LABOUR MIGRATION AND LIVELIHOOD DEVELOPMENT IN SELECTED TOWNS IN KWARA STATE, NIGERIA

By

LAWAL, Moshood Oseiza
B.Sc., M.Sc. Geography (Ilorin)
(96/044915)

Department of Geography and Environmental Management,
Faculty of Social Sciences,
University of Ilorin,
Ilorin, Nigeria.

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LAWAL, Moshood Oseiza
B.Sc., M.Sc. (Geography), (Ilorin)
(96/044915)

Certification

This is to certify that the thesis titled Labour Migration and Livelihood Development in Selected Towns of Kwara State by Lawal Moshood Oseiza with (Matriculation Number 96/044915) meets the regulations governing the award of the Degree of Doctor of Philosophy (Ph.D) in Geography of University of Ilorin and it is approved for its contribution to scientific knowledge and literary presentation.

Dr. U.A. Raheem **…….**
Head of Department **Signature and Date**

Prof. R.A. Olawepo **…….**
Supervisor **Signature and Date**

Internal Examiner **…….**
Signature and Date

External Examiner **…….**
Signature and Date

Dedication

This Thesis is dedicated to the memory of my late father, Mallam Sule Lawal and my late brothers, Aliyu and Kadiri Lawal, may their souls Rest in Perfect Peace.

ABSTRACT

Labour migration has long been an important livelihood strategy for most people in search of jobs and livelihood sustenance. The increase in the trend of labour migration in Nigeria in the last few decades and its attendant challenges has necessitated this study. The aim of this study was to examine the impact of labour migration on livelihood development in selected towns of Kwara State, Nigeria. The objectives were to: (i) assess the pattern of labour migration in the study area; (ii) examine the pattern of livelihood development; (iii) examine factors affecting labour migration and livelihood development; (iv) assess the impact of labour migration on the standard of living of the migrants; and (v) examine the relationships between labour migration and livelihood development.

Systematic random sampling technique was used to select 530 heads of household in 18 randomly selected medium-sized towns in nine out of the sixteen Local Government Areas of Kwara State using questionnaire administration. Factor analysis was used to depict pattern differentiation of labour migration and livelihood development. Canonical correlation analysis was used to examine the relationship between labour migration and livelihood development. Stepwise multiple regression analysis was used to determine factors affecting labour migration and livelihood development at 0.05 level.

The findings of the study were that:

i. the factor analysis procedure reduced the 14 labour migration variables to five orthogonal factors namely: skills acquisition index (33.2%), age and social issues index (16.8%), education and locational attraction index (13.8%), income enhancement index (8.3%) and retirement policy index (7.9%), suggesting redundancy in other variables;
ii. the 18 livelihood development variables were reduced to four orthogonal factors namely: family enhancement index (50.5%), income enhancement index (12.6%), wealth index (9.2%) and asset enhancement index (7.0%);
iii. the stepwise multiple regression method showed that age, education, skill experience, security- social problems and improved income together explained 63.7% of the variance in labour migration, while average income, earning above minimum wage, earning below minimum wage and family asset together explained 79.1% of the variance in the explanation of livelihood development;
iv. there were significant impact on the livelihood of respondents after migration. Migrants earning below N10,000 decreased by 16.8% after migrating, while those earning N10,000 and above increased by 16.9%; and
v. results of canonical correlation analysis showed that strong association exists between labour migration and livelihood development. Skills acquisition (0.92), family enhancement index (0.54), average monthly income index (0.55) and asset enhancements index (0.54) strongly correlated. Education and locational attraction (0.84) strongly correlated with family enhancement index (0.84). Income enhancement (0.78), wealth index (0.72) and improved income index (0.64) are strongly correlated. While, retirement and government policy (0.80) correlated highly with wealth index (0.62) and asset enhancement index (0.72).

The study concluded that significant relationship exists between labour migration and livelihood development in Kwara State thereby encouraging intensive labour migration. The study recommended the establishment of entrepreneurial skills centers for community development to improve earning capacities of migrants.

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CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

1.1 Background to the Study

Migration, according to Ekong (2003), is the movement of people from one geographical location to another either on a temporary or permanent basis. Labour migration therefore, refers to the movement of labour from one geographical location to another temporarily or permanently, (Ofuoku and Chukwuji, 2012). Labour migration has long been viewed as an important economic development. However, in recent times, increasing attention is being paid to the role of migration in the repertoire of livelihood strategies of the poor, (Sasikumar & Varma, 2005). While earlier economic theories tend to view labour migration largely as one off strategy, there is more emphasis now laid on the dynamic nature of the migration process and the ways in which the migration process adapt to rapidly changing economic scenario. The shifts of focus allow us to understand the persistence of labour migration and its continuing significance in the lives of the poor. The importance of labour migration has long been recognized as key to obtaining economic integration and advancement across the Economic Community of West African States (ECOWAS). In the same vein, labour migration is seen to pose a number of challenges for Africa, raising concerns over skills drain, discrimination and social exclusion. Past studies have shown that labour migration is often embarked upon because of lack of opportunities for decent work or their inability to secure one in their country of origin; other factors compelling it may include violation of human rights, bad governance, political intolerance and wars. When properly managed,

labour migration has far-reaching potentials for the migrants, their communities, the countries of origin and destination, and for employers, (IOM, 2011). Others have also viewed it as avenue for brain drain and the resultant skills gap because of the movement and loss of trained personnel from one origin or country to another seeking better offer (Anekwe, 2003), (Lawal, 2012).

Livelihood on the other hand, comprises the capabilities, assets (stores, resources, claims and access) and activities required for a means of living: a livelihood is sustainable if it can cope with and recover from stress and shocks, maintain or enhance its capabilities and assets, and provide sustainable livelihood opportunities for the next generation; and which contributes net benefits to other livelihoods at the local and global levels and in the short and long term, (Chambers & Conway, 1992). Livelihood development can also be described as standard of living. Standard of living refers to the level of wealth, comfort, material goods and necessities available to a certain socioeconomic class in a certain geographic area. The determinant of standard of living include factors such as income, quality and availability of employment, class disparity, poverty rate, quality and affordability of housing, hours of work required to purchase necessities, gross domestic product and inflation rate, (Chambers & Conway, 1992).

In Nigeria, labour migration has long been an important livelihood strategy for most people, the able-bodied have often migrated to other places in search of jobs and other good things of life. Whenever the population rose to such an extent that people could no longer secure a decent livelihood, they migrated. These days, both the poor and average people engage in migration as a livelihood strategy. Choice of destination and levels of benefits and risks

however vary significantly, according to the economic and social power of the migrant, (Tansneem, 2003). Understanding poverty and poor people's livelihoods, sustainable or not, has become an important focus in international development literature and policy debates, (Waddington, 2003). A livelihood approach understands poverty as more than just insufficient income. The Sustainable Livelihoods approach favoured by the Department for International Development (DFID) defines livelihoods as 'the capabilities, assets (including both material and social resources) and activities required for a means of living', (Carney, 1998). Meanwhile, broader understanding of livelihood stresses the active seeking of livelihood as 'the tactical and strategic behaviour of impoverished people', (Whitehead, 2002), such that livelihoods are 'the diverse ways in which people make a living and build their worlds', (Whitehead, 2002). Sustainable livelihood can be seen as a way of thinking about the objectives, scope and priorities for development, in order to enhance progress in poverty elimination. Labour migration has therefore become a key feature in enabling industrialized countries to meet economic, labour market and productivity challenges in a globalized economy, (Baruah and Cholewinski, 2006).

Labour migration can serve as an engine of growth and development for all parties involved. In destination areas/countries, labour migration has rejuvenated workforces, improved the economic viabilities of traditional sectors including agriculture and services, promoted entrepreneurship, met demand for skills for high tech industries as well as unmet labour needs. In regions of origin, positive contributions of migrant workers are reflected in remittance flows, transfer of investments, increased technology and critical skills through return migration as well as increase international business and trade generated by transnational communities and thereby boosting livelihood. Migration related changes in

culture and the structure of social life depends on the particulars of each community and evolve as international migration in folds, sometimes at an astonishing pace. In many parts of the world, especially in rural areas, rural life is no longer synonymous with agriculture. Employment in the countryside is less linked to farming as structural adjustment has led to policies that have strangled the peasant economy, making it economically impossible for small farmers to produce sufficient crops for the national market, (Andrade-Eekhoff, 2006).

Labour Migration is not a recent human phenomenon. Over time, human beings have moved and established settlements in stratified socio-economic and geo-political compositions called either 'rural' or 'urban'. Given the significant disparities that have emerged between and within rural and urban settlements, migration phenomenon should be strategically used for development and solving spatial problems that have emerged out of population pressures, to handle or balance resource demand, availability and management. According to the World Bank (2006), wage levels in high-income countries are approximately five times of those in low-income countries for similar occupations, generating an enormous incentive to emigrate. Migrant workers around the world often cite the ability to pay for the education of their younger siblings, to provide a home or buy land for their parents, and to provide the basic necessities for their families as their reasons for migrating. Others are lured by the prospect of a higher standard of living, fueled by the image of prosperity in the Global North seen on television and movies that are now readily available around the world, (World Bank, 2006).

Labour migration has been on the increase in the last twenty years as some Nigerians move out en masse in search of good jobs and greener pastures. Hamidou and Boubacar, (2006)

stated that officially, there are about 4,434 Nigerians in Burkina Faso in 1996 and 144 in Cape Verde in 2000, the number could be doubled if not tripled as majority of the migrants may not have been captured in their official records. As a matter of fact, many Nigerians are living in Ghana, Libya, Togo, Gambia, and Cote d 'Ivoire to mention a few, the crisis in Nigeria's countryside centers essentially on productivity, food shortages, particularly for the urban dwellers, and dwindling per capita income which no doubt, manifest a serious crisis of poverty, apathy and despair within the rural communities.

Udo, (1976) in another study, described migration as the movement over space which results in a permanent or semi-permanent change of residence. It is a constant phenomenon arising from differentials in both economic and survival opportunities between two locations (Adepoju, (1986); Ridell (1980); Jones (1980). The causes and consequences of migration waves have been a subject of geographical enquiry and available facts showed that push-pull factors are the major determinants of migration. Among all forms of migration, rural out-migration is the most researched owing to obvious polarization of developmental resources between rural and urban centres. In small villages, the situation is greatly different. Most of the people living in the remote villages are migrating to the larger cities in search of white-collar jobs despite their qualifications. Migration in search of employment is not a new phenomenon. In the era of globalization, workers are moving in unprecedented numbers from rural to urban areas, from poorer to richer countries within a region, and from developing to developed countries around the world (Slackman and Lyle, 2008). The International Labour Organisation (ILO, 2004) estimates the population of migrant workers at more than 86 million with nearly half of migrants from developing countries residing in other developing countries. Experts agree that the growing number of migrant workers is a

trend that will most likely accelerate through-out the twenty first century. However, the thrust of this research work is to examine the impact of labour migration on livelihood development in selected towns of Kwara State.

1.2 Statement of the Research Problem

A large proportion of the people live in the rural areas and their main source of livelihood is agriculture. Labour is the single most important factor in determining national income. Poverty is the main obstacle for the development of any country, but it is a very grave phenomenon where a section of society is unable to fulfill the basic necessities of life like bread, cloth, house and education. In rural areas, people do not get employment, their main livelihood is mostly agriculture and in some cases seasonal employment in agriculture, that is why workers face a lot of problems and often decide to migrate, Ritesh (2012). Labour Migration in Nigeria has been variously studied by researchers in different fields and locations with different results and outcomes. However, the dynamics of studies varied as data on migration in Nigeria are derived from three broad sources namely: government sponsored surveys; sample surveys by institutions and individuals and indirect information from censuses. The study of labour migration in Sokoto province during 1952/53, and the Rural Demographic Sample Survey during 1965/66 belong to the first category. Mabogunje, (1970), McCain (1972) and Green (1974) among others, have utilized the 1952/53 and 1963 censuses to examine migration patterns in Nigeria using regression and related statistical analyses. By far, the series of sample surveys conducted by Social Scientists/researchers from that period to the mid 1980s serve to some extent as the primary source of information on migration in Nigeria.

Sample surveys of migration took two forms: demographic surveys designed partly or specifically for the study of migration; and non-demographic surveys which include useful questions on migration. There are three variants of the first type: urban-based, rural- based surveys and 'tracer' studies in both rural and urban locations. Studies in the first group include Ejiogu's survey in Lagos in 1967-68; Adepoju's survey of Ife and Oshogbo in 1971-72; and Abeokuta in 1974; Ekanem and Adepoju's survey of Warri (1974), Ilorin and Calabar in 1975; Imoagene's study of Sapele 1976; Peil's study of Aba, Ajegunle and Abeokuta in 1972, Barnes' study of Lagos in 1972; Makinwa's study of Benin in 1977, among several others. These urban-based studies were conducted either in cities and much bigger towns. Sekar, (2008) believed that labour migration has an extensive demographic effect in changing population structure across a country.

The study of migrant tenant farmers of Southern Nigeria by Udo, (1966) focused on the pattern of productive activities, resource development, and interrelations between migrants and natives at the destination of rural migrants. As in the previous studies, no sampling procedure was used to select the 1,300 respondents as “the number of farmers interviewed were determined by the number of field assistants available during the time of the survey and the success of students in interviewing farmers” (Udo, 1975). However, the findings of the study were interesting: the author showed that migrants are particularly active in the exploitation of cash products sometimes neglected by the indigenes (Udo, 1972). Some more recent studies included that of Adebusoye (2006), Geographic labour mobility in Sub-Sahara Africa, Fasoranti (2006), Perception of rural-urban migration in selected rural communities in Ondo State etc. some of these studies have been carried out decades ago while the most recent ones are still a little over a decade, there is need to come to reality

with the current trend of events, besides, such works are not common in this part, especially Kwara State where this study was carried out. Hence, the need to update and improve on labour migration necessitated this research work, the result would be useful for many purposes. In view of these, the basic questions are:

i. Why do we have increase in labour migration?
ii. What are the factors affecting labour migration and livelihood development in the study area?
iii. How often do people migrate?
iv. What is the relationship between labour migration and livelihood development?
v. What are the patterns of labour migration and livelihood development?

The answers to these questions will go a long way in showing how labour migration affects livelihood in the study area. Specifically, answers to these questions will help to show the success or failure of the different policies of government, their implementations and other measures that can be taken to ameliorate and stem the tides of labour migration.

1.3 Aim and Objectives of the Study

The aim of this study is to examine the impact of labour migration on livelihood development in selected towns of Kwara State, this is with a view to determine the factors that contribute to labour migration and livelihood development in Kwara State. The specific objectives are to:

i. assess the pattern of labour migration in the study area;
ii. examine the pattern of livelihood development in the study area;
iii. determine factors affecting labour migration and livelihood development in the study area;
iv. assess the impact of labour migration on the standard of living of the migrants; and
v. examine the relationships between labour migration and livelihood development in the study area.

1.4 Significance of the Study

In Nigeria, the phenomenon of labour migration is closely linked to the lack of employment opportunities at home or place of origin, which drives many migrants to look for work elsewhere. People have been found to move from rural areas to urban areas and from developing countries to developed countries. One of the main factors that trigger this trend is that urban dwellers in the developing countries earn on average a per capital annual income as low as $200 compared to their counterparts that earn more than $20,000 in the most developed western world, (Wilson, 2001). It is important here to re-examine the contribution of migrants to the improvement of the homeland from which they migrated, that is, the issues of migration as a means of improving livelihoods.

Rapid urbanization in areas where governments are unable to meet the needs of growing urban population often result in poverty, unemployment, inadequate shelter, poor or non-existent sanitation, contaminated or depleted water supplies, air pollution and other forms of environmental degradation. In many areas, squatter settlements and haphazardly placed substandard housing, unsafe water and poor sanitation in densely populated cities are responsible for over 10 million deaths world-wide every year (UNDP, 2005). With reference to Nigeria, life expectancy at birth is 51.6 years, the Human Development Index for the relative part of year 2000s was 0.46, the Human Poverty Index was 35.1%, the proportion of the nation's population without sustainable access to an improved water source was over 38%, while the proportion of the population living below $1 per day was said to be 0.2%, the urban population was about 55.5%, while the per capital income was estimated at $328. Where hope for efficient mitigation measures does not exist, this could be an incentive for labour migration (Wilson, 2001, UNDP, 2005).

Labour migrants have been known and identified due to new information and communication technologies, as they are constantly in contact with friends and families they left behind. This has made it possible for migrants to maintain dual relationships, that is, maintaining close affiliations to both places of origin and destinations. Thus, labour migrants are now increasingly known as agents of development who can strengthen co-operation between home and host societies. They can contribute to development not only through remittances, investment and entrepreneurial activities, but also through the transfer of newly developed skills and knowledge. All of these have implications on livelihoods (Usher, 2005). It should be noted that labour migrants can now remit some of their earnings back to their home of origin while also transferring the skills they have acquired in order to impart on the people back in their home towns. It will be important here to know how labour migration contribute to sustainable livelihoods, as one of the three main strategists of household, as households are the appropriate unit of analysis of migration, however, the forms of households vary across time, space and socio-economic groups.

This study therefore, tends to identify the importance of labour migration on the sustenance of households and it is hoped that the findings will enable government at all levels to take the issue of labour migration seriously by fashioning out policies that will not only benefit the migrants, but their families, the government and the nation at large.

1.5 The Study Area

1.5.1 Location

Kwara State is situated between Latitude 8º 22’ N and 10º 23’ N, Longitude 3ºE and 6º E (See Figure 1.1). It was created in 1967, the State has an elongated shape running from west

to east and covering an area of about 32,500km². The State has River Niger as its natural boundary along its northern and eastern margins and shares common internal boundary with Niger State to the North, Kogi and Ekiti States to the East, Osun and Oyo States to the South and an International boundary with the Republic of Benin in the West (National Population Commission NPC, 2006). It is a midland or gateway state linking the south to the north.

1.5.2 Population

According to the 2006 National Population Census, Kwara State population was put at about 2,371,089 people with male having 1,229,581and female having 1,150,508 respectively (FGN, 2007, Tunde, 2012), compared to the 1991 population census which put the population of Kwara State at 1,150,712 people with 773,182 males and 775230 females. This shows that there has been sharp increase of almost 50% in population growth within fifteen years. The State has sixteen Local Government Areas, these are: Asa, Baruten, Edu, Ekiti, Ifelodun, Ilorin East, Ilorin South, Ilorin West, Irepodun, Isin, Kaiama, Moro, Offa, Oke-Ero, Oyun and Pategi Local Government Areas respectively (See Figure 1.1). The State is also sub-divided into 46 districts with an average density of 48 persons per sq. km., this made it one of the sparsely populated states in Nigeria (Oyebanji, 2000).

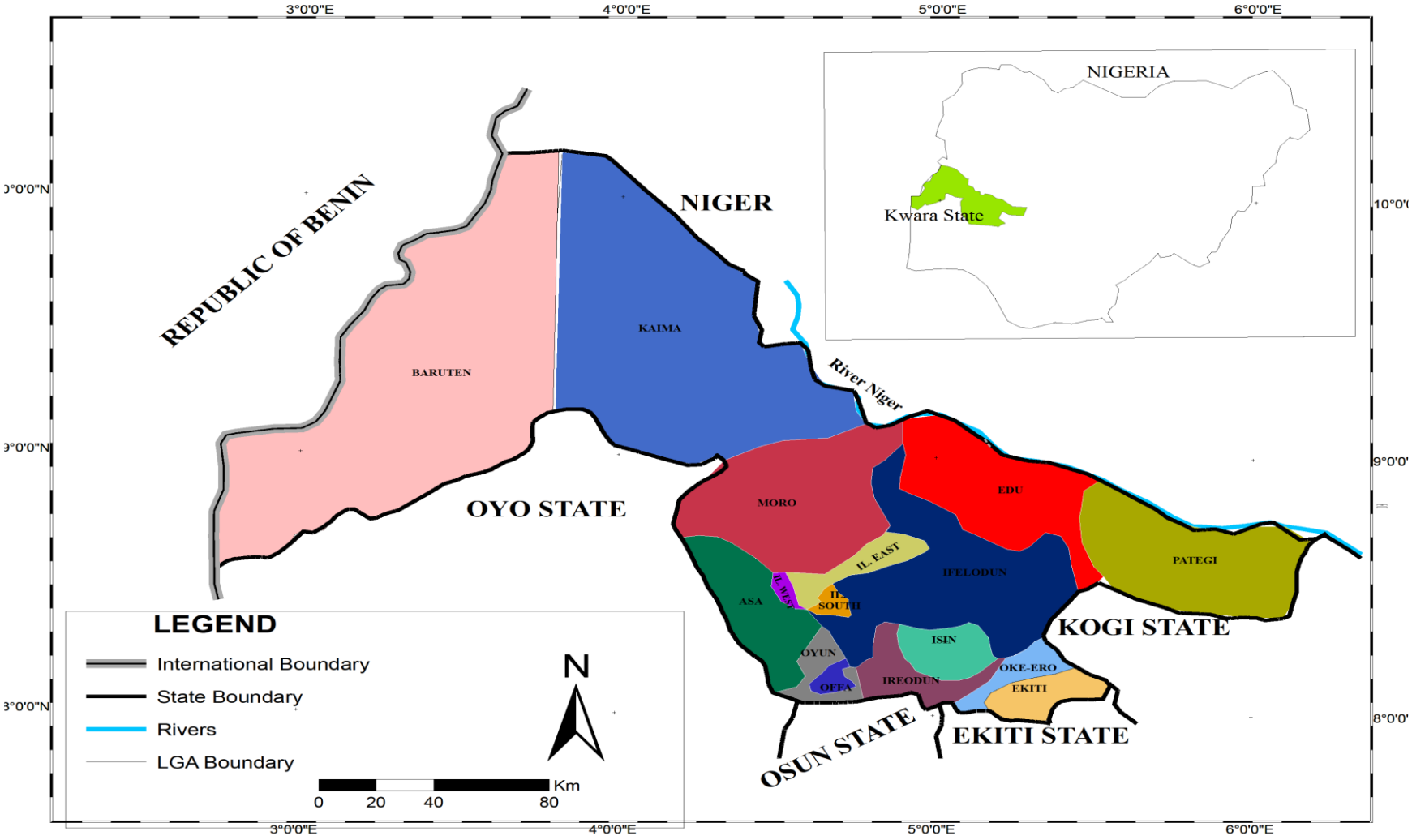


Figure 1. 1: Map of Kwara State Showing the Local Government Areas
Source: Kwara State Ministry of Lands and Survey, 2016

1.5.2.2 Ethnic Composition, Languages and Culture

Kwara State is dominated by three main ethnic groups, these are the Yorubas, Nupes and Barubas. The last group is found mainly in Kaiama and Baruten local government areas, while the Nupes are predominantly found in Edu and Patigi local government areas. The Yorubas, who are in the majority, are found in the remaining twelve local government areas of Asa, Ekiti, Oke-Ero, Ifelodun, Ilorin East, Ilorin West and Ilorin South. Others are Irepodun, Isin, Moro, Offa and Oyun. However, some Fulanis and Hausas are spread across Edu, Patigi, Kaiama, Baruten, Ilorin West, Ilorin South, Moro and Asa local government areas of the state. Some notable cultural attractions in the state are the Patigi regatta in Patigi, the Shao mass wedding festival in Moro, the Egungun and Layewu festivals in Irepodun, Isin and Ifelodun Local Government Areas. Egungun and acrobatic displays are also peculiar to parts of Asa, while Epa festival is a common cultural feature in Oke-Ero and Ekiti LGAs. Deity worshipping festivals such as Ogun and Shango festivals are also fairly common within the Yoruba-speaking areas of the state. Christian and Muslim festivals are equally celebrated with pomp and pageantry in all local government areas of the state, (Oyebanji, 2000).

The state is also noted for some works of art which include pottery, weaving, dyeing, leather works, embroidery and net making. The government agencies in charge of promoting arts and culture in the state are the Kwara State Tourism Board and the Kwara State Centre for Arts and Culture, and so far, they have done very well. Kwara State is often referred to as the ‘State of Harmony’ as a result of the peaceful co-existence among various communities and ethnic composition throughout the state.

1.5.2.3 Urban and Rural Development

One of the indicators of level of development in a geo-political setting as Kwara State is the quality of the human settlements vis-à-vis the structure and pattern of the urban and rural areas. The state currently has about 4,000 settlements of varying sizes and structures dotted on its landscape. Nevertheless, Ilorin, Offa, Omu-Aran, Share, Ajase-Ipo, Oro among several other fast growing towns can truly be classified as urban. These places collectively harbours more than thirty per cent of the state's population. On the whole therefore, Kwara State is about seventy per cent rural and thirty per cent urban. The general level of socio-economic well-being of most of the rural inhabitants is still rather low and this has led to the out-migration of the indigenes to nearby urban and semi urban centres, especially Ilorin and other major towns and cities outside the State, (Oyebanji, 2000).

1.5.3 Climate

The climate of the state is characterized by both wet and dry seasons, each lasting for about six months. The rainy season begins from early April and lasts till early November, while the dry season begins in November and ends in late March. The total annual rainfall in the state ranges from 800mm to 1200mm in the north-west and 1000mm to 1,500mm in the south-east. The state has a mean annual temperature of 30ºC-35ºC. This range, places the state within the transitional zone between the climate and vegetation types of the north and those of the south, (Oyebanji, 2000).

1.5.4 Soil

A large proportion of the land area of the state is characterized by ferruginous tropical soils on crystalline acid rocks. The north-eastern part, particularly Edu and Pategi LGAs is

dominated by red ferralsols on loose sandy sediments, while the bank of River Niger is characterized by alluvial and hydromorphic soils on riverine and lacustrine deposits (Kwara State Ministry of Agriculture and Natural Resources, 1989). Fakayode et al (2008) observed that the vegetation of Kwara State is mainly Guinea Savannah and is well suited for the cultivation of a wide variety of staple foods like yam, cassava, maize, cowpea, fruits and vegetables, while rice and sugarcane are significant cash crops. The natural vegetation consists of mainly rainforest and wooded savannah, (Oyebanji, 2000).

1.5.5 Vegetation

The natural vegetation comprises Guinea, Derived savanna and Rain forest. The Guinea savanna predominates in Baruten, Kaiama, Moro, Asa, Pategi, Edu and Ifelodun LGAs. The derived savanna is a predominant feature of Ilorin South, Ilorin East, Ilorin West, Offa and part of Ekiti, Oke-Ero, Irepodun, Isin and Oyun LGAs. The last five have some lowland vegetal cover, (Oyebanji, 2000).

1.5.6 Relief and Drainage

The landscape consists of a relatively flat and undulating land with interspersed hills and valleys in parts of Baruten, Kaiama and Moro Local Government Areas. The most spectacular landforms in Kwara State include Sobi hill in the outskirts of Ilorin, Oke-Agbanna hills, Owu water falls in Ifelodun LGA and a range of hills near Kaiama town. The major rivers in the State include the Niger which forms the natural boundary of the state in the north, Wessa, Moshi and Teshi in the north-western parts of the state and Rivers Asa, Awon, Oshin and Moro in the central areas of the state, (Oyebanji, 2000).

1.5.7 Socio-Economic Characteristics

Kwara State can be referred to as an agrarian state as about 90 percent of the people are involved in agriculture. Agriculture is therefore the major occupation of the people of Kwara State as a significant number of people of the state's population are engaged in farming, fishing, hunting, poultry rearing and other agricultural practices. Some of the crops cultivated include maize, yam, guinea corn, sorghum, cassava, sweet potatoes, groundnuts, rice, sugar-cane and beans. Tree crops such as cocoa, cashew, oranges, shea-butter, mangoes among several others are cultivated across the state. Livestock rearing such as cattle by the Normadic Fulanis and even some non Fulanis, goats, sheep are among some of the livestock kept, while some people are also involved in keeping of bees, fish ponds, poultry in small scale and commercial quantity. Other socio-economic activities in the state include small scale enterprises, trading, artisans and so on and so forth, which earn people their daily income (Oyebanji, 2000). Aside from farming which is very predominant in mainly rural areas and small towns, some other socio-economic activities in the state include commerce, industries and the availability of tertiary institutions. For instance, in Ilorin and its environs alone, several industries have been established of recent, these include Kam Wire, Tuyil Pharmaceutical Company and so on. The establishment of several hospitality industries, hospitals, new markets among several others have broadened the landscape and attracted several people who have come to seek greener pastures.

The state is well connected with network of roads which made it easily accessible. The state has fairly good inter-state and intra-state road linkages, it is linked to Niger, Oyo, Osun, Ekiti, Kogi, FCT and even has an international road linkage with Benin Republic. This makes it very easily accessible. The establishment of new Universities such as Landmark

University Omu-aran, Kwara State University Malete with planned campuses in Osi and Ilesha Baruba in future, Crown Hill University Eiyenkorin, the establishment of Tsonga Farm, establishment of new commercial and microfinance banks, markets and the availability of state and federal institutions among several others in most towns and cities of Kwara State are some of the pull factors that have supported employment and encouraged labour migration.

CHAPTER TWO

CONCEPTUAL ISSUES, THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK AND LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Conceptual Clarification

2.1.1 Labour

Labour has been defined in various ways according to the use one has for it, it is the activity involving mental or physical effort done in order to achieve results, (Steinfeld, 2009). Formal labour is any sort of employment that is structured and paid for in a formal way. Unlike the informal sector of the economy, formal labour within a country contributes to that country's gross national product. Informal labour is labour that falls short of being a formal arrangement in law or in practice. It can be paid or unpaid for and it is always unstructured and unregulated. Formal employment is more reliable than informal employment. Generally, the former yields higher income and greater benefits and securities for both men and women (Steinfeld, 2009).

2.1.2 Migration

Migration can be defined simply as "a process of moving, either across an international border, or within a state which results in a temporary or semi-permanent change of residence" (UNESCO, 2008). The important identifying factor of migration is spatial distance, and length and purpose of stay. The spatial distance may be a serious consideration in the determination of the length and purpose of stay. The length of stay is sometimes conditioned by the realities at home that motivated the migration. Where tools to execute one's profession are unavailable at home, such migration trends tend to be medium or long

term. In other words, migrants plying their skills abroad stay longer and are more likely to attract people of like professions to their new destinations. This factor also determines the volume of migrants moving into a particular area, and their sustenance. It is a population movement, encompassing any kind of movement of people, whatever its length, composition and causes; it includes migration of refugees, displaced persons, economic migrants, and persons moving for other purposes, including family reunification (IOM, 2011). For the purpose of this research therefore, labour migration is defined as the process of leaving rural/small towns for big towns/cities and urban centres/other countries in search of greener pastures.

2.1.3 Livelihood

Livelihood can be defined as a means of securing the necessities of life, a way of earning money in order to live. It can also be defined as a set of activities, involving securing water, food, fodder, medicine, shelter, clothing and the capacity to acquire the above necessities working either individually or as a group by using endowments (both human and material) for meeting the requirements of households. Chambers and Conway, (1991) defined livelihood as comprising the capabilities, assets (including both material and social resources) and activities required for a means of living. A livelihood is sustainable when it can cope with and recover from stress and shocks and maintain or enhance its capabilities and assets both now and in the future, while not undermining the natural resource base.

2.1.4 Development

Development according to Mabogunje, (1980) is both man centred and multidimensional in nature. He identified development as economic growth, modernization, distributive justice and socio-economic transformation. However, Seers (1969) maintained that development

involves much more than economic growth. He went further to argue that development must result in reduction in poverty, unemployment and inequality in the society. Development leads to a cumulative increase in the standard of living for an increasing proportion of people in the society (Hodder, 2000, Madu, 2007 and Usman, 2013). Development can be defined as the systematic use of scientific and technical knowledge to meet specific objectives/requirements or the process of economic and social transformation based on complex cultural and environmental factors and their interactions. Hodder (2000) opined that development transforms the economy and permit self actualization of human potentials. It involves the enhancement of quality of life by improving life choices and opportunity to have access to basic necessities of life (such as food, clothes, shelter, education, potable water and good health). Development according to Hodder and Lee (1974) implies the condition in which people in a society have adequate food and jobs, where inequality is greatly reduced and people are self reliant.

2.2 Concept of Labour Migration

The word labour migration entails a multitude of mechanical movement from one place to the other in a specific period of time. This movement is sub-divided into sending areas, and receiving areas. In discussion, it has been observed that migration is of three stages. One of the stages is voluntary, the second stage is enforcement and the third stage distress. Grawert, (1998) explained in his theories that the enforced migration is caused by external power due to resettlement. The voluntary is however subject to the government policy in making decisions. In the case of distress migration, it has been argued by many authors in their publications that it occurs as a result of deprivation of certain basic amenities in a community or region, (Grawert, 1998).

Historically, labour migrants had been a key factor in shaping the livelihoods of peasant farmers and some citizens of Nigeria. The civil war which occurred in the late 1960's helped in limiting the scope of migration in the country, (Brock and Coulibaly, 1999). However, it was noted that the traditional approaches to migration focused on "push factor" in order to explain the direction of movement. They usually neglect the cultural and social factor that is the major determinants of movement. The inability to have access to resources in Nigeria by the citizen is no doubt influencing the country, leading to migration. It is imperative to note that all migrants do not leave a country for the purpose of labour markets; all do not leave as a result of lack of inadequate basic amenities in the rural areas. In the view of Brock and Coulibaly, (1999), migration is a crucial interaction in urban and rural settlements and between rural settlements.

The migration of labour from the rural areas to urban areas is considered to be influenced by the need to improve livelihood and comparison in wages. It is believed that those in the urban areas are more favoured compared to those in the rural areas. The rural workers also lack some of the basic social amenities needed in their everyday life. In most cases, migration is facilitated due to the demand directed towards geographical market segmentation in favour of labour in agricultural sectors. Harris and Todaro's model focused on urban migration which would continue to increase not until the wages are being equalized (Harris and Todaro, 1970). In considering Week's (1995) ideology, migration is a sort of insurance from the shock rural dwellers may suffer from; to ease the situation, migration will be the immediate solution.

It is absolutely difficult to calculate the labour force in Nigeria as a result of inappropriate census data. Workers usually move from low-wage (human- capital-rich) to a high-wage

region (Jacob and Assaf 1996). The 1983 census explained that the labour force in the country increased from 18.3 million in 1964 to about 29.4 million in 1993. The census further stressed that the number of workers employed in the agricultural sectors fell from 56.8 percent in 1963 to 33.5 percent in 1983.

Onyeonoru, (1994) focused on the trends of labour migration from rural to urban areas in Nigeria. According to him, one of the most important aspects identified was that, changes in political and socio-economic development is considered as a factor that facilitates labour migration in and out of a country. This change may result in a total economic bravado which may eventually stimulate the interest of the workers to begin to migrate as a result of lack of adequate remuneration and encouragement. Assessing all these definitions, labour migration is the movement from place to place by various experts in different forms of job that make them temporary or permanent for various reasons. In Nigeria for example, different patterns of labour migration had been identified. Such identification is the continuous movement of people from the agrarian Middle Belt population to the more lucrative farming locations in the South West and industrial locations along the coastal areas of Lagos State.

2.2.1 Types of Migration

The following type of migration as listed is classified by Asare, (2012):

i. ***Internal Migration****:* Moving to a new home within a state, country, or continent of origin.

ii. ***External Migration****:* Moving to a new home in a different state, country, or continent for instance, leaving one's country for another.

iii. ***Immigration*****:** Moving into a new country.

iv. ***Population Transfer***: When a government forces a large group of people out of a region, usually based on ethnicity or religion. This is also known as an involuntary or forced Migration.

v. ***Impelled Migration*** (also called "reluctant" or "imposed" migration): Individuals are not forced out of their country, but leave because of unfavourable situations such as warfare, political problems, religious persecution, droughts or natural disasters.

vi. **Step Migration**: A series of shorter, less extreme migrations from a person's place of origin to final destination—such as moving from a farm, to a village, to a town, and finally to a city.

vii. ***Chain Migration***: A series of migrations within a family or defined group of people. A chain migration often begins with one family member who sends money to bring other family members to the new location. Chain migration results in migration fields—the clustering of people from a specific region into certain neighbourhoods or small towns.

viii. ***Labour Migration***: is the process of shifting a labour force from one physical location to another. Migrations of this type have sometimes occurred due to shifts in technology, the emergence of new industries, or the relocation of the main operational facilities of a given business. Labour migration may commence due to the interest of job seekers, or because a business has instigated a move that necessitates that labour also move in order to keep a job (Asare, 2012).

2.2.1.1 Categories of Migrants and Migration Indicators

The categories of migration as listed is classified by Hamidou and Babacar, (2006).

i. ***Migrants*:** Any person who has changed their place of residence for a given period of time.

ii. ***Non-Migrant*:** Any person living in a location who has never changed their usual place of residence.

iii. ***Returning Migrant*:** Any individual who has changed their usual place of residence but is again now resident in their place of birth.

iv. ***Immigrant and Emigrant*:** These concepts define a migrant population depending on whether reference is to the sending area or host area. The term Immigrant refers to the host area, while emigrant refers to the point of departure.

v. ***Migrant Worker:*** A migrant worker is an individual who has an employment contract, particularly in the modern sector. In this case, he/she is obliged under the legislation to have a residence permit and will be issued with an immigrant identity card.

vi. ***Migratory Flow*:** This term is used to describe overall migratory movements between two geographical areas during a given period.

vii. ***Emigration Rate*:** The emigration rate is obtained by comparing migratory flows away from a given area with the number of years of residence in it. This area represents the origin of the emigration. The population of the host area does not enter into account.

viii. ***Immigration Rate*:** The immigration rate is calculated by comparing migratory flows towards a given area with the number of years of residence, the area in question being the destination of the migration. The population of the sending area does not enter into account.

ix. ***Migratory Balance*:** The migratory balance is the whole number ratio (positive or negative) obtained by comparing migratory in-flows and out-flows to and from a given geographical area.

x. ***Net Migration Rate*:** The net migration rate (migratory growth) is obtained by comparing the migratory balance of a given geographical area with the total number of years of residence.

xi. ***Relative Migratory Density Rate*:** The relative migratory density rate from one area towards another is obtained by comparing the migratory flow from the first towards the second with the sum of the years of residence in each of the two zones. This figure is based on the population of the two areas, (Babacar and Hamidou, 2006).

2.2.1.2 Categorization Based on Time Criterion

i. Lifetime Migration: Refers to the displacement of an individual whose place of residence at a time is different to that of their place of birth.

ii. Recent Migration: Is the displacement of an individual whose last migration is known as 'recent'. In other words, an individual whose place of residence at a time is different from their previous place of residence (when it is known) and whose change of residence occurred in the recent past (less than one year or less than 5 years, depending on the reference period).

iii. Ancient Migration: Is the displacement of an individual whose most recent migration lies in the more distant past. In other words, an individual whose place of residence at a time is unchanged, but not that of their place of birth. The change in place of residence prior to the period of reference (more than one or five years previously), (Babacar and Hamidou, 2006).

