

## **PARADIGM SHIFT OF RURAL-URBAN MIGRATION IN NORTH-CENTRAL NIGERIA: A STUDY OF PLATEAU STATE (REVIEW LITERATURE)**

**<sup>1</sup>Joshua Y. Gwanshak <sup>2</sup> Mariney B. M. Yusoff**

<sup>1</sup>Department of Geography Faculty of Environmental Sciences Plateau State University, Bokoos, Nigeria

<sup>2</sup>Department of Geography, Faculty of Arts and Social Sciences, University of Malaya 50603 Kuala Lumpur, Malaysia.

*\*Corresponding Author's email; [joshuayohanna1972@gmail.com](mailto:joshuayohanna1972@gmail.com)  
<https://orcid.org/0009-0001-9926-3614>*

### **ABSTRACT**

*Transitional movement is inevitable, especially migration, where patterns have evolved between time and space. This study of the paradigm shift of rural-urban migration is a review of changing patterns from the historical trends of the pre-colonial era to the most recent modernization of movement. The in-depth interplay of dynamics presents itself as a paradigm shift in destinations, either sketchy or non-existent, which provides essential insight into the complicated and ever-changing nature of nature and the pattern of the transnational movement of migrants. Several theories supported the study concept in linking with the findings that revealed slavery migration of the pre-colonial era to the push and pull of the colonial era while the shift to livelihood sustaining trending pattern due to changes have happened in the areas of technology, social, economic, and political coliseum, which have improved the conception of paradigm shift in migration. Trends and patterns shifted from permanent migration and tended towards temporary migration embedded with seasonal and circular patterns with varying characteristics. Due to the changing circumstances, the stability of trends and patterns depend mainly on the times and strategies adopted for sustainable livelihood.*

**Keywords:** Colonial era, Migrants, Paradigm shift, Rural-urban migration.

### **1. INTRODUCTION**

Paradigm Shift is evolution progression from primordial origins to subsequent phases characterized by a more thorough and polished understanding of a concept of nature (Kahali, 2017). These accomplishments must be enough novels to draw a long-term following away from rival types of scientific endeavour and sufficiently open-ended to leave all sorts of new communities of practitioners to tackle. A paradigm shift is a fundamental shift in an individual or a society's understanding of the world's workings (Kahali, 2017). This shift represents a fundamental shift of patterns or underlying assumptions. The term has considerably richer, more precise antecedents in the work of scientific historian Thomas Kuhn. Kuhn (1977) borrowed the term "paradigm" from a Greek phrase that meant "example." According to Kuhn, scientists are communities of individuals who model themselves after the same sets of instances. These community members can connect with one another, understand each other, and cooperate on joint projects because they adhere to the same core ideas and modes of operation. According to Kuhn, paradigms shift anytime the community definition of "normal" becomes contested

territory. Science provides several examples of underlying ideas and behaviours being challenged, argued, and modified. In every phase of life, a shift becomes necessary, as does migration and population dynamics (Niva et al, 2023).

Global demographic shifts have been seen in population growth, a paradigm shift that increased from 2.5 billion in 1950 to more than quadruple its size (7.6 billion) in 2018 (Adeseye, 2020). This is expected to reach 10 billion people by 2100, with significant imbalances in population distribution, particularly in emerging African nations (Miao, 2023). These innovations alter and shape people's movements. Many areas and national populations have been un-mixing along national, ethnic, and religious fault lines, resulting in large migrations (Van Hear, 2012; PRIO, 2017). A large portion of the population is booming because of migration; the sending and receiving of people in the region set out for a new pattern that created a new order (Strangio & De Rose, 2015). None of many writers (Van Hear, 2012; Ariza, 2014; Adepoju, 2023; Schwemmer et al., 2023; Miao, 2023; Pollene & Vargas-silva, 2024) substantiates this idea or embeds the notion of a migratory order in wider theories on social, political, or economic orders; instead, the word has thus far been employed informally, casually, and descriptively rather than analytically. As a result, some more explanation is necessary.

