questionnaires were administered to 300 respondents and retrieved on the spot which ensured hundred percent of the returned questionnaires. The study employed descriptive and econometrics analytical techniques to present analyze and test the hypotheses of the study. The descriptive method of data analysis included tables, pictograms, graphs and five mean Linkert scale where any item with a mean value of 2.5 and above was accepted and anyone with a mean value less than 2.5 was rejected. Multivariate Logistic regression was employed to examine the effect of Rural-urban migration on Urban Poverty while an independence t-test was employed to compare the perception of rural dwellers on how rural-urban migration affects household productivity and how the provision of infrastructural facilities influences rural-urban migration in Taraba state.

The Empirical Model

A multivariate logistic regression model was used to examine the impact of Rural-urban migration on Urban Poverty in Taraba State. In the logic model, the endogenous variable is a dichotomous or dummy variable, with (1) representing the household as poor and (0) if the household is not poor. The dichotomous variable representing whether or not a household is poor is regressed on a set of supposedly exogenous explanatory variables.

Implicitly, a logit regression model is specified as thus;

$$p(Y) = E \dots \dots \dots (i)$$

If Y represents poverty status, Y might be poor (1) or non-poor (0). By taking logs of both sides and simplifying equation (i), the log-likelihood model is simplified as thus;

$$\ln Y_i = \pi_i / 1 - \pi_i = \beta_0 + \beta_k X_{ki} + U_i \dots \dots \dots (ii)$$

Where;

$\ln Y_i$ = natural log of P (poverty status)

X_{ki} = A set of independent variables included in the model.

B_k = Parameter estimate

U_i = a random disturbance term.

From the specified model, the model for this study is implicitly specified as thus;

$$POV = f(X_1, X_2, X_3, X_4, X_5, X_6, X_7, X_8) \dots \dots \dots (iii)$$

Where POV is poverty status and calculated as;

$$POV = \frac{\text{Average Annual Income of Rural – Urban Migrants}}{\text{Total Number of Days in a Year}}$$

If the result is less than 2.15 United States dollars a day in accordance to the World Bank (2023) update on the international poverty line threshold, it means the rural-urban migrant’s household is poor in which, we assign (1). If it is more than or equal to 2.15 United State dollars, it means the rural-urban migrant is non-poor, in which case we assign (0). It is important to note, that the official exchange rate of Nigerian local currency to U.S dollar is N 771.271 (CBN, 2023). This implies that, a rural-urban migrant was considered been poor if he or she earns income below N1658.23k per day.

The independent variables of the model are in accordance to livelihood security index which assesses households’ social and economic well-being in relation to the Sustainable livelihood approach of Sanzidur and Shaheen (2010). The index considered access to children’s education, medical needs, drinking water, electricity, multiple rooms, multiple communication assets, food security and household level of bathrooms to measured household livelihood security. The independent variables of the model are therefore defined as thus;

X_1 = Rural-Urban migrant’s family members access to quality education (0 if family members have access to education, 1 if otherwise)

X_2 = Access to improve medical services (0 if respondents visit dispensaries, federal medical centre or specialist hospital, 1 if otherwise).

X_3 = Household access to quality drinking water (0 if family members have access to borehole or piped water, 1 if otherwise)

X_4 = Household access to constant electricity supply (0 if family members have access to constant access to electricity, 1 if otherwise)

X_5 = Access to Multiple House rooms (0 if at most 2 family members sleep in a Zinc roof and room, 1 if otherwise)

X_6 = Access to multiple communication assets (0 if respondents have access to cell phone, television set and satellite disc, 0 if otherwise 1)

X_7 = Household level of bathrooms (0 if household has access to bathroom with efficient flushing toilet system, 1 if otherwise)

X_8 = Food security (0 if household has access to 3 square meals, 1 if otherwise)

The stochastic model is specified as thus;

$$POV = \beta_0 + \beta_1X_1 + \beta_2X_2 + \beta_3X_3 + \beta_4X_4 + \beta_5X_5 + \beta_6X_6 + \beta_7X_7 + \beta_8X_8 + U \dots\dots\dots(iv)$$

Where;

β_0 = The intercept

$\beta_1 - \beta_8$ = The Parameters to be estimated

U = The error term.