2.2.1.3 Categorization Based on Space Criterion

i. **Simple Migration:** The displacement of an individual whose place of residence at a time is different from their place of birth.

ii. **Multiple Migration:** The displacement of an individual for whom the three places of residence (birth, prior to and at a time) are different.

iii. **Return Migration:** The displacement of an individual whose place of residence at a time is that of the place of birth but different to the previous place of residence. The return which is thus defined may be either temporary (less than 6 months) or permanent, (Babacar and Hamidou, 2006).

2.3 Reasons for Migration

Migration from most Nigerian towns and rural areas in the past were probably due to lack of educational institutions in those remote locations. Middle class families in most cases send their children to study in nearby villages, towns or cities where there are educational institutions. If there are schools in all the villages, the rate of rural urban migration will be reduced (Grawert, 1998). The reasons government employees leave small villages and towns to larger towns and cities is due to inadequate or lack of social amenities relating to working contacts. Young people especially unmarried qualified and trained persons often migrate from less favoured region to a more advantageous region because of the attractive incentives provided, (Grawert, 1998). Wage labour frequently takes place in much bigger towns where the wages are higher and have more incentive attraction than smaller towns and villages. It is the interest of every worker to have a better standard of living; in a situation where there are opportunities for workers to have access to a higher incentive, migration is unstoppable. In a narrow extent, this statement is true about skilled labour that migrate to urban areas in the country or overseas (Grawert, 1998).

There is push and pull factor that affect migration, the push factors include pressures which persuade a person to move away from an area, while the pull factors are those which attract the migrant to a particular destination (GCIM, 2005). People also migrate for numerous reasons, some of these reasons include: economic, social, political or environmental. In Economic motivation, people migrate in search of work, better pay/greener pasture or to pursue a particular career path. In social motivation this involves people moving somewhere for a better quality of life or to be closer to family or friends; while political motivation involve people moving to escape political, religious or ethnic persecution, or conflicts, especially as we have in North-Eastern Nigeria where the menace of Boko Haram has displaced more than 2 million people in the last few years, environmental motivation is in order to escape natural disasters such as flooding or drought especially like the gully erosions in parts of Edo and some South Eastern States of Nigeria.

2.4 The Dimension of Labour Migration

Historically, labour migration was largely confined to animal rearing and fishing and the expansion of farmers practicing shifting cultivation. In the northern part of Nigeria, seasonal movement was associated with specific trades such as entertaining, singing, pottery, weaving and tie and dye. Rural-urban migration was on a negligible scale; pre-colonial cities were small (Fadayomi, 1992). The coming of colonialism created a rapid change; not only was transport infrastructure improved but 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 for movement of such high-value goods as kola-nuts. Tin mining on the Jos Plateau (Grove,1952) is a good example of the permanent change brought by industry; young men from communities all over the Plateau

like Pankshin, Shendam, Langtang, Bukuru, Quangpang and even from parts of Bauchi, Nassarawa and Benue states worked in the mines and began to exchange earned cash for consumer goods and to establish links with the city (Morgan, 1979). In the colonial era, the concept of detailed planning for migration and urban growth was well established. The Nigerian Institute for Social and Economic Research (NISER), Ibadan was assigned the task of preparing population models for national and regional planning. A whole series of these were published covering the transition from colonial to post-colonial Nigeria (Green, 1974). However, the Federal Government failed to take into account the results of these studies in its First and Second National Development Plans and the situation had hardly improved since then (Green, 1974).

Another very distinctive aspect of the colonial era was the 'settlement scheme. Colonial governments were pessimistic about the prospects for African agriculture and were persuaded that new settlements, training farmers in modern techniques were ideal intervention. These flourished in Nigeria after the Second World War when large numbers of ex-servicemen returning were given plots of land and taught new techniques such as ox-ploughing. A very large-scale scheme of this type was the Anchau corridor, east of Zaria, which was cleared of tsetse flies in order to improve the farmers' prospects. Another version of this was the rice irrigation scheme; farmers became tenants of farms and paid for water and inputs, returning the loan at harvest time. These schemes had a variable success in agronomic terms but certainly resulted in significant redistributions of population. Despite their doubtful value, the model of such settlement schemes lives on in the bureaucratic mind; the National Agricultural Land Development Agency (NALDA) was established to clear land for settlement by intending farmers who would have accessible services. Land

was acquired and cleared and signboard set up, but it seems uncertain whether any farmers were actually helped (Chambers, 1969). In the pre-colonial era, a number of specialized occupational groups engaged in migration as part of their subsistence pattern. The main groups are as shown in Table 2.1.

Table 2. 1 Occupationally Specialized Migratory Groups

Group	**Description**
Pastoralists	Livestock producers, migrating in search of pasture
Fishermen	Fishermen seeking seasonal aquatic resources
Farmers	Dry-season horticulturists
Specialised crafts people	Basket-makers, leather workers etc. making a circuit of markets
Traders	Long-distance traders
Koranic students	Teenage boys moving around each dry season for knowledge
Entertainers, musicians	Moved from town to town in the dry season

Source: *Blench and Dendo, (2003).*

2.4.1 Rural-Rural Migration

In some ways, rural-rural migration is a subset of traditional migratory movements. However, the migratory process characterises of rain fed farmers and is fairly distinctive. In slash-and-burn systems, agricultural communities move in a broadly circular pattern around an area, allowing long fallow periods so that the soil can recover. This system, although often condemned by agronomists and bureaucrats, is found widely across the tropical world and is generally effective where there is no access to modern inputs. It is dependent upon a low population density; once the fallow period shortens below a certain number of years, the soil cannot recover and farmers must seek alternative strategies. Rural-rural migration is a characteristic ancient pattern in Africa and has tended to be unproblematic historically, because of the overall low population of the continent. Demographic growth and the

increasing value of access to land have ensured that this is no longer the case, (Blench and Dendo, 2003).

Another aspect of rural-rural migration that has become significantly less important in recent years is seasonal migration for work on plantations. Cocoa, oil -palm and rubber in the south and cotton and groundnuts in the north 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, either via paid labour or on a share-cropping basis. These patterns were disrupted by the spread of oil-wealth and many Nigerian plantations and certainly semi-arid zone crops are in disarray (Blench and Dendo, 2003).

2.4.2 Rural-Urban Migration

Rural-urban migration is probably the most distinctive pattern of migration in West Africa, and indeed throughout much of the developing world, (Blench and Dendo, 2003). Nigeria has some of the largest cities in Africa, although they may have 'traditional' cores, their present sizes are entirely a phenomenon of the twentieth century. Kano, for example is thought to have had just 10,000 citizens when Clapperton reached there in 1821 and today has a minimum of seven million people. Entirely, new towns such as Kaduna, Jos and Port Harcourt, now number their populations in millions. Similar patterns of growth are reported from South East Asia, but there is one important difference, the low level of industrialization in Nigeria. Few urban residents are employed in large-scale enterprises, as urbanization rests on an extremely ephemeral basis, with low investment in infrastructure and enterprise. Urban residents either depend on petty trade, manufactures and services or else, directly or indirectly, on government salaries and thus oil-wealth. In the classic model, urban migrants

remit profits, stimulate innovation and bring other benefits back to the village; but in Nigeria at least there is a powerful flow of basic foodstuffs from rural areas to urban households, (Blench and Dendo, 2003).

Adepoju (1990), Aboyade (1983), admitted that government policies have been in favour of urban development, by purposely and continuously creating employment opportunities, educational opportunities and other infrastructural amenities compared to the rural areas. This has resulted to inequality in the development and quality of life between the rural and urban areas, and therefore enhancing rural-urban migration. ‘‘People are attracted to urban areas because they think they will have greater opportunities there’’. Adewale, (2005) also affirmed that decision to migrate could be spontaneous. Some people may decide to migrate because their rural economy is disrupted. Such spontaneous decision could be as a result of natural catastrophe such as: floods, droughts, landslides, erosion, earthquake, insect and pests’ infestation, escape from lack of human right and justice, political instability, infertile soil, lack of arable land for cultivation, communal clashes, family dispute, outbreak of war and other adversities.

> Todaro, (1997) summed it up by saying: *The factors influencing the decision to migrate are varied and complex. Emphasis has variously been placed, for example, on; Social factor; including the desire of migrants to break away from traditional constraints of social organizations; Physical factor; including climate and meteorological disasters like floods and droughts; Demographic factor; including the reduction in mortality rate and the concomitant high rates of rural population growth; Cultural factors; including the security of urban extended family' relationships and the allurements of the so-called 'bright city lights'; Communication factor; resulting from improved transportation, Urban-orientation; educational systems and the 'modernizing' impact of the introduction of radio, television and the cinema.*

2.5 Migration: Historical Background in Nigeria

2.5.1 Dynamics of Migration in the Pre-Colonial Era

Migration in Nigeria pre-dates the colonization of Nigeria, irrespective of the difficulties encountered in classifying the moves as either internal or international and of getting accurate data. The former problem arises from the fact that Nigeria could not have been identified as a nation as of this era, as different ethnic groups and/or nationalities lived under different kingdoms and empires within the geographical space now referred to as Nigeria. Nonetheless, migration was evident in the movement of indigenes that were involved or were victims of slave-raiding and slave trading, inter-ethnic conflicts and warfare. Also, legitimate trading, nomadic herding of livestock, and pilgrimage to religious places in the Arabian Peninsula brought about diverse human mobility and migration within and across borders of existing empires and kingdoms. The dynamics of the unhindered spatial movements of people within and outside empires/kingdoms in Nigeria and Africa at large were encouraged by the lack of well-defined boundaries between existing empires and kingdoms. Although there is a paucity of documentation of the human mobility and migration during this era, nevertheless, some studies, such as Alkali (1985) and Armstrong (1955) conveyed the idea that migration flows during the period were dynamic and diverse.

Further evidence of the dynamics of the level of human mobility and or migration flow and trends during this era indicate that the Sokoto Caliphate was essentially populated by immigrants of Gobirawa, Nufawa, Bussawa, Tuaregs, Adrawa and the Zebrama ethnic groups, while the emigrants were mostly Hausa-Fulani (Kwaire, 2000). In addition, emigration from the north-eastern part of Nigeria can be traced to the 19th century, prior to the partitioning of Africa, when most of the ethnic groups found in Nigeria's neighbouring

francophone countries migrated from and were part of the old Borno Empire, (Mahadi, 1989). Also, the dynamics of migration in the north-central part of Nigeria was noted as early as 500 BC, when it was essentially determined by the quest for territory that is, people moving to secure land of their own or for identity (Armstrong, 1955). For example, the Idoma speaking people of the middle belt of Nigeria (presently in Benue State in the north central geo-political zone) were said to have migrated from the Kwararafa kingdom in north eastern part of Nigeria between 1535 and 1745 in two phases to their current locations in Benue and Nassarawa States and to the northern part (Ogoja) of the Cross River State. The people were said to have acquired their main cultural feature (agrarian) from their interaction with other ethnic groups during the migration process (Erim, 1981).

Further south, the colonization of areas to the south-west by the powerful Oyo empire builders led to subsequent movements, founding of settlements, and trading activities. These are manifest in the extent of the Oyo Empire that stretched as far west as the Ashanti (Ghana) and Dahomey areas now Benin Republic (Akinjogbin, 1980). The latter movements tend to account for the significant presence of Yoruba immigrants from old Oyo Empire in neighbouring Empires in former Francophone and Anglophone countries of West Africa, such as the present day Republics of Benin, Togo, Cote d'Ivoire and Liberia. The establishment of many settlements in the Yoruba land is another form of colonization hence, another evidence of internal migration during this period. For example, Ibadan was founded by people from Egba, Ife, Ijebu, Ijesa, Ekiti, Igbomina, Akoko and by non Yoruba group led by Lagelu around 16th century. The Fulani Jihadists were also instrumental to the migration of some Oyo people to Ibadan war camp whenever they raided their villages (Albert, 1994).

2.5.2 Dynamics of Migration in the Colonial Era & Shortly After Independence

The arrival of the British in the 19th century marked a turning point and added another angle to both internal and international migrations in Nigeria. Activities of the colonial administration led to demarcation of boundaries, a relatively stable government, modern means of transport; and a monetized economy among others. The British economic policy snow-balled into the independence era in Nigeria; hence, waves of migration that propelled the export oriented political-economic policy of the colonial administration. This was sustained and persisted during the period shortly after the country gained its independence. The political economy of the country was such that it provided a framework for large-scale migration; deriving from the need for large labour force for mines, plantations and public administration. Labour was recruited through persuasion and coercion (Adepoju, 1996).

Studies on internal labour migration also revealed that migrant labourers from different parts of the country, especially from rural areas moved into regional headquarters, administrative and market centres of Lagos, Kano, Zaria, Enugu, Ibadan, Sokoto and Kaduna among many others, in quest of trade and gainful employment (Udo, 1975; Shimada, 1993; Ikwuyatum, 2006). For international migration, Abba (1993) reported that between 1914 and 1922 there was a noticeable immigration of foreigners into Kano and its environment. It was estimated that within this period, between 10,000 and 30,000 Tuaregs from Niger Republic moved into Kano city in Nigeria. Afolayan (1998) reported the recruitment of some Nigerian workers who had been involved in constructing the Nigerian railway, for work on rail lines in Tema-Takoradi area of Gold Coast and the Cotonou-Parakou in Dahomey (Now Republic of Benin), (Adegbola, 1972).

Prothero (1957) also revealed that 257,000 labour migrants left the northwestern region in 1952-1953 census for the Gold Coast, Dahomey and Togo, out of which 28,000 people were mostly from 'Arewacin Sokkwato', that is, from *Northern Sokoto*. Adegbola (1972) and Afolayan (2004) also noted the emigration of Ogbomoso people from south western Nigeria to Dahomey and Ghana. The volume of indigenes of Ejigbo in Abidjan, though low in the mid-20th century, was recorded to have picked up after the World War II. Adegbola (1972) and Mabogunje (1972) indicated that people from Osun and part of Oyo Division, in particular Saki, emigrated to Ghana, Upper Volta, Dahomey, Mali, Togo and Niger, among other West African countries. The increasing level of the emigration was associated with the economic development and vigorous Pan-African movement pursued by Ghana shortly after its independence in 1957. This was punctuated by the expulsion of between 0.5 to 1.0 million foreigners from Ghana, including Yoruba emigrants. This was consequent on the deteriorating economic conditions in Ghana and the Aliens Compliance Order of November 1969. The experience dictated other migration decisions: movement to alternative destinations, in particular Ivory Coast, shorter duration of stay and circulatory movements. These are different forms of the dynamic aspects of migration of latter years (Mabogunje, 1972).

2.5.3 Dynamics of Migration in the Post-Independence Era

The third and final quarter of the 20th century, the post-independence era, witnessed heightened labour migration from several parts of the country to the main administrative and economic centres of the country and to more varied destinations than ever before. Relatively, large scale of immigration into the country was interrupted by flight and or

expulsion. This affected the course of migration, as changing political economy of Nigeria, in forms of civil war, reconstruction, development of natural resources and establishment of main administrative centers affected migration decision-making of people. For example, many of the government policies led to a lopsided development of creation of more employment opportunities and provision of infrastructure and facilities in urban centres than in the rural areas.

Thus, employment opportunities were outside the people's primary productive activity of agriculture; and/or were created in areas such as the tin mines of the Jos Plateau, the Enugu coal mines and the coastal industrial/port cities of Lagos, Port Harcourt and Calabar. Also, the cash-cropping system of the colonialist had brought about movement of people to the cocoa and rubber plantation belts of south-western and south-eastern parts of Nigeria, and to the groundnut belt of Northern Nigeria for migrant labourers from the Middle Belt region of Nigeria (Udo, 1975; NISER, 1998).

Following independence in 1960, according to Mberu and Pongou (2010), the Nigerian government reorganized the territory from three regions into a number of states, a move that encouraged even higher rates of internal migration. The new state capitals, which became home to various state and federal government departments and agencies, as well as related businesses, drew construction workers, job seekers, traders and relocating civil servants and their families. Similarly, the creation of 776 local government areas between 1976 and 1996 made these places attractive destinations. When the military-run government made Abuja the Federal Capital Territory in 1991, about 200,000 public sector workers, along with staff of foreign embassies, multinationals, multilaterals and bilateral agencies, were estimated to have relocated from Lagos to Abuja. Abuja's population was 378,671 according to the 1991

census, but the city's population growth accelerated when a democratic government took office in 1999. By 2006, Abuja's population had more than doubled to 778,567, making it the fastest case of urbanization in West Africa.

The country's southwest, which includes Lagos (population 18 million) and Ibadan, attracts migrants from all over Nigeria. The region hosts the nation's two largest seaports, 65 percent of its industrial plants, large proportions of educational and research institutions, and large agricultural plantations, (Mberu and Pongou 2010). In addition, by the late 1980s, some other changes in the economic and political policies of the country resulted in changes in the pattern of migration in Nigeria. One in particular is the adoption of the Structural Adjustment Programme (SAP) in June 1986. SAP dictated a shift from the official policy of full employment to substantially reduced government spending on critical services, such as health, education and housing (Afolayan, 1998). This created a greater tendency for persons to emigrate.

2.6 Review of Laws, Theories and Models of Migration

The study of migration and especially the development of theories, hypotheses and laws on migration have been championed by statisticians, anthropologists, sociologists, geographers and economists. For this research work, some of the laws that were reviewed are:

2.6.1 Ravestein's Laws of Migration

Ravestein's work on migration is naturally the logical starting point in the discussion of laws and theories of migration. It is particularly so since 1885 marks the centenary year of the publication by him, of the seminal treatise on migration laws in 1885. It is also significant to

start from his work for yet another reason: his treatise has, over the century, been extensively reviewed, tested and amended; nevertheless, the basic tenets and substance of the 'laws' remain virtually unchanged till today. In addition, the laws are broad, and related to both the determinants as much as to the flows and volumes of migration.

Ravestein's 'laws' of migration can be summarized in terms of the following propositions:

i. Migration and distance;
ii. Migration by stages;
iii. Streams and counter-streams of migration;
iv. Urban – rural differences in the propensity to migrate;
v. Migration, technology and communication;
vi. The dominance of economic motives in migration; (Ravestein, 1885; Todaro, 1976).

2.6.2 The Okun-Richardson Model of Regional Migration Flows

Okun and Richardson (1961) argued that the effects of internal migration on regional equality of per capita income are conditioned by:

i. the direction of flow of migration
ii. short and long run effects
iii. the stage of economic growth of the country

Their model of regional migration flow assumes a closed economy devoid of international migration. These regions of the country are classified into:

i. stagnant region with low per capita income (LS)
ii. stagnant region with high per capita income (HS)
iii. growing region with high per capita income (HG)
iv. growing region with low per capita income (LG)

They maintained that migration would logically flow from stagnant to low and high growing areas and from low growing to high growing areas. The consequences of the patterns of migratory flows are obvious, the stagnant region with low per capita income would continue to experience massive out-migration in the absence of concerted efforts to revitalize its economy. This model, by disregarding migration flows between regions with similar characteristics, is constrained in its application to urban-urban migration. It also ignored the possibility of urban-rural migration of the colonizing type (Mabogunje, 1970 b).

2.6.3 The Bright Lights Theory

Gulliver, (1955) explained this notion as the pull factors which attract migrants to the cities in terms of excitement of the city life and opportunities, this dominate the explanation of the causes of city-ward migration for quite some time. This was later to supplement the widely accepted view that the overriding factor in migration was the economic pull of the city in terms of ties and the relatively higher incomes that could be obtained there. Nevertheless, the pre-eminent position of the economic factors in migration has never been in serious doubt. The theoretical approach Mitchell proposed was based on the distinction between necessary and sufficient conditions for labour migration (Gugler and Flanagan, 1978). Mitchell argued that economic factors appear to be a necessary condition but may not be a sufficient condition for migration (Mitchell, 1959). He also proposed an approach based on a distinction between the rate and the incidence of labour migration. The rate of migration, he explained, is determined mainly by economic factors while the incidence of migration that is, why one person rather than the other migrates refers to the act of unique circumstance which includes a particular emigrant to leave his rural area. The decision to migrate is,

following this approach, essentially made by the individual rather than the household, contrary to the evidence that the latter is the situation in Africa. Also, at the analytical level, Gugler and Flanagan, (1978) criticized this approach as unsatisfactory: in general, the rate of rural-urban migration should correctly be seen as "a result of the aggregate of economic, social and political" rather than purely economic condition alone.

2.6.4 The Human Investment Approach

The Human investment approach to migration, articulated by Sjaastad (1962), views geographic mobility of workers as a logical response to economic incentives deriving from disequilibria across spatially separated labour markets (Bowles, 1970). As an investment, the migrant incurs some costs and expenses during the process of migrating, as well as psychic costs involved in breaking old ties and venturing into (sometimes) unfamiliar environments. Additional costs are normally incurred, these include the uncertainty about the future which potential migrants must face. These additional elements can be critical in a situation of imperfect information about conditions at the destination. In general, the benefits from moving include higher income, coupled with living conditions in a more congenial (social or physical) environment at the destination. Thus, the decision to migrate, and in particular, the direction of the migration are influenced substantially by the calculus of the balance sheet of the cost and the benefits of the migration, (Bowles, 1970).

Bowles, (1970) stressed that it is difficult to fully specify all the dimensions of the benefits and costs of moving. Hence, the present value of the expected future income in the location of destination area is the most commonly used proxy indicator of the gross economic benefits of migrating. The economic benefits foregone by moving are then expected to be gained by the value of the expected future income to be repatriated to their various places of

origins. Thus, migration rate is expected to be positively associated with "the present value of the stream of income differences between the origin and destination, summed over the expected working life of the prospective migrant" (Bowles, 1970). Usually, access to information concerning future incomes in distant places is unevenly distributed among the population, and is always biased in favour of the educated and those with a network of social relations.

2.6.5 Todaro's Migration Model

Todaro's model postulated that migration proceeds in response to urban-rural differences in expected rather than actual earnings. The basic assumption is that migration is based primarily on privately rational economic calculus for the individual migrant, independent of the existence of high, sometimes growing urban unemployment (Todaro, 1976). He also argued that, the migrant, as a decision maker would consider the range of opportunities in the labour market and ultimately choose the one which maximizes his expected gain from migration. The expected gain is measured by:

1. the difference in real incomes between rural and urban job opportunities;
2. the probability of a new migrant obtaining an urban job (Todaro, 1976).

Mathematically expressed, the decision to migrate or not will be determined by whether the result of the following equation is positive or negative:

$$V(o) = n/-_{} p(t) \quad Yu(t)e^{-it} \, at - c(o)_-/ \; t=o$$

Where:

V (o) is the discounted present value of the expected net urban-rural income stream over the migrant's time horizon;

Yu, r (t) is the average real incomes of individuals employed in the urban and the rural economy;

n is the number of time periods in the migrants' planning horizon,

C (o) represents the cost of migration

p (t) is the probability that a migrant will have secured an urban job at the average income level in period t1

Todaro, in formalizing the mechanism of rural-urban labour movements in terms of purely economic motives or expected payoff, argues that the wide differences between urban and rural wages for each occupational and educational group coupled with the fact that at the long run, there is probability that a migrant could secure a rationale for the persistence of rural to urban migration in the face of rising urban employment. Todaro's model (which has been modified over time) has attracted as many critics as adherents and this is how it should be in view of its policy implications. Todaro proposed both short-term and long-term measures, but a major shortcoming of the model is that it is confined mainly to the behaviour of a rural –urban migrant and ignores the other forms of migration, in particular rural-rural and urban-rural. Many development economists have deduced from this model that because urban unemployment cannot be substantially reduced by increasing unemployment rate and that since this rate could be lowered by a reduction in the urban-rural wage differential, an income policy is required to hold wage rates down (Byerlee and Tommy 1972; Adepoju 1977a).

Several modifications have been made to the Basic Todaro model, notably by Harris and Todaro (1970); Johnson (1971), Fields (1975) among others. Indeed the model has generated so much debate that it cannot be repeated here. However, two points are worth stressing. The migration decision-making process is evidently more complex than such behavioural models assumed. Secondly, the model has been preoccupied with the problem of urban unemployment.

The fact however, is that a substantial proportion of migrants in Africa are self-employed workers and usually move into the informal urban sector where entry barriers are minimal. Even in the case of wage aspirants, their wage expectations generally reflect their experience and knowledge about the working conditions and wage rates in the rural areas, and since their knowledge about the prevailing conditions in the towns may be limited, they are more readily prepared to take up low-paid jobs, thus ensuring their quick absorption into the labour market. Also, the model by emphasizing the wage differential between urban and rural areas and the impact of the increase in urban wages on migration and unemployment has not improved our understanding of the causes of non-mobility among a large proportion of the rural population. Also, from a policy perspective, Todaro argued that the rural-urban wage differential is a determinant of migration, and therefore a restraint on urban wage increase will tend to reduce the rate of rural-urban migration and increase the demand for employment, underestimates the magnitude of the disparity and the unfavourable terms of trade between the urban and rural areas (Byerlee, 1974; Adepoju, 1977).

2.6.6 Mobility Transition Theory

Zelinsky, (1971) in his mobility transition theory, maintained that; "there are definite, pattern regularities in the growth of personal mobility through space-time during recent history, and these regularities comprise an essential component of the modernization process". He then hypothesized the links between mobility transition, demographic transition and modernization. The five phases in the transition in mobility behaviour have been summarized by Pryor (1982) as:

1. Minor circulation between dispersed traditional agrarian settlements, at the initial stage of demographic transition when the rate of natural population increase is low.

2. Major rural-urban migration and increasing rural-rural migration in the early transitional phase of economic development and modernization.

3. Urban circulation replacing rural-urban and rural-rural migration. Fertility declines at this stage as modernization extends through the settlements.

4. Major intra-and inter-urban mobility and increasing circulation in the advanced industrial society.

5. In the post-industrial society, communication development may modify or replace migration and settlement.

The theory is patterned after the experience of the industrialized countries, as was the demographic transition theory from which the main hypotheses are derived. As Pryor (1982) argued, mobility behaviour is so complex and includes a variety of movements: temporary, seasonal, circulatory, return migration, etc. Besides, the experiences of the developing countries now show that the patterns of mobility tend to be time-specific and culture-specific, most of the time in response to the strategies of economic development.

2.6.7 Structural-Functional and Marxist Approaches

The Marxist, sometimes mingled with the structural-functional approach to migration studies, analysed and explained migration at the level of the political economy of the society based on the theory of social structure rather than focus on the society and the modes of production within it. Amin, (1974) a leading proponent of this approach advanced this line of analysis by asserting that in fact, the overall strategy of economic development is the root cause of migration.

Marxist argues that the problems of migration are strongly embedded in the transformation and disruption of underdeveloped economies consequent on their integration with the colonial capitalist system (Meilink, 1978). They argued emotionally and repetitively that the

fundamental transformation of African society, caused by capitalist penetration in an unequal partnership, has resulted in the increasing dependence of the powerless rural poor on world capitalism, the increasing drain of rural economies through the exploitation of labour which is reproduced specifically for the capitalist production. However, as Gerold-Scheepers and Van Binbergen argued, the Marxist approach applies mainly to circulatory labour migration. Yet, there is a subtle distinction between the Marxist and the structural-functionalists, for as Gerold-Scheepers and Van Bingergen (1978) aptly summarized it:

> *"Both Marxist and structural-functionalist rejects the classic push-pull model, but for different reasons: the former because they consider the penetration of capitalism a more fundamental factor underlying the specific push and pull factors, the latter because push-pull models stress the economic dimension at the expense of social, cultural political and ideological factors. Moreover, Marxist reject the urban-rural dichotomy as superficial for capitalism, as the crucial explaining variables can also take rural forms. For structural-functional approaches to migration, on the other hand, the urban-urban dichotomy has always been an important analytical tool.*"

A growing number of Latin American scholars have adopted the structural-functional approach in the analysis of migration in general and decision process in particular. The concept 'survival strategy' sometimes referred to as "family life strategies" in Latin American literature is perhaps an extension of the Marxist analysis of migration. This approach argues that the reproduction of labour by the traditional sector is essential to the survival and functioning of capitalism. Migration therefore becomes the channel for the rural worker to provide a cheap source of labour for the urban capitalist enterprises. The close tie the rural worker maintains in turn with the areas of origin ensures the satisfaction of his subsistence needs. This view has been expanded by Stark, (1984) who argued that in fact, rural families use rural to urban migration as a wealth maximization (risk alleviating)

strategy through the remittances of the migrants. Here, we have to distinguish, as Urzua, (1981) did, between two strategy types: survival and mobility strategies. According to him:

> *"Families belonging to certain social classes and groups are subject to living conditions that barely allow them to survive, while others have already solved the survival problem and look more to ways to improve the lot of their members as a whole or at least that of some of its members."*

The decision process differs by the migration strategy types. Households adopting the survival strategy type belong to the poor socio-economic strata and for them, migration of some of their members is a necessity to generate sufficient income for the survival of its members. Thus, such households literally send at least one of its members to participate in temporary (target) migration. Families in the mobility strategy category are relatively affluent and pursue a similar strategy but with the goal of enhancing social mobility of their members.

2.6.8 The Decision-Making Process: The Value Expectancy Model

A series of models and theoretical framework have sought to synthesize the decision-making process at the micro-level. Among these, the value-expectancy model developed by De Jong and Fawcett is appealing. It involves, in essence the specification of personally valued goals which are to be met by moving and the expectation of achieving these goals in alternative destinations. The element that enter the decision-making process are a function of the individual's value system, motivation, life cycle events, aspirations, available information and, in the case of repeat migrants, past experiences. Where the decision to migrate is expected to contribute substantially to the attainment of specified goals, a subjective assessment is made then the potential migrant is encouraged to make the move. De Jong and

Fawcett, (1983) specified the general goals and values to include wealth, status, comfort, stimulation, autonomy, affiliation, and morality.

Operationally, the value expectancy model starts by specifying individual valued goals which might be met by migrating, or not migrating; the perceived linkages (in terms of expectancy) between migration behaviour and the attainment of the specified goals in alternative locations including the current place of residence. The model is stated as Vi. Ei where Vi represents societal – specific values (i); Ei, the expectations at the destination, and Vi. Ei measures the strength of the intention to move. The procedure for obtaining the necessary parameters of the model is to rate the importance for the set of the relevant values or goals, obtain measures of expectations for achieving these values or goals in specific locations and apply the formula above to derive a place-specific attraction score used as a predictor of migration intentions.

The Value-expectancy approach, the authors maintain, provides a viable basis for determining the cost-benefit calculations of the economic and non-economic goals or values, and the subjective probabilities or expectancies that underlie the decision to migrate. In a self criticism, the authors were quick to caution that values and expectations are not the only factors in the migration decision process. They pointed out that the values and expectations are "rather the more proximate causal variables in a general analytical framework that includes personal traits, perceptions, contacts with the family and friends, financial constraints, individual demographic and human capital characteristics and household characteristics." (De Jong et al, 1983).

2.6.9 Lee's Theory of Migration

Lee, (1966) developed a theoretical framework for analyzing the volume of migration, the characteristics of migration, and by extension, the factors that affect the decision making process. He classified the factors which generally prompt migration into "pull" factors which are correspondingly attractive and impulsive forces. The push factors normally include the deteriorating socio-economic opportunities available in other localities, attractions which are sufficiently powerful to not only attract people to that location but more importantly, retain people within it. Lee's hypothesis regarding the volume of migration stresses that the volume of migration varies with the diversity of the people and fluctuations in the economy, the diversity of the areas included in the territory which in turn is related to the difficulty of surmounting the sets of intervening obstacles. He argued that both the rate and volume of migration vary with the state of progress in a country and tend to increase with time (Lee, 1966).

Lee's model not only takes into account factors associated with the areas of origin and destination, it also recognizes that sets of intervening obstacles exist between them which inhibit free population movement differentially for socio – economic groups. He argued further that both the rate and volume of migration vary with the state of progress in a country and tend to increase with time (Lee, 1966).

2.6.10 The Zipt and Stouffer's Theory

Some refinements of Lee's and Ravestein's law and hypotheses on migration were made by Zipt and Stouffer. Zipt (1946), using the principle of least effort, hypothesized that the number of migrants from one city to another is a function of the distance separating these

localities. Thus, the three situations or actors in the migration scene that is, the source, the destination and the migrants are included in the formulation of his hypothesis, as did Lee. In essence, the Zipt hypothesis, relating migration to distance, states that migration varies inversely with distance, in which case the propensity to migrate diminishes with distance. This would imply that people generally tend to migrate over short distances. Here, distance can be interpreted in economic, physical and cultural terms. The economic interpretation would relate distance to the cost of transportation while the social aspect views migration in relation to the socio milieu of the environment which either facilitates or hinders the integration and assimilation of migrants at the destination.

Stouffer's theory of intervening opportunities stressed that the volume of inter-area migration is a function of intervening opportunities, the number of people in each area, and the number of competing migrants. All these, the pull and push considerations can be extended to what Stark (1984) terms the relative deprivation approach. In his view, rural-urban migration should conceptually be analyzed as a response to measurable dissatisfaction with the place of current residence as a means of eliminating or reducing such dissatisfaction.

2.6.11 The Lewis-Fei-Ranis Model

The Lewis-Fei-Ranis Model (Ranis and Fei, 1961) divides the economy into two sectors, the rural (subsistence, agricultural) sector and the urban (industrial, modern) sector. Labour transfer from the agricultural to the industrial sector is assumed to be automatic, the limit to such mobility being set by the rate of capital accumulation and investment in the industrial sector. While this formulation is an improvement over the traditional static equilibrium analysis, recent evidence shows that rural-urban labour transfers occur on a far more

massive and largely uncontrolled scale even by market mechanisms than the model assumes. The equilibrium analysis contends that in general, migration serves as a mechanism for relocating labour from areas of relatively fewer to those of relatively greater economic opportunities. In this way, the migrant is able to avail him or herself of the range of opportunities not readily available at home place or that of current residence. However, migration theories can be classified according to the level they focus on. Micro-level theories focus on individual migration decisions, whereas macro-level theories look at aggregate migration trends and explain these trends with macro-level explanations. The meso-level is in between the micro and macro level, e.g. on the household or community level and can explain both causes and perpetuation of migration. Table 2.2 gave an overview of the theories along the level dimensions.

Table 2. 2: Theories of Migration Defined by Level of Analysis

Micro-level	***Meso-level***	***Macro-level***
Migration cause: Individual values/ desires/ Expectancies e.g. improving survival, wealth etc.	*Migration cause/ perpetuation:* Collectives/ social networks e.g. social ties	*Migration cause/ perpetuation:* Macro-level opportunity Structure e.g. economic structure (income and employment opportunities differentials)
Main theories: - Lee's push/ pull factors - Neoclassical micro-migration theory - Behavioural models - Theory of social systems	*Main theories:* - Social capital theory - Institutional theory - Network theory - Cumulative causation - New Economics of Labour Migration	*Main theories:* - Neoclassical macro-migration theory - Migration as a system - Duallabour Market Theory - World systems theory - Mobility Transition

Source: *Adapted from Faist, (2000) and own elaboration.*

However, a rich theoretical and empirical literature covers the motivations of individuals in developing countries to migrate for work. Perhaps the most obvious motivation is the

difference in wage levels between countries sending and receiving migrants. For example, McKenzie, Gibson, and Stillman (2006) in their study found that when Tongan residents win a lottery giving them the right to move to New Zealand, their expected wages triple. But migrants also move for other reasons. Migration is often part of a household income generation or development strategy. From a rural perspective, when household income depends on agriculture, with its inherent risks, sending a migrant to a place where his or her income will not be affected by those risks can increase the household's income security. Migration can also help raise funds for investment in better housing or in productive activities at home.

Nevertheless, migration is also conditional on household characteristics given that migrants tend to be younger family members. As a result, migration is not likely to help the elderly rural poor unless they have children who have migrated. Migration, whether rural–urban or international can have both direct and indirect effects on poverty. Migration can have direct effects on poverty in two ways. When migrants leave poor households, the number of people who must be supported by the household budget is reduced, directly increasing the living standards of those left behind. If the potential migrant was not working before leaving, this effect is particularly beneficial. Migrant remittances from either domestic or international sources, are also immediately beneficial when they are used to supplement consumption. Migrants can and often remit cash or goods to their families when negative income shocks occur. Remittances help stabilize household income and prevent households from plunging further into poverty. Therefore, whether a poor rural household sends a migrant to an urban area or any poor household sends a migrant to an international destination, migration can have positive direct effects on the poor. Migration can have a direct effect on poor people's

livelihoods, to the extent that migrants send money to their families to sustain livelihoods and social relations (Nyberg -Sorenson 2002). Migration can also act as a social security mechanism for poor households (Schrieder and Knerr, 2000; Sabates-Wheeler and Waite, 2003).

There are also three indirect channels by which migration can help poor or vulnerable households, even if they do not participate in migration themselves. First, migrants leave the local labour force, increasing the scarcity of local labour. Therefore, jobs become available that can potentially be filled by the poor, or wages may be pressured upward, also potentially benefiting the poor. Second, remittances add liquidity to local markets, potentially stimulating economic activity. Third, when migrants return from urban areas or abroad, they bring new skills and experiences with them, sometimes even starting microenterprises that create local employment. All of these potential channels can lead to greater well-being among poor households as long as migration rates are not so high that the local economy begins to disappear, (Sabates-Wheeler and Waite, 2003).

2.6.12 Migration Systems Theory

Migration systems theory as pioneered by Mabogunje, (1970) has been the most comprehensive attempt at theorising contextual feedback mechanisms so far. A migration system can be defined as a set of places linked by flows and counter-flows of people, goods, services, and information, which tend to facilitate further exchange, including migration, between the places. Mabogunje, (1970) focused on the role of feedback in the form of flows of information and new ideas (such as on the “good life” and new consumption patterns) in shaping migration systems. Such feedback mechanisms would lead to situations of:

> *almost organized migratory flows from particular villages to particular cities. In other words, the existence of information in the system encourages greater deviation from the "most probable or random state". The state of a system at any given time is not determined so much by its initial conditions as by the nature of the process, or the system parameters… since open systems are basically independent of their initial conditions,* (Mabogunje, 1970).

Information is not only instrumental in facilitating further migration, but new ideas and exposure to urban or foreign life styles transmitted back by migrants may also increase aspirations to migrate. Migration systems link people, families and communities over space. This results in a rather neat geographical structuring and clustering of migration flows, which is far from a "random state". While Mabogunje focused his analysis on rural-urban migration in Africa, migration systems theory can be extended to international migration Fawcett, (1989), Kritz, Lim, and Zlotnik, (1992). It is common for particular regions, villages, or ethnic groups to specialize in migration to particular areas, cities, or even city neighborhoods, either within the same country or abroad. Migration systems theory as formulated by Mabogunje goes beyond the usual focus on networks by pointing out the role of flows of information and ideas in facilitating and inspiring people to migrate in order to achieve newly set life objectives.