Migration studies frequently use a comparative framework to examine migrant groups from different countries of origin within a common destination society. These comparisons highlight differences in adaptation and integration caused by various socio-cultural contexts. For example, research has revealed disparities in employment opportunities and social integration among migrants in the same host countries (Van Tubergen, 2004). In addition, another study examined the differences in well-being and health outcome among various migrants' groups in European cities (Pollene & Vargas-silva, 2024). In-depth interplay of dynamics presents itself as a paradigm shift in destinations that are either sketchy or non-existent (Torres & Gioconda, 2014). Migration-related literature has been written for providing essential insight into the complicated and ever-changing nature of nature as well as the pattern of transnational movement (Lacroix, Levitt, & Vari-Lavoisier, 2016). It is important to generate more detail and also to present related pragmatic information on the paradigm shift of migration patterns. In rural-urban migration digging deeper into the set of migrants' populations is necessary within an origin. As a result, the study is geared toward filling the existing gap by exploring different changes that shaped the transnational pattern in rural-urban activities such as return visits, non-direct family contacts, and different patterns of migration directionality, and intermediaries. Thus, this study considered North-central Nigeria region with a specification to Plateau State

### **Theoretical Approaches to Rural-Urban Migration Paradigm Shift**

Several theories have been developed on migration, establishing a connectivity of migration and existing theories. However, few were succinctly considered for the purpose of this study. The rational choice theory and the structural migration models seem disparate in the various presentations that make up the rational choice theory. However, the theory gives an idea on the basis for the influx of rural migrants to urban cities. Understanding rural migrants' influx could be determined by considering two factors: the high level of industrialization (Ravenstein, 1889) and the higher income level in the destination area (Todaro, 1969). In contrast, the structural model theory implies that the rate of migrants' influx to urban areas could be based on comparing negative factors in origin areas against positive factors in destination locations (Lee, 1966). This measurement reduces risks and limitations faced by individuals, families and communities (Tacoli et al., 2015).

The rational choice, structural and systems approach theories deal with rural-urban migration patterns and trending nature. Ravenstein (1889) described the movement pattern mostly seen in migration as sequential from rural areas to small towns and eventually to large towns. They seem to be mostly from rural to urban. Another version of the rational choice theory disputed that the movement of migrants is in a circular pattern in rural areas and between rural-urban areas termed permanent (Lagakos et al., 2018). The structural theory proposed that the pattern of migration could not be ascertained as it is primarily a result of not only the individuals' decision or push and pull factors but also mainly by sets of external interfering obstacles that could stem up, such as physical distance, transportation costs, unfavourable immigration policies or quotas and language barriers, as well as proper information on or at destination areas. The system approach depicts the migration pattern as determined by important information from other migrants already settled to prospective migrants in rural areas and urban structures regarding acceptance, settlement, and adaptation (De Haas, 2021).

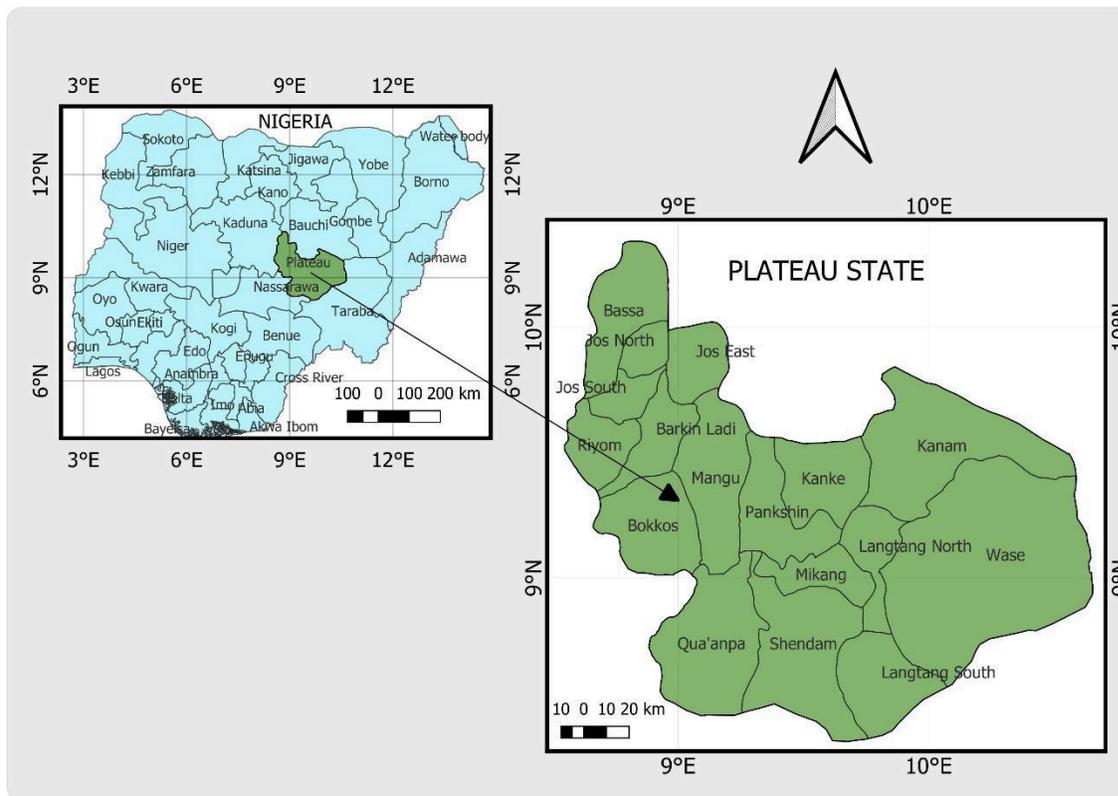
The adaptation theory was suitable for application since migrants adapt to the new environment's culture, values, customs and behaviour. Migrants' processes and extent of adaptation in the urban cities would be validated, and this must be considered based on ethnic, economic, and social class composition, which adapts a complex phenomenon. According to Lindstrom and Saucedo (2007), the pattern of learning and adaptation of modern practice varies with time, with less exposure and less interaction with the population in the new environment or location. The adaptation theory states that factors that influence rural migrants to the urban settlements have to do with individual backgrounds. Therefore, the adoption theory would show how migrants adapt to the environment (De Haas, 2021).