Empirical Findings and Discussion

Demographic Data of the Respondents

The demographic characteristics of the sampled respondents are presented in Table 1-4 and figure 1 which revealed the profile of the respondents, randomly selected for the study.

Table 1: Analysis of Respondents by Gender

Gender	Frequency	Per cent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Female	93	31	31	31
Male	207	69	69	100.0
Total	300	100.0	100.0	

Source: Field Survey (2024)

Table 1 shows that, the majority of the sampled respondents 69% are males while 31% of the sampled respondents are females. The higher rate of migration among men reflects gendered norms associated with migration. Rural women are usually tied to domestic responsibilities, they are less mobile than their male counterparts. The implication of a higher rate of migration among men in the study area is that it could lead to a decline in agricultural activities and a decrease in the labour force in rural areas. On the other hand, urban areas experience an increase in labour supply, which can lead to changes in production processes, such as a shift towards more labour-intensive techniques of production and the adoption of labour-intensive product varieties.

Table 2: Analysis of Respondents by Marital Status

Marital Status	Frequency	Per cent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Divorced	57	19	19	19
Married	87	29	29	48
Single	134	44.7	44.7	92.7
Widow	22	7.3	7.3	100.0
Total	300	100.0	100.0	

Source: Field Survey (2024)

Table 2 revealed that 57 respondents representing 19% of the sampled respondents are divorcees, 87 respondents representing 29% of the sampled respondents are married, 134 respondents representing 44.7% are single and 22 respondents representing 7.3% are widows/widowers. The

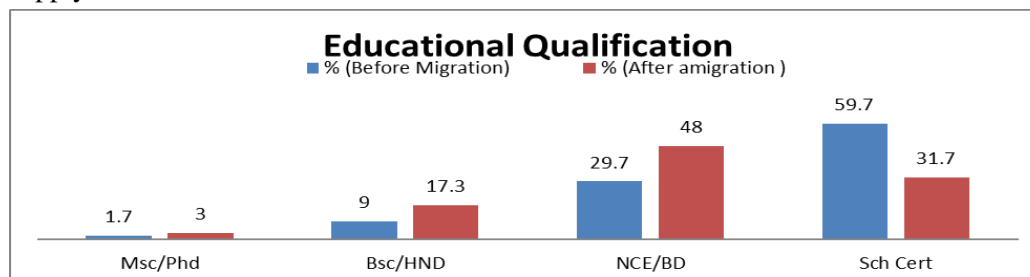
distribution of the sampled respondents by marital status indicated that most rural-urban migrants in Taraba State are singles. The implication of a higher rate of rural-urban migration among singles in the study area is that rural-urban migrants will have a greater likelihood of engaging in sexual risk behaviour such as multiple sexual partners, unprotected sex, as well as premarital sex and may likely increase incidences of sexually transmitted diseases (STDs).

Table 3: Analysis of Respondents by Age Distribution

Age Range	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
< 20 Years	6	2	2	2
>60 Years	11	3.7	3.7	5.7
20-40 Years	202	67.3	67.3	73
41-60 Years	81	27	27	100.0
Total	300	100.0	100.0	

Source: Field Survey (2024)

Table 3 indicated that, majority of the sampled respondents are in their active ages. Those within the age bracket of 20-40 years accounts for 67.3%, those within the age bracket of 41-60 years accounts for 27%, those above 60 years accounts for 3.7% while those below 20 years accounted for 2%. Majority of the respondents being in their active age is an indication that, there exist great prospect of the working population to migrate from rural to urban areas in Taraba state. the implication of higher active population migrating from rural to urban areas is that, there is likelihood of shortage of labour force for agricultural activities (the mainstay of rural economies in Taraba state) and increase in unemployment rate in the urban areas due to increase in labour supply to the urban areas.