2.6.13 Macro-Theories of Migration

The neo-classical macro migration theories explain migration as part of economic development. Internal migration occurs as a result of geographical differences in the supply and demand of labour, mostly between the rural traditional agricultural sector and the urban modern manufacturing sector. The basic model (Lewis, 1954 and Ranis & Fei, 1961) that grew out of trade theory, assumes perfect markets and a labour surplus in the traditional agricultural sector that is absorbed by the modern sector. The modern sector grows through

capital accumulation and by poaching labour from the traditional sector. Rural workers are attracted by the positive wage differential and migrate to the urban sector that is, they are pulled to migrate. In these models, migration occurs until wage equalization has occurred.

Todaro, (1969) and Harris & Todaro, (1970) augmented this model to account for the significant urban unemployment that was found in many less developed countries. Migration is not completely risk-free, because the migrant does not necessarily get a job upon arrival in the city. Rural-urban migration occurs as long as the expected real income differential is positive. Expected income is a function of the rigid, institutionally determined urban wages and the urban employment rate. Migration costs can be included. The employment rate is the probability of finding a job, i.e. being selected from the pool of labour, which increases over time, for example due to wider networks of the migrants. Migration thus increases if urban wages increase or the urban employment rate increases.

Another macro-level model explaining rural-urban migration in less developed countries is Mabogunje's (1970) migration as a system model, in which he explains migration as a dynamic spatial process. Aggregate migration flows and interactions are modelled by starting with a pool of rural potential migrants that is affected by various factors in the decision to migrate. The rural control sub-system controls outflows (e.g. family or community norms), the urban control sub-system controls inflows (e.g. through employment agencies), feedback is channelled back to potential migrants and the background environment also affects migration flows (social & economic conditions, government policies, transport & communications infrastructure). The environment and sub-systems are constantly changing, also as a result of the migration flows, which makes the system open and dynamic. Other authors such as Kritz & Zlotnik, (1992) have also emphasized the

importance of viewing international migration as an interdependent dynamic system, with own but interlinked systems for sending and receiving countries and feedback and adjustment coming from the migration process itself.

Zelinsky's hypothesis of mobility transition (1971) argues that migration is part of the economic and social changes inherent in the modernization process. It is part of the wider range of functionalist theories of social change and development, which try to link theories to past empirical trends. He argues that patterns and rates of migration can be closely linked to the stage of modernization such as industrialization and demographic factors (for instance, high birth rates). He emphasizes that the preference for more personal freedom is part of the modernization process. While his theories broadly make sense when looking at past migration patterns in industrialized nations, it is vague and does not allow differentiation of different types of migration and it does not consider the individual migration decisions.

2.6.14 Micro-Theories of Migration

Lee, (1966) was the first to formulate migration in a push-pull framework on an individual level, looking at both the supply and demand sides of migration. Positive and negative factors at the origin and destination, push and pull migrants towards non-migration, hindered by intervening factors, migration laws are affected by personal factors, for instance, how the migrant perceives the factors. He makes a number of predictions, for example that greater diversity among people leads to more migration. This is barely a theory, it is more of a grouping of factors affecting migration, without considering the exact causal mechanisms.

The human capital approach is the neoclassical micro-level migration theory. Based on the work of Sjaastad, (1962), migration is treated as an individual investment decision to increase the productivity of human capital, thus again focusing on the labour market, but at the same time, explaining the selectivity of heterogeneous migrants. Individuals make a rational cost-benefit calculation of the expected discounted returns of migration over future time periods, migrating only when the expected returns are positive. The theory emphasizes that migration might lead to occupational upgrading (i.e. investment in human capital of the migrant). Age of the migrants obviously plays a significant factor here, therefore the expected returns are discounted over the remaining lifetime. This model predicts that the young and educated migrates in the first phase.

Wolpert's stress-threshold model (1965), describes a behavioural model of internal migration, similar to a cost-benefit analysis. Individuals have a threshold level of utility they aspire to, they compare place utilities to this threshold in order to decide whether to migrate or not and to which place. Place utilities for the current position are based on past and future rewards, whereas place utilities for possible destinations depend on anticipated rewards. Knowledge is based on the subjective and incomplete knowledge that individuals have in their personal spaces, so rationality is bounded. Action spaces depend on personal characteristics, the variability of the environment and life-stage of the individual. Migration flows thus occur as a consequence of these individual places utility evaluations and are not necessarily optimal according to rational and perfect information standards. This model leaves out some of the unrealistic assumptions of the human capital approach, but it is even more difficult to test. In a way, Wolpert only changes the terminology, compared to the human capital approach (Wolpert, 1965).

Another behavioural model, the value-expectancy model (Crawford, 1973) is a cognitive model in which migrants make a conscious decision to migrate based on more than economic considerations. The potential migrant's strength of migration intentions depends on a multiplication of the values of migration outcomes and expectations that migration will actually lead to these outcomes. Values are specific goals, e.g. wealth or autonomy. Values and expectations depend on personal and household characteristics (e.g. education level) and societal norms. These values do not necessarily need to be economic, for example security or self-fulfilment can also be important to potential migrants. Migration depends on the strength of migration intentions, indirect influences of individual and societal factors and modifying effects of constraints and facilitators. It is similar to the place-utility approach of Wolpert and again it shows that migration choices are subjectively made. There are also other similar micro-based individual behavioural decision making models, e.g. work by Jong & Fawcett (1981) or the adjustment-to-stress approach of Ritchey (1976). The behavioural approach also considers non-economic factors and societal influences, but it is very vague and rational decision making is still assumed.

Complimentary to the dual labour market theory is Hoffmann-Novotny's approach of explaining migration as a theory of social systems (Hoffmann-Novotny, 1981). According to this theory, migration is a result of resolving structural tensions (power questions) and anominal tensions (prestige questions). Migrants hope to achieve their desired status in their destinations, but often tensions are transformed instead of reduced. How successful they are depends on the global distributions of the different systems among "status lines". A migrant coming from a place/country with a low rank is unlikely to achieve a high internal rank at the destination. "Undercasting" of migrants takes place, which means that migrants take on

the lowest position in society, whereas lower stratum natives experience upward mobility, at least in terms of power/ income. This theory does not exclude economic push factors for migration, but instead places them in a wider context of other societal push factors and also considers what happens to migrants at their destination. The theory broadly makes sense and furthermore includes structural factors, which most micro theories neglect. It is not easy to apply and test it however, (Hoffmann-Novotny, 1981).

2.6.15 Family-Decision Making and the New Economics of Labour Migration

The more traditional migration approaches focus either on aggregate migration movements or individuals making migration decisions. They thus assume that individuals independently make the decision to migrate. Some of the migration literature includes a seemingly wider decision-making framework, for example, the work of Harbison (1981) titled "Family Structure and Family Strategy in Migration Decision Making". However, the migration decision is still not seen as a strategic family decision; the paper only acknowledges that families can influence the individual migrant's decision through the demographic structure. When looking at migration from a gender perspective, family structure can influence the migration decisions of women in particular. As Morokvasic, (1984) pointed out, women migrate not only because of economic motives, but also to get married, due to social constraints, low rights and lack of protection against domestic violence among several others.

Sandell, (1977) and Mincer, (1978) on the other hand viewed migration as a family decision. The family as a whole migrates if their net gain is positive. If only one partner finds a better job at the destination, the family only migrates if gains of one family member internalize the

losses of the other family member. The family migration decision is thus in essence an aggregation of individual migration utilities. Bigsten, (1988) also considers migration a household decision in which a family allocates labour to the urban or rural sector depending on the marginal products of combined wages.

In concluding this section, after critically reviewing the theories, laws and models of migration, the Lewis-Fei-Ranis model, is found to be very relevant and compatible with this research work. Therefore, the model was re-examined and adopted, hence, the research work is patterned after the model.

2.8 Livelihood Development

There were a number of early cross-disciplinary research efforts focusing on household studies, village studies, and farming systems that later informed and influenced development studies and livelihoods thinking (e.g., Lipton & Moore, 1972; Farmer, 1977; Long, 1984; Moock, 1986); however, it was not until the 1990s that the term 'sustainable livelihoods' entered the development discourse. Increased attention to poverty reduction, people-centred approaches, and sustainability in the political arena and development theory and practice resulted in the widespread adoption and adaptation of livelihood definitions, models, and frameworks during the next two decades (Scoones, 2009). Several documents and events were particularly relevant in shaping the political milieu into which the livelihoods approaches emerged. First, people-centred approaches to development were emerging in response to the perceived shortcomings of top-down, bureaucratic, market-oriented approaches to development thinking of the 1950s-1970s (Chambers, 1984, 1987, 1997; Chambers & Conway, 1992; Scoones, 1998). Arce (2003) explores how the theoretical roots

of the livelihoods approach represented a shift away from the nation-state orientation of prior community development efforts, which focused on modernization and political control, through advocating for the analysis of the realities of poor and marginalized people from their own perspective. The sustainable livelihoods approach, Arce (2003) argues, originated in "a period when policy-makers perceived nation states to be less politically important than regional markets or the economic global interdependence of national governments".

Recent decades have seen a proliferation of theoretical and practical literature in the area of sustainable livelihoods and livelihood enhancement and diversification as tools for rural development and poverty reduction. Since the emergence of the sustainable livelihoods definition proposed by Chambers and Conway (1992), sustainable livelihoods definitions and frameworks have proliferated (e.g., Hoon, Singh & Wanmali, 1997; Carney, 1998; Scoones, 1998; Ellis, 2000), have been adopted by a number of different types of organizations (bilaterals, mutlilaterals, NGOs, research centres; Hussein, 2002; Scoones, 2008), and have been adapted to fulfill a wide variety of different practical applications (i.e., increasing food security, poverty alleviation efforts, disaster relief, HIV/AIDS); See Scoones, (2008).

A livelihood comprises the capabilities, assets (stores, resources, claims and access) and activities required for a means of living: a livelihood is sustainable which can cope with and recover from stress and shocks, maintain or enhance its capabilities and assets, and provide sustainable livelihood opportunities for the next generation; and which contributes net benefits to other livelihoods at the local and global levels and in the short and long term. (Chambers & Conway, 1992). The most often cited definition of livelihood emerged from Department for International Development in 1998 (Carney, 1998; DFID, 1999). This

definition built upon Chambers and Conway's earlier definition and the subsequent work of Rennie and Singh (1996) and Scoones (1998) through adding a natural resource dimension: A livelihood comprises the capabilities, assets (including both material and social resources) and activities required for a means of living. A livelihood is sustainable when it can cope with and recover from stress and shocks and maintain or enhance its capabilities and assets both now and in the future, while not undermining the natural resource base, Chambers and Conway (1991), Carney, (1998).

In order to better understand how people develop and maintain livelihoods, the UK Department for International Development (DFID), building on the work of practitioners and academics, developed the Sustainable Livelihoods Framework (SLF). This framework is an analysis tool, useful for understanding the many factors that affect a person's livelihood and how those factors interact with each other. The SLF views livelihoods as systems and provides a way to understand:

i. the assets people draw upon
ii. the strategies they develop to make a living
iii. the context within which a livelihood is developed
iv. and those factors that make a livelihood more or less vulnerable to shocks and stresses

Assets may be tangible, such as food stores and cash savings, as well as trees, land, livestock, tools, and other resources. Assets may also be intangible such as claims one can make for food, work, and assistance as well as access to materials, information, education, health services and employment opportunities (Morse and McNamara, 2013).

The search for a better and more secure livelihood drives many migratory movements, and according to Nyberg-Sorensen and others (2002), movement is most likely common where

survival is at stake. Mobile livelihoods or livelihoods involving the geographic dispersal of household members can be poverty reducing and involve the redistribution of resources not only across space but also within a family or household. Yet, access to migration, as an opportunity, the ability to choose whether or not to migrate, and the outcome of migration for livelihoods are not evenly distributed. Rather, whether the poor can benefit from migration as much as, or more than the rich or less-poor, will depend on their means (assets, resources) and strategies (networks, planning), as well as relations of power and inequality and by implication, 'on the institutions that allow access to, or exclude people, households or communities from resources, whether these are economic, social, political or natural' (Whitehead 2002).

In the livelihoods' framework (as adopted by DFID), 'social capital' is one of the five types of assets, and much debate has been generated around its meaning. The term captures the idea that social bonds and social norms are an important part of the basis of people's livelihoods. If it is recognised that the material gains from this form of 'capital' is only one aspect of what matters in social relationships, this can be a useful metaphor. The term has as yet found little entry into migration studies, except for a recent World Bank publication where migration is thought - wrongly - to be associated with a loss of social capital, (de Haan, 1999, 2000).

2.9 Remittances, Migration and Livelihood

Literally, remittance is the transfer of money by foreign workers, but literature also includes other forms of transfers such as social remittances (diffusion of various types of social practices, ideas and values), knowledge or technology remittances (knowledge, skills and

technology brought back by returning migrants), and political remittances as changing identities and political awareness after return (Goldring 2004). Although few scholars would deny the direct contribution of migration and remittances to the livelihoods and survival of families left behind, the extent to which migration and remittances can bring about sustained human development and economic growth in migrant-sending areas is quite a different question (De Haas, 2007).

Migration and remittances from migrants reduce poverty and raise household living standards especially, rural households, (Ofuoku and Emerhi, 2014). According to Taylor and Mora (2006); Schmook and Radel (2008); Wouterse and Taylor (2008), migrant households that receive remittances from migrant members have higher income and consumption levels than non-migrant households. Migrants of all categories maintain strong links with their home communities in both economic and non-economic terms. In the course of their migration career, they may visit home periodically, send cash and consumer items to family members and friends, and even arrange and provide support for others willing to migrate. (Adepoju, 1990; Bilsborrow, et.al 1986; Gugler and Flanagan, 1978; Imoagene, 1968). According to Makinwa, (1981) and Adepoju, (1984) remittances are firmly institutionalized in Nigeria. Migrants who fail to make substantial remittances or none at all are regarded as failures. Sada (1984), Adepoju, (1984) and Makinwa, (1981) indicates that most migrants remit substantial proportions of their earnings home to finance a number of activities in order to maintain and enhance standard of living of household members. They include paying children's school fees and labourers on the family farm, building costs, setting up a trade or business and the movement of other potential migrants.

Across the globe, the scale of remittances differs from one region to the other depending on the countries of destination. A study by Lokshin et al, (2007) showed that India is the largest recipient of Nepalese migrant workers. However, the remittances from India are not as high as the number of migrants working there. Out of the total number of remittances (one remittance means the remittance sent at a time) sent back home, about 40 percent is from India and the corresponding value of remittance is about one third of total remittances entered into the country. On the contrary, a negligible number of remittances (3 percent) from outside India produce almost a quarter of the total amount of remittances. It gives a critical importance of remittances from abroad (outside India) to policy and research arena. Similarly, remittances from urban areas and rural areas of the country are also significant, though they are out of the scope of this paper.

Remittances from abroad constituted 76 percent of the total amount of remittances received in Nepal in 2004. As migration to India is decreasing, the remittance thereof is also decreasing. Using the data from Nepal Living Standard Survey 2003/04 (Lokshin et al, 2007), it shows that the largest share of international remittances came from Saudi Arabia, Qatar, and the United Arab Emirates (35 percent), followed by 30 percent from India, 17 percent from other Asian countries, and the remainder from United Kingdom, United States, and other countries. It was revealed that the scale and pattern of migration and remittances have different consequences. One country (as the country of destination) may have relatively fewer number of migrants but would have high amount of remittances and in some cases a large number of migrants may produce a relatively smaller amount of remittances, for example, number of migrants and their remittances from India as explained by de Haas, (2007). The influence in aggregate may be different from the influence at household or

individual level, so they have to be treated accordingly. It would therefore be highlighted that only macro level analysis does not help to understand the process of out-migration and its consequent impact in the areas of origin. This should be handled with more holistic and micro level studies with a sufficient attention paid to the household or individual levels in order to address the complex relationship between migration and the areas of origin.

Remittances are thought to make an improvement in the living conditions of millions of households in migrant-sending countries. For an increasing number of developing countries, remittances form a crucial source of foreign exchange, sustaining their balance of payments. In addition, governments of sending countries have put renewed hopes on migrants as potential investors in the national economy (de Haas 2005). Countries like Turkey, the Philippines, South Korea, India, Pakistan, Bangladesh, Sri Lanka, Jamaica, Cuba, Barbados, Mexico, El Salvador, and Nicaragua have encouraged international migration as a deliberate approach to development (Nwajiuba 2005). A prime reason for this is that labour migration can provide relatively well-paid employment, especially attractive for governments struggling to keep pace with rapid labour force increases. This can produce large inflows of valuable hard currency remittances. Consequently, governments of sending countries have put renewed hopes on migrants as potential investors in the national economy (de Haas 2005).

The increased importance of remittances for the social and economic development of rural livelihoods in migrant-sending countries is crucial (Adger *et al.* 2002; Barrett *et al*. 2001; Kothari 2003; Mosse *et al.* 2002). In many countries of the world, remittance is becoming a major source of investment for development. For example, the average amount received by a household can be superior to GDP per capita in many Latin American countries (Vargas-

Lundius 2004). This is significant considering that only a small percentage of rural inhabitants in those countries earn incomes equivalent to per capita GDP. Likewise, in Armenia, remittances have been considered to reduce inequality as the households that receive them would otherwise be at very low levels of income. According to a survey by USAID, remittances made up 80 percent of household incomes on average in Armenia and appear to go to some of the most vulnerable households, (USAID, 2004). In Tajikistan for instance, remittances keep many struggling families at home above the poverty line and reduce the stress caused by a lack of domestic job opportunities (UNDP 2005). UNDP (2005) further reports that remittances help by averting rural poverty in Somalia, "with a majority of the population living on less than a dollar per day, the injection of hard currency through remittances enables the country to purchase staple food, import few goods and have a 'multiplier' effects on the local economy". A study of Mexico suggests that each dollar of remittance generates three dollars of spending power. In Albania, remittances have played a significant role in macroeconomic stabilization of the country, the alleviation of poverty and amelioration of the living conditions of many Albanian households. In Egypt, the returning migrants in the late 1980s set up a number of enterprises, in greater Cairo, using funds brought back from abroad (UNDP 2005).

In Nepal, one-fifth of the poverty reduction occurring between 1995 and 2004 was claimed to be due to out-migration (Lokshin *et al.*, 2007). They further reported that 44 percent of the average household expenditure was covered by remittances in 2004. They argue, "Migration and remittances improve the welfare of households in the sending communities by stimulating local economic development. Migrants channel remittances into productive investment at home. Even when some households spend most of the remittances on current

consumption, the resulting demand for goods and services can be met by other working adults in the community, thus generating strong positive externalities" (Lokshin *et al.* 2007). The Central Bureau of Statistics (CBS) reports that in 1995-1996, the income from remittances accounted for about 9 percent of total rural income for the average rural households, which increased to 17 percent in the year 2003-2004. This income from remittances is equivalent to about 40 percent of total income contributed from agriculture in the Nepalese rural economy (THT, 2005). It is also important to note that the largest proportion (57 percent) of individual remittances sent to rural households was from household members working elsewhere in 2001 (Seddon, 2004), CBS (2004).

Nigeria is also benefitting from remittances but there is dearth of records to show specifically how much comes in on annual basis though it is said to be in billions of dollars. For instance, (Dabiri, 2017) stated that Nigerians in diaspora remitted about 35billon dollars in 2016 alone which was about the third largest after China and India. This is a huge sum of money if it was put into proper use. Depending upon the situation, migration can be a coping strategy for poorer households (Gill 2003), while it can also aim at improving living standards (Niehof 2004). Economically, remittance benefits migrant households by increased income in the short term. However, they may sometimes cause negative social effects, particularly through disruption in family relations and also by creating a sense of relative deprivation in non-migrant communities (Kageyama 2008).

New economics of labour migration suggests that migration decisions are made jointly by the migrants and other household members who are left behind in order to minimize risks and maximize the household welfare (Ellis 1998a; Massey, 1999; Stark and Bloom, 1985). Hence, it is argued that migration is an integral part of people's livelihood (McDowell and

de Haan 1997; Siddiqui 2003). So it is worthwhile to understand migration within livelihood perspective to better describe the linkages between out-migration and local development, which cannot be dealt with, the classical economic approach of looking at migration as a response to economic disequilibria between the areas of origin and destination.

Rubenstein, (1992) explains from the studies conducted in Asia that migrant's remittance may increase income inequality in a sending country. Remittance increases standard of living and creates distinct economic classes from migrant's status. No doubt, taking example of some of the Nigerian citizens in Europe and other parts of the world, there is a significant improvement on their standards of living and the families back home. The remitted money helps in solving family problems and even helps some relatives to meet some of their basic responsibilities. Remittance has a significant impact on a country's economy and welfare of the family of the migrants and labour market (Choucri, 1985). Emigration can change the social and family structure as well as the cultural value of individuals from remittance (Adams, 1991).

Labour migration is a social process and a part of active livelihood strategies, but is also determined by social context, and is determined by social norms and structures. Household composition, gendered ideologies and social contacts and networks determine who migrates, and who can profit from opportunities arising elsewhere. Migration tends to be less disruptive of social structures than often assumed. Migrants are agents of change, economically, technologically, but also socially and politically: migration may reinforce 'traditional' structures, ideologies and support networks, but migrants also create new identities, (de Haan, 2000).

The impact of labour migration on development can be analyzed in two ways, namely, through its effect on labour supply and productivity. Labour migration affects the sending areas in several ways but the key ones are shocks due to changes in labour supply as well as productivity (Katseli *et al*, 2005). Negative shocks to labour supply as a result of large exodus of people, particularly economic migrants appear at the early stages of migration but the positive shocks may appear at a later stage when return migration takes place. Migration leads to exodus of labour with specific skills such as those in the medical fields and teaching which may adversely affect the stock of human capital. Thus, the changes in labour supply induced by migration forms the first channel through which migration affects development. The second channel through which labour migration affects development is through remittances sent by migrants to families and relations in their origin. Both effects (labour supply and remittances) affect economic growth and poverty directly through substitution and income effects and indirectly through productivity changes (Katseli *et al*, 2005). Above all, labour migration tends to encourage remittances which in turn improve the livelihoods of the people.

CHAPTER THREE

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

3.1 Preamble

This Chapter presents the methodology under the following sub-headings:

i. Types of data required
ii. Sources of data
iii. Methods of data collection
iv. Methods of data analysis

3.2 Types of Data Required

Apart from the socio-economic and demographic characteristics of respondents, two major data sets were collected, the data were on labour migration and livelihood development. The selection of these variables were based on past works and literature relating to labour migration and livelihood development. The types of data that were required include the following:

(1)*. *Labour Migration Data:*

i. sex of respondents;
ii. age of respondents;
occupation of respondents;
iii. ranks of respondents;
iv. educational qualification;
v. number of family members with pensionable appointments
vi. number of family members with non-pensionable appointment

* *Surrogate information (in %) was extracted to conform with numerical and measurable value e.g., number of people that are found in each category.*

vii. number of family members in informal employment: (i.e. farming, business/trading, among others)

viii. frequency of movement;

ix. direction of movement;

x. age at first movement;

xi. age at first appointment;

xii. age at present job;

xiii. Skills/experience;

xiv. number of job change;

xv. determinant of movement;

xvi. level of job satisfaction;

xvii. category of jobs that move; and

xviii. locational attraction (availability of certain infrastructure)

(2) Livelihood Development Data

i. average monthly income

ii. number of family members earning above minimum wage

iii. number of family members earning below minimum wage

iv. family median income

v. family assets

vi. number of dependants per family

vii. number of family members in paid employment

viii. number of family members in pensionable appointment

ix. number of children in school

x. number of family members with plots of land

xi. number of family members with own houses

xii. number of family member(s) with household items such as (TV, satellite dish, modern furniture and generating sets).

xiii. number of family members with vehicle for commercial use

xiv. number of family members with vehicle for private use

xv. number of family members with alternative source of income

xvi. number of family members that remit money home

xvii. average amount remitted home by family members

xviii. number of family with accessibility to loan/credit facility

xix. number of family with alternative sources of income

xx. number of respondents with alternative source of income

xxi. frequency of remitting money home

3.3 Sources of Data

Two major sources of data collection were employed for this research, these include primary and secondary sources.

3.3.1 Primary Source

These are data that were obtained directly from the respondents. The primary source of data for this work included information derived from the respondents, this include the administration of questionnaire.

3.3.2 Secondary Source

The secondary data were collected from relevant organizations such as the National Population Commission (NPC), Office of the International Organization of Migration (IOM) in Nigeria, International Labour Organization (ILO), National Bureau of Statistics, Kwara State Town Planning and Development Authority, Kwara State Agricultural Development Programme (KWADP), Kwara State Bureau of Lands and other library sources. Information was also extracted from journals, text documents, published and unpublished research works, on-line resources and other relevant records.

3.4 Methods of Data Collection

The settlements covered in this study were identified and selected based on the 1991 National Population Census (See Table 3.1) since the results of 2006 census by settlement

was not available especially for the study area. However, the 1991 population census figures which have been projected to 2001 were further projected to 2011 using the 3.0 annual growth rate nationally accepted for the purpose of planning. The 1991 population census projected to 2011 indicated that there are about forty one (41) towns with population ranging from 5000-20000 people from 13 LGAs in Kwara State. Quantitative and qualitative methods of data collection were used, while sample survey of household heads was done using a systematic random sampling technique. In addition, perceptions of people on labour migration and livelihood development in the study area were considered as it was believed that some of the respondents are not likely to be migrants.

3.5 Sampling Procedure

The towns of Kwara State were identified using the 1991 National Population Census figure by settlements since that of 2006 by settlements were not readily available. Therefore, the 1991 population census was projected to 2011. The 1999 Constitution of the Federal Republic of Nigeria classified urban centre as a settlement with a population of about 5,000 people and above. This is in line with such countries as Comoros Island, Zambia, Austria, India, Slovakia and Botswana where settlements with population of 5,000 and above are classified as urban centres.

Simple random sampling and systematic random sampling techniques were adopted in administering questionnaire. Three Local Government Areas were selected from each Senatorial Districts of Kwara State. Two towns with population of 5000 and above were also randomly selected from each Local Government Area. This resulted into eighteen towns being selected eventually for sampling from all the three Senatorial Districts of Kwara State.

However, Local Government areas where towns with sizeable population are not up to 5000 or are more than 5000, towns with the next highest population were selected. Also, the researcher used his discretion to select local government headquarters in some LGAs. (See Figure 3.1). For the random sampling, balloting of paper without replacement was adopted to select the local government areas and to give equal chances of being selected.

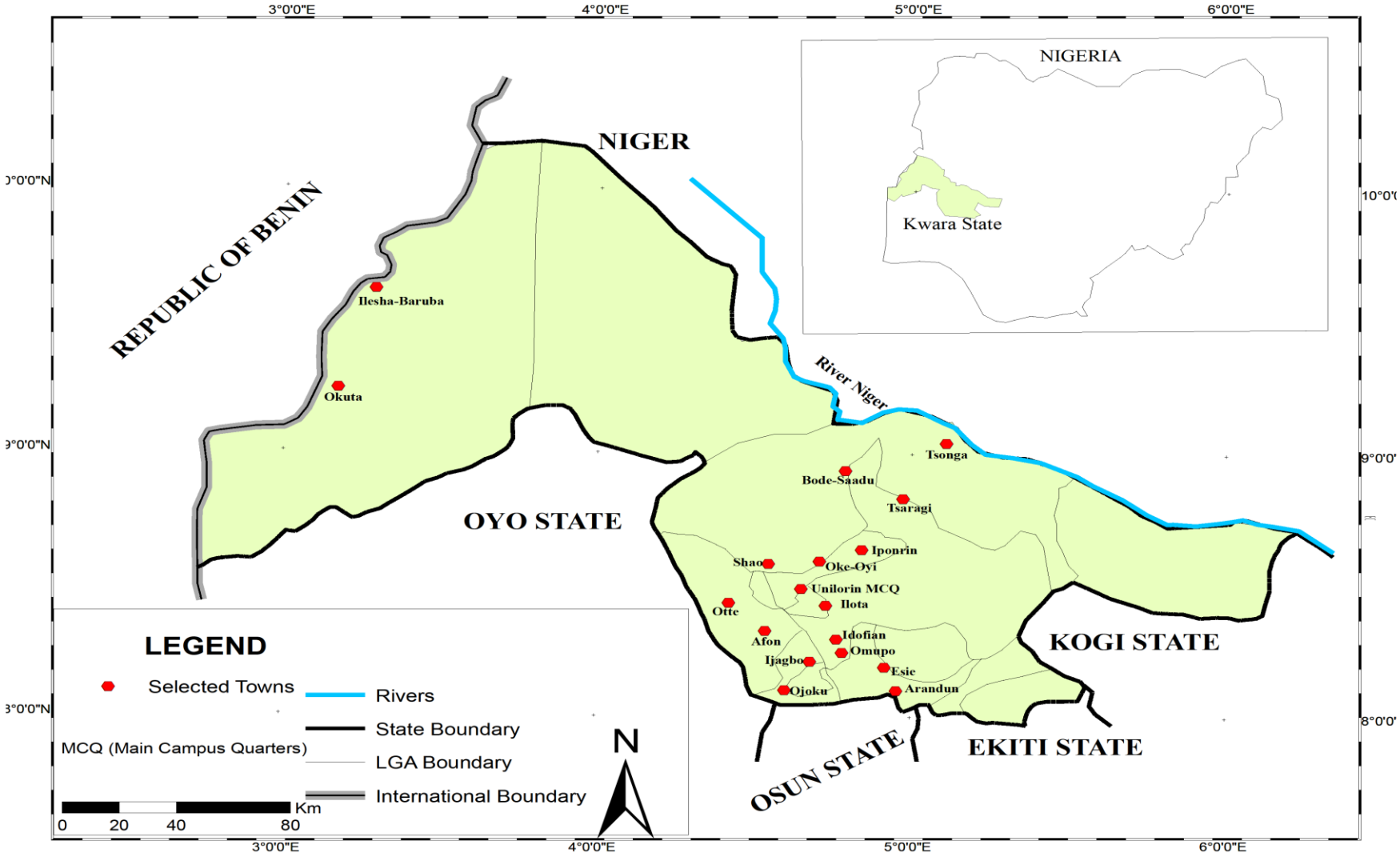


Figure 3: 1: Map of Kwara State Showing the Selected Towns
Source: Kwara State Ministry of Lands and Survey, 2016

In addition, there are about 4959 estimated households in the selected towns, however, 13% of the household heads were sampled; that is, 647 households were administered questionnaire (See Table 3.3) where the n^{th} or k^{th} household were randomly selected. For instance, the 13% households were used to divide the total number of household as shown in Table 3.3. This was arrived at having considered estimates by the National Population Commission (NPC) 2010 and Federal Bureau of Statistics (FBS) 2006 which states that 3.7 is the population for each household for Kwara State.

For the purpose of questionnaire administration, the 1991 National Population Census (NPC) was projected to 2011 as the 2006 (NPC) has figures released by Local Governments and not by localities/towns/settlements. The projection was based on the 3.0 annual growth rate for Kwara State (FGN Official Gazette, 2007). Based on this, questionnaires were administered on household heads in each of the selected towns. An average household in Nigeria consists of 5 persons (NBS, 2006a and NPC, 2009). However, 13% of the population which form the household heads were sampled. In view of this, a total of 647 household heads were administered with questionnaire while a total of 530 of the administered questionnaire were returned, (See Table 3.1). Systematic random sampling was used to determine the sampling frame (N) and the sample size (n). After selecting the first household, every K^{th} household were selected for questionnaire administration. For instance, of all the households, 13% of them were selected as heads of households. (Afon for instance with a population of 5766 and a household size of 213 had 28 selected as 13% of heads of household). Where K is given by: $K = \frac{213(13)}{100}$. This procedure was applicable to all the 18 settlements selected for questionnaire administration and the number arrived at eventually.

Questionnaire administration method was direct and face to face with the aid of three (3) field assistants who assisted in the fieldwork. All the 647 respondents were sampled with a return of 530 questionnaires, this represent about 82% of the total questionnaire administered. The questionnaire administration (fieldwork) took a period of four (4) months (October, 2015 to January, 2016). The questionnaires were administered on the respondents who were majorly heads of households and who could read and write; these categories of respondents filled the questionnaire themselves, while the questions and options were interpreted for those respondents who could neither read nor write. Adequate care was taken to fill correctly their responses as it was usually read to them after each exercise to avoid discrepancies.

Household refers to the homestead, that is, one household head with his or her dependants, which may include, in the case of male headed households, more than one wife, the children, grandchildren, parents and dependent siblings, as well as non-related individuals who reside with the family and depend on them for food in return for assistance with household chores. (Spencer, 1988; Homewood and Rodgers, 1991; Coast, 2002).

Table 3. 1 : 1991 Population Census showing Towns and their Population by Local Governments in Kwara State

S/N	Kwara State Senatorial Districts	L.G.A of Kwara State	Total L.G.A. Population (2006 Census) Source: FGN, 2007.	Selected L.G.A	L.G.A H/Q	Selected Towns	Pop. as a 1991	2001 Projection	2011 Projection	Number of Households (HH)	13% of H H/No. Ques. Admin.	No. of Ques. returned
1	Kwara North	Baruteen	206,679	Baruten	Kosubosu	Okuta Ilesh-Baruba	6610 4451	8460 5697	10828 7292	401 270	52 35	40 29
2		Edu	201,642	Edu	Lafiagi	Shonga Tsaraji	5666 3952	7252 5058	9282 6477	343 240	45 31	36 26
3		Kaiama	124,015									
4		Moro	108,715	Moro	Bode-Saadu	Bode-Saadu Shao	6,228 6550	7972 8380	10204 10726	378 397	49 52	39 40
5		Patigi	110,852									
6	Kwara Central	Asa	124,668	Asa	Afon	Afon Otte	3520 4002	4505 5122	5766 6556	213 243	28 32	24 27
7		Ilorin East	207,462	Ilorin East	Oke-oyi	Oke-oyi Iponrin	6042 1662	7733 2127	9898 2722	366 100	48 13	45 13
8		Ilorin South	209,251	Ilorin South	Fufu	Ilota Unilorin (MC Quarters)	1127 1236	1442 1582	1846 2024	68 75	9 10	9 10
9		Ilorin West	365,221									
10	Kwara South	Ekiti	54,399									
11		Ifelodun	204,975		Ifelodun	Idofian Omupo	5519 6411	7064 8202	9042 10959	335 405	44 53	32 42
12		Irepodun	147,594		Irepodun	Arandun Esie	4854 4536	6213 5806	7952 7431	294 275	38 36	32 28
13		Isin	59,481									
14		Offa	88,975									
15		Oke-Ero	56,970									
16		Oyun	94,454	Oyun	Ilemona	Ijagbo Ojoku	4075 5095	5216 6521	6676 8347	247 309	32 40	28 30
-	-	-	**2,371,089**	-	-	-	**87830**	**112408**	**134028**	**4959**	**647**	**530**

Source: *Author's Computation (2016) from the 1991 National Population Census.*

Table 3. 2: Selected LGAs and Towns Showing Sampled Numbers of Household

S/No	LGA	Settlement	Pop. 1991 Census	Projected Pop. 2011	Estimated No. of HH	13% of Heads of HH)
1.	Baruten	Ilesha-Baruba	4450	7292	270	35
	‘’	Okuta	6610	10828	401	52
2.	Edu	Tsonga	5666	9282	343	45
	‘’	Tsaragi	3952	6447	240	31
3.	Moro	Bode-Saadu	6228	10204	378	49
	‘’	Shao	6550	10726	397	52
4.	Asa	Afon	3520	5766	213	28
	‘’	Otte	4002	6556	243	32
5.	Ilorin-East	Oke-Oyi	6042	9898	366	48
	‘’	Iponrin	1662	2722	100	13
6.	Ilorin-South	Ilota	1127	1846	68	09
	‘’	Unilorin Staff Qtrs	1236	2024	75	10
7.	Ifelodun	Idofian	5519	9042	335	44
	‘’	Omupo	6411	10959	405	53
8.	Irepodun	Arandun	4854	7952	294	38
	‘’	Esie	4536	7431	275	36
9.	Oyun	Ijagbo	4075	6675	247	32
	‘’	Ojoku	5095	8345	309	40
Total			87830	**134028**	**4959**	**647**

Source: Author’s Computation (2016) from the Projection of 1991 NPC Using the 3.0% annual growth rate.

Administered and Returned Questionnaire

Table 3.3 showed that 18 towns were selected from all the 16 LGAs of Kwara State, two towns from each LGA while 3 LGAs were selected from each senatorial district of Kwara North, Kwara Central and Kwara South respectively. Nine LGAs were selected in all. Table 3.3 indicated that 647 copies of questionnaire were administered to all the 18 selected towns, while 530 copies of questionnaire were responded to and returned. This shows that in all, 81.9% of the questionnaires were returned. While the highest return rate was 100% in the case of Iponrin, Ilota and Unilorin MCQ, the lowest return rate was 72.7% that is, Idofian.

Table 3. 3: Administered and Returned Questionnaire

Name of Town	Administered Questionnaire	Returned Questionnaire	% of Returned Questionnaire
Okuta	52	40	76.9%
Ilesha Baruba	35	29	82.9%
Shonga	45	36	80.0%
Tsaragi	31	26	83.9%
Bode-Saadu	49	39	79.6%
Shao	51	40	78.4%
Afon	28	24	85.7%
Otte	32	27	84.4%
Oke-Oyi	48	45	93.8%
Iponrin	13	13	100%
Ilota	09	09	100%
Unilorin MCQ	10	10	100%
Idofian	44	32	72.7%
Omupo	53	42	79.2%
Arandun	38	32	84.2%
Esie	36	28	77.8%
Ijagbo	32	28	87.5%
Ojoku	40	30	75.0%
Total	**647**	**530**	**81.9**%

Source: Author's Fieldwork, 2016

As for the Senatorial districts, Kwara North has the highest return rate with 210 copies of questionnaire (39.6%) followed by Kwara South with 192 copies of questionnaire 36.2% while Kwara Central has the lowest with 128 copies of questionnaire (24.2%) as can be observed in Table 3.3. For the LGAs, Moro LGA has the highest return rate with 79 (14.9%), Ilorin South LG has the lowest return rate with 19 (3.6%). Though the number of administered copies of questionnaire varies from town to town, there was no town where the return rate of copies of questionnaire were less than 70%, same for all the nine local government areas and the three senatorial districts.