Moreover, understanding people migrating has not been based on relative disadvantage, as stated by the New Economic of Labour Migration Theory [NELM] (Gruine, 2017). It is a condition that has arisen due to money and, more importantly, to migrate outside unfavourable conditions. Nonetheless, the decision-making activity outperforms the NELM household migration choice model. Most migrants preconceived migration by negotiating with various persons and local institutions, allowing them to overcome financial and non-financial resource obstacles before and after moving (Gruine, 2017). A comparative approach to migration as such will aid in recognizing the social, institutional, and labour regime specificities of each sending area in Nigeria. However, comparative surveys benefit from reducing methodological nationalism (Ariza, 2014). Second, emigration patterns influence how internal migrants labour in a transnational setting. Transnational migration contribution is evaluated in this research to interrogate intra-national variations in mobility flows. All the theories have sequential impacts on the paradigm shift of rural-urban migration.

## **2. MATERIALS AND METHODS**

The research is a historical narrative on the development of rural-urban migration based on recent articles, publications, and archival documents, which were scrutinized, as well as other relevant materials to build up the paradigm shift in rural-urban migration in the study region. Thus, the study covered the transitional shift in migration, the historical shift from the pre-colonial to the modern era in rural-urban migration in Africa, the general migration pattern, and the existing pattern in the Plateau State of North-central Nigeria. The Plateau State lies approximately between latitude 8°24' North and 10°30' North and longitude 8°32' East and 10°38' East (see figure 1). These coordinates place it within the tropical climatic zone of Nigeria, characterized by distinct wet and dry seasons. Its central location within the country contributes

to its historical and cultural significance, as it serves as a meeting point for various ethnic groups and trading routes.



**Figure 1: Map of Nigeria showing Plateau State**

### 3. PARADIGM SHIFT OF MIGRATION

Recent literature has underlined that migrants' transnationality was majorly influenced by urban development and the role of social networks and governmental actions in mobilizing these resources (Schapendonk, 2020). In an interdependent society, the frequency and numbers of human movements are relatively high and ever-changing since these also affect the diverse interplay of cultures and norms across place and time. However, the term paradigm shift was not used in the early movement of people but rather in the movement of products and services across national borders (Sofinska, 2022). Nonetheless, significant changes in technology, social, economic, and political coliseum have improved the conception of the paradigm shift in migration (Kjaer, 2022). Modern communication technology has revolutionized migrants' communication capacity with their locals (Sofinska, 2022). Significantly, migrants' connections may be maintained and enhanced by regular and increased opportunities for individuals to develop various types of co-presence (De Haas, 2021). Migrants' transnational grid is economically linked to the growth of migrant source areas through investment, permits, and high revenue generation for local producers and service providers (Hugo, 2012; De Haas, 2021). The migrant's grid is a network of cultural, social, and political acquaintances (Faist, 2010). The social web assigns duties, reciprocity, and solidarity by migrants and groups of local origin to ensure the continuation of participation, with knowledge and understanding of historical development necessitated migration over time (Liu & Kong, 2022).