Source: Authors’ Construction using Data from Field Survey (2024)

Fig.1: Bar Chart Showing Educational Qualification Before and After Migration

Figure 1 shows that 1.7% of the sampled respondents held a master's degree or a PhD prior to moving from rural to urban areas, but that number rose to 3% following the migration. Similarly, 9% of sampled respondents had a bachelor's degree or its equivalent prior to moving from rural to urban areas; but, after moving, that percentage rises to 17.3%. Similarly, before to moving from rural to urban areas, 29.7% of the selected respondents held a national diploma or certificate in education; but, following their migration, this figure rose to 48%. Nonetheless, the proportion of

sampled respondents with secondary school certificates fell to 31.7% after the migration from rural to urban regions, compared to 59.7% before migration. The distribution of sampled respondents according to educational attainment suggests that migration from rural to urban areas gave the migrants the chance to further their education in the study area. This indicates an improvement in the migrant population's literacy level in Taraba state.

Assessment of the Income Earned by the Rural – Urban Migrants

An assessment was carried out to ascertain daily income earned by rural-urban migrants in Taraba state and the result is presented in Table 4.

Table 4: Distribution of Sampled Respondents on Income Generation

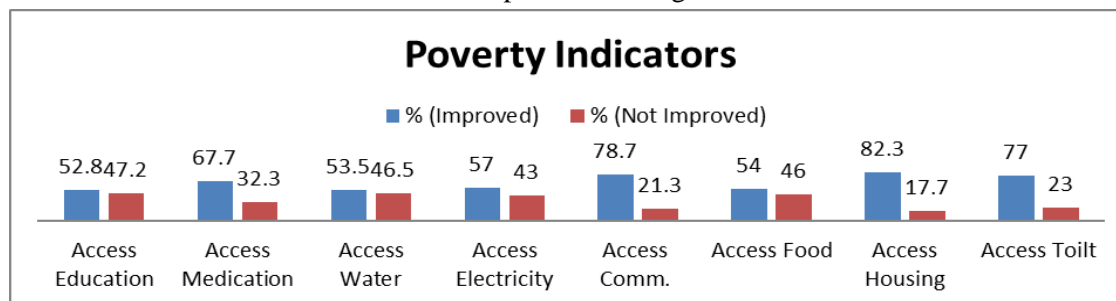
Income Range	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
< N1,700	64	21.3	21.3	21.3
N1,700 - N 3,000	177	59	59	80.3
N 3001 - N 5,000	32	10.7	10.7	91
> N5,000	27	9	9	100.0
Total	300	100.0	100.0	

Source: Field Survey (2024)

Table 4 reveals that, the majority of the sampled respondents representing 59% earned between N 1700 and N3,000 daily, 21.3% of the sampled respondents earned less than N 1,700 daily, 10.7% of the sampled respondents earned between N 3001 and N 5,000 while 9% earned more than N5, 000 daily from the various means of livelihood they engaged in, in the urban areas. This implies that the majority of the sampled respondents earned a daily income of more than N1658.23k per day, hence living above the poverty line by the World Bank standard.

Assessment of Poverty Indicators of the Rural-Urban Migrants

Assessment of the poverty indicators of the rural-urban migrants in Taraba state to ascertain the level of their welfare improvement in terms of access to quality education, medication, tap water, electricity supply, communication system, three square meals, housing, as well as good toilet facilities, was carried out and the result is presented in figure 2.



Source: Authors' Construction using Data from Field Survey (2024)

Fig 2: Bar Chart Showing Assessment of Poverty Status of Rural-Urban Migrants

Figure 2 shows that 52.8% of the respondents were able to have improved access to quality education after they migrated to the urban area while 47.2% of the sampled respondents were not able to have access to improved quality education even after they had migrated to the urban area. This is an indication that rural-urban migration has the potential of reducing poverty status and improving the quality of education pattern of the respondents.