Table 3. 4: Sampled LGA/Senatorial Districts and Returned Questionnaire

Sampled LGAs/Senatorial Districts	Number of Returned Questionnaire	Percentage (%)
Kwara North	**210**	**39.6**%
Baruten	69	13.0%
Edu	62	11.7%
Moro	79	14.9%
Kwara Central	**128**	**24.2**%
Asa	51	9.6%
Ilorin East	58	10.9%
Ilorin South	19	3.6%
Kwara South	**192**	**36.2**%
Ifelodun	74	14.0%
Irepodun	60	11.3%
Oyun	58	10.9%
Total	**530**	**100%**

Source: Author's Fieldwork, 2016

3.6 Data Analysis

The stages of analysis involved in this study include: demographic characteristics of selected towns and respondents; labour migration pattern (factor analysis); livelihood development pattern (factor analysis); canonical correlation analysis, and stepwise multiple regression analysis. This study employed both descriptive and inferential statistics in the data analysis process. The descriptive statistics include charts, tables, simple percentages and frequency distribution. Tabulation and cross tabulation as a basic method of summarizing data, using descriptive statistics was employed. This is mostly the measure of proportions, using percentages, averages, scores and ranking methods.

On the other hand, the inferential statistical methods include the use of Factor Analysis, Canonical Correlation Analysis (CCA) and Stepwise Multiple Regression. Factor Analysis was used for the labour migration and livelihood development indices. Factor analysis was used to regroup the data set into forming patterns on the basis of factor scores. The

Statistical Packages for the Social Sciences (SPSS) was used in determining the variables that account for pattern of labour migration and pattern of livelihood development in the 18 selected towns. It was also used as a measure for showing spatial dimension and also to identify labour migration factors that account for movement and factors that account for livelihood development. Factor analysis has been widely used in human and economic geography and even up till now, there have been numerous applications of factor analysis to spatial variations and pattern identification. Factor analysis technique has been applied at a number of geographical data manipulation of this nature. It has been considered to be the most suitable for the task of separating factors and identifying development. The works of Berry, (1966); Cox, (1969); Clayton, (1974); Abumere, (1980); Adedayo, (1989); Jolayemi, (1992), Ajayi, (1991) and Olawepo, (1997) among several others suggested that factor analysis is a model adopted to test variation in explanation by variables to general pattern and a form of data reduction strategy.

The method was considered useful because there will always be problem of finding appropriate and adequate label for the factor groups, it is useful for arranging the complex nature of variables that accounts for extracting a smaller set of factors which accounted for most of the variance in the original data as well as reorganizing the data set in orthogonal form (Orire, 2015). Apart from weighing each variable according to the strength of its correlation with other variables, it also identified the group of variables that have common variance (Robinson, 1988, Yusuf, 2011, Usman, 2014 and Orire, 2015). For this research work therefore, all values of 0.50 were selected as factor defining variables. One of the fundamental challenges of factor analysis is the inability to categorize and name the factors

into appropriate classification for the purpose of mapping. However, this challenge was managed by a careful consideration of the pattern of loadings to name the factors.

In order to regress labour migration variables derived against that of livelihood development, the canonical correlation analysis was adopted to test relationship between the two composite data sets to meet the set objectives. The canonical correlation analysis according to Joseph et' al (1998) and Olawepo (1997:68) can be used as a method of correlation analysis when both independent variables and the dependent variables are composites of several measured variables. Canonical Correlation Analysis is a multivariate statistical model that facilitates the study of interrelationships among sets of multiple dependent variables and multiple independent variables. Whereas multiple regression predicts a single dependent variable from a set of multiple independent variables, canonical correlation simultaneously predicts multiple dependent variables from multiple independent variables, (Joseph et al, 1998). The Canonical Correlation Analysis has the following key terms:

- *Canonical Correlation*: Measure of the strength of the overall relationships between the linear composites (*canonical variates*) for the independent and dependent variables. In effect, it represents the bi-variate correlation between the two canonical variates, (Joseph et al, 1998).

- *Canonical Cross-loadings*: Correlation of each observed independent or dependent variable with the opposite *canonical variate*. For example, the independent variables are correlated with the dependent canonical variate. They can be interpreted like *canonical loadings*, but with the opposite canonical variate, (Joseph et al, 1998).

- *Canonical Function*: Relationship (correlational) between two linear composites (*canonical variates*). Each canonical function has two canonical variates, one for the set of dependent variables and one for the set of independent variables. The strength of the relationship is given by the *canonical correlation*.

- *Canonical Loadings*: Measure of the simple linear correlation between the independent variables and their respective *canonical variates*. These can be interpreted like factor loadings, and are also known as canonical structure correlations (Joseph et al, 1998).

- *Canonical Roots*: Squared *canonical correlations*, which provide an estimate of the amount of shared variance between the respective optimally weighted *canonical variates* of dependent and independent variables. Also known as *Eigen values*, (Joseph et al, 1998).

- *Canonical Variates*: Linear combinations that represent the weighted sum of two or more variables and can be defined for either dependent or independent variables. Also referred to as *linear composites*, linear compounds, and linear combinations, (Joseph et al, 1998).

- *Orthogonal*: Mathematical constraint specifying that the *canonical functions* are independent of each other. In other words, the canonical functions are derived so that each is at a right angle to all other functions when plotted in multivariate space, thus ensuring statistical independence between the canonical functions, (Joseph et al, 1998).

- *Redundancy Index*: Amount of variance in a *canonical variate* (dependent or independent) explained by the other canonical variate in the *canonical function*. It can be computed for both the dependent and the independent canonical variates in each canonical function. For example, a redundancy index of the dependent variate represents the amount of variance in the dependent variables explained by the independent canonical variate, (Joseph et al, 1998).

Van Auken (1993) adopted this method to make a financial comparison between Korean and US firms, Mo Adam and Man (1993) used this method to determine whether a relationship exists between information technology (IT) investment and the strategic and economic performance of the firm. Olawepo, (1997) also adopted this method to determine the relationship in the case of resettlement indices and rural development indices otherwise known as predictor and criteria variables in canonical correlation analysis.

The use of canonical correlation is not new in geographical studies. This had been used to measure relationship by Warwik, (1970), Oyeleye, (1982) and Liang, (1982). Earlier studies of this nature were also done for example, Stewart and Love, (1963), Gauthier, (1968), and Ray (1971). Gauthier, (1968) studied the relationship between the level of economic development and accessibility in Brazil. Ray, (1971) used canonical correlation analysis to examine the interrelationship between cultural and economic characteristics in Canada. Olawepo, (1997), in his study, used canonical correlation analysis to find out if empirical linkages exist between labour migration factors and indices of livelihood development among the settlements.

Canonical correlation is considered to be the general model on which many other multivariate techniques are based because it can use both metric and non-metric data for either the dependent or independent variables. The general form of canonical analysis is expressed as:

$$Y_1 + Y_2 + Y_3 + ... + Y_n = X_1 + X_2 + X_3 + ... + X_n$$

(metric, non-metric),

where :

$Y_1 - Y_n$ is the independent variables,

$X_1 - X_n$ is the dependent variables.

Lastly, the Stepwise multiple regression was used to explain the factors affecting labour migration. This method had been employed by several researchers such as Olawepo, (1997, 2004), Usman, (2013), Orire, (2015) and several others.. In order to find out factors

affecting labour movement, questions were asked on the reasons of movement. The formula is given thus:

$$Y= a+b1X1 + b2X2---- bn X n+e.$$

For labour migration data, the variables are:

Where:

Y = Reason for Movement as our independent model and

X1-Xn = factors affecting labour migration (dependent variables).

*X1 = Age

X2 Educational qualification

X3 Proximity to family/marital influence

X4 = Job search

X5 = Job satisfaction

X6 = Skills/experience

X7 = Better paying jobs

X8 = Transfer

X9 = Locational attraction/greener pasture

X10 = insurgency/security/natural disaster

X11= Loss of initial jobs

X12 = Family size

X13 = change in business

X14 = Government policy

a = intercept

bx1- bxn = regression coefficient

e = error terms

*% of people that ranked each reason as first

And for Livelihood Development Data, the Variables are:

Where Y = Average monthly income as our independent model and

X1 Average Income

X2 % of Family Members Earning Above Minimum-wage

X3 % of Family Members Earning Below Minimum-wage

X4 Family Assets

X5 Number of Dependants

X6 % of Family Members with Properties for Rent

X7 % of Family Members with Own Houses

X8 Number of Children in School

X9 % of Family Members in Permanent Employment

X10 % of Family Members in Pensionable Appointment

X11 Family Median Income

X12 Average Monthly Income before Migration

X13 Average Monthly Income after Migration

X14 % of Family Members Having Access to Loan/Credit Facility

X15 % of Family Members with Alternative Source of Income

X16 Respondents with Alternative Source of Income

X17 % of Family Members Having Vehicles for Commercial Use

X18 % of Family Members Having Vehicles for Private Use

a = intercept

bx1-bxn = regression coefficient

e = error terms

*% of people that ranked each reason as first

Because some of these variables were obtained through questionnaire administration, all the variables were subjected to a form of data transformation using logarithm before being inputted into the computer for proper analysis that is, factor analysis, canonical correlation

analysis and stepwise multiple regression analysis. This brought uniformity in data both in ratio and interval values. Some of these variables were selected on the basis of past studies on Labour Migration, for example, (Adepoju, 1986).

CHAPTER FOUR
RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

4.1 Preamble

This chapter presents the data and analysis of the results. It includes general background, demographic and socio-economic characteristics of respondents. There are also questions on labour migration and livelihood development, some of these questions include: members of family in paid employment, numbers of dependants per family, number of children in schools, duration of stay in present locations, reasons for migrating and so on and so forth. These variables are very important and relevant to this work as they form the bedrock upon which the success of this work is based. In view of this, data were presented through the use of Tables, Charts and Figures for easy understanding and comprehension. Aside from the use of tables, charts and figures for analysis, inferential statistical techniques were also used to analyse some of the variables, some of the statistical methods used include factor analysis, canonical correlation analysis and stepwise multiple regression analysis.

4.2 SOCIO-ECONOMIC AND DEMOGRAPHIC BACKGROUND OF RESPONDENTS

4.3 Demographic Characteristics of Respondents

4.3.1 Home Towns of Respondents

As stated earlier, 18 towns were selected for this research work. The respondents were asked to indicate their home towns by choosing the correct option as indicated in the questionnaire, (See Appendix I). Among the options listed are: sampled towns, towns within the sample LGAs, towns outside the sampled LGAs among others. The idea was to know those who

have migrated and from where they have migrated. Responses from the field as shown in Table 4.1 indicates that about 230 (43.4%) of the respondents are from the sampled town, while 85 (16.0%) of the respondents are not from the sampled towns, but from the sampled LGA. For example, if Bode Saadu is the sampled town being looked at, someone who is from Malete or Shao but resident in Bode-Saadu may be categorized as being from towns within the sampled LGA since these two towns are in Moro LGA. The other categories of respondents are those who have migrated to the sampled towns from other LGAs of Kwara State. These categories of people are 120 (22.6%) their hometowns are not the sampled ones rather, they are from towns from other LGAs of Kwara State. The last set of people are those who are from other States, they are resident in the sampled towns as at the time of conducting the survey but originally, they are from towns in other States. These categories of people are 95 (17.9%) of the total respondents. In all, it is only 43.4% of the respondents who are resident in their home towns where the questionnaire were administered, the remaining 56.6% (300) are either from the same LGA as the respondents, the same state or from other States. Hence, 56.6% respondents migrated to the sampled towns (See Table 4.1).

Table 4. 1: Hometown of Respondents

Towns	**Frequency**	**Percentage**
Sampled towns	230	43.4
Towns within the sampled LGA	85	16.0
Towns outside the sampled LGA but within Kwara state	120	22.6
Towns in other states	95	17.9
Total	**530**	**100%**

Source: Author's Fieldwork, 2016

4.3.2: State of Origin of Respondents

Kwara State is very unique in that it shares boundaries with states that have different socio-cultural backgrounds, languages and other numerous characteristics and it is located between the north and south. It is the gateway between the northern and southern Nigeria as one must pass through the state from South west en-route north west. Also, as a result of the availability of large expanse of arable land which is suitable for agricultural practices all round the year, the State has continued to attract people from different backgrounds who have come there to farm. The state has also attracted so many artisans, business men and women who have also migrated to the state for commercial and other numerous activities, including fishing, schooling and those in formal employment who were on transfer.

Table 4.2 showed that those whose state of origin was Kwara State had the highest response rate, about 90.8% of the respondents are from Kwara State. The State with the next highest response rate is the State of Osun with 2.6% followed by Niger State 2.1%, Kogi with 1.9%, Oyo 1.7%, Ekiti 1.5%, Nassarawa & Benue States with 1.3% & 1.1% respectively. The States with the lowest response rate are Bauchi, Edo, Ogun and Zamfara States with 1 (0.2%) respondent each. This indicates that all these respondents have migrated from their various home states to Kwara State for one reason or the other.

Table 4. 2: State of Origin of Respondents

State	Frequency	Percentage
Akwa-Ibom	3	0.6%
Anambra	3	0.6%
Bauchi	1	0.2%
Benue	6	1.1%
Edo	1	0.2%
Ekiti	8	1.5%
Kaduna	4	0.8%
Kano	2	0.4%
Katsina	2	0.4%
Kebbi	5	0.9%
Kogi	10	1.9%
Kwara	436	82.3%
Nasarrawa	7	1.3%
Niger	11	2.1%
Ogun	1	0.2%
Ondo	3	0.6%
Osun	14	2.6%
Oyo	9	1.7%
Yobe	3	0.6%
Zamfara	1	0.2%
Total	**530**	**100%**

Source: Author's Fieldwork, 2016

From Table 4.2, it can be observed that states with the highest number of migrants to Kwara states are those that shared common boundaries with Kwara states. Osun, Niger, Kogi, Oyo and Ekiti States all shared common boundaries with Kwara state. Osun State shares boundary with Kwara state to the south, Niger State to the North, Kogi state to the east, Oyo State to the south west and Ekiti State to the south east. It is only Nassarawa and Benue states which do not share common boundaries with Kwara state, though in the old Kwara state, they used to share boundaries with Kwara state. Also, the proximity of Kwara state with some of its neighbours can also be said to have necessitated easy movement to Kwara State. For instance, one can hardly delineate between Erin-Ile in Oyun LGA of Kwara State and Okuku in Odo-Otin LGA of Osun State because they have similar culture, vegetation and terrain.

It can be opined that some of the states with high number of their citizens' residents in Kwara state are mostly from agrarian States which are not too rich nor are they commercial centres like Lagos, Kano and Rivers States. Most of all these respondents are either in Kwara to farm or trade, some are on transfer or working with government establishments. Of the 36 states and the Federal Capital Territory (FCT), Abuja, it is only 20 states that have one or more of their citizens migrated to Kwara state. The remaining 16 plus the FCT have no citizen of theirs in Kwara state among the sampled respondents. Most of these states that have no indigene of theirs among the sampled respondents in Kwara state are either due to their distance or the fact that they are more viable economically, or they were not just among the respondents.

4.3.3 Age of Respondents

Respondents were grouped into ages: 18-20 years, 30-39 years, 40-49 years, 50-59 years, and 60 years & above. In Figure 4.1, it can be observed that in all the towns sampled, respondents within the age group 40-49 years have the largest with about 189 (35.7%) of the total respondents of 530. This was closely followed by respondents within the age group 30–39 years with 159, which account for 30.2% of the respondents. The age group with the least response is 18-29 with 34 respondents (6.4%). This is not surprising since the study focused on the heads of households as its target respondents. A combination of age groups 30-39 and 40-49 which together are the highest, gave a total of 359 which represents about 65.9% of the total respondents. These particular ages can be said to be the most active age groups in this region and are also the most productive and educated age groups because when you cross tabulate age distribution and educational qualification, one can see that the most educated age group still remain age groups 40-49 and 30-39 as shown in Table 4.3.

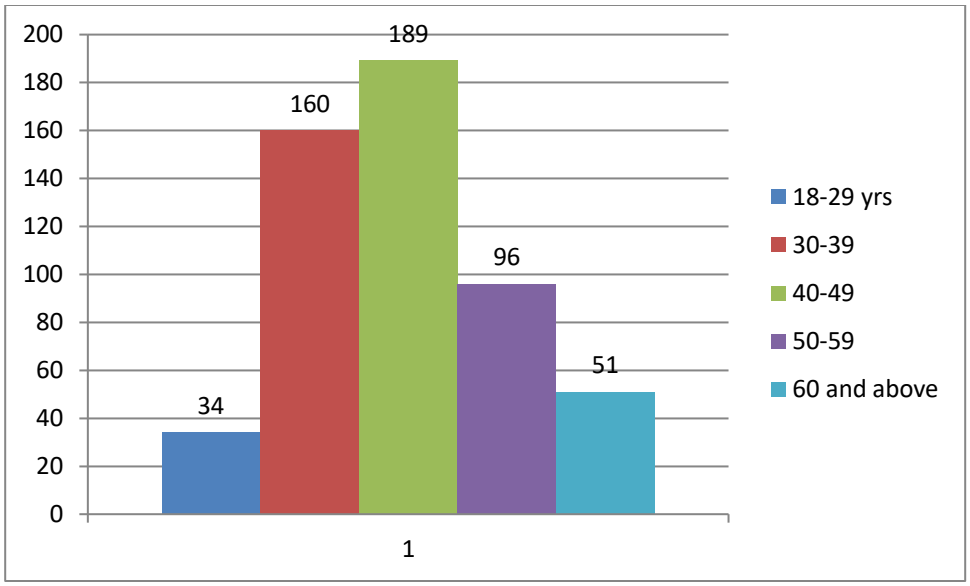


Figure 4. 1: Age Distributions of Respondents

Source: Author's Fieldwork, 2016

Table 4. 3: Cross Tabulation of Age of Respondents with Educational Qualification

Age Group of Respondents	Educational Qualification					Total
	Non-formal Education/Quranic	First School Leaving Certificate	SSCE/NECO/ GCE	OND/NCE/ HND/ First Degree	Post-Graduate	
18-29	2	4	22	6	0	34
30-39	22	21	67	42	8	160
40-49	38	57	55	36	3	189
50-59	32	19	15	28	2	96
60 and Abv	30	11	5	5	0	51
Total	**124**	**112**	**164**	**117**	**13**	**530**

Source: Author's Fieldwork, 2016

4.3.4 Sex Distribution of Respondents

The sex distribution in Figure 4.2 shows that male dominates all the respondents. Evidence from all the towns showed that most of the respondents are male. The trend from all the

towns shows that the range of respondents who were male is from 75% to 100% in some towns. For instance, Unilorin MCQ has a 100% male respondents, this indicates that all the heads of household who responded to the questionnaire are male. In all, the number of respondents who are male are 466 (87.1%) while that of female stood at 64 (12.9%), (See Figure 4.2).

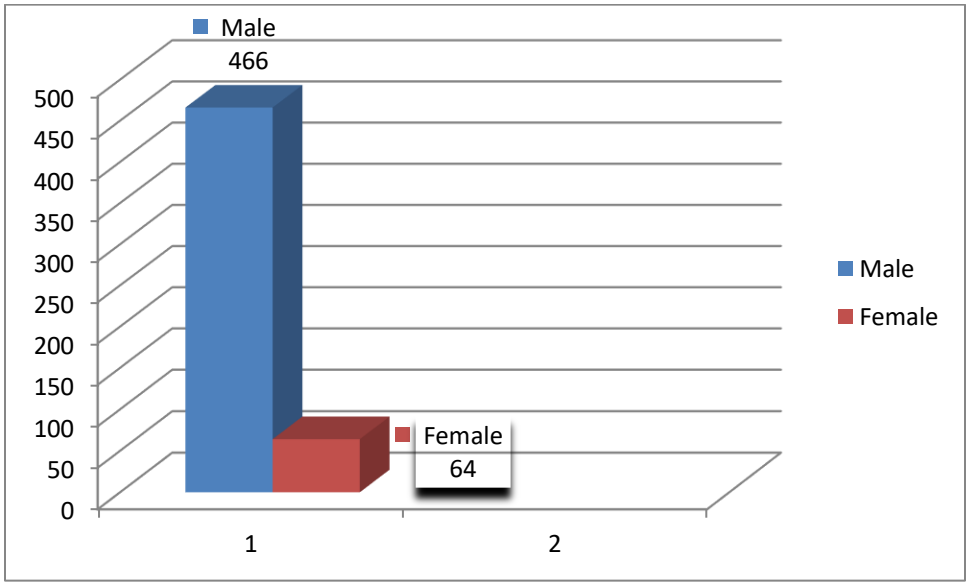


Figure 4. 2: A Graph Showing the Age Distributions of Respondents

Source: Author's Fieldwork, 2016

The outcome of the analysis in Figure 4.2 is not surprising as most households are usually male headed households. In addition, previous studies have shown that people that migrated mostly are male because they always move from one place to the other in order to provide for their families livelihoods. A look at Table 4.4 which shows the cross tabulation of sex distribution by towns indicates that all the towns are dominated by male headed households as the range of the numbers of male in each town is between 75-100 in all the sampled towns.

Table 4. 4: Cross Tabulation of Sex of Respondents by Settlement

Towns	Male	%	Female	%	Total	Percentage
Okuta	34	85.0	6	15.0	40	100
Ilesha-Baruba	27	75.9	7	24.1	29	100
Shonga	31	86.1	5	13.9	36	100
Tsaragi	23	88.5	3	11.5	26	100
Bode Saadu	36	92.3	3	7.7	39	100
Shao	38	95.0	2	5.0	40	100
Afon	21	87.5	3	12.5	24	100
Otte	26	96.3	1	3.7	27	100
Oke-Oyi	43	95.6	2	4.4	45	100
Iponrin	13	100	0	-	13	100
Ilota	7	77.8	2	22.2	9	100
Unilorin MCQ	10	100	0	-	10	100
Idofian	28	87.5	4	12.5	32	100
Omupo	37	88.1	5	11.9	42	100
Arandun	27	84.4	5	15.6	32	100
Esie	21	75.0	7	25.0	28	100
Ijagbo	22	78.6	6	21.4	28	100
Ojoku	27	90.0	3	10.0	30	100
TOTAL	**466**	**87.9**	**64**	**12.9**	**530**	**100%**

Source: Author's Fieldwork, 2016

4.3.5 Marital Status of Respondents

The data obtained and analyzed showed that married respondents accounted for 93.6% of the total responses which is a very high share of the total sampled questionnaire, (Table 4.5). In particular, data from Iponrin, University of Ilorin Main Campus Quarters and Ojoku indicated that all the respondents from these towns are married. This is closely followed by Oke-Oyi which indicated that 97.8% of its respondents were married while Omupo and Ijagbo returned 97.6% and 82.1% respectively as married. The respondents who are widowed are the second largest with 23 (4.3%) followed by the ones who were divorced with 9 (1.7%), while those who are single has the least responses with just 2 of them, this translates to 0.4%, (See also Figure 4.3).

Table 4. 5: Marital Status of Respondents

Marital Status	Frequency	Percent (%)
Single	2	0.4%
Married	496	93.6%
Divorced	9	1.7%
Widowed	23	4.3%
Total	**530**	**100%**

Source: Author's Fieldwork, 2016

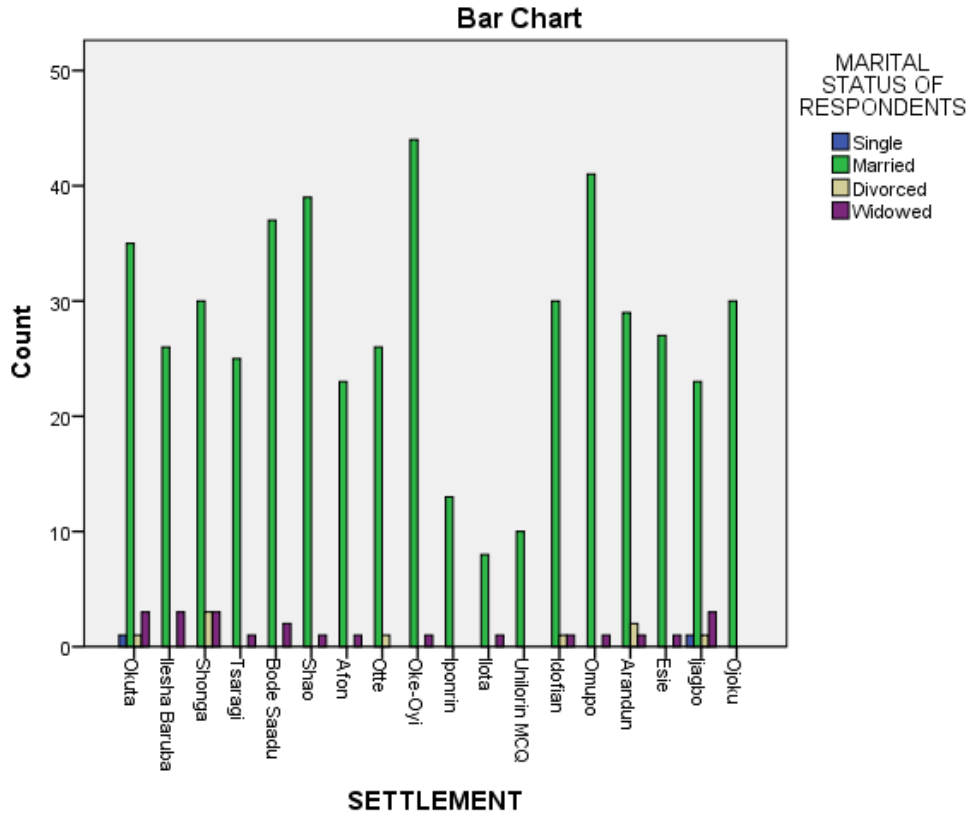


Figure 4. 3: A Bar Chart Showing Age Distributions by Towns

Source: Author's Fieldwork, 2016

4.4 Family and Households Information

4.4.1 Members in Households

The household occupies a central position in Nigeria's economy and most importantly, the urban sector (Adepoju 1982). The household constitutes a unit of production and

consumption. The household serves as the main source of social security and factors of production; that is, labour, capital and ownership of land. Labour is traditionally recruited from the family resources. Recently, this situation has been undergoing considerable changes as a result of rapid expansion of education, migration and the widening differential in income and other opportunities, including social services. Migration is a major change element (Olusanya, et.al. 1978). As indicated in the Second National Development Plan, the household sector is by far the most important single institutional sector in the Nigerian economy, but unfortunately, the sector has been substantially left out in the past planning exercises. (FMI, 1970: 291).

In this work, respondents were grouped into four different household sizes; these are people in households between 1-3, 4-6, 7-9 and 10 & above. From Table 4.6, it can be observed that respondents in household group 4-6 had the largest with 285 of them; this is more than half of the total respondents, that is, (53.8%). This is closely followed by respondents who have between 1-3 in their households with about 129 (24.3%). Respondents with household members of 7-9 were just 92 (17.4%), while those with household members 10 and above happened to be the least with 24 of them (4.5%). This shows that most of the respondents are from average household sizes

Table 4. 6: Cross Tabulation of Members in Household by Settlements

Towns	**1-3 (%)**	**4-6 (%)**	**7-9 (%)**	**10 Above (%)**	**SUB-Total /%**
Okuta	12 (30.0%)	25 (62.5%)	3 (7.5%)	0 (%)	40 (100%)
Ilesha-Baruba	5 (17.2%)	19 (65.5%)	5 (17.2%)	0 (%)	29 (100%)
Shonga	12 (33.3%)	20 (55.6%)	4 (11.1%)	0 (%)	36 (100%)
Tsaragi	6 (23.1%)	9 (34.6%)	7 (26.9%)	4 (15.4)	26 (100%)
Bode Saadu	10 (25.6%)	23 (59.0%)	6 (15.4%)	0 (%)	39 (100%)
Shao	11 (27.5)	17 (42.5%)	12 (30.0%)	0 (%)	40 (100%)

Afon	7 (29.2%)	14 (58.3%)	2 (8.3%)	1 (4.3%)	24 (100%)
Otte	8 (29.6%)	10 (37.0%)	8 (29.6%)	1 (3.7%)	27 (100%)
Oke-Oyi	7 (15.6%)	27 (60.0%)	7 (15.6%)	4 (8.9%)	45 (100%)
Iponrin	3 (23.1%)	4 (30.8%)	4 (30.8%)	2 (15.4%)	13 (100%)
Ilota	2 (22.2%)	6 (66.7%)	1 (11.1%)	0 (%)	9 (100%)
Unilorin MC Q	6 (60.0%)	4 (40.0%)	0 (%)	0 (%)	10 (100%)
Idofian	9 (28.1%)	18 (56.3%)	4 (12.5%)	1 (3.1%)	32 (100%)
Omupo	9 (21.4%)	22 (52.4%)	10 (23.8%)	1 (2.4%)	42 (100%)
Arandun	4 (12.5%)	22 (68.8%)	4 (12.5%)	2 (6.3%)	32 (100%)
Esie	9 (32.1%)	14 (50.0%)	5 (17.9%)	0 (%)	28 (100%)
Ijagbo	5 (17.9%)	15 (53.6%)	6 (21.4%)	2 (7.1%)	28 (100%)
Ojoku	4 (13.3%)	16 (53.3%)	7 (23.3%)	3 (10.0%)	30 (100%)
Total	**129 (24.3%)**	**285 (53.8%)**	**92 (17.4%)**	**24 (4.5%)**	**530 (100%)**

Source: Author's Fieldwork, 2016

The implication of this is that towns that have more people in their households are more likely to have them engaged in farming and other agricultural practices as agriculture still remains the largest employer of labour in Kwara State. The family utilizes all sources of labour, as women and even children engage in various activities on the farm in order to maximize aggregate family income. This corroborates the work of Adepoju (1982), where the findings in one of his works showed that large household especially with women and children contribute to the production and marketing of food and cash crops. Large households are productive assets to the family. The family composition is a crucial factor in the livelihood condition of the family. In summary, Table 4.6 show that the mean average of household 1-3 persons is 7.1, 4-6 persons is 15.8, while that of 7-9 is 5.1 and lastly, 10 and above is 1.3 across the 18 sampled towns. This means that on the average, the households of 4-6 persons have the highest number.

4.4.2 Educational Status of Respondents

From the results shown on Table 4.7, respondents who had just Secondary School qualifications happened to be the highest with about 31%, followed by those with non-formal education with 23.4%. Respondents with OND, NCE, HND and University degrees are less than 25%. While those with Primary School Certificates are 112 (21.1%). Those who have post-graduate educational qualification are 13 (2.5%). In all the towns sampled, the towns with the most quality education is the university of Ilorin Main Campus Quarters with all its respondents either having first degrees or post graduate qualifications (See Table 4.7). From the study, it can be observed that respondents with secondary school certificates and below are the highest in the study area, as the addition of respondents with first school leaving certificates, secondary school certificates and non-formal education have a combined total of 238 (54.3%).

Table 4. 7: Educational Status of Respondents by Towns

Towns	Non formal %	First Sch. Leav.%	SSCE/NECO %	OND/1st Deg %	Post-Grad %	SUB-Total %
Okuta	7 (17.5%)	5 (12.5%)	15 (37.5%)	13 (32.5%)	0 (%)	40 (100%)
Ilesha-Baruba	3 (10.3%)	7 (24.1%)	17 (58.6%)	2 (6.9%)	0 (%)	29 (100%)
Shonga	11 (30.6%)	4 (11.1%)	8 (22.2%)	13 (36.1%)	0 (%)	36 (100%)
Tsaragi	8 (30.8%)	9 (34.6%)	5 (19.2%)	4 (15.4%)	0 (%)	26 (100%)
Bode Saadu	8 (20.5%)	6 (15.4%)	11 (28.2%)	14 (35.9%)	0 (%)	39 (100%)
Shao	15 (37.5%)	11 (27.5%)	13 (32.5%)	1 (2.5%)	0 (%)	40 (100%)
Afon	3 (12.5%)	5 (20.8%)	7 (29.2%)	6 (25.0%)	3 (12.5%)	24 (100%)
Otte	9 (33.3%)	5 (18.5%)	8 (29.6%)	5 (18.5%)	0 (%)	27 (100%)
Oke-Oyi	11 (24.4%)	17 (37%)	11 (24.4%)	6 (13.3%)	0(%)	45 (100%)
Iponrin	3 (23.1%)	7 (53.8%)	1 (7.7%)	2 (15.4%)	0 (%)	13 (100%)
Ilota	4 (44.4%)	5 (55.6%)	0 (%)	0 (%)	0 (%)	9 (100%)
Unilorin MQ	0 (0%%)	0 (%)	0 (%)	2 (20.0%)	8 (80.0%)	10 (100%)
Idofian	8 (25.0%)	7 (21.1%)	11 (34.4%)	6 (18.8%)	0 (%)	32 (100%)
Omupo	12 (28.6%)	7 (16.7%)	10 (23.8%)	11 (26.2%)	2 (4.8)	42 (100%)
Arandun	8 (25.0%)	5 (15.0%)	9 (28.1%)	10 (31.1%)	0 (%)	32 (100%)
Esie	5 (17.9%)	2 (7.1%)	11 (39.3%)	10 (35.7%)	0 (%)	28 (100%)
Ijagbo	3 (10.7%)	1 (3.6%)	14 (50.0%)	10 (35.7%)	0 (%)	28 (100%)
Ojoku	6 (20.0%)	14 (46.7%)	8 (26.7%)	2 (6.7%)	0 (%)	30 (100%)
Total	**124 (23.4%)**	**112 (21.1%)**	**164 (30.9%)**	**117 (22.1%)**	**13 (2.5%)**	**530 (100%)**

Source: Author's Fieldwork, 2016

In summary, it can be observed that towns with highest number of people who have non-formal education are also some of the towns with the highest number of SSCE and OND holders respectively, some of these towns include Okuta, Tsaraji, Arandun, Shao, Omupo, Otte, Oke-Oyi and Bode-Saadu.

4.5 Occupational Classification of Respondents

4.5.1 Occupational Status of Respondents

The respondents were asked about their occupations and their responses as shown in Table 4.8 indicates that 185 of them (34.9%) were both Businessmen/Women and Traders, 148 (27.9%) were public/civil servant, while those of them that were artisans are 101 (19.1%).

While 86 (16.2%) are self employed, 7 (1.3%) were unemployed and 3 (0.6%) returned no response. It has to be noted that the categories of people who were farmers, hunters, fishermen/women were all classified into the Businessmen/women and Traders categories, while the artisans including welders, furniture makers, cobblers, fashion designers, barbers, hairdressers and aluminium fabricators to mention but a few.

Table 4. 8: Occupation Classification of Respondents

Towns	No Response %	P/C. Servant %	Artisans %	Business/ Trader %	Unemployed %	Self Employed %	Sub-total %
Okuta	1 (2.5%)	12 (30.0%)	4 (10.0%)	17 (42.5%)	1 (2.5)	5 (12.5%)	40 (100%)
Ilesha-Baruba	0 (0%)	5 (17.2%)	8 (27.6%)	12 (41.4%)	0 (%)	4 (13.8%)	29 (100%)
Shonga	0 (0%)	13 (36.1%)	4 (11.1%)	16 (44.4)	1 (2.8)	2 (5.6%)	36 (100%)
Tsaragi	0 (%)	4 (15.4%)	10 (38.5%)	8 (30.8%)	1 (3.8)	3 (11.5%)	26 (100%)
Bode Saadu	0 (%)	14 (35.9%)	1 (2.6%)	16 (41.0%)	1 (2.6)	7 (17.9%)	39 (100%)
Shao	0 (%)	9 (22.5%)	4 (10.0%)	22 (55.0%)	1 (2.5)	4 (10.0%)	40 (100%)
Afon	0 (%)	12 (50.0%)	0 (%)	7 (29.2%)	(0%)	5 (20.8%)	24 (100%)
Otte	1 (3.7%)	9 (33.3%)	6 (22.2%)	5 (18.5%)	(0%)	6 (22.2%)	27 (100%)
Oke-Oyi	0 (%)	4 (8.9%)	23 (51.1%)	13 (28.9%)	1 (2.2%)	4 (8.9%)	45 (100%)
Iponrin	0 (%)	2 (15.4%)	6 (46.2%)	3 (23.1%)	1 (7.7%)	1 (7.7%)	13 (100%)
Ilota	0 (%)	0 (%)	5 (55.6%)	3 (33.3%)	(0%)	1 (11.1%)	9 (100%)
Unilorin Q	0 (%)	10 (100%)	(0%)	0 (%)	(0%)	0 (%)	10 (100%)
Idofian	0 (%)	8 (25.0%)	1 (3.1%)	13 (40.6%)	(0%)	10 (31.3%)	32 (100%)
Omupo	0 (%)	16 (38.1%)	4 (9.5%)	10 (23.8%)	(0%)	12 (28.6%)	42 (100%)
Arandun	0 (%)	7 (21.9%)	5 (15.6%)	16 (50.0%)	(0%)	4 (12.5%)	32 (100%)
Esie	0 (%)	10 (35.7%)	4 (14.3%)	6 (21.4%)	0 (%)	8 (28.6%)	28 (100%)
Ijagbo	1 (3.6%)	8 (28.6%)	7 (25.0%)	4 (14.3%)	0 (%)	8 (28.6%)	28 (100%)
Ojoku	0 (%)	5 (16.7%)	9 (30.0%)	14 (46.7%)	0 (%)	2 (6.7%)	30 (100%)
Total	**3 (0.6%)**	**148 (27.9%)**	**101 (19.1%)**	**185 (34.9%)**	**7 (1.3)**	**86 (16.2%)**	**530 (100%)**

Source: Author's Fieldwork, 2016

4.6. Family Members and Employment Status

4.6.1. Family Members in Paid Employment

Figure 4.4 indicates that about 172 of the respondents do not have any family member in paid employment; this represents 32.5% of the total respondents. While those who have 1 family member in paid employment are 128 (24.2%), those who have 2 family members in paid employment are 119 (22.5%). Those with 3 and 4 family members in paid employment

are 48 and 47 that is, 9.1% and 8.9% respectively. However, 16 of the respondents (3.0%) did not respond to this question. In all, it means that about 342 of the respondents (64.7%) have 1 or more of their family members in paid employments in the study area.