### **3.1 Trends of Paradigm Shift Historically**

The European colonization of the African continent altered the parameters of travel in West Africa along solely commoditized principles (Kanu, 2019). These have been entrenched after independence because African economies have not broken free from colonial restraints and continue to feed the urban centres of Europe and America via international communication. Internationalisation has given way to globalisation, which has far-reaching repercussions for commodity, capital, and people flows (Cheng & Varadharajam, 2021).

### **3.2 Migration trend during the Pre-colonial Period**

Nigerian History of migration may be traced to the era of the slave trade between 1400 - 1900, during which approximately 12 million slaves were sold to European Colonies in the Americas (Aremu, 2014) from certain parts of African countries. Nigeria, from which about 2 million forced labour migrants were lost (Aremu, 2014). Furthermore, intraregional migration occurred across national borders during this age to re-establish the balance of nature and the quest for fresh territory aimed at safe habitation and fertility for agricultural productivity (Adeofe, 2017). The Migration of commerce-related activities between Nigeria and the Gold Coast (Ghana) was also prevalent throughout this time, including males and females. West Africa has long been seen as an economic entity allowing the free movement of people, commodities, and services (Schwemmer et al., 2023).

### **3.3 Migration Trend during the Colonial Era**

Migration occurred mainly in pre-colonial periods in quest of security and new areas safe for habitation and agriculture. By introducing and enforcing different combinations of political and economic institutions, imposing tax regimes, and creating territorial boundaries, colonial rule affected the motive and character of migration (Odoemene, 2016). From the sixteenth century onwards, growing European mercantilist trade and establishing forts along the West African coast hurt trans-Saharan trade. They were associated with the slave trade, which resulted in the forced displacement of millions of people from Africa to Europe, North America, and the Caribbean between the mid-sixteenth and early nineteenth centuries (Schwemmer et al, 2023). Odoemene (2016) argues that the growth of cities such as Lagos, Kano, Ibadan, and Jos and developments in rail and road construction and other infrastructure works triggered significant rural-rural migration of farm workers and rural-urban migration of skilled and unskilled workers, traders, and students. Infrastructure projects in colonial cities, the imposition of taxes (Odoemene, 2016), and the recruitment of organized labour (Adesola & Olabiyi, 2023) have all been cited as important reasons stimulating migration from non-wage, rural subsistence economies to the urban and rural wage sectors. Transportation advancements also aided labour movement by lowering the distance and risks of voyages, which had previously restricted long-distance migration (Adesola & Olabiyi, 2023). These changes fuelled and transformed large-scale population migrations, resulting in male-dominated, seasonal, and cross-border migration, which later became institutionalized (Odimegwu & Adewoyin, 2020).

The entrance of the British during the mid-nineteenth century established the foundation for the intra regional labour movement on a considerable scale (Egomu et al., 2024). They introduced export-oriented political and economic policies into the nation, radically altering the face of migration and, particularly, intraregional labour mobility in Nigeria. To continue the colonial agenda, fresh resource-rich regions in Northern Nigeria (groundnuts and tin) and Southern Nigeria (cocoa, kola nuts, rubber, and coal) were disclosed (Usman, 2022). The necessity for labour to continue the production of these resources drove individuals to migrate from rural-to-rural areas to work as migrant domestic workers, agricultural labourers, mineworkers, or

migrant merchants (Ikuteyijo, 2020). Colonial political and economic policies resulted in disparity in the distribution of socioeconomic services and infrastructure, tilted toward regions with political and economic relevance to the colonial masters (Egomu et al., 2024). As a result, rural regions were deserted and virtually forsaken. This resulted in the significant rural-urban labour movement prevalent at that period (Udo, 1975). The increase of cash crops to enhance foreign exchange essential for the developmental goals amplified intra regional labour currents to export crop production regions, such as the southwestern Nigeria cocoa belts and eastern Nigeria palm oil production. Persuasion and compulsion were used to recruit labour; intraregional labour movement occurred between three Nigerian regions (Usman, 2022), resulting in increased rural-rural mobility of farmers to the migrant tenants and migrants to the Enugutin and coal mines as well as the Jos Plateau, correspondingly. Migrant traders were also included in this mobility, as products and services were traded across three Nigerian regions. The things traded and the direction of their commerce shifted from homemade to imported goods, especially in a south-north and north-south route (Udo, 1975; Ikuteyijo, 2020).