Comparably, the graph demonstrates that while 32.3% of the sampled respondents do not have access to improved medication even after migrating from rural to urban areas in the study area, the majority of the sampled respondents, or 67.7%, did have access to it after moving to an urban area. Stated differently, over 50% of the sampled respondents have migrated from rural to urban areas in Taraba State and have access to quality healthcare services. In the same vein, it was discovered that, as indicated by 53.5% of the studied respondents, the majority of them now have access to clean drinking water after moving to metropolitan regions. Even after moving to Taraba State's cities, 46.5% of the studied respondents reported being unable to obtain clean drinking water. Additionally, it was found that, as reported by 57% of the respondents, the majority of sampled respondents had access to power after moving to an urban region. However, even after moving to Taraba state's cities, 43% of the studied respondents were still unable to access the energy supply. Furthermore, the graph demonstrates that while 21.3% of the sampled respondents do not have access to multiple communication assets even after migrating from rural to urban areas in the study area, the majority of the sampled respondents, or 78.7%, did have access to multiple communication assets after moving to city.

Furthermore, the chart showed that, of the sampled respondents, 56% had access to wholesome 3-square meals after moving to an urban area, whereas 46% did not have such access, even after moving from a rural to an urban area within the study area. According to the chart, the majority of sampled respondents, or 82.3%, had access to better housing types after moving to urban areas in the study area, whereas 17.7% of sampled respondents did not have access to better housing types even after moving from rural to urban areas. In other words, as they moved from rural to urban areas in Taraba State, more than half of the sampled respondents had access to better housing types. In a related development, the chart demonstrates that while 23% of the sampled respondents do not have access to a good toilet system even after migrating from rural to urban areas in the study area, the majority of the sampled respondents, or 77%, did have access to one after moving to an urban area.

Impact of Rural-urban Migration on Urban Poverty in Taraba State

Logistic regression was employed to examine the effect of Rural-urban migration on Urban Poverty and the result of the logistic regression is presented in table 5

Table 5: Logistic Regression Result

Variable	Coefficient	Std. Error	z-Statistic	Prob.
X1	-0.097567	0.248888	-0.392012	0.6950
X2	-0.990208	0.373848	-2.648693	0.0081
X3	0.399422	0.284126	1.405790	0.1598
X4	0.276910	0.278439	0.994508	0.2200
X5	-0.646226	0.305515	2.115200	0.0344
X6	-0.423010	0.261017	-1.620620	0.0051
X7	-0.202002	0.300452	-0.672326	0.0014
X8	1.207476	0.269144	4.486357	0.0000
C	-24.51186	7.766712	3.156015	0.0016
McFadden R-squared	0.659654	Mean dependent var		0.027619
LR statistic	31.49993	Avg. log likelihood		-0.074302
Prob (LR statistic)	0.010234			
Obs with Dep=0	223	Total obs		300
Obs with Dep=1	77			

Source: E-View 9.0 Version (2024)

Table 5 shows that the estimated coefficients of X₁ (access to quality education) is negative but statistically insignificant at a 5% level. This shows that family member's access to education has the probability of reducing poverty among the rural-urban household for the period of the study but the effect of the access to quality education in reducing poverty among the rural-urban migrants in Taraba state is not significant. This implies that the rural-urban migrants were able to utilize their incomes earned from the various means of livelihood to provide education for their households' members for the period of the study but the effect of the access to education is not enough to reduce poverty among the rural-urban households in Taraba state. Similarly, the estimated coefficient of X₂ (Access to improved medical services) is negative and statistically significant at a 5% level. This implies that access to improved medical facilities has a significant effect in reducing poverty among the sampled respondents. This is an indication that, as rural-urban migrants utilized their income from their various sources, better health facilities were sought indicating their good standard of living.