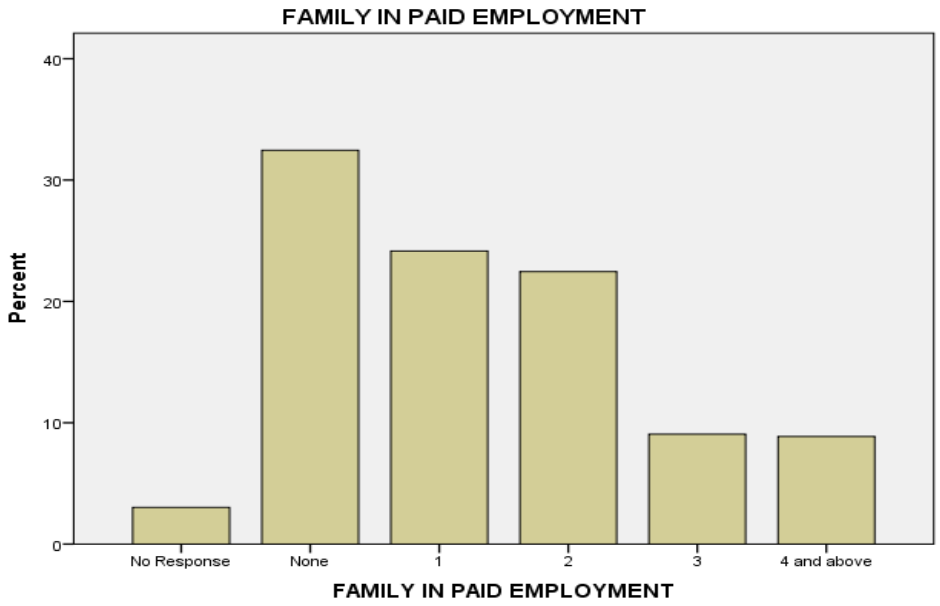


Figure 4. 4: A Chart Showing Distribution of Family in Paid Employment

Source: Author's Fieldwork, 2016

4.6.2 Ranks of Respondents in Paid Employment

Of the 530 respondents, about 371 of them are not in formal employment, this represents more than 70% of the respondents, as can be seen in Table 4.9. However, 153 of the total respondents are in formal employment. Of This number, those within the ranks of level 1-3 are 10 (6.5%), the ones within levels 4-7 are 51 respondents (33.3%) while those within the levels 8-12 are the highest respondents with 66 (43.1%). The respondents within level 13 and above have just 16 (10.5%). However, 10 of the respondents refused to disclose their levels, this represent 6.5% of the total respondents in formal employment. From the analysis

thus far, it can be deduced that majority of the respondents are not in formal employment. Formal employment here refers to people under the employ of Local Government, State Government, Federal Government, and those in private employment that earned salaries and allowances at the end of every month.

Table 4. 9: Ranks of Respondents

No of Respondents	Frequency	Percent (%)
1-3	10	6.5%
4-7	51	33.3%
8-12	66	43.1%
13 and above	16	10.5%
No Response	10	6.5%
Total	**530**	**100%**

Source: Author's Fieldwork, 2016

4.6.3 Family members with Pensionable Appointment

The highest number of respondents with 202 (38.1%) indicated that they do not have any family member in pensionable appointments. Those with 1 family member in pensionable appointments are 94 (17.7%). However, those with 3 family members in pensionable appointment & 4 family members and above in pensionable appointment are 54 and 43 respondents that is, 10.2% and 8.1% respectively (See Figure.4.5).

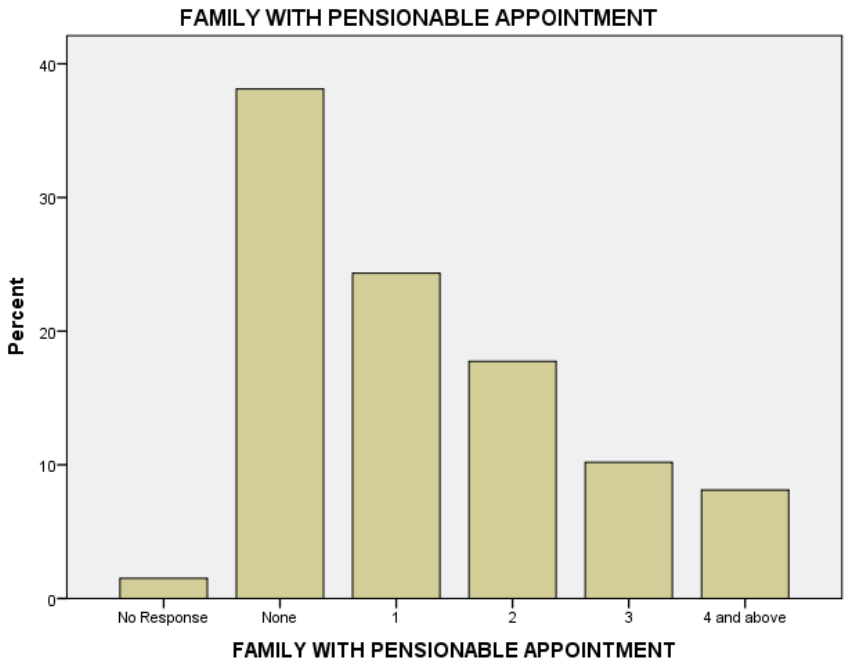


Figure 4. 5: A Graph Showing Family members with Pensionable Appointment

Source: Author's Fieldwork, 2016

Results from findings also showed that majority of the respondents' family members are not in pensionable employment. This is indicative by about 197 of the total respondents which represent 37.2% as can be seen in Table 4.10. The respondents whose family members were 3-4 and above with non-pensionable employment was next with 106 (20%). This is however the highest, followed by those who have 3 and 4 family members with non-pensionable employment which is 91 (17.2%) and 82 (15.5%), while the least are the ones who have just one of their family member in non-pensionable employment with just 46 (8.7%). From the analysis thus far, it can be observed that from family members with pensionable and non-pensionable employment, pressure could be much on the various respondents as majority of them still need to depend on their family members for upkeep, thus putting pressure on the resources of the respondents and thereby denying them the ability to fulfill some family

obligations due to depleting resources to cater for other dependant family members and reducing their livelihood qualities.

Table 4. 10: Family members with Non-Pensionable Appointments

No of Respondents	Family with Non-Pensionable appointment	Percentage (%)
No Response	8	1.5%
None	197	37.2%
1	46	8.7%
2	82	15.5%
3	91	17.2%
4 and above	106	20.0%
Total	**530**	**100**

Source: Author's Fieldwork, 2016

4.7. Population Status and Family

4.7.1 Number of Dependants

Information obtained on the number of dependants on each heads of households varies from zero to as much as 7 and above. For instance, 35 of the respondents (6.6%) had no dependants aside from his or her own immediate family members. Those respondents with 1-2 dependants are 82 (15.5%). Those with between 3-4 dependants ranked the highest with about 175 or 33% of the total respondents, followed by those with between 5-6 dependants with 120 (22.6%) and lastly, those with 7 and more dependants per household are 118 (22.3%). From this analysis, it can be deduced that majority of respondents in the study area are still heavily burdened by being responsible for catering for some members of their immediate or extended families who are directly or indirectly dependent on them for upkeep as can be seen in Table 4.11.

Table 4. 11: Number of Dependants

No. of Dependants	Frequency	Percent (%)
None	35	6.6%
1-2	82	15.5%
3-4	175	33.0%
5-6	120	22.6%
7 and above	118	22.3%
Total	**530**	**100%**

Source: Author's Fieldwork, 2016

However, a look at the distribution of dependants by towns showed that towns like Omupo, Shao, Oke-Oyi, Arandun, Otte and Ojoku ranked highest with large number of dependants while towns like Unilorin main Campus Staff Quarters, Ilesha Baruba, Ilota and Otte ranked among towns with low number of dependants, (See Table 4.12).

Table 4. 12: Number of Dependants by Settlement

Settlements	NUMBER OF DEPENDANTS PER HOUSEHOLD					TOTAL
	None	1-2	3-4	5-6	7 Above	
Okuta	2	13	24	1	0	40
Ilesha-Baruba	0	9	17	3	0	29
Shonga	3	7	10	12	4	36
Tsaragi	2	1	12	4	7	26
Bode Saadu	2	10	19	4	4	39
Shao	1	8	6	12	13	40
Afon	3	2	3	11	5	24
Otte	0	0	8	9	10	27
Oke-Oyi	7	5	9	12	12	45
Iponrin	2	1	4	1	5	13
Ilota	0	2	7	0	0	9
Unilorin MQ	0	5	3	2	0	10
Idofian	2	2	8	11	9	32
Omupo	1	2	14	7	18	42
Arandun	3	2	9	8	10	32
Esie	3	3	9	9	4	28
Ijagbo	3	4	8	6	7	28
Ojoku	1	6	5	8	10	30
Total	**35**	**82**	**175**	**120**	**118**	**530**

Source: Author's Fieldwork, 2016

The implication here is that the families with large number of dependants will have many people to assist them either in farms, businesses or as apprentices. Hence, a household that is very productive and have high number of dependants will grow faster in wealth compared to a poorer family who may have to work harder in order to feed the large numbers of the family members who are dependants.

4.7.2 Number of Children in School

Education is a solid foundation towards tomorrow's success for the students just like it is also a heavy responsibility that weighs down on most parents as it tend to wear the resources or income of most households. The burden of sponsoring children to school always have it tolls on most parents especially now that school fees and other school related expense are either paid per term or per session given the growing cost of living and depending on the number of children being sponsored or the level of the child's school. For this study, a question was posited to the respondents as per the number of children in school. From their responses in Figure 4.6, it can be observed that those who have 3 children in school ranked the highest with 140 (26.4%), followed by those with two children with a response rate of 130 (24.5%). Those who had no child/children in school are the least with just 10 responses (1.9%).

The implication of this is that families with fewer number of children in school may live a more quality life unless they are so poor as to afford qualitative lifestyles. But in the long run, those with large number of children in school may get respite when these children are graduates and are gainfully employed and doing well in their various endeavours. However, the burden of sending children to school always weigh on the available resources and hence,

its impact is usually felt especially for respondents whose children may have to travel long distances to get good and qualitative education.

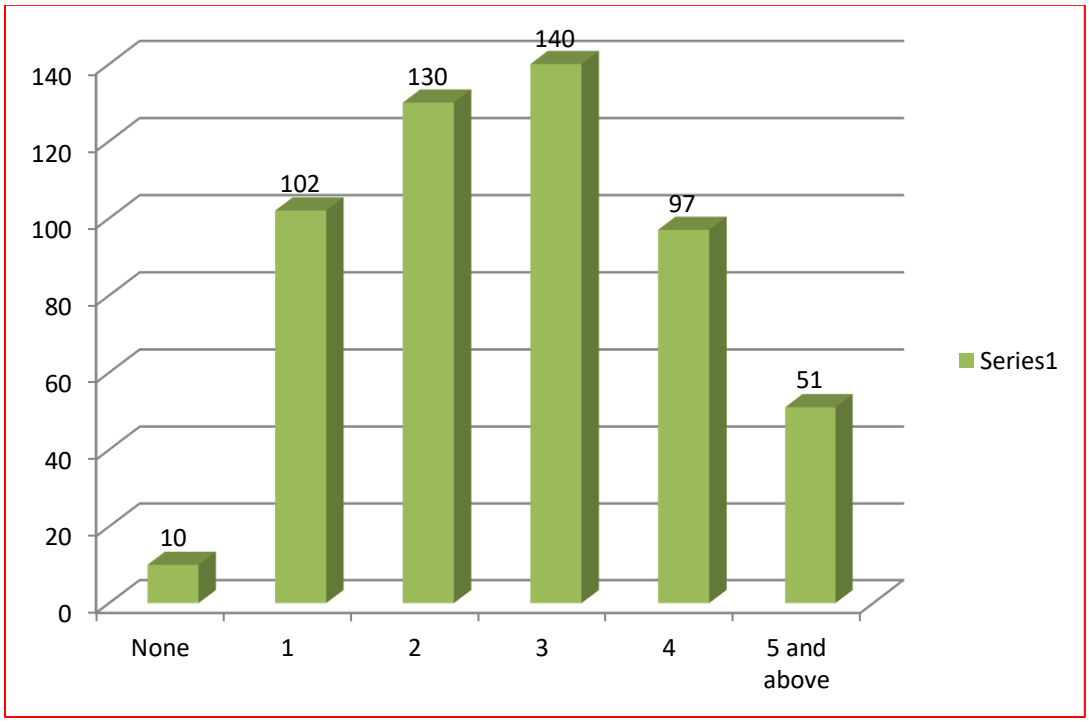


Figure 4. 6: A Chart Showing Numbers of Children in School

Source: Author's Fieldwork, 2016

4.8 Labour Migration and Experience

Of the estimated 191 million migrants worldwide, more than 86 million are thought to be labour migrants, (Baruah and Cholewinski, 2006). This figure is much higher if one takes into account accompanying dependents. The management of labour migration flow is crucial as the movement of people from one place to the other has moved to the top of the policy agenda of many countries. Given that the mobility of persons for reasons of employment is here to stay in our globalising world and are likely to increase in future, efficient management of labour migration is needed to maximize its positive impact and minimize any negative effects, Baruah and Cholewinski, 2006).

Labour migrants are usually prompted to leave their places of residence or home towns partly as a result of deficits in development, especially, absence of jobs and sustainable livelihoods. These migrants contribute to the development of places of destinations by filling gaps in the labour market, by providing essential skills and by bringing social, cultural and intellectual dynamism to the societies that migrants have joined (GCIM, 2005). In addition, they also make significant impact on the growth and development and reduction in poverty as well as improve the livelihood of their places of origin where they migrated from, (GCIM, 2005).

4.8.1: Respondents who have Worked Elsewhere Before Moving

This survey asked various questions from respondents in order to measure their labour and migration experience over the years. The findings are quite interesting. For instance, in the 18 towns sampled for this research work, there is no town where there are no respondents who have worked elsewhere before they migrated to their present places of residents. Table 4.13 shows the labour experience and migration status of respondents. Of the 530 respondents sampled, about 374 of them or 70.6% responded that they have worked elsewhere before migrating to the present town where they were resident, while the remaining 156 of them said they have not worked anywhere before, this represents about 29.4%

Table 4. 13: Worked Elsewhere Before Moving to this Town

Response	Frequency	Percentage
Yes	374	70.6%
No	156	29.4%
Total	**530**	**100%**

Source: Author's Fieldwork, 2016

The implication is that for those who had worked before moving, their skills level are now high due to experience and they will be interested in more challenging and high paying jobs in their new locations. They may have also gotten new skills entirely different from their previous ones and so they also want to change jobs completely. In this case, they must find jobs that match their new skills which will improve their current standard in terms of livelihood. There are such people whose expectations are very high after moving to bigger towns, if their new locations are in deficit of employees, they readily fit in, but if they are not needed due to several people with similar skills, then they begin to contribute to the growing number of unemployed people in such towns.

4.8.2 Number of Years Stayed in Present Town

Table 4.14 indicated that majority of the respondents have stayed more than 8 years in their present locations, at least 236 of the 530 respondents are in the categories of people who have stayed more than 8 years, this represents about 44.5%. Also, a look at the table showed that about 101 of the respondents (19.1%) have lived in their respective towns all their lives as they never migrated anywhere while those who had stayed in the towns for 1-3 years and 4-7 years are 77 and 77 that is, (14.5%) respectively. Those who had stayed for less than a year are just 39 (7.4%).

Table 4. 14: Number of Years Stayed in Present Town

Response	Frequency	Percentage
Less than a year	39	7.4
1-3 Years	77	14.5
4-7 Years	77	14.5
More than 8 Years	236	44.5
I have stayed here all my life	101	19.1
Total	**530**	**100%**

Source: Author's Fieldwork, 2016

The explanation here is that the categories of people who have stayed more than 8 years in their present locations were contented with their achievements so far or they do not have the will to change locations. However, the set of people who have stayed in their various locations for less than 7 years may have found these towns conducive for their works or businesses, while those who moved constantly did so due to one reason or the other.

4.9 Frequency and Trend of Labour Movement

4.9.1 Frequency and Structure

Since man will always move from one place to the other due to one reason or the other, the frequency of such movements is also very important. It is in view of this that the respondents were requested to indicate the frequency of movement from their various places of abode. Fig. 4.7 shows that those respondents who had only moved once are the largest with 153 (28.9%), followed by those who had moved once in two years with 117 (22.1%). The least are those who moved only once in 3 years with 53 (10.00%) of the respondents. (See Fig. 4.7). The inferences that can be drawn from this is that majority of the respondents had moved at least once at one time or the other.

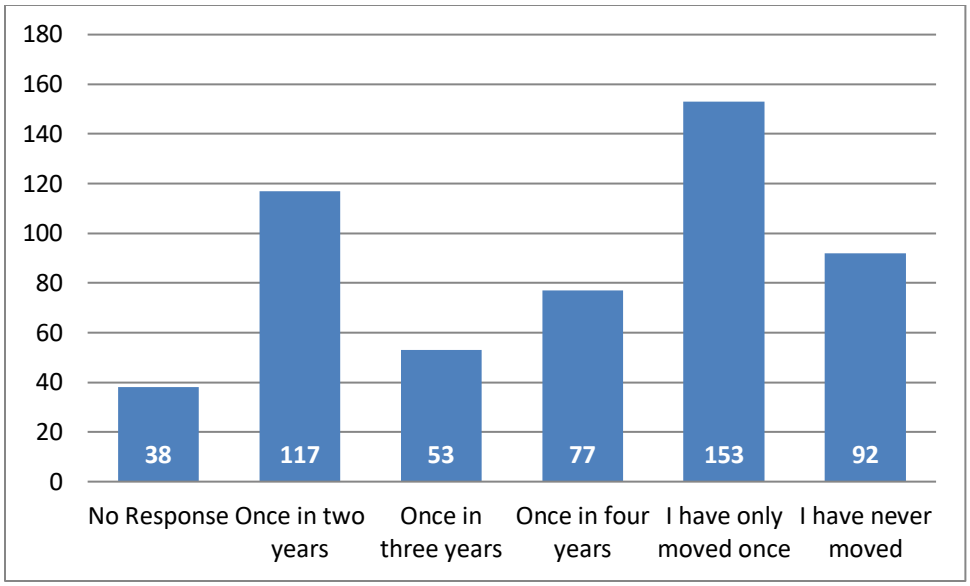


Figure 4. 7: A Bar Chart Showing Frequency of Respondents Movement

Source: Author's Computation, 2016

It can be inferred that people cannot stay in one particular place for a long time without moving, they often want to improve on their fortunes by moving from one place to more viable places. If their needs and wants are not met in their new places, they tend to move to another place after a period of time. These are some of the reasons why some people move from one place to another and the frequency is determined too by how viable and promising their works/businesses are. If eventually they are not satisfied, they tend to move again.

4.9.2 Reasons for Movement

People are known never to be able to stay in one place consistently for a very long period of time, due to certain factors, hence the movement from one place to the other. In this study, for those who have moved at one time or the other, various reasons were given by the respondents for their movements. One of the major reasons for movements was either due to lack of job or for a better living condition. For this category of respondents, they formed the

highest with about 146 of the 530 responses. This represents 27.5%. Those who had moved due to change of job/ business or trades are the second highest with about 117 respondents (22.1%). In addition, as can be seen in Table 4.15, the next category of people gave their reasons for movements to be that they want to be closer to their families. Most Nigerians usually maintain close ties with their family members either nuclear or extended. Some people who have worked for some time in other places will always want to relocate and be closer to their family members. Overtime, the number of respondents in these categories are 81 (15.3%). Those whose movements were due to transfer in their various places of work are 55 (10.4%) while the least reason given for movement was due to lack of social amenities with just 19 respondents (3.6%). However, about 112 (21.1%) of the respondents did not responded.

Table 4. 15: Reasons for Moving from Your Previous Location(s)

Responses	**Frequency**	**Percentage**
No Response	112	21.1%
Due to lack of job/for a better living condition	146	27.5%
Due to transfer	55	10.4%
Due to lack of social amenities	19	3.6%
Due to change of job/business/trade	117	22.1%
To be close to my family	81	15.3%
Total	**530**	**100%**

Source: Author's Fieldwork, 2016

What can be deduced from this is that some of the people who had moved did so to improve their livelihood since they lacked job and also to improve their living condition. If what they desired is not available in their primary locations, they have to move to other towns where their needs can be met. Those who had moved because they changed their jobs/businesses may have acquired higher qualifications or skills which are needed in more competitive

environment where they can attract higher income. Since Nigerians are known to always maintain close tie with their families be it nuclear or extended, it was not surprising also to see that some of the respondents have changed their locations just to be close to their families. The fewer ones who moved due to transfer may be among those who are in formal employment as their movement were necessitated by their works. Among some of these people may be teachers, medical personnel, local government workers, agriculturists and so on.

4.9.3 Pattern of Movement

Table 4.16 shows that most respondents' movement were towards the state capital of the study area that is Ilorin. The reasons for this is not far-fetched as Ilorin, the state capital has grown into a major urban centre with so many pull factors and attractive opportunities. Most studies have also shown that people migrate from smaller towns and villages to bigger towns and major urban centres. One of such studies was that of Adepoju, 1986 where his finding showed that of all the towns and villages studied, majority of the migrants had migrated to the cities. In this study, Table 4.16 show that 143 of the respondents had migrated to Ilorin the state capital, this represents (26.9%) of the total responses, 119 (22.5%) respondents have migrated at one time or the other to neighbouring towns, 89 (16.8%) have migrated to towns in neighbouring states, while 81 (15.3%) have migrated to other neighbouring state capitals and the same corresponding number of 81 (15.3%) have either migrated to Lagos or Abuja. This gave a combined total of those who have migrated to either Ilorin, other State capitals, Lagos and Abuja to be 305 (57.5%) at the same time. These patterns of movement shows that majority of people that migrated in the study area did so towards big towns and capital cities.

Table 4. 16: Pattern of Movement

Responses	Frequency	Percentage
No response	17	3.2
To neighbouring towns	119	22.5
To the state capital (Ilorin)	143	26.9
To towns in neighbouring states	89	16.8
To neighbouring state capitals	81	15.3
To Abuja/Lagos	81	15.3
Total	**530**	**100%**

Source: Author's Fieldwork, 2016

The implication here is that since more of the respondents moved to the state capital and other neighbouring towns, if adequate provisions are not made to accommodate the thronging population, the available facilities would be over stretched to a limit so much so that it can lead to social vices especially if these categories of people are not employed or fully engaged in any lucrative business or artisanship. However, the overall remark for this pattern of movement is that majority of them are moving to larger towns and cities that have availability of most social amenities and are capable of taking care of their needs.

4.9.4 Age at First Movement

When discussing the issue of labour migration, it is believed that most of the migrants are usually young people who are probably in their youthful stages as they usually possess the energy to work for a long period of time and are also usually less committed. In this study, findings showed that the respondents who had their first movement at ages 26-35 years are the highest with a total of 278 (52.6%) followed by those whose ages range from 18-25 years with 105 respondents (19.8%). The combination of the two shows that over 74% of the respondents made their first movements between the ages of 18-35 while 87 (16.4%) and 36

(6.8%) of the respondents made their first movements between ages 36-45 years and 46-55 years respectively. This can be seen in Table 4.17. However, those who did not respond to this question are 24 (4.5%).

Table 4. 17: Age at First Movement

Age Group	Frequency	Percentage
No response	24	4.5%
18-25 years	105	19.8%
26-35 years	278	52.6%
36-45 years	87	16.4%
46-55 years	36	6.8%
Total	**530**	**100**%

Source: Author's Fieldwork, 2016

What can be deduced here is that more than 60% of the respondents made their first movements in their very prime and productive ages, this is the age when they are very active. Whether they have moved for better living condition or to undertake their studies, most of them have moved when they can make valuable contribution to their respective families and the society in general. The work of Adepoju (1982) is in tune with this study where his findings showed that migration exerts considerable influence on age and that people of younger ages tend to migrate earlier than older people with families and responsibilities.

4.9.5 Age at First Appointment

Table 4.18 shows that majority of the respondents got their first appointments between the age group 18-25 years with 274 respondents in this category, this represents 51.7% of the total respondents which is more than half of the total responses. The one with the next highest response are the age group 26-35 years with 189 (35.6%). These two are the age

groups where young men and women are just leaving secondary school education, it is also the age group where majority of youths are also just graduating from the National Diploma, Higher National Diploma, and even Universities. The age groups 36-45 and 46-55 years have the least number of respondents with 18 (3.4%) and 11 (2.1%) respectively. This is particularly very normal as people in their youthful ages are expected to start work early and not when they are old and feeble. However, 38 of the respondents that is, 7.2% did don't respond to this question.

Table 4. 18: Age at First Movement

Age Group	Frequency	Percentage
No response	38	7.2%
18-25 years	274	51.7%
26-35 years	189	35.6%
36-45 years	18	3.4%
46-55 years	11	2.1%
Total	**530**	**100**%

Source: Author's Fieldwork, 2016

The implication is that those who summoned courage by leaving at relatively young age tend to find jobs/businesses as can be seen in Table 4.18 where more than 86% of the respondents got their first employment between the ages of 18-35 years.

4.10 Number of Job/Business Change

It is believed that human needs are endless and people will always strive to get the job that will boost their incomes in order to meet up with most of their competing needs. Having this in mind, the researcher decided to seek the opinion of the respondents as regards the number of job/business or trade change over time. According to Table 4.19, about 220 of the respondents have not change their jobs, this represent about 41.5% of the total respondents.

Those who have changed their jobs/business or trade once are 223 (44%), those who have changed their business/ job twice are 68 (12.8%) and those who have changed their jobs three and four times are 6 (1.1%) and 3 (0.6%) respectively. It was discovered that most of those who changed jobs did so in tandem with moving from one place to the other as displayed in Table 4.19. A combination of those who had changed jobs either once, twice and more are about 310 respondents (58.5%).

Table 4. 19: Number of Job/Business Change

Responses	Frequency	Percentage
None	220	41.5%
1	223	44.0%
2	68	12.8%
3	6	1.1%
4 and above	3	0.6%
Total	**530**	**100%**

Source: Author's Fieldwork, 2016

It is suffice to say that close to 60% of the respondents have changed jobs/business at least once, although those who had never changed jobs/business once or twice are about 56%, this mean that given certain conditions, people will abandon their jobs/business for a better one if the opportunity arises.

4.10.1 Determinant of Change

Table 4.20 shows that majority of the respondents who had changed jobs indicated that one of the factors that compelled them to change jobs was to get better paid jobs, 205 respondents affirmed to this which is about 38.7% of the total respondents another 142 of the respondents (26.8%) said they changed their jobs in order to be close to their families, 43

(8.1%), 67 (12.6%) and 52 (9.8%) adduced their change of jobs to lack of social amenities, loss of job and retirement respectively.

Table 4. 20: Determinant of Change

Determinant of change	Frequency	Percentage
No Responses	21	4.0%
Proximity to family	142	26.8%
Better paid job	205	38.7%
Lack of social amenities	43	8.1%
Lost of jobs	67	12.6%
Retirement	52	9.8%
Total	**530**	**100%**

Source: Author's Fieldwork, 2016

For those who had change jobs/businesses once or severally, they did so for better paid jobs, to be close to their families and due to loss of jobs among other reasons. When jobs are changed, new skills are acquired and this may probably bring in higher income so people prefer to change jobs that will give them higher prospects rather than remain on the ones that will limit their capacities and capabilities.

4.10.2 Satisfaction with Present Job/Trade/Business

Job satisfaction means different things to different people. Two people may be working in the same place and earning very high income but one of them may not be satisfied with the job or income he/she is earning. This means that job satisfaction is not just only about the income but so many factors may add together. In this study, Table 4.21 shows that of the 530 respondents, 399 (75.3%) said they were satisfied with their present jobs/businesses and trades while 131 of the respondents, that is 24.7%, were not satisfied with their jobs/businesses or trades.

Table 4. 21: Satisfaction with Present Job/Trade/Business

Response	Frequency	Percentage
Yes	399	75.3%
No	131	24.7
Total	**530**	**100%**

Source: Author's Fieldwork, 2016

4.10.3 Level of Satisfaction

According to Table 4.22, those who responded that they were **s**atisfied with their present jobs/trades and or businesses were ranked as highly satisfied, satisfied and fairly satisfied.

In terms of level of satisfaction of respondents, 43 of them were highly satisfied, this represent 10.8%, 287 of them (71.9%) were satisfied while 69 (17.3%) of the respondents were barely satisfied. Various factors may be responsible for this pattern of responses, it could be partly due to the fact that those that want to stay close to their families were either able or not to able do so. They may have also found jobs where they can display their skills and put it to proper use and if it is working well for them, then they would be satisfied. Those who were fairly satisfied may just be managing to hang on the job pending when they will get something better.

Table 4. 22: Level of Satisfaction

Level of Satisfaction	Frequency	Percentage
Highly satisfied	43	10.8%
Satisfied	287	71.9%
Fairly satisfied	69	17.3%
Total	**399**	**100%**

Source: Author's Fieldwork, 2016

4.10.4 Other Reasons for Movement

Table 4.23 showed that there are 292 of those who were not formally employed but have moved at one time or the other, various reasons were given for their movements, majority of those who had moved revealed that they moved because they wanted better living conditions. About 129 are in this category of people (44.2), 86 of the respondents that is, 29.4% moved because they wanted to be close to their families, 74 (25.3%) of them moved due to change in business/ trade while the remaining 3 of them (1.0%) moved due to other reasons.

Table 4. 23: Other Reasons for Movement

Reason for Movement	**Frequency**	**Percentage**
To be close to my family	86	29.5%
For a better living condition	129	44.2%
Due to change in business/trade	74	25.3%
Others	3	1.0%
Total	**292**	**100**

Source: Author's Fieldwork, 2016

The overall overview of labour migration and experience is that people are constantly mobile. It is not all people that live permanently in one place, some have moved due to some factors but most of them had moved from one place to the other in search of greener pasture to better their living conditions. Some people had migrated because they had acquired newer skills which will bring them better prospect if well utilized and get good location where the skills are in high demand. While some moved once and stay put in their new location, others continually and constantly moved while some seldom move and some have never moved. Majority of those that moved were towards the state capital and other major towns where their prospects of getting hired/jobs and show case their skills are very high. They moved

mostly during their prime ages. Some of the reasons they gave for moving were basically to get better paid jobs, due to loss of jobs, to be close to their family members, due to retirement and due to lack social amenities. Finally, majority of those who had moved in order to get better paid jobs are satisfied with their jobs.

4.11 Livelihood and Economic Characteristics of Respondents

This section looked at livelihood related questions such as the earnings of respondents' family, their ownership of assets such as plots of land, houses, ownership of household assets, ownership of vehicles for both private and commercial purposes, family members having access to loans, family members having alternative sources of income, respondents with alternative source of income, remittance of money, frequency of remittance, range of amount normally remitted and home towns of respondents among several others.

4.11.1 Average Monthly Income before Migration

A look at Table 4.24 shows that majority of the respondents who had migrated did so for a better living condition, having this in mind, this research work tends to find out if there was any difference in the respondents income regime before they migrated and after migration.

Before migration, the category of respondents who earn between N11,000-N39,000 are the highest with about 246 of them, this represent about 46.4% while those that earn below N10,000 are 161 (30.4%) the categories of people that earn between #40,000-N59,000 are 55 (10.4%) while those that earn between N60,000–N79,000 and N80,000 and above are 34 (6.4%) and 26 (4.9%) respectively. A very few number of people that is, 8 of them (1.5%) said they did not know.

Table 4. 24: Average Monthly Income before Migration

Income Range	Frequency	Percentage (%)
Below N10,000	161	30.40%
N10,000- N39,000	246	46.40%
N40,000- N59,000	55	10.40%
N60,000- N79,000	34	6.40%
N80,000 and above	26	4.90%
Don't know	8	1.50%
Total	**530**	**100%**

Source: Author's Fieldwork, 2016

4.11.2 Average Monthly Income after Migration

Prospect for a better life certainly is one of the most important factors behind peoples' decision to migrate, but it is not sufficient. Ability to migrate is also an important element which introduces a threshold effect on the decision to stay or emigrate (Shaw, 2007). After migration, there are marked differences in the income level of the respondents. A cursory look at Table 4.25 shows that unlike the 161 (30.4%) that earned below N10,000 before migration, the number reduced significantly after migration to 72 (13.6%), while the number of respondents who earned between N40,000-N59,000 increased sharply by almost 14% from 55 (10.4%) to 127 (24.0%). Also, the number of respondents that earned between N60,000-N79,000 and N80,000 and above also increased from 34 to 62 (6.4 to 11.7%) and 26 to 38 (4.9% to 7.2%) respectively. However, the number of respondents that earn between N11,000-N39,000 dropped slightly from 246 to 223 (46.4%-42.1%). This means that the number of people earning between N11,000-N39,000 dropped by 4.3% whereas, all the other incomes increased after migration by 16.8%, 13.6%, 4.3% and 2.3% respectively. The comparison can be made by looking at Tables 4.24 and 4.25. The implication here is that those people who have migrated have their incomes improved upon as a result of better

pay in their new place of work/ business and or trade as it has really improved their living standard and were now better off. This is in tandem with the work of Adebusoye, (2006) where her studies also revealed that most migrants have their resources improved and were able to remit greater amount of money back to their respective home states. An insignificant number of respondents that is 8 (1.5%) said they do not know their average monthly income before and after migration respectively.

Table 4. 25: Average Monthly Income after Migration

Income Range	Frequency	Percentage (%)
Below N10,000	72	13.6%
N10,000- N39,000	223	42.1%
N40,000- N59,000	127	24.0%
N60,000- N79,000	62	11.7%
N80,000 and above	38	7.2%
Don't know	8	1.5%
Total	**530**	**100%**

Source: Author's Fieldwork, 2016

It can be seen from Table 4.24 and 4.25 that the livelihood of the respondents improved after migration as their resources improved significantly due to increased income, some of them can afford to involve in some capital projects while some even start to remit money home for the upkeep of their family after migrating. This is to say that their decisions to migrate had really paid off as their income increased significantly and this have positive effect on their livelihood quality, hence, they were better off after migration from their previous locations.

4.11.3 Family Members Earning Above Minimum Wage

It is assumed that quality of life may depend on the financial status of the family members. If some family members of a rich person are in abject poverties, then it will be very difficult for the person in question to continue to live in opulence as he/she may have to constantly reach out to his/her family members who are highly in need. Having this in mind, this work took a look at the number of family members of the respondents who are earning below and above minimum wage. A cross examination of Tables 4.26 and 4.27 showed that for those who have one family member that earn above minimum wage, they are 108 (20.4%) while 54 (10.2%) earn below minimum wage. Those who have 2 family members earn above minimum wage are 72 (13.6%) against 48 (9.1%) that earn below minimum wage. Those that have three family members and more earning above minimum wage are just 28 (5.3%) while the respondents who have the same proportion of family members earning below minimum wage are 34 (6.4%). However, respondents who do not have family members earning above or below minimum wage are 165 (31.1%) and 148 (27.9%) respectively, while about 157 (29.6%) of the respondents do not know if any of their family members are earning above minimum wage, 246 (46.4%) do not also know if any of their family members are earning below minimum wage accordingly.

Table 4. 26: Family Members Earning above Minimum Wage

Response	Frequency	Percentage
None	165	31.1%
1	108	20.4%
2	72	13.6%
3 and above	28	5.3%
Don't know	157	29.6%
Total	**530**	**100%**

Source: Author's Fieldwork, 2016

What one can deduce from those responses are that the respondents have combined 208 family members who are earning above minimum wage income of N18,000, this represents about 39.7% of the total number of respondents, while those whose family members earn below minimum wage are 134 (26.7%). The inference that can be drawn looking at Tables 4.26 and 4.27 is that majority of the respondents have family members who are not in formal employment.

Table 4. 27: : Family Members Earning Below Minimum Wage

Response	Frequency	Percentage
None	148	27.9%
1	54	10.2%
2	48	9.1%
3 and above	34	6.4%
Don't know	246	46.4%
Total	**530**	**100%**

Source: Author's Fieldwork, 2016

4.11.4 Family Members with Plots of Lands/Own Houses

Ownership of plots of land and houses are seen as tangible assets in Nigeria hence, people having such assets may be said not to belong to the highly impoverished categories of people in the society as those who can afford to own plots of land and houses are seen among some of the people who are doing well in their works, businesses, and whichever trades they may be involved in. This also mean that they will be less dependent on their family members since they are averagely well to do and there will be less pressure on the resources of the household heads so they are able to take care of certain aspects of the families responsibilities. The richer one gets, the more opportunities one has to acquire more plots of lands, houses and other landed properties. In this work, respondents opinions were

sampled on the number of them that have plots of land and houses, their responses as shown in Tables 4.28 and 4.29 showed that those who do not have plots of land or houses are 135 (25.5%) and 177 (33.4) respectively.

Table 4. 28: Family Members Having Plots of Land

Response	Frequency	Percentage
None	135	25.5%
1	160	30.2%
2	110	20.8%
3 and above	76	14.3%
Don't know	49	9.2%
Total	**530**	**100%**

Source: Author's Fieldwork, 2016

Respondents who have just one family member having plots of land and houses are 160 (30.2%) and 168 (31.7%) respectively. Those who have two family members having plots of land and houses are 110 (20.8%) and 80 (15.1%) respectively, while those respondents who have three family members and above having plots of land and houses are 76 (14.3%), and 59 (11.7%) respectively. Those who do not know whether any of their family members own either plots of land and or houses are 49 (9.2) and 46 (8.7%) respectively. it however has to be mentioned here that in most of the towns visited, interactions with most of respondents showed that their efforts are always geared towards acquisition of land and building of houses, hence most workers be it business men/women, artisans and even those in formal employment always struggle to put up their own personal structure no matter how small, their aim mainly were for them to own their personal houses.

Table 4. 29: Family Members with Own Houses

Response	Frequency	Percentage
None	177	33.4%
1	168	31.7%
2	80	15.1%
3 and above	59	11.1%
Don't know	46	8.7%
Total	**530**	**100%**

Source: Author's Fieldwork, 2016

4.11.5: Ownership of Household Assets

Household assets are those assets that add value to the quality of life of the people. These assets depend on the income level of individuals and it also depends on individual's desire for them. From Table 4.30, it can be observed that about 11 items have been listed and respondents were asked to choose in multiple numbers, any of the assets owned by them. Those items include TV sets, satellite dishes, modern furniture, generating sets, refrigerators, gas cookers, air conditioners, washing machine and deep freezers. From the responses, the category of people who owned just 1 of the listed assets are 58 that is, 10.9%. Those that owned 3 and 4 assets are the highest, those that have 3 items are 111, this translate to about 20.9% while those that own 4 items followed closely with 110 (20.8%). However, as the number of the item increases, ownership of the them decreases as can be seen in Table 4.35 where those that own 5,6,7 and 8 items are 94 (17.7%), 42 (7.9%), 25 (4.7%) and 10 (1.9%) respectively. Those who owned 9 items and above have the least number with just 7 of them or (1.3%). Interaction with respondents revealed that most of the items listed here are not ones that are so expensive that people cannot afford them, but the issue was that most people in the small towns sampled hardly make use of some of the listed items, especially washing machines, laptop computers, air conditioners, gas cookers, home

theatres etc. In some instances, some of the respondents do not even live in electrified houses so buying of such items is regarded as waste of resources (See Appendix I for the list of items). However, in some few towns where some respondents are fairly educated and earning good salaries or involve in lucrative businessess/trades, some of them were able to afford some of the items. However, majority of the respondents owned TV sets and modern furniture, while some even own Startimes/Gotv decoders to watch their TVs. While some respondents do not own the listed items, there were some other items that were not listed that were owned by them.