The yearly migration of nomads observed in the pre-colonial era persisted, except for moves to feasible areas in the south. According to research on internal Labour migration, migrant labourers from various parts of a nation, particularly rural regions, moved into the local headquarters, administrative and market centres in Plateau, Lagos, Kano, Zaria, Enugu, Ibadan, Sokoto, and Kaduna, among many others, in search of business opportunities as well as profitable employment (Aremu, 2014; Ikuteyijo, 2020; Udo, 1975; Usman, 2020). According to Hinbarren (2022), there was a considerable inflow of foreigners into Kano and its environs between 1914 and 1922. Furthermore, Adesofe (2017) noted that migrant labourers travelled to sites and regions engaged in constructing Nigerian rail lines in the 1900s. Many exiles from Nigeria were drawn by the success of returnees, assuming that riches were earned more easily outside their hometowns than within their hometowns, and, with time, as spouses move to join their partners (Aremu, 2016).

### **3.4 Migration Trend during the Post-Colonial Era**

During the post-colonial era, the free labour movement for wage employment emerged, weaving a complex grid of linkages and interdependencies across the artificial borders inherited from colonialism (Craggs & Naate, 2017). South-South and South-North migrations developed concurrently in the early 1960s. During the colonial period, the opening up of resource-rich West Africa and the restriction of the capacities of impoverished areas formed the underlying geographical logic for the subsequent labour movement (Adepoju, 2023). The introduction of cash crops to provide the foreign money required for the new developmental goals increased labour flows to colonial destinations such as Nigeria cocoa belts. As a result of the oil boom, Nigeria became a significant migration-receiving nation in the early 1970s. Oil profits boosted several areas of the Nigerian economy, and the need for experts and low-skilled Labour skyrocketed overnight. Rising urban middle-class salaries, massive state investments, and fast industrialisation drew many West African labour migrants (van Hear, 2021).

Following independence in the early 1970s, Nigeria's relatively stable and affluent economy drew a vast number of intraregional Labour migrants and Labour migrants from other ECOWAS nations such as Togo, Guinea, Cote d'Ivoire, Burkina Faso, Niger, and Mali. The well-known mining and cash crop production clusters, regional administrative cities such as Enugu, Kaduna, and Ibadan, as well as major commercial centres and sea ports such as Lagos, Port Harcourt, Calabar, and Warri, were attracting factors to these Labour migrants as a vast opportunity for employment (Zibima et al., 2024). Flight and/or deportation halted substantial immigration into

the nation. Furthermore, the economy was not always the driving factor for human mobility; ethnic conflicts and civil war have prompted the relocation of subgroups from their destination back to their origins. The Biafra War of 1967-1970 resulted in the most significant disruption and displacement of various ethnic groups across the country, from the north to the south-eastern and southern regions. Furthermore, for some of those displaced during and after the Biafra conflict, the choice was to flee the nation to the Republic of Benin and the offshore islands of Sao Tome and Principe (Omitola, 2024). Moreover, once the Protocol on the Free Movement of Goods, Capital, and People was adopted in 1980, the immigration of ECOWAS citizens into Nigeria took on a new dimension. This practically corresponded with economic buoyancy in Nigeria, during which many ECOWAS nationals relocated to Nigeria. However, this movement was temporary owing to a dramatic drop in the oil rates. As a result, numerous ECOWAS citizens who had overstayed their 90-day grace period without a residency visa were removed from the country in January/February 1983 and April/June 1985 (Amare, 2021).

### **3.5 Trend in the Modern Era of Migration**

Recent migratory patterns and their underlying motivations are modelled along the new globalisation dynamics that are reshaping economies worldwide. In the late 1960s and early 1970s, deteriorating socioeconomic conditions and growing poverty prompted various movement scenarios. Macroeconomic adjustment efforts and a significant rise in the number of new entrants into the labour market have fuelled an employment crisis, putting a persistent strain on emigration. This has impacted brain circulation, which is considered to be in African countries. Since the 1970s, highly qualified migrants such as physicians, paramedics, nurses, teachers, lecturers, engineers, scientists, and technicians have migrated from Ghana to Nigeria to other African nations, Europe, and North America, lured by greater wages and better living conditions (Aremu, 2014).