On the other hand, the estimated coefficient of X₃ (access to quality drinking water) is positively signed but statistically insignificant at a 5% critical level. This implies that access to quality drinking water has the probability of increasing poverty among the rural-urban migrants in the study area but is not significant. This shows that access to quality drinking water is not enough to reduce poverty among rural-urban migrants for the period of the study. In the same vein, the estimated coefficient for X₄ (access to constant electricity supply) is positive but statistically insignificant at a 5% level, indicating that, access to electricity supply has the probability of increasing poverty among rural-urban migrants in the study area but not significant. This shows

that the electricity supply in the urban areas in Taraba state is not enough to reduce poverty among the rural-urban migrants for the period of the study.

The estimated coefficient of X_5 (House type) is negative and statistically significant at the 5% level. This implies that the type of houses used by the sampled respondents when they migrated to the urban areas was able to reduce poverty among them in the study area. This shows that better housing has the probability of reducing poverty among rural-urban migrants in Taraba state. In a related development, the estimated coefficient of X_6 (Access to communication gadgets) is negative and statistically significant at a 5% level. This implies that access to multiple communication gadgets is an indication of poverty reduction by the rural-urban migrants in the study area. The higher the number of communication gadgets bought by the rural-urban migrants, the less poor they are believed to be. The table further reveals that the estimated coefficient of X_7 (Household level of bathrooms) is negative and statistically significant at a 5% level. This suggests that bathroom types have the probability of reducing poverty among rural-urban migrants in Taraba state for the period of the study.

Moreover, the estimated coefficient of X_8 (Food security) is positive and statistically significant. This implies that access to food has the probability of increasing poverty among the rural-urban migrants in the study area. This further implies that rural-urban migrants in Taraba state could not access 3 square meals for the period of the study to experience a change in their standard of living for the period of the study. The negative sign of the intercept (C) in the result indicates that, if all the regressors are held constant, the dependent variable (Z; poverty status of the respondent) would reduce by 24%. This is a pointer to the fact that all things being equal, rural-urban migration should reduce poverty among the migrants in Taraba state. The McFadden R- R-squared of approximately 0.66 implies that all the explanatory variables included in the model explained total variations in the dependent variable by 66%. The Pro (LR statistic) of 0.010234 indicated the reliability of the explanatory variables with regard to the dependent variable.

Assessment of Household Productivity in Rural Communities in Taraba State.

An assessment of the perception of rural dwellers on how rural-urban migration affects household Productivity in rural communities in Taraba state was conducted and the result is presented in Table 6.

Table 6: Mean Responses of Rural Dwellers Household Productivity in Rural Communities

S/No	Items	Mean	Std.	Remark
1	Rural-urban migration significantly reduced the level of rural productivity	2.8600	1.41436	Agree
2	There has been a low level of rural agricultural activity due to rural-urban migration	2.8500	1.39534	Agree
3	Rural-urban migration undermined the resources of the rural dwellers for rural production and development	2.4700	1.33526	Disagree

4	There has been a slow pace of completion of rural development programmes resulting from rural-urban migration	2.4141	1.33946	Disagree
5	Rural development and production significantly dropped due to the percentage of the population of rural people migrating to urban areas	2.6198	1.35624	Agree

Source: Field Survey 2024

From the results presented in Table 6, the rural dwellers agreed with most of the items in relation to household productivity in the rural communities in Taraba state. However, items 3 and 4 were rejected by the rural dwellers indicating that; rural-urban migration does not undermine the resources of the rural dwellers for rural production and development and there has not been a slow pace of completion of rural development programmes resulting from rural-urban migration. This could mean that the rural-urban migrants remitted resources to their respective rural communities to facilitate production and development programmes in Taraba state.

In order to test the hypothesis that there is no significant difference between the mean perception of the rural dwellers on the effect of rural-urban migration on household Productivity in rural communities in Taraba state, a t-test statistic was conducted at 0.05 level of significance. The independent sample test result of the t-test statistic is presented in Table 7.