Table 4. 30: Number of Household Items Owned

Items Number	Frequency	Percentage
1 Colour TV	58	10.9%
2 Sat. D/Gotv/Star Ti	73	13.8%
3 Generating Set	111	20.9%
4 Modern Furniture	110	20.8%
5 Refr/Deep Freezer	94	17.7%
6 Gas Cooker	42	7.9%
7 Air Conditioner	25	4.7%
8 Washing Machine	10	1.9%
9 Home Theatre	7	1.3%
Total	**530**	**100%**

Source: Author's Fieldwork, 2016

The implication is that ownership of the items especially shows that they are not doing so badly with their income and resources. Families that can barely afford three decent square meals per day are not likely to try and equip their homes with household items such as the listed ones rather, they will be more interested in how to feed on daily basis.

4.11.6 Family Members Having Vehicles for Private/Commercial Use

As discussed earlier in 4.11.4, in terms of ownership of plots of lands/own houses, the opinion of the respondents were also sought on whether they own vehicles for private and or commercial purposes. From Tables 4.31 and 4.32, it can be observed that those of them who

do not own any of the two are the highest with 260 (49.1%) and 261 (49.2%) in this category respectively.

Table 4. 31: Family Members Having Vehicle for Commercial use

Response	Frequency	Percentage
None	260	49.1%
1	102	19.2%
2	58	10.9%
3 and above	55	10.4%
Don't know	55	10.4%
Total	**530**	**100%**

Source: Author's Fieldwork, 2016

Some of the respondents who have one family members owning vehicles for both private and commercial use are 102 (19.2%) and 121 (22.8%), those who have two family members having vehicles for private and commercial use are 58 (10.9%) and 74 (14.0%) respectively, while those who have 3 and more of their family members having vehicles for private/commercial use are 55 (10.4%) and 20 (3.8%) respectively. Those who claimed not to know if any of their family members own vehicles for private or commercial purposes are 55 and 54 that is, 10.4% and 10.2% respectively.

Table 4. 32: Family Members Having Vehicle for Private use

Response	Frequency	Percentage
None	261	49.2%
1	121	22.8%
2	74	14.0%
3 and above	20	3.8%
Don't know	54	10.2%
Total	**530**	**100%**

Source: Author's Fieldwork, 2016

Having vehicles for commercial use simply mean that there is opportunity for more resources for the family either on daily, weekly or monthly basis, it depends on the

arrangement. This may be the only source of income to the family members or it may be extra income if the family members already have another source of income. When a family member or two have vehicles for commercial use, the household head who are the respondents may have lesser burden of family's responsibility as the income that accrue from the vehicles could be used to offset some urgent family problems without disturbing other family members for assistance. Those who have vehicles for private use also portray that the family members are fairly comfortable and will not have cause to disturb the heads of household for any financial aid at all the time.

4.11.7 Family Members Having Access to Loan, Credit Facilities

Access to loan by most family members are usually seen as a plus because having access to loan mean that they can take up some amount of money upfront in form of loanand invest such so that within a period of time, such money can begin to yield interest or revenue in whatever it is they invested such money in while they also pay back the loan with interest within the stipulated period of time. Table 4.33 shows that 232 of the respondents (43.8%) have no access to loan. For those that have at least one family member having access to loan, they are 111 (20.9%), those that have 2 or 3 of their family members that have access to loan are 63 (11.9%) and 18 (3.4%) respectively. For the categories of respondents who do not know whether their family members have access to loan or not, they are 106 (20.0%).

Table 4. 33: Family Members Having Access to Loan

Response	Frequency	Percentage
None	232	43.8%
1	111	20.9%
2	63	11.9%
3 and above	18	3.4%
Don't know	106	20.0%
Total	**530**	**100%**

Source: Author's Fieldwork, 2016

4.11.8 Family Members with Alternative Source of Income

As for the alternative source of income, it is generally believed that apart from the main work/ business or trading that people are engaged in, they tend to indulge in other activities that brings in extra money as the income from the main source may no longer be enough to sustain the family in meeting up with their upkeeps either as a result of the growth in family size, growing high cost of food items, commodities and other household utilities. In view of this, people now engage themselves in other activities like farming, fishing, trading and other menial works that can boost their incomes. Table 4.34 shows that while 220 of the members of the families of the respondents (41.5%) do not have alternative source of income, 168 of them (36.2%) have alternative source of income. Of the 168 members of families that have alternative source of income, 117 (22.1) one member each with alternative source of income, 45 (8.5%) have 2 members of their families having alternative source of income, while 06 (1.1%) of them have 3 members and above that have alternative source of income respectively.

Table 4. 34: Family Members with Alternative Source of Income

Response	Frequency	Percentage
None	220	41.5%
1	117	22.1%
2	45	8.5%
3 and above	06	1.1%
Don't know	142	26.8%
Total	**530**	**100%**

Source: Author's Fieldwork, 2016

4.11.9 Respondents with Alternative Source of Income

Table 4.35 shows that of the 530 respondents, only 181 that is 34.2% have alternative source of income while the larger percent of the respondents that is, 349 (65.8%) of the respondents do not have alternative source of income. The implication is that those who have alternative sources of income have something to augment their incomes once in a while so they can afford to meet up with some of their needs while those who do not have alternative source of income whether their incomes are sufficient or not, they do not have anything extra to fall back on apart from their income. Therefore, those who have alternative source of income may be able to live better life than those who do not have alternative source of income, hence, the livelihood of those with alternative source of income is improved.

Table 4. 35: Respondents with Alternative Source of Income

Response	Frequency	Percentage
Yes	181	34.2%
No	349	65.8%
Total	**530**	**100%**

Source: Author's Fieldwork, 2016

Having access to loan and having alternative source of income mean that the respondents will not lack many resources when there is need for them to seek for finance either to plunge into their businesses or to start new ones.

4.12 Remittance of Money Back Home

Remittance as discussed in chapter 2.9 is the transfer of money by foreign workers back home. It is the money migrants send back to family and friends in their respective hometowns, states or countries as the case may be. This money when well utilized, can improve the economic status of such family or friends. This mean people who have travelled from their home base to other places now send money back home to their families and friends to improve their lots or to carry out certain projects on their behalf. Remittance is not always compulsory but people take it as an obligation upon themselves to always send money back home to their loved ones. In Nigeria, remittance is not new, it is a normal practice where family members send money back home to their loved ones once in a while no matter the amount.

In this research work, findings showed that people migrated from their home towns/previous locations to other towns and places in search of greener pastures. However, some of these migrants were asked if they normally remit money back home to assist their family members and their responses as shown in Table 4.36 indicates that 210 of them (39.6%) remit money home while 320 (60.4%) of the respondents do not remit money back home. The implication is that since less than half of the respondents do not remit money home, this mean that majority of the respondents that is, about 60% have not succeeded in improving the economic situation of their family members back home so they do not really feel their impacts.

Table 4. 36: Remittance of Money Home

Response	Frequency	Percentage
Yes	210	39.6%
No	320	60.4%
Total	**530**	**100%**

Source: Author's Fieldwork, 2016

4.12.1 Frequency of Remittance

Table 4.37 shows that for those who remits money home, those who remits every 6 months are the highest with 91 respondents in this category, they represent about 43.3 % while those who remit home only once in a year are the next highest with 60 (28.6%). Those who remit money home every month are the lowest with just 7 (3.4%) in this category. However, there are other categories of people that said they have only remitted money home once since they have been working/away from home, these categories of people are just 20 (9.5%) in number. The reasons some of them gave for non-frequent remittance was that they earn for less than expectation yet they have to meet up with so much expenses which includes house rents, children's school fees among several other ancillary expense.

Table 4. 37: Frequency of Remitting Money Home

Frequency of Remittance	Frequency	Percentage
Once every month	07	3.3%
Once in 3 months	32	15.3%
Once in 6 months	91	43.3%
Once in a year	60	28.6%
I have only remitted once	20	9.5%
Total	210	100%

Source: Author's Fieldwork, 2016

4.12.2 Range of Amount Remitted

Apart from remitting money home for family upkeep, this research work also tried to find out the range of amount normally remitted since most respondents do not remit money home regularly rather, the highest number of people that remit money home does so once every 6 months and the next highest are once every year. In this wise, the amount of money that is remitted becomes very important given the fact that money is hardly remitted by most people.

From Table 4.38, it can be observed that those who remit less than N10,000 are the highest with 147, this represent 70% of the 210 respondents that remits money home. Those who remit between N10,000-N20,000 are 55 (26.2%) while those who remit N21,000-N30,000 are just 8 (3.8%). From this output, it can be opined that people hardly remit money home while those who remits do not send significant amount of money home. This can be attributed to so many factors, some of which may be that they either do not earn much, do not have people at home whom to remit money to or are not just interested in remitting money home or they are overwhelmed by immediate family expense

Table 4. 38: Range of Amount Normally Remitted

Range of Amount	Frequency	Percentage
Less than N10,000	147	70%
N11,000-20,000	55	26.2%
N21,000-#30,000	8	3.8%
Total	210	100%

Source: Author's Fieldwork, 2016

4.12.3 Contribution to Community Development

One of the impacts that people are expected to have on their communities/towns is what they must have contributed to such communities as part of their corporate social responsibilities. In this research work, in order to ascertain the frequency of responding to community service in whatever form and capacity, the respondents were asked how often they have supported their communities, as shown in Table 4.39 majority of the respondents that is 232 (43.8%) rarely support their communities, 111 (20.9%) often support their communities/towns whenever there is the need for it, 106 (20.0%) very rarely support their communities/towns while 63 (11.9%) very often support their towns/communities. However, 18 (3.4%) do not support their communities/towns at all.

Table 4. 39: Frequency of Supporting Community Initiatives

Response	Frequency	Percentage
Very Often	63	11.9%
Often	111	20.9%
Rarely	232	43.8%
Very Rarely	106	20.0%
Do Not	18	3.4%
Total	**530**	**100%**

Source: Author's Fieldwork, 2016

CHAPTER FIVE

PATTERN OF LABOUR MIGRATION AND LIVELIHOOD DEVELOPMENT

5.1 Preamble

This Chapter presents the pattern of labour migration and livelihood development. For the analysis of pattern, factor analysis model was employed. The use of factor analysis as a means of pattern delineation and differentiation is most appropriate because its orthogonal form brings out both pattern differentiation and structural modeling in form of scores and factor patterns that can be showcased in charts, diagrams, maps and graphs. While the canonical correlation analysis was used to select functions that have maximum co-variance between two domains of measurements, the stepwise multiple regression analysis was also used to show those factors that contributed the most to labour migration on the one hand and livelihood development on the other hand. As discussed earlier in chapter three, sub-section six, two patterns were focused on, these are: pattern of labour migration and pattern of livelihood development in the 18 selected towns of Kwara State. To assess the relationships between labour migration and livelihood development indices, the structural model of association is discussed through the use of the canonical correlation analysis and its outcome is seen subsequently.

5.2 Factor Analysis: Variables of Labour Migration

The variables used as input into the factor analysis were conditioned by two major considerations that is, developing variables to depict labour migration components, and the second to depict livelihood development indices. The list of variables for labour migration contains 14 indices as shown in Table 5.1. This list measured in relation to their distribution

on the 18 selected towns. The variables for migration are expected to contribute directly to reasons for movement.

Table 5. 1: Labour Migration Variable List

S/N	X	Acronym	Variables Definition
1.	X1	AF	Age Factor
2.	X2	EDU	Education
3.	X3	SE	Skills and Experience
4.	X4	IISP	Insecurity, Insurgence and other social Problems
5.	X5	IBPJ	Improved Income, Better Paid Jobs, Business
6.	X6	FS	Family Size
7.	X7	LJGP	Lack of Jobs, Greener Pasture
8.	X8	PTF	Proximity to Family
9.	X9	SA	Social Amenities
10.	X10	TRF	Transfer
11.	X11	LA	Locational Attraction
12.	X12	LIJB	Loss of Initial Job, Business and Trade
13	X13	CJBT	Change of Job, Business and Trade
14	X14	RGP	Retirement/Government's Policy

Source: Author's Computation, 2017

5.2.1 Results and Interpretation of the Initial Correlation Matrix for Labour Migration

This model was employed in order to examine the relationships between the related variables. To achieve suitable results, a correlation matrix of factor analysis for labour migration was computed. Table 5.2 gives a 14X14 matrix of simple correlation that obtained between the input variables for the 18 selected towns. In this wise, variables having Scores 0.05 and above were considered. Hence, variables of 0.05 that were interrelated were critically looked at in the correlation matrix table, those variables were therefore underlined and highlighted in the matrix tables

Table 5. 2: Labour Migration Variables Correlation Matrices

	AF	EDU	SE	IIS	II	FS	LJGP	PTF	SA	TRF	LA	LIJ	CJB	RGP
AF	1.000													
EDU	.085	1.000												
SE	.275	**.542**	1.000											
IIS	**.651**	.134	.263	1.000										
II	.186	.394	.229	.291	1.000									
FS	.290	**.621**	**.919**	.396	.318	1.000								
LJGP	.244	.305	**.562**	.399	.483	**.625**	1.000							
PTF	.316	.167	.249	.120	-.236	.213	-.050	1.000						
SA	.296	-.440	-.523	.262	.142	-.424	-.016	-.223	1.000					
TRF	-.230	.047	.466	-.206	.054	.407	.122	.263	-.338	1.000				
LA	.171	.392	.324	.217	.083	.473	.444	.192	-.226	-.110	1.000			
LIJ	-.149	-.201	-.474	.018	-.424	-.443	.-.410	.177	.177	-.187	-.035	1.000		
CJB	.206	**.559**	**.841**	.044	.109	**.692**	.222	.335	-.449	.365	.105	-.376	1.000	
RGP	.147	.116	-.022	-.166	-.265	.034	-.273	.324	.127	-.211	.160	.063	.227	1.000

Source: Author's Computation, 2017

A look at Table 5.2 shows that insurgency, insecurity and other social problems (variable 4) 0.651 relates with age factor. The second pattern of relationship is between skills & experiences (variable 3) and education 0.542, family size (variable 6) and education 0.621 and change of job/business (variable 13) and education 0.559. The highest correlations (0.919) exist between variable 5 and variable 14. This has to do with family size (variable 6) and skills & experiences, this is closely followed by change of Job/Business (variable 13) and skills & experiences with 0.841. Other notable relationships are the ones between family size and change of jobs/business (variable 13) 0.692 and family size with lack of job and the search for greener pasture (variable 7) 0.625. What can be deduced from this matrix table is that there are very strong relationships between skills/experience and family size, education and family size, just like there is also strong relationship between change of job/Business and education and also, change of job/business and skills/experience.

5.3 Spatial Pattern of Labour Migration and Livelihood Development

5.3.1 Pattern Distribution of Labour Migration Components

The factor analysis as discussed earlier in chapter three was used to reduce the size of the original data set so as to extract a smaller set of labour migration factors which significantly account for most of the variance in the original data set. In furtherance, a factor analysis with varimax rotation was applied to the 14x14 data matrix with labour migration components and its performance in the eighteen (18) selected towns on each of these indices. In all, five (5) factors with Eigen values greater than one were extracted, all the 5 factors together accounted for 80.16% of the total variance in the input matrix of the initial 14 variables. These five factors are therefore significant in the explanation of the variation in

the labour migration pattern of the study area. Table 5.3 indicates the relative importance of the factors with Eigen values greater than one.

Table 5. 3: Relative Importance of Factors with Eigen Values Greater than 1 (Labour Migration)

Factors	Eigen Values	% of Total Variance	Cumulative %
1	4.651	33.244	33.224
2	2.356	16.827	50.051
3	1.933	13.808	63.859
4	1.169	8.349	72.208
5	1.114	7.957	80.164

Source: Author's Computation, 2017

The varimax rotated factor loadings of the original data set are shown in Table 5.4. Factor 1 had 4 variables which combined to account for 33.22%, this factor loads highly in positive direction on (variable X3) skills acquisition and experience, (variable X6) family size, (variable X10) transfer and (variable X13) change of job/ business. There are other fairly high variables which loaded close to 0.5, these moderately positive variables are (variables X2) education and (variable X8), proximity to family. Whereas, the factor also loaded high but on the negative side on (variable X9) social amenities. From this pattern of loading, it can be deduced that majority of the migrants that is, 33.22% of them migrated because of the above listed factors. This factor is thereby tagged Skills Acquisition and Greener Pasture Factor.

Factor 2 accounts for 16.82% of the total variance and exhibits high positive loadings on (variables X1) age factor and (variable X4) insurgency/insecurity and other social problems. The factor also load moderately high on (variable X9) which is social amenities. This factor

is now tagged Age and Insecurity Factor. This has shown that age and insecurity are major factors of labour migration in the study area. Factor 3 accounts for 13.80% with significant positive loading on (variable X2) education and (variable X11), locational attraction. This means that people migrated for educational purposes and also because the location they migrated to are very attractive due to certain factors of attraction. This factor is here by known as Education and Locational Attraction Factor.

Table 5. 4: Labour Migration Variable List Rotated Factor Patterns (Loading)

Var.	**Communality**	**Factor 1**	**Factor 2**	**Factor 3**	**Factor 4**	**Factor 5**
X1	.860	.091	**.886**	.026	.061	.249
X2	.695	.418	-.034	**.637**	.262	.214
X3	.940	**.860**	.199	.309	.252	-.046
X4	.834	-.004	**.857**	.214	.042	-228
X5	.675	.066	.240	.151	**.743**	-.194
X6	.912	**.741**	.271	.471	.252	-.058
X7	.736	.251	.365	.450	.445	-.373
X8	.769	.488	.307	.056	-.621	.217
X9	.768	-.608	.483	-.362	.149	.108
X10	.809	**.727**	-.246	-.224	-.090	-.401
X11	.811	.051	.139	**.884**	-.079	.030
X12	721	-.403	-.005	.059	-.741	-.079
X13	860	**.847**	.048	.109	.160	.321
X14	.833	.037	.026	.074	-.180	**.891**

Source: Author's Computation, 2017

Factor 4 accounts for 8.34% of the total variance with a corresponding positive loading on just one variable that is, (variable X5) which is improved income. The factor also has a moderately high loading on (variable X7), lack of job/greener pasture. This is to say that lack of job/ the quest for greener pasture and improved income contributed to the reasons why people migrates. However, the factor also loaded high but negative on two variables, these are (variable X8), proximity to family and (variable X12), loss of initial job/Business. This factor is hereby known as Income Factor.

The 5th factor in the labour migration factor loading accounts for 7.95% of the total variance. This factor exhibits high positive loading on (variable X14) which is retirement and government policy. The factor also contributed moderately on (variable X13) change of job/business. Other variables were either very low on the positive loading or negatively low. The fact that people move as a result of retirement and government policy is quite justified in that people tend to relocate either to rejoin their family members or to a place they feel they will be more comfortable after their sojourn in the formal/informal employment, business and or trading. This factor is hereby identified as Retirement and Policy Oriented Factor.

In order to depict structural patterns and differences in labour migration components, scores for each town were entered in Table 5.5 as labour migration indices and the charts shown in figures 5.1 to 5.5. To translate the result into graphical representations, the scores on factor 1 is depicted in Figure 5.1.

Table 5. 5: Varimax Rotated Factor Scores (Patterns) of Labour Migration Indices

S/No	Towns	Factor 1	Factor 2	Factor 3	Factor 4	Factor 5
1.	Okuta	**1.46**	0.76	0.25	-0.54	-0.93
2.	Ilesha Baruba	0.32	0.03	0.14	**1.98**	**1.6**
3.	Shonga	**1.26**	-0.58	-0.85	0.5	-1.48
4.	Tsaragi	-1.08	**1.41**	-0.21	-0.28	-1.08
5.	Bode-Saadu	0.93	0.66	-0.27	**1.1**	**1.85**
6.	Shao	-0.6	0.19	**2.6**	-1.23	0.85
7.	Afon	-0.54	-0.7	0.29	-0.86	-0.99
8.	Otte	-0.39	-1.08	0.17	0.14	-0.2
9.	Oke-Oyi	-0.4	**1.38**	1.38	**2.04**	-1.72
10.	Iponrin	-1.59	0.75	-1.77	0.62	0.09
11.	Ilota	-1.46	-1.17	-0.7	-0.11	0.59
12.	Unilorin MCQ	-1.33	-0.94	-.32	-0.41	-0.1
13.	Idofian	-0.14	-1.27	0.65	0.68	0.44
14.	Omupo	**1.24**	-1.21	0.77	-0.19	0.02
15.	Arandun	0.66	0.76	-0.14	-0.83	0.32
16.	Esie	0.56	-0.76	-0.23	-0.28	-0.45
17.	Ijagbo	**1.19**	0.02	-1.57	-0.81	0.07
18.	Ojoku	-0.09	**1.74**	-0.18	-1.52	**1.11**

Source: Author's Computation, 2017

Figure 5.1 shows that factor 1 (skills acquisition/experience and greener pasture) has high positive scores in four Towns. The towns are Okuta, Tsonga, Omupo and Ijagbo. These are some of the major towns in their respective local government areas where commercial activities thrive very well. This factor also has high but negative scores on four other towns, these are Tsaraji, Iponrin, Ilota and Unilorin Main Campus Quarters. The implication is that while Tsaraji is a major market town where goods and products are usually being sold every Saturday which is their market days, Iponrin is a linear town along the Ilorin-old Jebba road with very few infrastructural development but majority of the people here are peasant farmers, business men/women and traders who normally move from one town to the other selling their products such as charcoals and other farm produce. While Unilorin MCQ is a modern and well-planned town with people from diverse backgrounds who were there to

work, learn, get experience and seek for greener pasture. Ilota is a sleepy town in Ilorin South LGA and located in-ward off the Ilorin-Ajase-Ipo highway by Idofian. Factor 1 also show moderate towns depicted by the structural pattern. There are towns that have moderate and positive scores. These towns are Ilesha Baruba, Bode-Saadu, Arandun and Esie. The idea behind this is that there are moderate movements of people here either as a result of skill acquisition or for greener pasture so that they can earn a living.

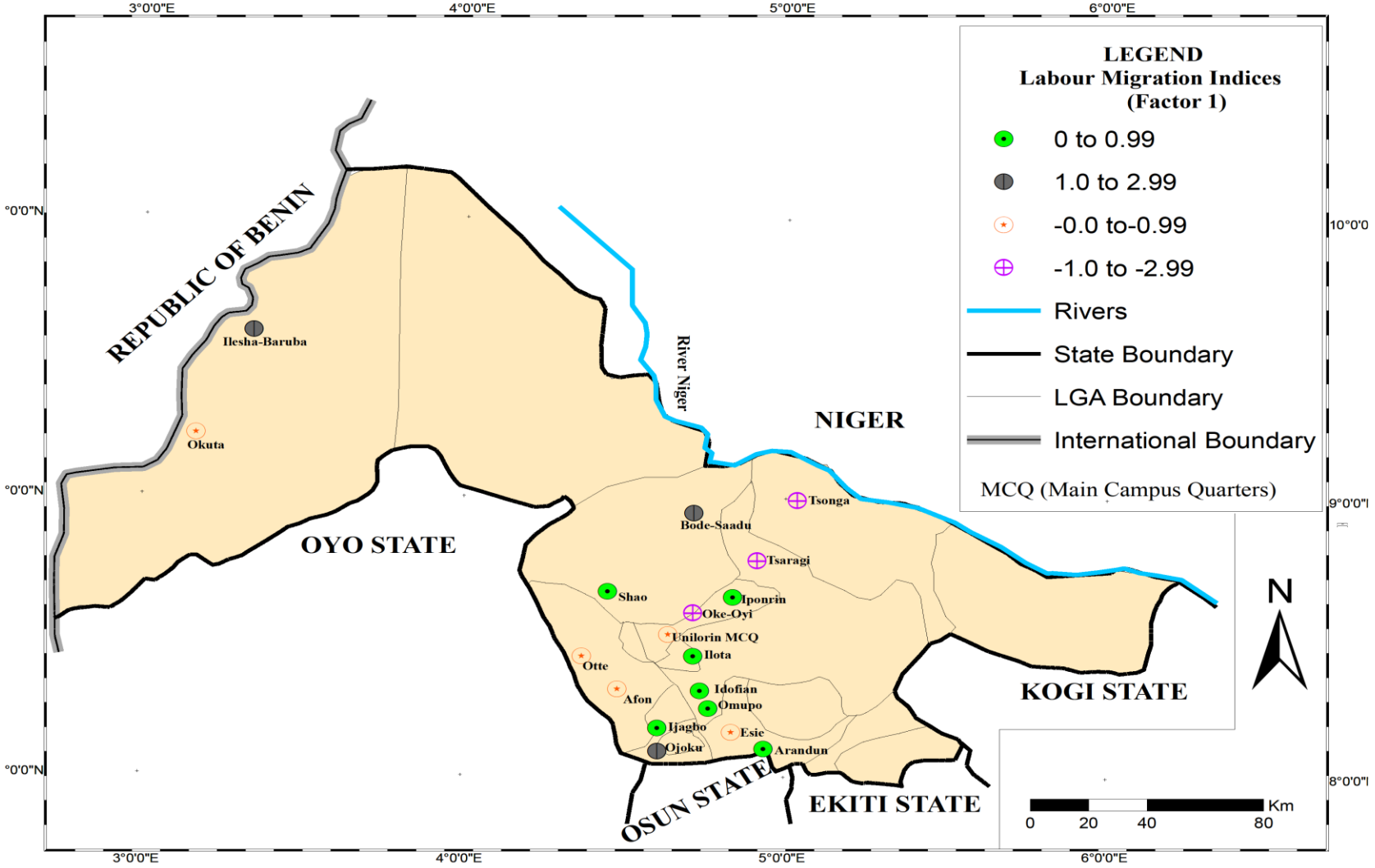


Figure 5. 1: Spatial Pattern of Skills Acquisition and Family Enhancement (Factor 1)
Source: Author's Computation, 2017

Figure 5.2 shows the pattern of factor 2 (age, insecurity and other social problems). This factor loaded high above 1.0 on three main towns, these are Tsaraji, Oke-oyi and Ojoku, one town each from the 3 senatorial districts. The reasons that can be adduced to this is the fact that these towns have high numbers of aged people who had come back to their various places of origin to rest after working around in many other places. Ojoku particularly has high numbers of aged people. About four other towns loaded heavily but on the negative side, these are Otte, Ilota, Idofian, and Omupo. They are not positively affected by the availability of social amenities or age but somehow, the movement may be encouraged by other factors which have lesser bearings on either age or insecurity/other social problems. A look at the chart (Figure 5.2) also revealed that there are 5 other towns which are moderately or averagely loaded on the positive side, these are Okuta, Bode-Saadu, Iponrin, Arandun and Shao. Insecurity and other social problems in their former places of residence coupled with the age factor have positively affected the movement of people to these towns

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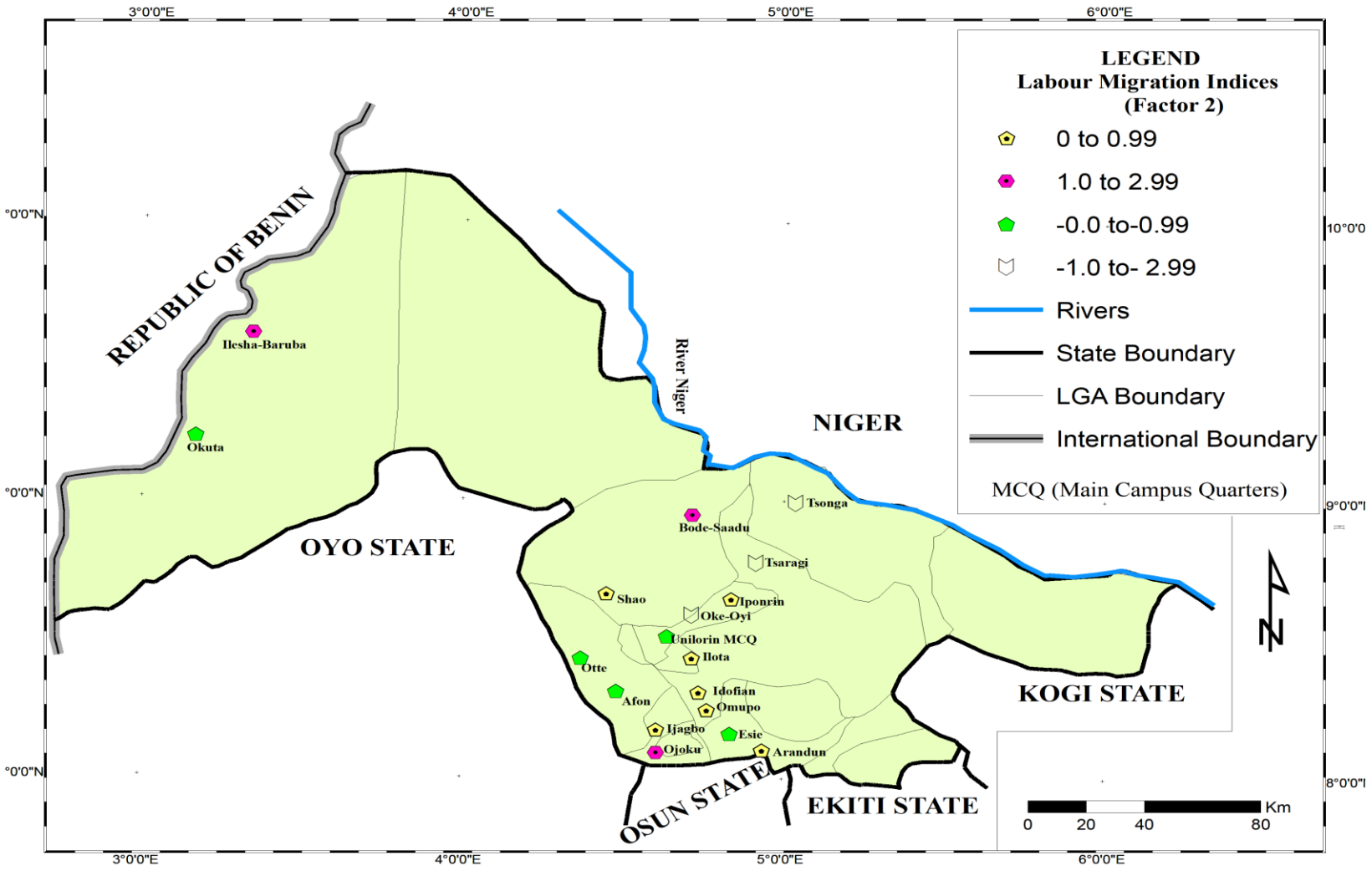


Figure 5. 2: Spatial Pattern of Age and Social Issues (Factor 2)

Source: Author's Computation, 2017

As indicated in Figure 5.3, factor 3 (Family and government policy dimension) shows that only 2 towns loaded very high on the positive side while 4 towns also load positively but low. The two towns that loaded high on the positive side are Shao and Oke-oyi, incidentally, these towns are among the few towns with the highest returned number of questionnaire. The other towns with moderate positive loadings are Omupo and Idofian. The other 4 towns that loaded positive are Oke-oyi, Shao, Idofian, and Omupo are all linear towns on major highways. There are also towns that loaded high but on the negative sides, these towns are Iponrin, Ijagbo and Tsonga.

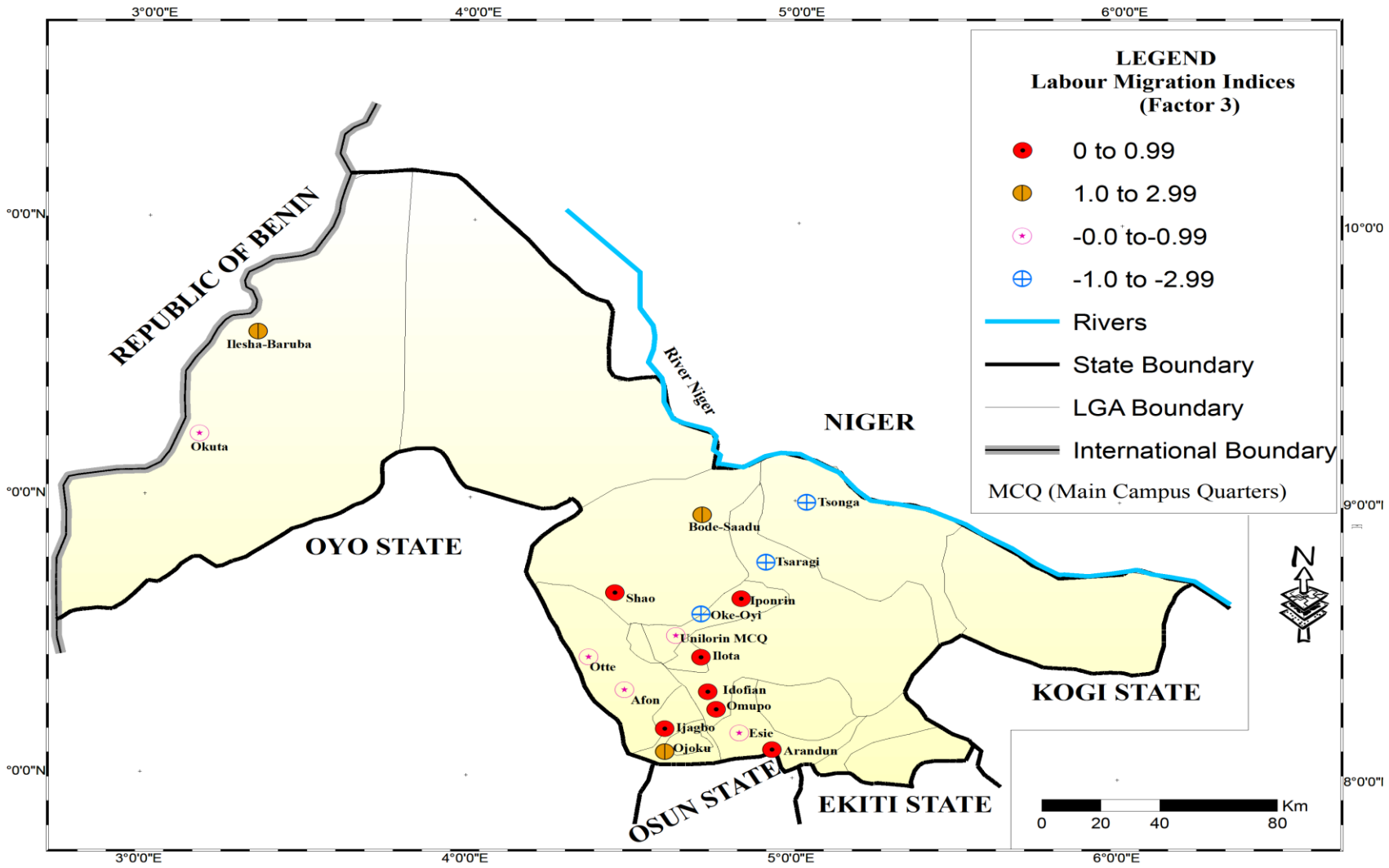


Figure 5. 3: Spatial Pattern of Family and Government Policy Dimension (Factor 3)
Source: Author's Computation, 2017

Factor 4 as can be seen in Figure 5.4, (income factor) loads very high on the positive side in three towns namely Ilesha-Baruba, Bode-Saadu and Oke-oyi. This pattern can be explained by simply saying that these 3 towns are major towns with basic social amenities. Apart from Ilesha-Baruba which is not a local government headquarters, Bode-Saadu and Oke-oyi are Local Government headquarters of Moro and Ilorin East Local Government Areas respectively. While Bode-Saadu is a major market for cattle and other utilities, Oke-oyi is home to Nigerian National Petroleum Corporation (NNPC) depot so it is easy for people to migrate to such towns to seek for better employment and income. Ilesha-Baruba is also one of the major towns in Baruten Local Government Area and a major commercial centre where people move to from other surrounding villages and towns in order to earn better living. Few towns also loaded high but on the negative side, these are Shao and Ojoku while Okuta, Afon, Arandun and Ojoku loaded moderately low on the negative side. However, towns like Tsonga, Iponrin and Idofian loaded moderately on the positive side. For these categories of towns and the moderate loadings, the reasons that can be attributed to these are explained thus. Tsonga in Edu LGA is the home to Tsonga farm where Zimbabwean farmers are involved in large scale commercial farming. The Kwara State Government set Tsonga farm up for such service and many infrastructural facilities were put in place, some of these include health centre, school, market and many other facilities and the prospect of getting employed may be one of the few reasons people migrated here because it has the capacity to employ high numbers of people in it various sections such as the rice, dairy products, chicken, vegetables and others too numerous to mention. Iponrin is a moderate small town along the Ilorin-old Jebba road but not many infrastructural facilities were available in this town but it still loaded moderately on the positive side which suggest that other factors may

have also added up to result to this, though it is a town that is well known for its abundant production of charcoal

Lastly, Idofian, one of the largest towns in Ifelodun LGA also loaded moderately on the positive side. Idofian has many factors to attract people, it's a town with a federal broadcasting station, (Harmony F.M), it has a periodic market and the presence of Hope orphanage and many other facilities like secondary schools, maternity and clinics in addition to being a junction to many other smaller towns and villages and its proximity to school of preliminary studies in Fufu are all additional advantages to attract people who may be there to seek greener pasture in order to boost their income.