## **4. DYNAMISM OF RURAL-URBAN MIGRATION PARADIGM SHIFT**

Rural-urban migration is a significant trend of migrant movement, which means that more individuals are abandoning farms and other rural economic engagements in quest of work in the towns and metropolises (Fayomi & Ehiagwina, 2019). A fundamental change in the character of rural-urban migration is that it has shifted from being circular and dominated by males to one that has grown more permanent and involves a more significant number of family units (Riddell, 1980). The movement of people across country borders has a substantial impact as those who are poor and economically better off migrate. It also indicates that money is not the main reason people migrate, but it reveals that economic migration amounts to a significant majority (Goldring & Landolt, 2014). More so, other factors of pull migration other than poverty should be given closer attention. Unfortunately, factors related to migration have not been given due consideration in this study. Moreover, comparable empirical data on the intra-national differences that determine migratory flows are scarce, and many of the characteristics and trends in these variations remain unknown. This is also true in the migration literature (Goldring & Landolt, 2014; Rivera-Sánchez & Lozano-Ascencio, 2014).

### **4.1 Paradigm Shift of Pattern of Migration**

Migration is a broad term that describes all kinds of movement of people from one place to another (Haider, 2010), where the change from a place of origin to a place of destination is either permanent or temporary (Haider, 2010). The movement could occur within or beyond a particular geographical boundary of a country or political territory. According to Baas and Yeoh (2019), migration is an act of people's movement to an overseas country for a certain period and with an explicit purpose. It is a social process conditioned by changes in the structure of the

economy and that of society. Internal migration has focused on permanent migration primarily because official statistics focus on permanent relocation. Micro-studies or village-level studies better capture a wide range of possibilities between commuting, very short-term, seasonal, long-term, and permanent migration (Baas & Yeoh, 2019). Poor people generally move shorter distances because of limited resources, skills, networks and market intelligence. Green (2018) showed that mobility patterns are highly differentiated according to levels of income and the size and type of settlement in which they reside. There is plenty of evidence of increasing temporary movements. In China, temporary migrants, many of whom comprise the ‘floating population’ outnumber registered migrants by approximately 4 to 1 (Liang et al., 2014). In Southeast Asia, temporary migration is increasingly important, particularly in movement to large cities (Liang et al., 2014). In Thailand, temporary moves, which include both seasonal and other forms of short-term moves, have been estimated to account for one-third of all migration within one month or more. Similar trends have been noted in Indonesia in various studies by Hugo. “Migrant(s)”, “rural migrant(s)”, and “rural-urban migrant(s)” are used interchangeably to refer to people who have migrated from rural areas (Liang et al., 2014). The migrant population has become permanent urban residents, and for this duality in cities to be ended, migrants become integrated as settled city residents (Hugo et al., 2009). However, Hugo, (2009) has indicated that policy toward circular migration would have greater dividends for economic development and poverty reduction in Asian urban areas.

However, one of the ‘truisms’ of migration research is that ‘There is nothing as permanent as temporary migrants (Adepoju, 2023). This is based on the belief that all temporary migrants see their current non-permanent status as a preliminary stage before settling permanently in their destination. Robertson (2014) implies that occupation types and durations influence the migration pattern, whether permanent, temporal or seasonal. Mainly, National censuses and other occupational surveys concentrate on full-time and legal occupations, with less record of part-time and seasonal occupations in the informal sector. In contrast, several village studies show that mobility has increased massively, especially short-term migration and commuting (Farrell, 2018). Akpuokwe et al. (2024) observe that more than 500,000 tribal, Muslim and lower caste people migrate seasonally from five districts in West Bengal to the rice-growing areas of the state, which can also be made either permanently or temporarily.

Temporary migration is often used interchangeably with circular, seasonal, short-term and spontaneous migration since important groups of temporary migrants consist of seasonal migrants, who combine activity at several places according to seasonal labour requirements (Keshri & Bhagat, 2010). Temporary migration has increased substantially in the last two decades in the south, south-east and East Asia (Farrell, 2018). As prevailing regional inequalities and uneven development in many countries impel temporary internal migration from agriculturally backwards and poor rural areas. It is proven that temporary migration is one of the most significant livelihood strategies adopted by the poorest sections in rural communities, primarily in seasonal labour mobility (Baas & Yeoh, 2019; Green, 2020). Though such migration can be taken as a sign of dynamism, it has more to do with increasing inequalities, agrarian instability and inadequate livelihood generation in many parts of rural and urban India (Ikwuyatum, 2016).