Table 7: T-test Statistic Perception on Rural Household Productivity

		Levene's Testt-test for Equality of Means for Equality of Variances							
		F	Sig.	T	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Diff.	Std. Error Diff.	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference Lower Upper
Perceptions	Equal variances assumed	.010	.919	1.424	482	.155	2.1	1.47427	-.79678 4.99678
	Equal variances not assumed			1.405	151.92	.162	2.1	1.49446	-.85261 5.05261

Source: Extract from SPSS Version 20

Table 7 provides the result of t-test results conducted at 0.05 levels of significance and 95 degrees of freedom. The p-value for the t-test for equality of means is $0.155 > 0.05$ and is not significant to reject the null hypothesis of homogeneity between mean perceptions of the rural dwellers on the effect of rural-urban migration on household productivity in rural communities in Taraba state. Based on this finding, we infer that rural-urban migration affects household Productivity in rural communities in Taraba state as agreed by the rural dwellers from most scale items in Table 6.

Assessment of Provision of Rural Infrastructure

An assessment of the perception of rural dwellers on how the provision of rural infrastructure influences rural-urban migration in Taraba state was conducted and the result is presented in Table 8.

Table 8: Rural Dwellers’ Perception on the Influence of Provision of Rural Infrastructure on Rural-Urban Migration

S/No.	Items	Mean	Std.	Remark
1	The provision of feeder roads in rural communities will stop people from migrating to urban centres	2.5599	1.34865	Agree
2	The provision of modern health facilities will discourage rural-urban migration	2.6198	1.35624	Agree
3	The provision of good educational facilities will stop rural-urban migration	2.7161	1.41242	Agree
4	Protection of life and property in rural communities will stop rural-urban migration	2.5885	1.32361	Agree
5	The creation of self-development opportunities in rural communities will stop rural-urban migration	2.6172	1.23771	Agree

Source: Field Survey 2024

Table 8 shows the mean responses of rural dwellers regarding the influence of the provision of rural infrastructure on rural-urban migration in Taraba state. Five items were suggested and the mean responses of the rural dwellers indicated all the items were rated agreed based on the decision rule guiding this study. This implies that the provision of rural infrastructure influences rural-urban migration in Taraba state. In order to test the hypothesis that there is no significant difference between the mean perception of the rural dwellers on the influence of the provision of rural infrastructure on rural-urban migration in Taraba state, a t-test statistic was conducted at 0.05 level of significance. The independent samples test result of the t-test statistic is presented in Table 9.

Table 9: T-test Statistic Perception on Influence of Provision of Rural Infrastructure

Levene's t-test for Equality of Means									
Test for Equality of Variances									
F	Sig.	T	Df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Diff.	Std. Error Diff.	95% Interval Lower	Confidence Interval Upper	

Percepti ons	Equal variances assumed	8.621	.306	-20.446	561	.057	-14.64640	.71634	-16.05344	-13.23935
	Equal variances not assumed			-13.301	7.083	.061	-14.64640	1.10115	-17.24399	-12.04881

Source: Extract from SPSS Version 20

Table 9 provides the result of the independent t-test conducted to test whether there is a significant difference in the mean perception of the rural dwellers on the influence of the provision of rural infrastructures on rural-urban migration in Taraba state. Levene's Test for equality of variance indicated the acceptance of the assumption that there is no significant mean difference in responses of the rural dwellers on the influence of the provision of rural infrastructures on rural-urban migration in the study areas. This suggests that the provision of rural infrastructure will significantly stop people from migrating to urban centres as agreed by the rural dwellers from the scale items in Table 8.

Discussion of Findings

The discussion of findings of this research based on the research objectives revealed that, majority of the sampled respondents earned daily income of more than N1658.23k per day, hence living above poverty line benchmark by World Bank. Further assessment of the poverty indicators of the rural-urban migrants in Taraba state relative to their level of welfare improvement before and after migrating to the urban cities shows that; majority of the sampled respondents had their welfare improved in terms of access to quality education, medication, tap water, electricity supply, communication system, three square meals, housing as well as good toilet facilities after migrating to the urban centres.