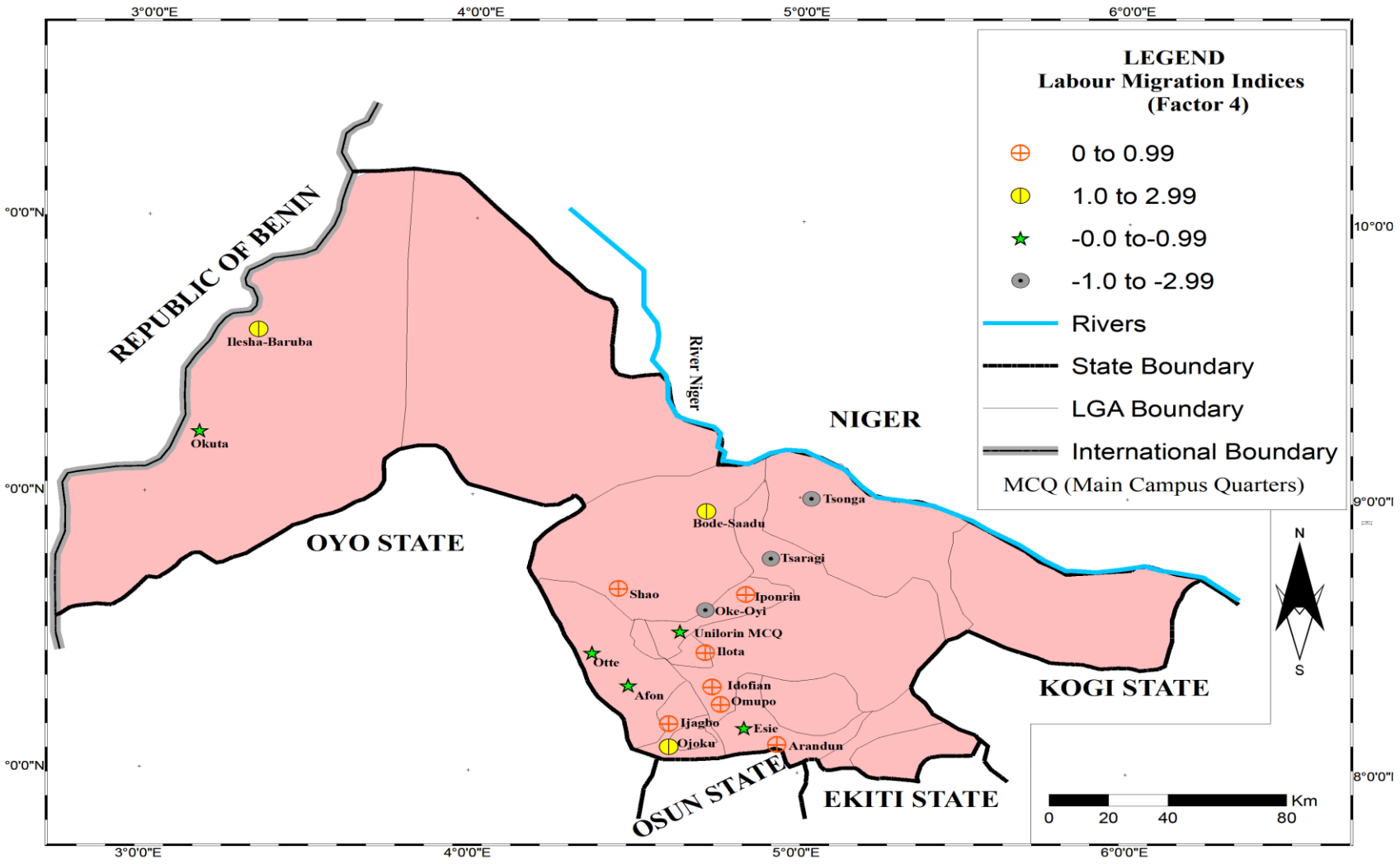


Figure 5. 4: Spatial Pattern of Locational Attraction Factor (Factor 4)
Source: Author's Computation, 2017

In respect of retirement and policy oriented factor (Factor 5), the pattern is depicted in figure 5.5. Three main towns were identified to have loaded very high on the positive, these towns include Ilesha-Baruba, Bode-Saadu and Ojoku. These are towns with high number of their indigenes returning back home to enjoy their retirements after active years of work, business and or artisan life. The factor loaded moderately positive in towns like Shao, Ilota and Idofian. It also loaded high on 5 main towns but negatively, these towns are Okuta, Tsonga, Tsaraji, Afon, and Oke-oyi. These towns loading high on the negative side mean that high numbers of people have been attracted to these towns but not necessarily due to retirement and policy oriented, other factors contributed to this pattern.

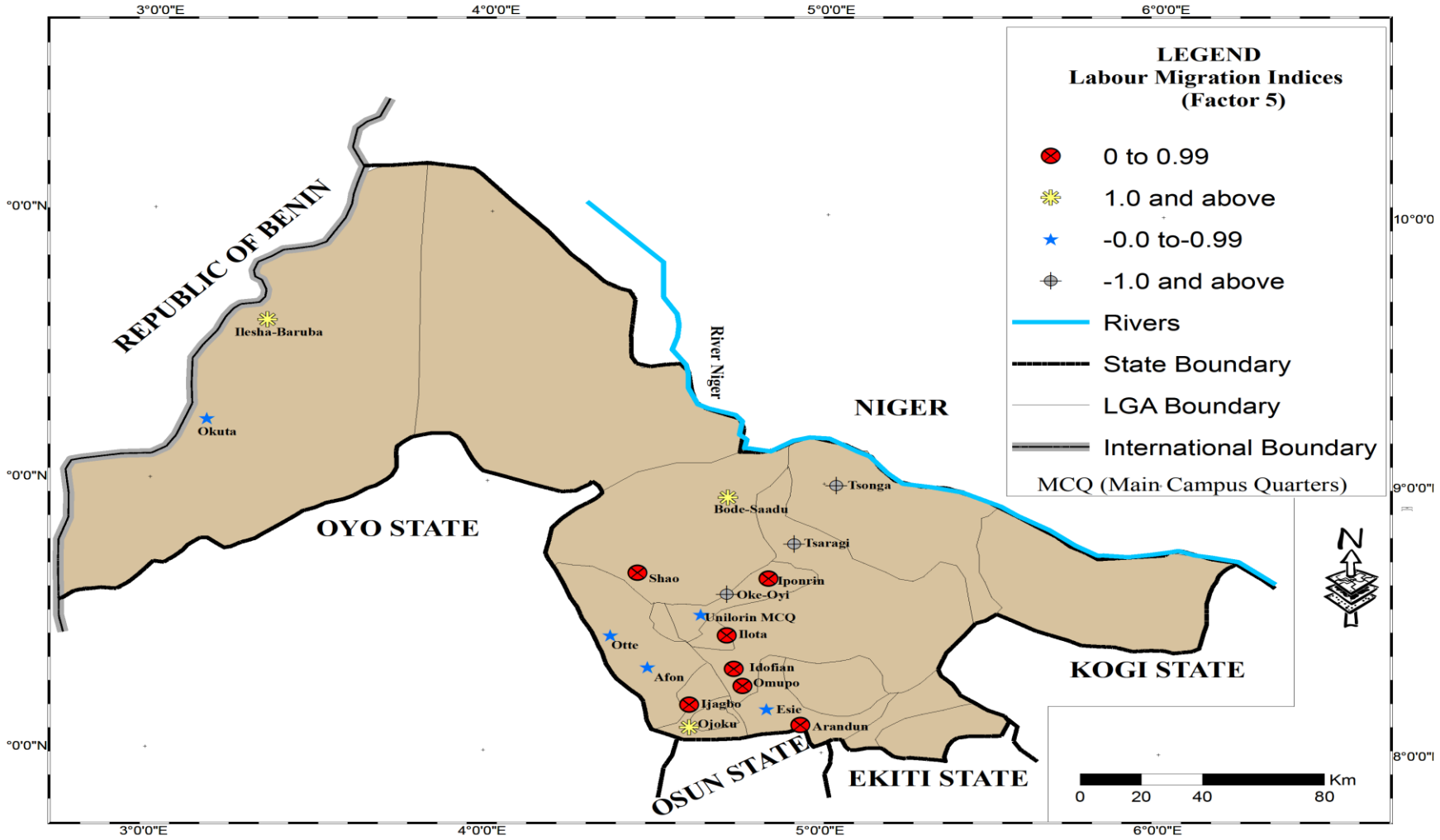


Figure 5. 5: Spatial Pattern of Policy Oriented Factor (Factor 5)
Source: Author's Computation, 2017

A quick look at all the five factors of the pattern of labour migration in the selected 18 towns of Kwara state on the various figures shows that the factors differs from one town to the other. While Factor 1 records very high positive loading in four towns and very high negative loadings in four towns too, factor 2 records very high positive loadings in three towns and very high negative loadings in four towns. Factor 3 also records very high positive loadings in just two towns while factors 4 and 5 records very high positive loadings in 3 towns each respectively. Factors 3, 4 and 5 have very high negative loadings in two towns each and 5 towns respectively (figures 5.1-5.5).

5.4 Factor Analysis Variables Livelihood Development

As mentioned earlier, the variables list for livelihood development have been discussed in chapter three. These variables were used as input into the factor analysis. The variables are to depict livelihood development indices. The list of variables for livelihood development contains 18 indices. This list measured in relation to their distribution on the 18 selected towns (Table 5.6). The variables for livelihood development are expected to contribute directly to the livelihood status of the respondents.

Table 5. 6: Livelihood Development Variable List

S/No	X	Acronym	Variables Definition
1	X1	AI	Average Monthly Income
2	X2	EAMW	% Family Members Earning Above Minimum-wage
3	X3	EBMW	% Family Members Earning Below Minimum-wage
4	X4	FA	Family Assets
5	X5	NOD	Number of Dependants
6	X6	FMPR	% Family Members with Properties for Rent
7	X7	FMOH	% Family Members with Own Houses
8	X8	NCS	Number of Children in School
9	X9	FMPE	% Family Members in Permanent Employment
10	X10	FMPA	% Family Members in Pensionable Appointment
11	X11	FMI	Family Median Income
12	X12	AIBM	Average Income Before Migration
13	X13	AIAM	Average Income After Migration
14	X14	FAL	% Family Members Having Access to Loan/Credit Facility
15	X15	FASI	% Family Members with Alternative Source of Income
16	X16	RASI	Respondents With Alternative Source of Income
17	X17	FVC	% Family Members Having Vehicles for Commercial Use
18	X18	FVP	% Family Members Having Vehicles for Private Use

Source: Author's Computation, 2017

5.4.1 Results and Interpretation of the Initial Correlation Matrix for Livelihood Development

Just like in labour migration, this model was employed in order to examine relationships between the related variables. A correlation matrix of factor analysis for livelihood development was computed, this is with a view to achieving suitable results. Table 5.7 gives an 18X18 matrix of simple correlation that obtained between input variables for the 18

selected towns. Therefore, variables having scores of 0.05 and above were considered, especially, those variables that are interrelated in the correlation matrix.

Table 5. 7: Livelihood Development Variables Correlation Matrices

	AI	EAMW	EBMW	FA	NOD	FMPR	FMOH	NCS	FMPE	FMPA	FMI	AIBM	AIAM	FAL	FASI	RASI	FVC	FVP
AI	1.000																	
EAMW	**.568**	1.000																
EBMW	.351	.306	1.000															
FA	**.579**	.272	.424	1.000														
NOD	.206	.240	**.547**	.443	1.000													
FMPR	.103	.126	**.400**	.248	**.679**	1.000												
FMOH	.188	.278	**.649**	**.536**	**.752**	.499	1.000											
NCS	.443	.338	**.749**	**.569**	**.639**	.471	**.748**	1.000										
FMPE	.038	.076	**.626**	**.328**	**.649**	.447	**.840**	**.759**	1.000									
FMPA	.310	.321	**.699**	**.555**	**.770**	**.507**	**.732**	**.751**	**.551**	1.000								
FMI	.172	-.162	**.570**	.439	.478	.387	.382	.289	.358	.395	1.000							
AIBM	**.562**	.412	**.596**	**.610**	**.554**	**.544**	**.530**	**.575**	.491	**.603**	.457	1.000						
AIAM	.463	**.666**	**.533**	.423	.462	.185	**.530**	**.594**	.352	**.617**	-.063	.329	1.000					
FAL	.429	**.773**	**.530**	.416	.378	.095	.481	**574**	.258	**.570**	.025	.406	**.825**	1.000				
FASI	.291	.364	**.755**	.325	.349	.344	**.502**	**.608**	.472	**.700**	.258	**.515**	**.509**	.423	1.000			
RASI	.411	.329	**.564**	**.511**	**.788**	.454	**.766**	**.730**	**.797**	**.664**	.240	**.582**	**.680**	.429	.459	1.000		
FVC	-.022	.316	**.544**	.293	**.540**	.055	**.592**	**.576**	**.565**	**645**	.073	.219	**.728**	.741	.424	**.594**	1.000	
FVP	.170	.291	**.635**	.247	.411	.410	.447	.430	.311	**.572**	.377	.670	.207	**.501**	**.584**	205	.366	1.000

Source: Author's Computation, 2017

Table 5.7 shows that there are significant relationships between the various variables. The variable with the highest point being (variable 7), it has relationship with (variable 9) that is, family members with permanent employment 0.840, the variable also relates with the following variables: Variable 16, respondents with alternative source of income, .0766, variable 8, Number of children in school 0.748, variable 17, family members with vehicles for commercial use 0.592, variable 10, family members with pensionable appointment 0.732 and variables 12 and 13 that is family median income and average income after migration with 0.530 scores respectively.

Another high correlation exists between the following variables: variable 3 (earning below minimum wages) and variable 15 (family members with alternative source of income) variable 8 (number of children in schools); variable 3 (family member with pensionable appointment); variable 7 (family members with own houses); variable 18 (family members with vehicle for private use) and variable 9 (family members with permanent employment) among many other variables relating to variable 3. Notable relationship also exist between variable 5 (number of dependants) and variable 16 (respondents with alternative source of income); variable 10 (family members with pensionable appointments); variable 7 (family member with own houses); variable 9 (family members in permanent employment) and variable 8 (number of children in schools) among other variables.

Further relationships also exist as indicated in Table 5.7. These include variable 13, (average income after migration and variable 14 (family having access to loan); variable 17 (family members with vehicles for commercial use); variable 16 (respondents with alternative source of income), and variable 15 (family with alternative source of income) respectively. There is also relationships between (variable 8) that is, number of children in school and

(variable 9), family members in permanent employment .759; (variable 10), family members in pensionable appointment .751; (variable 16), respondents with alternative source of income .730; (variable 15), family members with alternative source of income .608; and (variable 13), average income after migration .594 among other variables.

5.4.2 Pattern Distribution of Livelihood Development Components

Just like it was discussed in labour migration, a factor analysis with varimax (orthogonal) rotation was applied to the 18x18 data matrix carrying entries of the performance of the 18 selected towns for the livelihood development indices (Table 5.8). All together, four factors with Eigen value greater than one were extracted, the four factors together accounted for 79.37% of the total variance in the input matrix in the original 18 variables data set.

Table 5. 8: Relative Importance of Factors with Eigen Values Greater than 1 (Livelihood Development)

Factors	Eigen Values	% of Total Variance	Cumulative %
1	9.090	50.501	50.501
2	2.277	12.648	63.149
3	1.660	9.222	72.371
4	1.261	7.006	79.377

Source: Author's Computation, 2017

From Table 5.8, the relative factors with Eigen values greater than one can be seen along side their cumulative percentages. Table 5.9 shows the rotational factor patterns on the livelihood development indices. Factor 1 has the greatest contribution accounting for 50.5 % of the total variance hence, this happen to have contributed the greatest indicator to livelihood development in the 18 selected towns. The variables contributing to this factor are

variable 5, (number of dependants per family); variable 6, (% of family members with property for rent); variable 7, (% of family members with own houses); variable 8, (number of children in schools); variable 9, (% of family members in permanent employment); variable 10, (% of family members in pensionable appointment); variable 16, (respondents with alternative sources of income) and variable 17, (% of family members having vehicles for commercial use). Factor 1 is therefore tagged Family Enhancement Factor. It is so tagged because most of the contributing variables have one thing or the other to do with family and how they are enhanced.

Table 5. 9: Livelihood Development Variable List Rotated Factor Patterns (Loading)

Var.	Communality	Factor 1	Factor 2	Factor 3	Factor 4
X1	.900	.019	.298	.084	**.897**
X2	.779	-.037	**.774**	.155	.447
X3	.796	.485	.270	**.682**	.153
X4	.680	.442	.111	.154	**.670**
X5	.776	**.816**	.087	.268	.179
X6	.538	**.535**	-.219	.398	.215
X7	.831	**.826**	.229	.291	.107
X8	.780	**.682**	.361	.332	.273
X9	.831	**.882**	.076	.213	-.039
X10	.794	**.623**	.336	**.512**	.174
X11	.675	.385	-.426	**.516**	.281
X12	.808	.365	.061	**.569**	**.589**
X13	.895	.403	**.823**	.059	.229
X14	.888	.185	**.845**	.310	.208
X15	.671	.292	.356	**.672**	.089
X16	.902	**.849**	.307	.027	.293
X17	.875	**.559**	**.675**	.197	-.261
X18	.867	.114	.172	**.906**	.052

Source: Author's Computation, 2017

Factor 2 accounts for 12.64% of the total variance. A look at Table 5.9 shows that factor 2 loaded substantially in a positive direction on variable 2, (% of family members earning above minimum wages); variable 13, (average income after migration); variable 14, (% of family members having access to loan/credit facilities) and variable 17, (% of family members having vehicles for commercial use). The factor also loaded moderately on the positive side on variable 1 (average monthly income); variable 3, (% of family members earning below minimum wage); variable 8, (number of children in school), variable 10, (% of family members in pensionable appointment); variable 15, (% of family members with alternative source of income) and variable 16, (respondents with alternative source of income). A look at all the variables including the ones that loaded heavily and the ones that loaded moderately positive indicates that they are all income related except for variable 8. In view of these, this factor is now identified as Income Enhancement Factor.

Factor 3, loaded heavily on about 6 variables vis-a-vis variable 3, (% of family members earning below minimum wage); variable 10, (% of family members in pensionable appointments); variable 11, (family median income); variable 12, (average income before migration); variable 15, (% of family members with alternative source of income) and variable 18, (% of family members having vehicles for private use). This factor is hereby referred to as the Wealth Index Factor. Factor 3 accounts for 9.22% of the total variance. There are also variables which loaded moderately on the positive side, these variables are variable 6, (% of family members with properties for rent); variable 8, (number of children in school) and variable 14, (% of family members having access to loan/credit facilities). The last factor which is factor 4 accounts for 7.006 % of the total variance and it loads very high on variable 1, (average monthly income); variable 4, (family assets) and variable 12,

(average income before migration). This factor is hereby referred to as Assets Enhancement Factor.

It is obvious that livelihood development indices in the selected towns of Kwara State were patterned into four main factors as was seen in Table 5.9, it will also show a clearer view and pattern distribution if the figures are interpolated by towns in maps so as to show any disparities and equality in the livelihood development index of all towns being studied. The pattern scores as appears in Table 5.10 indicate that there are inter-town variations in the pattern of livelihood development after migration. In order to depict structural pattern and differences in livelihood components, scores for each town were entered in Table 5.10 as livelihood development indices and their charts shown in figures 5.6-5.9. To translate the results into map representation, the scores on factor 1 are depicted in Figure 5.6.

Table 5. 10: Varimax Rotated Factor Scores (Patterns) of Livelihood Development Indices

S/No	Towns	Factor 1	Factor 2	Factor 3	Factor 4
1.	Okuta	0.32	**1.46**	-1.03	**1.79**
2.	Ilesha Baruba	**1.39**	-1.18	-0.15	**1.2**
3.	Tsonga	-0.49	0.84	**1.25**	-0.67
4.	Tsaraji	-0.27	-1.67	0.86	0.14
5.	Bode-Saadu	0.86	0.74	0.35	0.32
6.	Shao	**2.21**	-0.05	-1.41	-1.05
7.	Afon	-0.33	**1.06**	0.71	-1.71
8.	Otte	0.68	-0.72	-0.14	-0.93
9.	Oke-oyi	0.3	-1.63	**1.81**	0.87
10.	Iponrin	-1.79	-0.74	0.08	-0.3
11.	Ilota	-0.97	-0.96	-2.2	-0.16
12.	Unilorin MCQ	-0.98	-0.8	-1.42	-0.56
13.	Idofian	0.39	0.62	0.43	-1.68
14.	Omupo	**1.03**	0.28	0.52	0.66
15.	Arandun	-0.36	0.62	0.47	0.52
16.	Esie	-1.15	0.29	0.19	0.82
17.	Ijagbo	-0.75	**1.36**	-0.38	**1.15**
18.	Ojoku	-0.11	0.49	0.07	-0.43

Source: Author's Computation, 2017

The factor score pattern of factor 1 (Family Enhancement Factor) showed that a high number of family members lives were enhanced in towns like Ilesha- Baruba, Afon, and Omupo. These towns loaded very high on the positive side (Figure 5.6), while Bode- Saadu also loaded moderately on the positive side. However, some towns loaded very high but on the negative, these are Iponrin and Arandun. What can be attributed to these are that the families were enhanced but not as a result of the above listed factors, but due to other factors indirectly related.

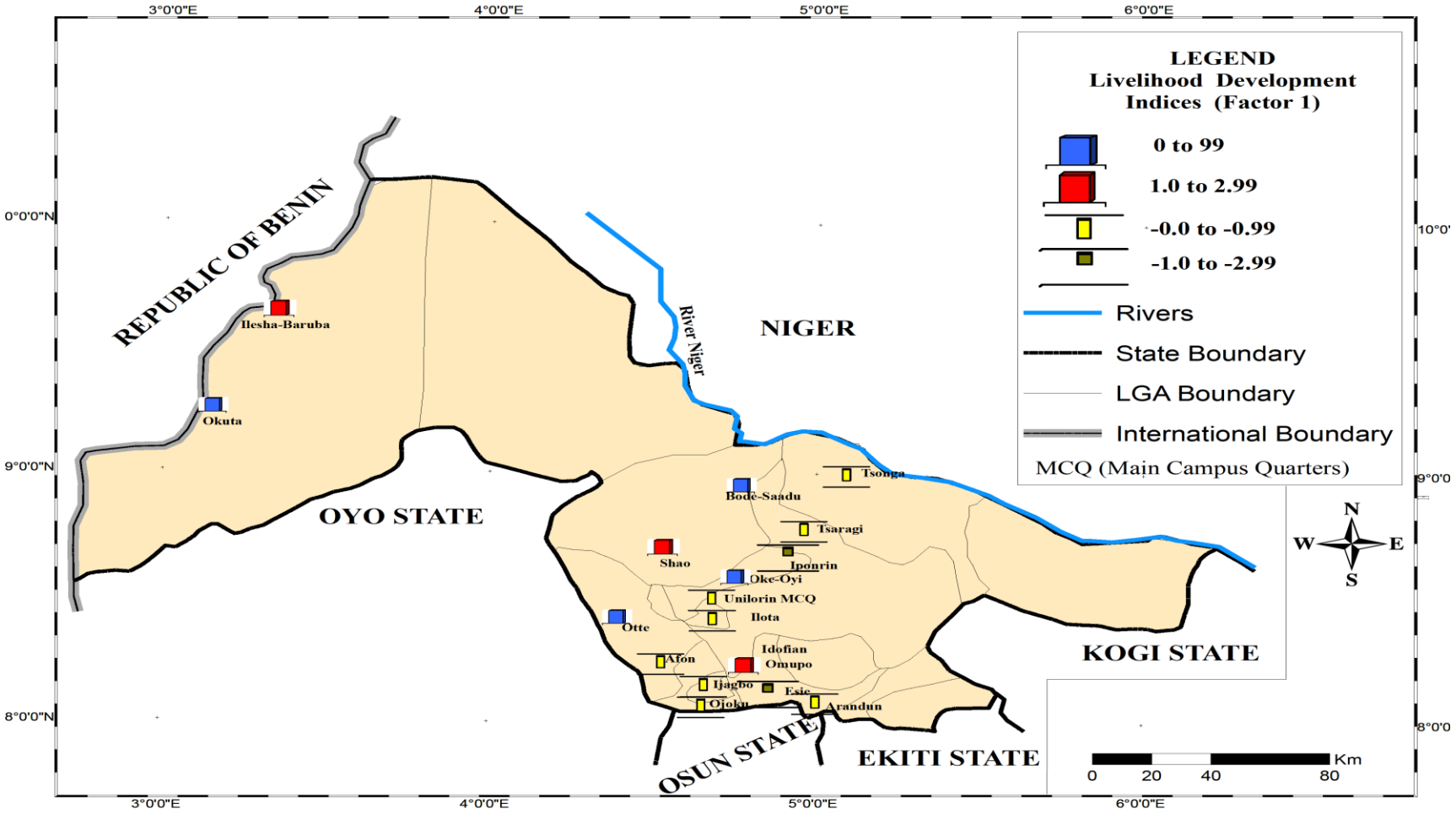


Figure 5. 6: Spatial Pattern of Family Enhancement Factor (Factor 1)
Source: Author's Computation, 2017.

The scores on factor 2, income enhancement factor (Figure 5.7) showed that some towns were enhanced highly on the income factor. For instance, three towns loaded positively high, these towns are Okuta, Afon and Ijagbo. It can be said that these are not the towns that have the most attractive job offers but findings have put these three towns up as regarding income enhancement. Though there are also few towns that also loaded moderately on the positive, they are Tsonga, Bode-Saadu, Idofian and Omupo. These towns also have the capacity to attract people for income for instance, Tsonga is home to Zimbabwean farmers, Bode-Saadu is the LG headquarter of Moro LGA, and a major cattle market while Idofian and Omupo are two major towns on the highway and are also junction to many surrounding agrarian towns and villages that usually brings out their produce for sales on the periodic market days. There are also few towns that loaded high on the negative, these are Ilesha-Baruba, Tsaraji and Oke-oyi. Towns like Otte, Iponrin and Ilota also loaded moderately negative.

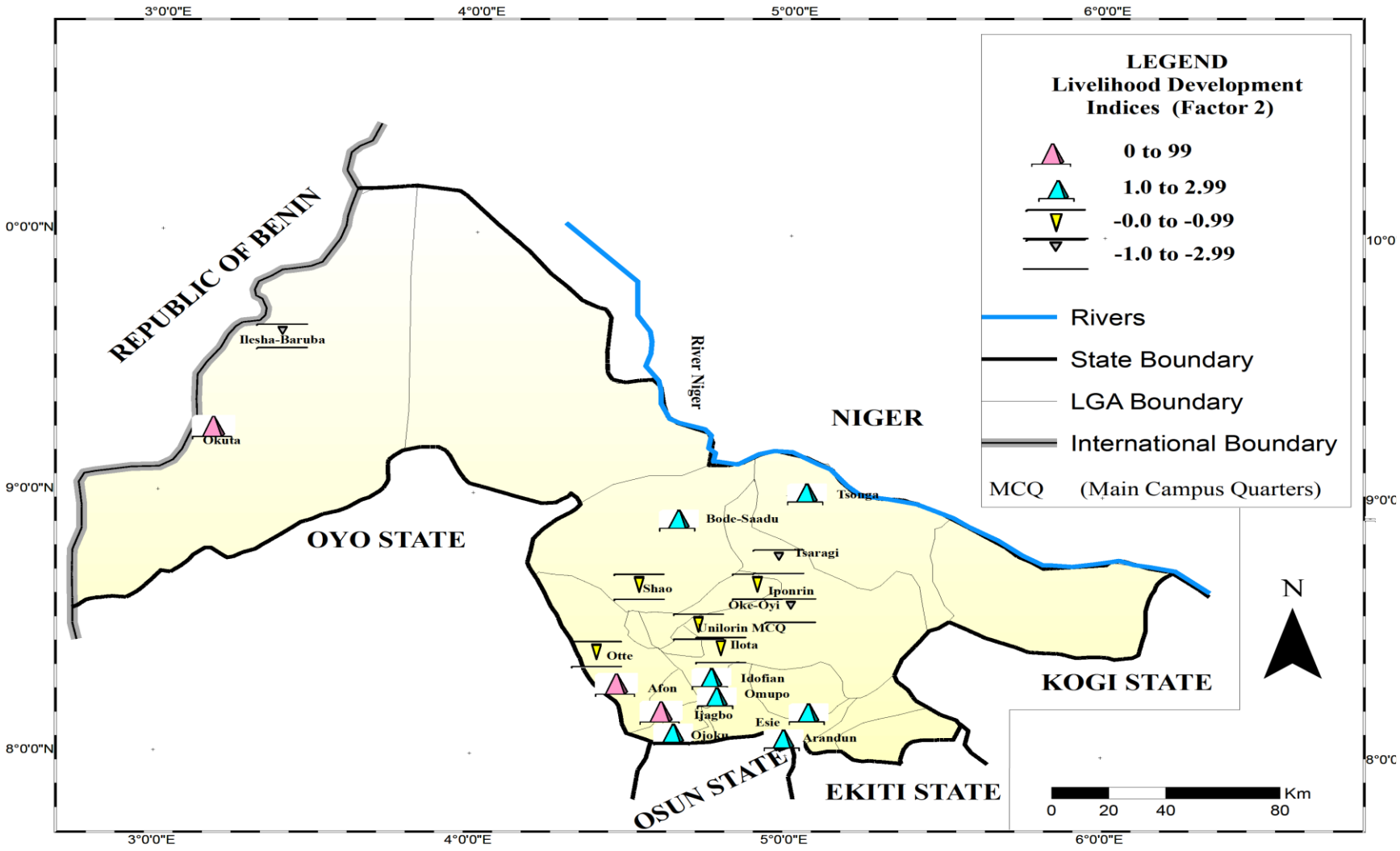


Figure 5. 7: Spatial Pattern of Income Enhancement Factor (Factor 2)
Source: Author's Computation, 2017

Factor 3 has to do with wealth index; Figure 5.8 shows the pattern scores. This factor has high positive scores on just 2 towns, these towns are Tsonga and Oke-oyi. The factor also loaded moderately positive on towns like Tsaraji, Afon and Omupo. This is to say that not only has the movement of people affected the fortunes of people in these towns positively, but it has also boosted their wealth index hence this pattern of loading. The factor also loaded high on the negative in some major towns, these towns are Okuta, Shao, Ilota, and Unilorin MCQ. This is to say that this factor contributed to the wealth index of the aforementioned towns but the contributing inputs are not as high as compared to the positive ones. These towns are less advantaged in the wealth index scores.

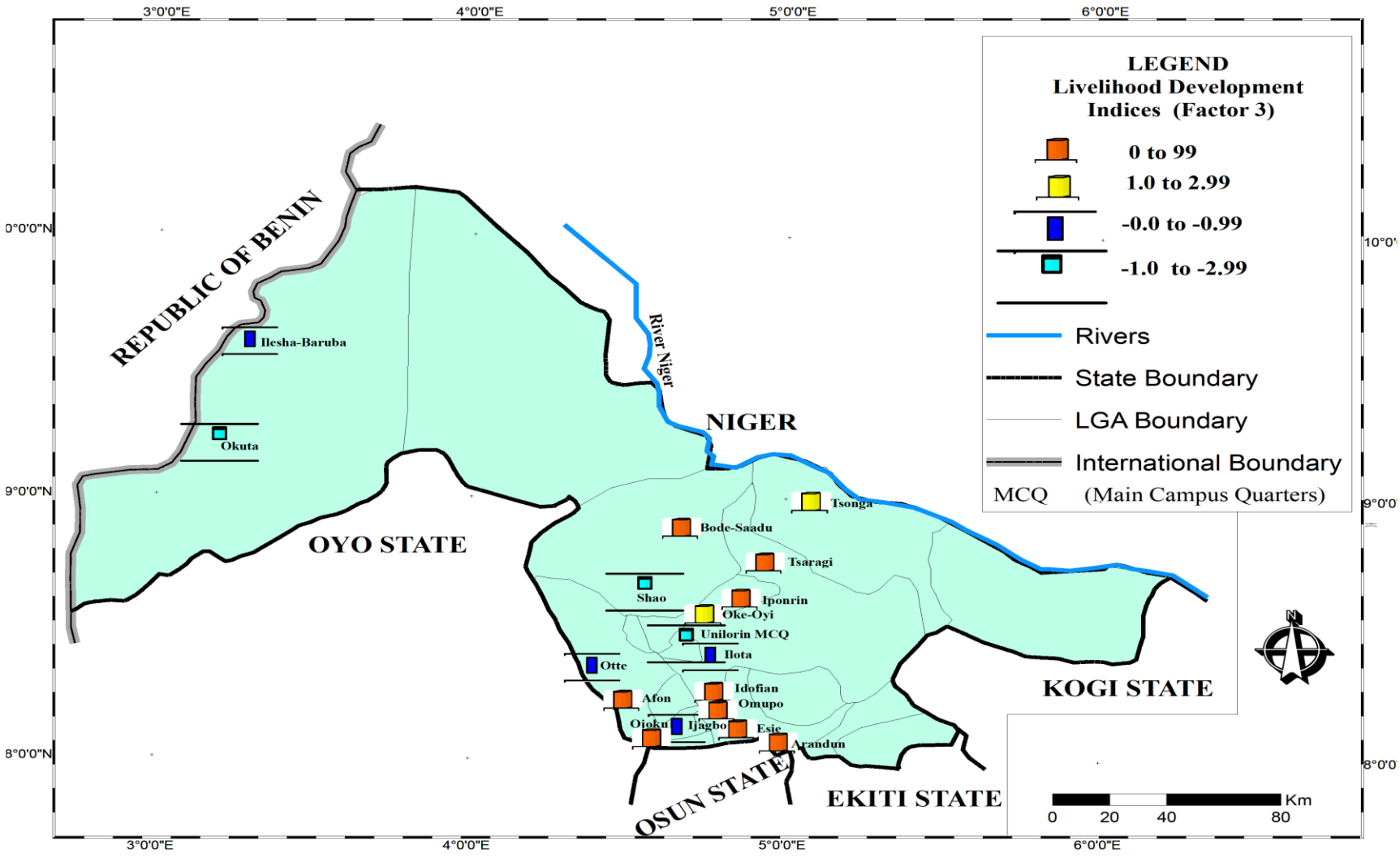


Figure 5. 8: Spatial Pattern of Wealth Index Factor (Factor 3)
Source: Author's Computation, 2017

Figure 5.9 is the graph of scores on factor 4. This factor, Assets enhancement factor loaded positively high in towns like Okuta, Ilesha-Baruba and Ijagbo. The factor also loads moderately high in Oke-oyi, Omupo, Arandun and Esie. Apart from Oke-oyi which is a local government headquarter and also has an NNPC depot and is quite likely to be reason why people here were able to acquire assets, other towns in the same categories do not have as much government presence as Oke-oyi and hence people here have to struggle on their own to acquire the assets which they currently enjoyed. However, there are pockets of smaller establishments like health care centres, schools, and cottage hospitals among others which help to employ sizeable number of people and thus, have helped in boosting the assets level of the people in the affected towns.

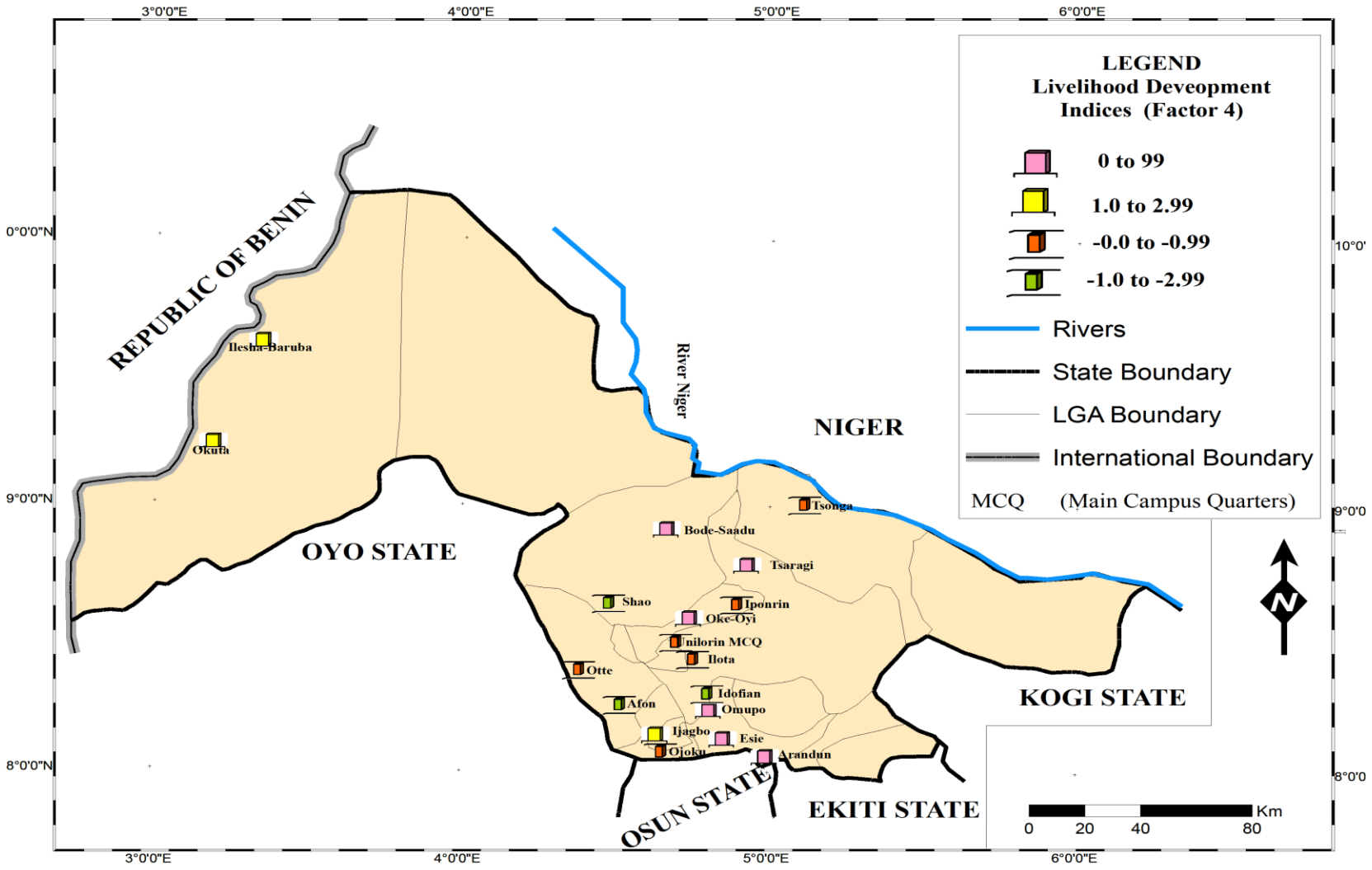


Figure 5. 9: Spatial Pattern of Assets Enhancement Factor (Factor 4)
Source: Author's Computation, 2017

On the other hand, there are few towns that also recorded negative scores in terms of the assets enhancement index, these towns include Shao, Afon, Otte and Idofian. This pattern of scores does not mean they did not also acquire assets, but the level of acquisition was low when compared to the previously mentioned towns which mean that they may have spent their resources more on other things.

Finally, from the results of the multivariate factor analysis for the livelihood development indices in the selected towns of Kwara State, 4 factors emerged and were examined. From the factors as related to each town, it can be observed that pattern for each factor differs from town to town, this shows that a factor that reflects positively in one town may not be the same in another town because there are variations in individual's activities, earnings, and the time expended in different activities, hence the variation in patterns from town to town.

5.5 Labour Migration and Livelihood Development: Canonical Correlation Analysis

The two pattern distribution of labour migration and livelihood development indices have been shown and discussed in previous section. In order to identify broad empirical linkages between the pattern of labour migration and livelihood development in the study area, a canonical correlation analysis was carried out. This was to identify the level of relationship between the two patterns. The canonical correlation analysis seek to select functions that have maximum co-variances between the two domains of measurements subject to the restriction of orthogonality.

The data that were imputed into the analysis comprises of two factor score matrices derived previously (See Tables 5.1 and 5.6) on labour migration and livelihood development indices respectively. The predictor and criteria set consist of four factors

each while a maximum of four canonical vectors were extracted. Out of these four, only three are statistically significant at 5% significance level. The canonical weights (loadings) for these vectors are shown in Table 5.11. It can be observed that the corresponding correlations of the four vectors are 0.979, 0.896, 0.828 and 0.291 for vectors 1, 2, 3 and 4 respectively. However, the three significant vectors would be interpreted and explained. The first canonical correlation of 0.979 indicates that the amount of variance shared by the two first canonical variate is 63.92%. The second canonical correlation with 0.896 shows that the second canonical variate shares 12.17% of their variances. The same thing applied to the third and fourth which shares 6.51% and 2.78 % respectively.