Temporary and Seasonal migration has long been a vital income diversification and risk-coping strategy in many agriculture-based economies in the developing world (Aremu, 2014). In places where access to non-agricultural employment is limited, or climate (or technology) prevents continuous cultivation, seasonal migration is often the key to a household’s income during the

agricultural lean season (Akpuokwe et al., 2024). It is not only an important form of labour mobility in a country with an increasing shift of the labour force from agriculture to industry and the tertiary sector (Ikwuyatum, 2016), but also critical to the livelihoods of socially deprived groups, especially tribal people and those from rural areas who lack employment at their place of origin. Seasonal migration from Northern Ghana and elsewhere thus serves important functions: it makes amends for the lack of employment opportunities during the dry season, reduces the drain on household food stocks, reduces seasonal income variability, and is a means to increase food security via remittances in cash and in kind (Odoemene, 2016). ‘Requiring income-earning opportunities that are not synchronized with the household’s own’ while seasonal migration allows returned migrants to contribute to domestic food production (Van der Geest, 2011).

Timing and seasonality are essential for migration (Rademacher-Schulz et al., 2013); thus, seasonal internal migration in West Africa has sustained its important role in movement patterns since early colonial times. According to the Internal Migration Survey conducted in Nigeria (2010), internal migration concerns the spatial movements of migrants and returning migrants within a country, as the case may be in Nigeria, where Seven out of the 36 states have above two-fifths of their total population as internal migrants. Rural-rural migration is a characteristic, ancient pattern in Africa and has historically tended to be unproblematic because of the continent's overall low population. Demographic growth and the increasing value of access to land have ensured that this is no longer the case. Expanding populations, such as Tiv yam producers, make the newspapers all too often as they clash with local farmers in Taraba and Benue States. Settled Fulani agropastoral, including some who have been residents for a century, are being expelled from their land and violent conflicts of this type are an everyday occurrence (Adeniyi & Onyeukwu, 2021).

Urban residents attempting to settle back in rural areas often clash with community members when trying to reclaim the land. In principle, Nigeria is still not overpopulated compared with many Asian countries, but a failure to intensify farming systems has meant that land is under pressure in many areas (Liang et al., 2014). Another aspect of rural-rural migration that has become significantly less important in recent years is seasonal migration for work on plantations (Adeniyi & Onyeukwu, 2021). Cocoa, oil palm, rubber in the south, and cotton and groundnuts in the north are all used to attract significant amounts of circulatory labour. The flow was particularly from northern areas with marked rainy seasons to areas where tree crops could be worked on in the dry season via paid labour or share-cropping basis. The spread of oil wealth disrupted these patterns, and many Nigerian plantations and semi-arid zone crops are in disarray (Baas & Yeoh, 2019).

Rural-urban migration is probably the most distinctive migration pattern in West Africa and throughout much of the developing world. Nigeria has some of the largest cities in Africa, and although they may have ‘traditional’ cores, their present size is entirely a phenomenon of the twentieth century. The Nigerian migration was initially described as irregular, but over time, a pattern emerged due to conflicts, natural disasters, herder’s crashes, development, and government political crises (Adepoju, 2022). This could be due to the incentive received by those who remain in the area from those who have departed. This cannot be said in the same way for other parts of Nigeria, such as western Nigeria, underscoring that the causes and processes of migration in Nigeria varied due to various driving forces. There is indeed heterogeneity in the characteristics of response conditions. Similarly, time and temporalities are essential in discussing broad migration trends, dichotomies, and the migrant's life history. Changes or

transitions of an undocumented immigrant are a factor of time because they allow migrants to have a legal place of residence.

Historically, migration was largely confined to pastoral and fishing migration and the expansion of farmers practising shifting cultivation. In the north, seasonal movement was associated with specific trades such as entertainers, musicians, potters, weavers and dyers. Rural-urban migration was negligible; pre-colonial cities were small (Adepoju, 2023). The coming of colonialism created a rapid change; transport infrastructure improved, and many industries opened up, creating demand for seasonal or permanent labour. The railways were an important factor in this; as soon as a north-south line was opened, traders began using it to move such high-value goods as cola nuts. Tin mining on the Jos Plateau (Grove, 1952; Morgan, 1979) is a good example of the permanent change wrought by industry; young men from communities all over the Plateau worked in the mines and began to exchange earned cash for consumer goods and to establish links with the city.