In examining the effect of rural urban migration on poverty reduction, the logistic multiple regressions revealed that, access to improved, education, medical services, house type, communication gadgets and bathroom types had negative and significant effect on poverty reduction among rural-urban migrants in the study area. This implies that, having access to these basic needs reduced the poverty status of the rural-urban migrants in Taraba state. The finding aligned with studies by Ehirim, Onyeneke, Chidiebere-Mark and Nnabuihe (2019) and Okwuokenye and Abdurrahman (2022) who established, that increase in economic activities, basic amenities and reduction of poverty status of the urban residents were some reasons for youth migration.

On the contrary, the logistic multiple regressions revealed that, access to quality drinking water, constant electricity supply and three-square meals had positive and significant effect on poverty reduction among rural-urban migrants in the study area. This implies that, having access to these

basic needs increases the poverty status of the rural-urban migrants in Taraba state. The finding corroborates with similar studies by Edeh, Ndukwe and Nwuzor (2021) which revealed that, rural-urban migration increases hunger and poverty as a result of the decline in agricultural population and other productive ventures in the rural areas.

Assessment of household productivity in rural communities in Taraba state shows that, there is no significant difference between the mean perceptions of the rural dwellers on how rural-urban migration affects household productivity in rural communities in the study area. It was revealed that, rural-urban migration significantly reduced the level of rural productivity. However, rural-urban migration did not undermine the resources of the rural dwellers for rural production and development and there was no evidence of slow pace of completion of rural development programme resulting from rural urban migration. This could mean that, the rural-urban migrants' remitted resources to their respective rural communities to facilitate production and development programmes in Taraba state. The findings aligned with those by Edeh, Ndukwe and Nwuzor (2021) as well as Okwuokenye and Abdurrahman (2022) who found that, Rural-urban migration resulted to decline in agricultural population and other productive ventures and also, impacted on farm income, increased rural poverty, but increased remittances to rural communities.

Assessment of the perception of rural dwellers on how provision of rural infrastructure influences rural-urban migration in Taraba state indicated that; there was no significant mean difference in responses of the rural dwellers on the influence of provision of rural infrastructure on rural-urban migration in the study area. It was established that, provision of rural infrastructure will significantly stop people from migrating to urban centres in Taraba state. The finding agrees with similar findings by Olabode, Saidat and Oluyemi (2015) and Kabiru (2019) who identified lack of social infrastructure, neglect of the rural communities, and modernization among others as some of the factors responsible for rural-urban migration in southwestern part of Nigeria.

Conclusion and Recommendations

In line with findings of the study, it was concluded that, rural-urban migrants in Taraba State earned daily incomes of more than N1658.23k per day, hence were living above poverty line. The study also concludes that rural-urban migrants are able to access their basic needs which improved their social welfare, hence, reduced their poverty status in the state. However, the rural-urban migrants are not able access basic needs such as quality drinking water, constant electricity supply and three-square meals which impaired their social welfare and increased their poverty status in the state. It was also concluded that, rural-urban migration significantly reduced the level of rural productivity. However, rural-urban migration did not undermine the resources of the rural dwellers for rural production and development and there was no slow pace of completion of rural development programmes resulting from rural urban migration. It was further concluded that, provision of rural infrastructure will significantly stop people from migrating to urban centres in

Taraba state. Based on these conclusions of the research work, the following recommendations were made: The rural-urban bias, which places a greater emphasis on fundamental social amenities in urban regions while disregarding rural areas, needs to be eliminated, in order to discourage rural-urban migration and promote private sector investment in both the states rural and urban districts. The government should insist on rural-urban economic balance by allocating basic infrastructure in both areas. Also, in order to promote youth involvement in agricultural activities in the state, the government must encourage mechanization of Agriculture by facilitating access to agricultural machinery, pesticides, and herbicides, among other supplies. This will give rural residents the confidence to engage in agricultural activities and guarantee food security in the state. Furthermore, as a result of the growing number of rural residents moving into urban centres, the government and non-governmental organizations, should work together to provide the needs of the impoverished population residing in urban areas. Improving access to clean water, stable and affordable power supply, and providing a functional education could all help combat urban poverty in the state.

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