#### **4.2 A paradigm shift in the pattern of Rural-Urban Migration in Plateau state**

The Jos Plateau attracted pastoralists in the nineteenth century when its human population was relatively sparse. The discovery of tin and the subsequent growth of Jos inevitably brought a significant expansion of the farming population, and all but very marginal land was brought into cultivation (Shitu, 2014). Colonial officials noted farmer-grazier conflict on the Plateau as early as the 1940s. However, the low disease environment and wide grasslands of the Plateau were too attractive to pastoralists, and many began to settle and integrate with local communities. Most indigenous Plateau populations formerly depended on upland rain-fed cultivation. However, once dry-season gardening began to take off, farms increasingly took over the river edges that had provided lush grazing; pastoralists came to river banks previously covered in grass to find tomatoes (NPC, 2020). Young men herded their cattle between upland cereal fields, and the cattle strayed into the crops. Moreover, the tubers and vegetables mainly grown there did not provide attractive residues for cattle, and the farmers increasingly preferred fertiliser (Adeniyi & Onyeukwu, 2021).

Plateau State rural migrants are mostly involved in temporary migration patterns in all the urban city centres, especially Bukuru urban centre, Mangu urban centre and Jo's urban centre (Nnabuihe, 2016). Temporary labour migration is predominantly determined based on individual characteristics among the broad group of the underclass or the socio-economically deprived, which includes the poorest of the poor, the landless, illiterates or those with a very low level of education and the Muslims. Studies indicate that the migration pattern was compared with socio-demographic characteristics, with males still having the highest seasonal, temporary and permanent patterns of rural movement to urban centres within the ages of 21-30, which are highly involved in the pattern of rural migration with temporary movement patterns. The temporal pattern of movement surpasses the rest of the movement pattern to the urban centre of Plateau state. According to Adepoju (2023) the rural-urban temporal migration pattern is temporal in the geopolitical zone of the North-central region. Migrants aspire for higher qualifications to urban centres for opportunities that might come their way or force them to migrate to another location. These are the reasons for most migrants' movement on a temporal basis from rural areas. The distribution of the socio-demographic characteristics according to the pattern showed that young people preferred temporary migration patterns with male dominance for social and financial security.

## 5. CONCLUSIONS

The continuous movement of people is inevitable for as long as the place and purpose for movement exist. Prevailing regional inequalities, uneven development, agrarian instability, and inadequate livelihood generation set the pace for consistent migration patterns. The need to adopt strategies for income generation and diversification and risk-coping methods for sustainable livelihood has continuously influenced the pattern shift in migration. The temporary pattern of migration has proved to be a significant coping strategy, hence the result of the study where the temporary pattern of migration was predominant amongst migrants compared to seasonal or permanent. However, seasonal migration was sometimes evidenced in temporary movement. Nevertheless, most temporary migrants regard their non-permanent status as a preliminary stage for achieving their goals.

## 6. RECOMMENDATIONS

Based on a review of the literature on the paradigm shift of rural-urban migration in Plateau State, the following recommendations are proposed to address challenges and leverage opportunities arising from this paradigm shift:

There is an urgent need to strengthen rural development initiatives to address push factors of migration. A significant driver of rural-urban migration is rural areas' lack of infrastructure and economic opportunities. Comprehensive rural development programs that provide these essentials can reduce migration compulsion. Policymakers should focus on diversifying the rural economy through agricultural modernization and non-agricultural ventures. Agriculture remains the primary occupation for most rural residents in Plateau State, yet it is plagued by low productivity, limited market access, and lack of mechanization. By introducing modern agricultural technologies, providing subsidies for inputs, and facilitating access to markets, rural communities can experience economic growth. Enhancing the capacity of urban centres to absorb migration sustainably. As rural-urban migration continues, urban centres in Plateau State face increased pressure on housing, healthcare, transportation, and employment. Urban planning must prioritize affordable housing development, efficient public transport systems, and adequate social amenities to accommodate the growing urban population. Governments should focus on building resilient social safety nets for rural and urban communities affected by migration. Migration often results in the fragmentation of families and communities, leaving behind vulnerable groups such as children and the elderly in rural areas. Social protection programs, such as conditional cash transfers, health insurance, and pension schemes, can support those left behind and reduce the socio-economic strain caused by migration.

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