Table 5. 11: Relative Importance of Canonical Variates

Canonical Vector	Eigen Values	Canonical Correlation	% of Total Internal Variance	Cumulative %	DF
1	22.703	.979	63.92	63.92	20
2	4.069	.896	12.17	76.09	12
3	2.178	.828	6.51	82.60	6
4	.093	.291	2.78	85.38	1

Source: Author's Computation, 2017

Table 5.12 shows the detailed results of the canonical correlation analysis. The first canonical vector (Canvar 1) in labour migration, that is, SAGP (Skill Acquisition and Greener Pasture) 0.979 relates with FE (Family Enhancement) 0.537 and AE (Assets Enhancement). Also 0.537 in the livelihood development indices with canonical correlation of 0.979, (See Table 5.12 for Canonical Correlation variable definition lists). This means that there is a relationship between skills acquisition/greener pasture scores with that of family enhancement and also assets enhancements. The implication of this is that variables under skills acquisition/greener pastures correlates highly with variable under family enhancements at the same time, it also correlates with assets enhancement

variables. Here it can be inferred that the town that is high on the variable skills acquisition and greener pasture will also be high on family enhancement and assets enhancement, hence family enhancement and assets enhancement have great influence on the quest for skills acquisition and greener pasture or vice versa. This vector is termed Skill acquisition/Family and Assets enhancement dimension.

Table 5. 12: Canonical Correlation Analysis Variable Definition List

S/N	**Acronym**	**Variables Definition (Labour Migration)**
1.	SAGP	Skills acquisition and greener pasture
2.	AI	Age and insecurity
3.	ELA	Education and locational attraction
4.	IF	Income factor
5.	RPO	Retirement and policy oriented
S/N	**Acronym**	**Variables Definition (Livelihood Development)**
1.	FEF	Family enhancement
2.	IE	Income enhancement
3.	WIF	Wealth Index Factor
4.	AEF	Assets enhancement factor

Source: Author's Computation, 2017

The second canonical vector (Canvar 2) is relating to ELA (0.839) in the labour migration variable list (Factor 3), education and Locational attraction variable list with FE (0.840) family enhancement with canonical correlation of 0.896. This simply means that there is a relationship between education/locational attraction and family enhancement. This also mean that education/locational attraction has correlation with family enhancement. This vector of relationship between labour migration and livelihood development is hereby termed Locational influence on family enhancement dimension.

Table 5. 13: Result of Canonical Correlation Analysis

Coefficient for Canonical Variables of the first set					
Battery	*Variable Input	Canvar 1	Canvar 2	Canvar 3	Canvar 4
Number I	SAGP	**.922**	.246	-.209	.070
	AI	-.248	.173	.450	-.425
	ELA	-.279	**.839**	.149	-.376
	IF	-.079	-.074	**.781**	-.167
	RPO	-.064	-.448	-.348	**.803**
Coefficient for Canonical Variables of the second set					
Number II	FE	**.537**	**.840**	.078	.013
	IE	**.550**	.289	**.723**	.302
	WI	-.346	.290	**.639**	**.623**
Canonical correlation	AE	**.537**	.356	.250	**.723**
Eigen value		0.979	0.896	0.828	0.291
Wilk's pillai's trace		22.703	4.069	2.178	0.093

Source: Author's Computation, 2017

**Name of input variables (See to variable definition list in Table 5.12)*

The third canonical vector (Canvar 3) with a canonical correlation of 0.828 relates factor 4 of the labour migration indices IIF (0.781) Improved Income Factor with factors 2 and 3 of the livelihood development indices I.E. (0.723), Income Enhancement and WI (0.639) Wealth Index factor. This factor is hereby termed Income and wealth index dimension. This indicates that there are positive relationships between improved income and income enhancement on the one hand and wealth index factor on the other hand. The last vector (Canvar 4) is not statistically significant at 5% confidence level and is therefore not interpreted.

In all, it can be observed that canonical correlation analysis has shown that there a good relationship between labour migration and livelihood development in the study area. Three of such relationships can be generalized, these are the relationship between skills acquisition/greener pastures and family enhancement factor on the one hand and skill acquisition/greener pastures and income factors on the other hand. Skills acquisition/greener pasture also has a strong relationship with a third factor in the

livelihood development indices, this is assets enhancement factor. The second pattern of relationship is the one that has to do with education and locational attraction (labour migration) with family enhancement factor (livelihood development). The third and the last relationship exists between improved income on the labour migration indices and income enhancement factor on the one hand, and improved income and wealth index factor on the livelihood development indices on the other hand.

5.6 Factors Determining Labour Migration and Livelihood Development

5.6.1 Factors Affecting Labour Migration

To explain possible reasons for labour migration, five variables were identified as affecting labour migration, this was based on past studies by researchers such as Oyedipe (1983, 1986); Abumere (1981); Arungbemi (1983a) Adegunwa (1986) and Olawepo (1997) among several others, along with the intitial factors extracted in previous sections. These variables are (variable 1) age factor; (variable 2) education; (variable 3) skills and experience; (variable 4) insurgency, insecurity and other social problems and (Variable 5) improved income. It should be noted that it was earlier pointed out in chapter three that all these variables were surrogate measures to test for possible relationships. It is therefore hypothesized for the study that the variables relating to the factors just mentioned would be more important to account for the nature of relationships that exist between labour migration level and the factors. In the regression analysis presented in Table 5.14 the dependent variable was the reason for movement, while the independent variables are the factors enumerated above. In the selection of variables, efforts were made to comply with the basic assumption of the regression model, notably that the independent variables are additive, the presence of non-collineality and measurement at intervals. In all the five cases, three of the variables were found to be

significant at the specified tolerance level of 0.50 for entry into the model. These are variable X3, (skills and experience); variable X5, (improved income) and variable X1 (age factor). The multiple regression equation in Table 5.14 suggests several findings. It can be observed that the urge for individuals to learn one or two skills and to garner experience as evident in (variable X3), that is, skills acquisition and experience appears to have been one of the major reasons why people migrated, with a correlation of 0.779 and r2 of 0.607. This indicates that 60.7% of its variance is associated with the variation in movement level.

Improved income is also very important with a correlation of 0.158 and coefficient of determination (r2) of 0.63.2, this suggest that about 2.5% of its variance is associated with the variance of movement level. It can be said that the prospect of getting an improved income either in employment, business or in the artisanship, in a particular place is a major incentive factor for people to move.

Age is also one of the factors that have played a major role in labour migration. This relates well with a correlation of 0.71 and coefficient of determination (r2) of 0.637. This indicates that 0.5% of its variance is also associated with variance of labour movement in the study area. The fact here is that certain categories of age group move towards where they will be gainfully employed or get good business prospects, while certain age groups also tend to retire in their new places or hometowns after meritorious service or business sojourn. In summary, the three variables contributed 60.7%, 2.5% and 0.5% respectively.

Table 5. 14: Multiple Regression Factors Affecting Labour Migration

List of Variables	Intercept	Parameter Estimate	Standard Error	R	R2	Percentage Contribution	Overall Contribution
X 3		3.06615	0.722	0.779	0.607	60.7%	60.7%
X 5	8.667	4.8992	1.137	0.158	0.63.2	2.5%	63.2%
X 1		4.87394	1.182	0.71	0.63.7	0.5%	63.7%

Source: Author's Computation, 2017

The three variables therefore accounted for 63.7% of the variance in labour migration while the remaining two factors are not significant in determining difference in labour migration. This is to say that their correlation coefficient was too low to offer any meaningful explanation of their varied pattern. The explanatory power of this equation is moderate when one considers other studies that have adopted similar methods in the past. For example, Olawepo (1997) using factor independent variables achieved a measure of explanation varying between 0.6% and 34%. Our regression equation could thus be written as:

$$Y = 8.667 + 3.06615 \text{ x } 3 + 4.8922 \text{ x } 5 + 4.87394 \text{ x1}$$

$$RES = 63.7$$

The implication of this is that for any meaningful or positive change in variable X3, (skills and experience); variable X5, (improved income) and variable X1, (age factor), there would be a corresponding increase in the need to migrate. They are active determinant of labour migration in the study area.

5.6.2 Factors Affecting Livelihood Development

In order to know the factors affecting livelihood development of the people in the study area, especially the factors that affects their livelihood the most, four variables were identified, this was based on past studies. These variables are (variable X1) average

monthly income; (variable X2) % of family members earning above minimum wage, (variable X3) % of family members earning below minimum wage and (variable X4) family assets. All these variables are surrogate measures to test for possible relationships. It is therefore hypothesized for the study that the variables relating to the factors just mentioned would be more important to account for the nature of relationships between livelihood development and the factors. In the four cases, three of the variables were found to be significant at the specified tolerance level of 0.50 for entry into the model. These are (variable variable X1) average monthly income (variable X3) % of family members earning below minimum wage and (variable X2) % of family members earning above minimum wages. The stepwise multiple regression equation in Table 5.15 sheds more light on the findings. Average monthly income (variable X1) appears to be the best predictor among the factors affecting livelihood development with a correlation of 0.686 and r2 of 0.470. This indicates that 47.0% of its variance is associated with the variation in livelihood development.

This is so because income is one of the major factors that affect the livelihood of most households. The percentage of family members earning below minimum wages also appeared to be very important with a correlation of 0.849 and a coefficient of determination (r2) of 72.0%, this suggest that about 25.0% of its variance is associated with the variance of livelihood development. The percentage of family members earning above minimum wages (variable X2) also contributed to livelihood development with a correlation of 0.890 and r2 of 0.79.1, this indicates that 7.1% of its variance is also associated with the variance of livelihood development. This mean that reliability on family income is a major occurrence in the study area as the case of the second and third contributions have clearly shown. In summary, the three variables contributed 47.0%, 25.0% and 6.9% respectively as can be seen in Table 5.15.

Table 5. 15: Multiple Regression Factors Affecting Livelihood Development

List of Variables	Intercept	Parameter Estimate	Standard Error	R	R2	Percentage Contribution	Overall Contribution
X 1	1.084	2.0272	0.49	.686	.470	47.0%	47.0%
X 3		1.5212	0.037	.849	.720	25.0%	72.0%
X2		1.3603	0.033	.890	.791	7.1%	79.1%

Source: Author's Computation, 2017

However, the three variables accounted for 79.1% of the variance in livelihood development, the remaining one factor is not significant in determining differences in livelihood development, its correlation coefficient was too low to offer any meaningful explanation. As stated earlier, the explanatory power of these equations is moderate when compared to past studies. Our regression equation could thus be written as:

$$Y = 1.084 + 2.0272 \text{ x } 1 + 1.5212 \text{ x } 3 + 1.3603 \text{ x } 2$$

$$RES = 79.1$$

The % contribution is particularly very strong that is, 79.1% as the overall contribution. The implication of this is that for any positive increase in variable X1 (average monthly income), variable X3, (% of family members earning below minimum wage) and variable X2, (% of family members earning above minimum wages), a corresponding increase in family welfare, wealth and assets would emerge. It could therefore be deduced from the following that there are positive relationships between labour migration and livelihood development in the study area. A large proportion of people involved in labour migration due to occupational change are better off in their new locations. The three isolated factors of movement in labour are important determinant of the reasons why people migrate. Similarly, the three isolated factors in livelihood development are important factors of wealth index and asset quality of people's livelihood.

CHAPTER SIX

SUMMARY OF FINDINGS, RECOMMENDATION AND CONCLUSION

6.1 Introduction

The study was on Labour Migration and Livelihood Development in Selected Towns of Kwara State, Nigeria. The findings from this study are very interesting and significant as inferences could be drawn from some of the major findings especially now that migration is gaining momentum and is turning out to be one of the major developmental issues being emphasized by various multinational and multilateral organizations such as the United Nations (UN) and the International Labour Organization (ILO). The successful outcome of this work was as a result of the various methods employed in conducting the research. For this research work, about 530 copies of questionnaires were retrieved from the respondents in the 18 selected towns of Kwara State, the administered questionnaire returned were processed and analysed.

6.2 Summary of Findings

In this study, 18 different towns were studied, drawn from 9 out of the 16 Local Government Areas, 3 LGA's from each senatorial districts of Kwara state. It has to be known that the 18 selected towns vary in sizes, population, economic structure and settlement pattern. While some of the towns are located on major highways, some are peasant towns located inward of major highways while some have the advantage of being local government headquarters, some have the advantage of major firms situated in them while some also have the advantages of being proximate to Ilorin the Kwara State capital. These features may reflect in the household characteristics, living conditions, socio-economic links, education and many other attributes as regards to this work. This

chapter takes a look at the outcome of the major findings in this study. The study examined the various characteristics of respondents in the study area. Respondents' characteristics such as age, sex, marital status, occupation, educational qualification, employment status, number of family members in households, employment status of family members, number of dependents, ranks of respondents who are workers and number of children in school among several others were all considered.

The findings in this study showed that of the 530 respondents, about 230 (43.4%) of them are actually indigenes of the sampled towns while 120 (22.6%) are indigenes of the sampled LGAs but from other towns within the LGA. About 436 (82.3%) of the respondents are indigenes of Kwara state while the remaining 96 (17.7%) of the respondents are from other states. This mean that majority of respondents to the questions are indigenes of Kwara state. It has to be emphasized here also that in order to achieve the set objectives for this study, two main data sets were gathered aside from the background information of respondents discussed above. These two data sets include labour migration components and livelihood development components.

This study has gone steps further in the evaluation of labour migration and livelihood development as some of the reviewed previous studies do not produce much empirical linkage. Moreover, several level of analysis adopted in this study have resulted in a number of observations. The review of literature has shown that past studies have been mainly evaluative and mostly focused on migration and poverty, and migration and remittances. This study has shown that labour migration has had very significant impact on the livelihood development of most households and even on remittances. The findings are hereby evaluated thus:

Findings from chapter 4 shows that majority of the respondents are indigenes of Kwara State, in fact 43.3% of the respondents are from the sampled towns, 16% are from towns within the sampled local government areas, while 22.6% are from towns in other local government areas within the state. This showed that over 82% of the respondents are from Kwara state, while the remaining 17.9% are from other states. In terms of the age distribution of the respondents most, of the respondents are in their active ages as heads of households who are less than 50 years old, they constituted about 65%. The respondents are also dominated by male headed households as over 87% of the respondents are male. The same goes for all the towns sampled. Also, majority of the respondents are married with over 93% of them in this category, the remaining 6% are either divorced or widowed. Findings also showed that about 53% of the respondents are from households of between 4-6 people while those households that consist of people between 1-3 are about 24%. The combination of the two shows that almost 80% of the respondents are from households of people between 1-6, this is very moderate and in tune with the federal government's policy of family having 4 children, the addition of the father and mother makes it a six member household. Education wise, majority of the respondents have at least secondary school qualifications and above, about 66.5 % of the respondents are in these categories, while the remaining 33.5% of them are either having non-formal education or first school leaving certificate. In terms of occupation, majority of the respondents are not in the formal employment. Findings shows that almost 35% of them are engaged in various businesses and trades, 27.9% of them are in formal employment, 19% of them are artisans while 16% and 1% are self employed and unemployed respectively.

The aspect of the movement of respondents shows that majority of the respondents that is, 70.6% have worked elsewhere before moving to their present locations. While few of

them (21.9%) have spent between less than a year to 3 years in their present locations, 59% have stayed 4 years and above and 19.17% have stayed in their present locations all their lives. As for the frequency of movement, those who have moved only once in their life time are the largest with almost 30% of responses while those who had moved once in 3 years appear to have the least responses with just 10% of them. For the majority of those who had at one time or the other moved, the reasons they gave for their movement vary. While those who moved due to lack of jobs and in search of greener pastures and better living condition are 27.5% and the largest, those who moved due to change of job/businesses and trade are 22.1%. The least among them are those who had moved due to lack of social amenities in their former places of residences with 3.6%.

Findings also revealed that the pattern of movement showed that majority of those who moved that is, (21.3%) were towards Kwara state capital, this is quite justifying the previous section where people moved due to lack of jobs and to seek for greener pastures as people believed that the state capital have many job openings and the prospect of getting employed or getting involve in good business is high. About 18.7% of them moved to neighbouring towns while 16.8% moved to neighbouring state capitals. Also, majority of them made their first movements before they were 35 years while they also got their first appointments before they were 35 years old. While several of the respondents have changed jobs between 1 to 4 times and above (58.5%), 41% have never changed their jobs before. The reasons given for the changing of jobs range from better paid job, proximity to their and loss of initial jobs with 38.7%, 26.8% and 12.6% respectively. For those respondents who were not formally employed but has also moved, various reasons were given for their movements but majority of them that is, 44.2% have move for a better living condition, while 29.5% moved because they want to be closer to their family members.

For the aspect of labour migration and livelihood related attributes, the findings were quite revealing. In order to know if the livelihood of the respondents has improve after their migration, findings showed that those who earn between N10,000-N39,000 before migration stood at 46.4%, when compared to their earnings after migrating, it was 42.1% while those who earned less than N10,000 was 30.4% before migration, it dropped significantly to 13.6%. The income of those who earned N40,000-N59,000 increased from 10% to 24%. Meanwhile, those who earned between N60,000-N79,000 and N80,000 and above had 6.4% and 4.90% before migration but after migration, their income increased to 11.7% and 7.2% respectively. This is to show that the income of the respondents have actually increased after they migrated which implies that, migration has actually impacted positively on their livelihood. As for the family members earning above minimum wage, 31.1% of them have none, 20.4% have one family member each while it was just 5.3% that have three members and above. For those earning below minimum wage, 27.9% have none of their family members earning below minimum wages, 10.2% have one member each. In terms of property ownership, almost 55% of the respondents have family members who have one or two plots of land while about 25.5% of them do not have any family members that own houses.

For the household items, almost all the listed items (See appendix I) are owned by the respondents. However, the number of items owned varies, 20.9% of the respondents owned televisions while another 20.8% owned modern furniture. Furthermore, ownership of the household items decreases as the number of items owned increases as those who owned between 1 to 6 items have overall percentage of more than 90% while those who owned 7 items and above are below 10% . Those who own vehicles for private use are about 40% while 49.1% do not have any vehicle for private use. Similarly, those who own vehicles for commercial purposes are less than 40% while

almost 50% do not have vehicles for commercial use. While 34.2% of the respondents have alternative source of income, 32% of their family members have alternative sources of income. This shows that both the respondents and their family members are less than 40% that have alternative sources of income. In term of remittance, 39.6 % of the respondents remit money back home to their families, those who remit once every 6 months are about 43% which is the highest, the least ones are those who remit once every month with just 3.3%. Findings also showed that the amount that are normally remitted by the respondents are very low as majority of the respondents (70%) remits less than N10,000.

In the correlation matrix for labour migration, it was discovered that insurgency, insecurity and other social problems relate with age factor, while skills/experience correlates with education, family size also correlates with education and at the same time, change of job/business also correlate with education. There was a high correlation between family size and skills/experience. In the correlation matrix for livelihood development, findings revealed that family members in permanent employment correlates with respondents with alternative source of income, number of children in school, family members with vehicles for commercial use among others. At the same time, a high correlation exists between family members earning below minimum wage with family members with alternative source of income, number of children in school, family members with pensionable appointment, family members with own houses among several others.

In the pattern distribution of labour migration, findings showed that factor 1 had 4 variables which combined together to accounted for 33.22% and this factor was positively high on 4 variables, the factor was tagged skills acquisition and greener pasture due to its high loadings on the variables that add up to the above mentioned

factor. Factor 2 accounts for 16.82% and was tagged age and security factor while factor 3 accounts for 13.80% and was tagged education and Locational attraction factor while the 4th and 5th factors accounted for 8.34% and 7.95% respectively. The spatial patterns as depicted in figures 5.1 -5.5 showed variations in different towns as regards the pattern of all the migration factors shown. While in the pattern distribution of livelihood developments, it was discovered that factor 1 has the greatest contribution accounting for about 50.5% of the total variance and the factor was tagged family enhancement factor, this is so because most of the variables contributing to this factor have something to do with family and their enhancements. Factor 2 accounted for 12.64% of the total variance and it was tagged income enhancement factor. Factor 3 on the other hand accounted for 9.2% of the total variance and it was tagged wealth index factor while factor 4 accounted for 7.0% and it was tagged assets enhancement factor. The livelihood development factors contributed a total of 79.3% overall. The spatial pattern depicted in figures 5.6-5.9 also showed tremendous variations in different towns as regards the pattern of all the livelihood development factors shown.

The canonical correlation analysis shows that out of the 4 predictors which comprises of 4 factors, only 3 are statistically significant at 5% significance level in the relative importance of canonical variate. The first canonical vector (canvar 1) skills acquisition and greener pasture relates with family enhancement and assets enhancement. This means that there are relationships between skills acquisition/greener pasture and family enhancement on the one hand and with assets enhancement on the other hand. The second canvar relates labour migration variable (education and locational attraction) with family enhancement. This also means that there is a relationship between education/locational attraction with family enhancement. The third canvar relates labour migration indices (improved income factor) with livelihood development indices

(income enhancement and wealth index factor). This indicates that there is a positive relationship between improved income and income enhancement on the one hand and wealth index on the other hand. It can thus be summarized that canonical correlation analysis has brought out the relationship between labour migration and livelihood development in the study.

In the factors affecting labour migration where the stepwise multiple regression analysis was applied, 5 variables were identified, they are age, education, skills/experience, insurgency/insecurity/other social problems and improved income. At the end of the analysis, only 3 variables were found to be significant at the specified tolerance level of 0.50 and these variables are skills and experience, improved income and age factor in the order of their weight of contributions as they contributes 60.7%, 2.5 % and 0.5% respectively and have a combined contribution of 63.7%.

For the livelihood development factors, 4 variables were identified, these include average monthly income, % of family members earning above minimum wage, the % of family members earning below minimum wages and family assets. At the end of the analysis, only 3 variables were found to be significant, these are average monthly income, % of family members earning above minimum wage and % of family members earning below minimum wage with 47.0%, 25.0% and 7.1 % respectively. The 3 variables have a combined contribution of 79.1%. This figure is quite high. Notwithstanding, other variables contributed but the percentage contribution was insignificant. In all, the study shows that positive relationships exist between labour migration and livelihood development.

6.3 Conclusion

Labour migration can positively affect economic development of an area if properly managed. It is therefore necessary that the appropriate policy and conducive environment is created to maximize the benefits and minimize the risks involved. Labour migration can facilitate the movement of people which is most likely to bring about development while also acting to protect migrants from abuse and exploitation as well as restricting people who migrate simply to survive.

Migration often leads to more migration, de Haas, (2009) this is because it is a continuous process. The contribution of labour migrants to the improvement of the homeland from which they migrated is in form of remittances. These are important sources of household livelihood. However, the overall impact of migration on the economy should be in the form of aggregate remittances and reduction of domestic unemployment in the origin. The contribution of those who migrate to household expenditure is very significant. Remittances are used in diverse areas as education, health, food, medicines and investments in housing, as well as community projects in education, health and recreational facilities.

However, data on remittance amounts remains elusive, as the respondents were not forthcoming in this area. The factors leading to labour migration are predominantly economic in nature. Migrants seek places to earn a living but also consider the ease of integration into such places. There is a strong perception that migration has immense positive implications for migrants, their families and communities. It can therefore be said that migration has a positive and significant net benefit for livelihood in towns they originated from, while also contributing immensely to their host towns.

The research showed that both short-term and long-term labour migrations are regular occurrences within the study area and even outside the state. Short-term labour migration reflects an increase in migration to neighbouring towns. Migrants to these towns can easily quit their jobs and return to their homes towns. There is need to establish small and medium scale enterprises (SMEs) in the small towns that will provide jobs for the youths, yield revenue for the development of the rural and semi rural areas, attract more economic activities in those areas and contribute to the improvement of the quality of life of the populace, this will also reduce the rate of migration from such places. In addition, educational and vocational institutions should be established in those areas. This is to enable the youths acquire requisite skills that will make them employable in the SMEs that will be established and also encourage them to stay in their communities to contribute to their development. In conclusion, in order to improve the livelihood of people in smaller towns and villages and to reduce the rate of labour migration, if these suggestions are properly implemented, it will help in stemming the tide of labour migration in the study area, retain demographically active populations, and promote sustainable development of the area and by extension, other places.

6.4 Recommendations

The findings of this study showed that there was improvement in the livelihood of the respondents after they migrated. Some of the factors that prompted migration by respondents are to get employed, to be educated, to be closer to their families and to some, better infrastructural facilities some of which are obviously not available in their previous locations. Based on the findings of this study, the following recommendations are hereby made:

i. There should be conscious efforts at introducing entrepreneurial skills to people in smaller towns and villages as those who migrates to bigger towns and cities do so without any skills thereby constituting additional burden to the already enlarged problems of unskilled and unemployed populace;

ii. there should be proper documentation of the movement of people within and outside the state as such can assist in future research to know the trend and pattern over time. The pockets of researches available are just individual's efforts and they are highly limited and constrained;

iii. government should endeavour that factories and cottage industries are established in some towns far from the state capital so that people can be gainfully employed without moving far from their home towns, this will also take the pressure off the state capitals and big towns where most people migrate to;

iv. policy makers in Nigeria should make intensive efforts to transform the rural areas holistically, by making available sufficient socio-economic and infrastructural amenities such as: higher income earning jobs, educational (especially tertiary institutions) facilities, sanitation, health services, electricity, motorable roads (including the farm roads), pipe borne water, good housing condition, financial institutions, small and medium scale industries and other basic social-economic services for the rural dwellers. 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. This would assist in increasing their productivity. Persistent efforts towards improving the urban areas without recourse to the rural areas would aggravate the already problematic situation posed by rural-urban migration, since higher number of youths will migrate to the urban centres due to its appealing;

v. in this study, it revealed that one of the main reasons why people migrate was for better living condition and greener pastures in their new destinations, this was corroborated by a study carried out by Shodeinde, (2008) which showed that out of the 133 staff that left the Olabisi Onabanjo University Ogun State between 1992-2000, 39 of them went abroad due to attractive offers, while the other ones left for various institutions/organisations where their remuneration was better than their previous place of work. This mean that there is deficit of work/

underemployment all around, government and well meaning individuals should ensure that jobs are provided and well remunerated to bridge this deficit;

vi. in recent time, 2013 to be precise, the Federal Ministry of Labour & Employment in collaboration with the International Organisation for Migration (IOM), the International Labour Organisation and many other stakeholders locally and internationally converged in Abuja to formulate, review and adopt the National Labour Migration Policy for Nigeria, this policy which is already a national document should be mainstreamed into the National Development Policy and adopted and operationalise.

6.5 Suggestions for Future Research

This research has focused extensively on labour migration and livelihood development in selected towns of Kwara State. Generally speaking, there is dearth of up-to-date knowledge on labour migration and livelihood development in Nigeria even though it is a current trending issues. Of recent, there is been inflow and outflow of people from villages/small towns to big towns and cities in Nigeria. There is been methodological problems, definition of terms, data collection and analysis mostly relating to labour migration and livelihood development. Therefore, area for further studies shall include but not limited to the following:

i. the need for detailed information of the livelihood of migrants before migration;
ii. socio-economic conditions of migrants, health conditions, and survival strategies;
iii. impact of the cost of movement on the family resources on the one hand and its psychological and physical impact on the other hand; and
iv. the need for research on national policy for the development of adequate livelihood opportunities for workers at home.

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Appendix I

Department of Geography and Environmental Management, Faculty of Social Sciences, University of Ilorin, Ilorin

Sample Questionnaire for the General Public

Dear Sir/Ma,

This Questionnaire is on Assessment of Labour Migration and Livelihood Development in selected Towns of Kwara State. The aim is to examine the impact of labour migration on standard of living in Kwara State. All information supplied shall be treated with utmost confidentiality. Thanks for your cooperation.

Instruction: Please Tick () as appropriate.

Section A: **General Information**

1 Name of Town…….

2 Local Government Area……

3 Senatorial District ……

4 Language (s) Spoken……

5 Hometown of respondents (a) Sampled towns ( ) (b) Towns within the sampled LGA ( )

6 (c) Towns in other LGA within the state ( ) (d) Towns in other states ( )

7 State of Origin.....……

Section B: **Respondents Background. (Household Survey)**

7. Age: (a) 18-29 ( ) (b) 30-39 ( ) (c) 40-49 ( ) (d) 50-59 ( ) (e) 60 and above ( )

8. Sex: (a) Male ( ) (b) Female ( )

9. Marital Status: (a) Single ( ) (b) Married ( ) (c) Divorced ( ) (d) Widowed ( )

10. Members of family in household: (a) 1-3 ( ) (b) 4-6 ( ) (c) 7-9 ( ) (d) 10 and above ( )

11. Highest level of qualification obtained: (a) Non-formal Education ( ) (b) Arabic education ( ) (c) First School Leaving Certificate ( ) (d) SSCE/GCE/NECO ( ) (e) OND/NCE ( )

(f) HND/B.Sc. ( ) (g) M.A/ M.Sc. ( ) (h) Doctorate ( ) (i) Others, please (Specify)……...

12. Occupation: (a) Public/Civil Servant ( ) (b) Artisan ( ) (c) Business/Trader ( ) (d) Unemployed ( )

(e) Self Employed ( ) (f) Farmer ( ) (g) Others, Please (Specify)……

13. Rank at work if in formal employment: (a) Level 1-3 ( ) (b) Level 4-7 ( ) (c) Level 8-12 ( ) (d) Level 13 and above ( )

14. Numbers of family members in paid employment (a) None ( ), (b) 1 ( ) (c) 2 ( ) (d) 3 ( ) (e) 4 ( ) (f) 5 and above ( )

15. Members of family with pensionable appointments (a) None ( ) (b) 1 ( ) (c) 2 ( ) (d) 3 ( ) (e) 4 ( ) (f) 5 and above ( )

16. Members of family with none pensionable appointment (a) None ( ) (b) 1 ( ) (c) 2 ( ) (d) 3 ( ) (e) 4 and above ( )

17. Number of Dependant(s): (a) None ( ) (b) 1-2 ( ) (c) 3-4 ( ) (d) 5-6 ( ) (e) 7 and above ( )

18. Number of Children in school (a) 1 ( ) (b) 2 ( ) (c) 3 ( ) (d) 4 ( ) (e) 5 and above ( )

Section C: **Information on Migration**

19. How long have you stayed in this town? (a) Less than a year ( ) (b) 1-3 years ( ) (c)4-7 years ( ) (d) More than 8 years ( ) (e) I have stayed here all my life ( )

20. When did you start work here? (a) Less than a year ago ( ) (b) 1-3 years ago ( ) (c) 4-7 years ago ( ) (d) More than 8 years ago ( ) (e) I have always worked here ( )

21. Have you ever worked elsewhere before moving to this town? (a) Yes ( ) (b) No ( )

22. How often have you moved? (a) Once in a year ( ) (b) Once in two years ( ) (c) once in 3 years ( ) (d) Once in 4 years ( ) (e) Have only moved once ( ) (f) Have never moved ( )

23. What has been your usual direction of movement? (a) To the neighbouring towns within the State ( ) (b) To the state capital ( ) (c) To towns in neighbouring states (d) To other neighbouring state capitals ( ) (e) To Lagos/Abuja ( )

24. Why did you moved from your previous location(s)? Due to: (a) Lack of Job ( ) (b) Transfer ( ) (c) Lack of social amenities ( ) (d) Change of job/

Business/Trade ( ) (e) To be close to my family ( ) (f) Better living condition ( ) (g) Others, Please Specify: .....

25. Age at first movement? (a) 18 – 25yrs ( ) (b) 26 – 35yrs ( ) (c) 36 – 45yrs ( ) (d) 46 – 55yrs ( ) (e) 56 years and above ( )

26. Age at first appointment? (a) 18 – 25yrs ( ) (b) 26 – 35yrs ( ) (c) 36 – 45yrs ( ) (d) 46–55yrs ( ) (e) 56 years and above ( )

27. Age at present job? (a) 18 – 25yrs ( ) (b) 26 – 35yrs ( ) (c) 36 – 45yrs ( ) (d) 46-55yrs ( ) (e) 56 years and above ( )

28. Number of job/Business/Trade change? (a) None ( ) (b) ( ) (c) 2 ( ) (d) 3 ( ) (e) 4 & above ( )

29. Determinant of change? (a) Proximity to family ( ) (b) Better paid job ( ) (c) Lack of social amenities in previous place of work ( ) (d) Lost of job ( ) (e) Retirement ( ) (f) Others, please specify
……

30. Are you satisfied with your current job/Trade/Business? (a) Yes ( ) (b) No ( )

31. If YES, What is your level of Satisfaction?(a) Highly satisfied ( ) Satisfied ( ) (c) Fairly satisfied ( )

32. If not formally employed, why do you move from your previous location(s)? (a) To be close to my family ( ) (b) for a better living condition ( ) (c) due to change in business/Trade ( ) (d) Others, please specify ……..

Section D: **Information on Income and Livelihood**

33. Average monthly income before migration? (a) below N10,000 ( ) (b) N11,000 – N39,000 ( ) (c) N40,000 – N59,000 ( ) (d) N60,000- 79,000 ( ) (e) 80,000 and above ( )

34 Average monthly income after migration? (a) below N10,000 ( ) (b) N11,000 – N39,000 ( ) (c) N40,000 – N59,000 ( ) (d) N60,000- 79,000 ( ) (e) 80,000 and above ( )

35 Number of family members earning above minimum wage? (a) None ( ) (b) 1 ( ) (c) 2 ( ) (d) 3 and above ( ) (e) Don't know ( )

36. Number of family members earning below minimum wage? (a) None ( ) (b) 1 ( ) (c) 2 ( ) (d) 3 and above ( ) (e) Don't know ( )

37. Number of family members with plot(s) of land. (a) None ( ) (b) 1 ( ) (c) 2 ( ) (d) 3 & above ( )

38. Number of family members with own house(s)? (a) None ( ) (b) 1 ( ) (c) 2 ( ) (d) 3 and above ( )

39. Please kindly Tick (in multiple) any of the under listed item(s) owned by you since migrated:

No.	Items	Tick (□)
i.	Colour Tv set	
ii.	Satellite dish	
iii.	Modern furniture	
iv.	Generating set	
v.	Refrigerators/Deep freezer	
vi.	Gas cooker	
vii.	Air conditioner	
viii.	Washing machine	
ix.	Laptop/desktop computer	
x.	Home theatre	
xi.	Motorcycle for commercial	

40. Number of family members owning vehicle and or Motorcycle for commercial use (a) None ( ) (b) 1 ( ) (c) 2 ( ) (d) 3 ( ) (e) 4 and above ( )

41. Number of family members owning vehicle for private use? (a) None ( ) (b) 1 ( ) (c) ( ) (d) 3 ( ) (e) 4 and above ( )

42. Number of family members having access to loan/credit facilities? (a) None ( ) (b) 1 ( ) (c) 2 ( ) (d) 3 ( ) (e) 4 and above ( )

43. Number of family members with alternative sources of income (a) None ( ) (b) 1 ( ) (c) 2 ( ) (d) 3 ( ) (e) 4 and above ( ).

44. Do you have alternative source of income? (a) Yes ( ) (b) No ( ) (c) Don't Know ( )

45. Do you normally remit money back home? (a) Yes ( ) (b) No ( )

46. If yes in (43), how often do you remit money home? (a) Every month ( ) (b) every 3 months ( ) (c) Every 6 Months ( ) (d) once in a year ( ) (e) I have only remitted money home once ( )

47. Range of amount you normally remit? (a) less than N10,000 ( ) (b) N10,000-N20,000 ( ) (c) N21,000-N30,000 ( ) (d) N31,000-N40,000 ( ) (e) N41,000 and above ( )

48. How often do you contribute to your community for building of Schools, health centres, Boreholes, recreational centres and other community development initiatives.

(a) Very Often ( ) (b) Often ( ) (c) Rarely ( ) (d) Very Rarely ( ) (e) Do Not ( )

Appendix II
List and Definition of Variables

STL	Settlement
LGA	Local Government Area
SD	Senatorial District
SOR	State of Origin of Respondents
AGE	Age of Respondents
SEX	Sex of Respondents
MSR	Marital Status of Respondents
FHH	Family in Household
HEQ	Highest Educational Qualification
AF	Age Factor
EDU	Education
SE	Skills and Experience
IISP	Insecurity, Insurgency and other Social Problems
IBPJ	Improved Income, Better Paid Jobs, Businesses
FS	Family Size
LJGP	Lack of Job, Greener Pasture
PTF	Proximity to Family
SA	Social Amenities
TRF	Transfer
LA	Locational Attraction
LIJB	Loss of Initial Job, Business and Trade
CJBT	Change of Job, Business and Trade
RGP	Retirement, Government Policy
AMI	Average Monthly Income
EAMW	Family Members Earning Above Minimum-wage
EBMW	Family Members Earning Below Minimum-wage
FA	Family Assets
NOD	Number of Dependants
FMPR	Family Members with Properties for Rent
FMOH	Family Members with Own Houses
NCS	Number of Children in School
FMPE	Family Members in Permanent Employment
FMPA	Family Members in Pensionable Appointment
FMI	Family Median Income
AIBM	Average Income Before Migration
AIAM	Average Income After Migration
FAL	Family Members Having Access to Loan/Credit Facility
FASI	Family Members with Alternative Source of Income
RASI	Respondents with Alternative Source of Income
FVC	Family Members Having Vehicles for Commercial Use
FVP	Family Members Having Vehicles for Private Use
SAGP	Skills acquisition and greener pasture
AI	Age and insecurity
ELA	Education and locational attraction
IF	Income factor
RPO	Retirement and policy oriented
FEF	Family enhancement

IE	Income enhancement
WIF	Wealth Index Factor
AEF	Assets enhancement factor

Appendix III
Labour Migration Output (Factor Analysis/Stepwise Multiple Regression)

Communalities

	Initial	Extraction
x1	1.000	.860
x2	1.000	.695
x3	1.000	.940
x4	1.000	.834
x5	1.000	.675
x6	1.000	.912
x7	1.000	.736
x8	1.000	.769
x9	1.000	.768
x10	1.000	.809
x11	1.000	.811
x12	1.000	.721
x13	1.000	.860
x14	1.000	.833

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.

Total Variance Explained

Compo-nent	Initial Eigenvalues			Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings			Rotation Sums of Squared Loadings		
	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %
1	4.651	33.224	33.224	4.651	33.224	33.224	3.561	25.436	25.436
2	2.356	16.827	50.051	2.356	16.827	50.051	2.235	15.962	41.398
3	1.933	13.808	63.859	1.933	13.808	63.859	1.982	14.157	55.555
4	1.169	8.349	72.208	1.169	8.349	72.208	1.981	14.149	69.703
5	1.114	7.957	80.164	1.114	7.957	80.164	1.465	10.461	80.164
6	.750	5.359	85.523						
7	.647	4.622	90.145						
8	.487	3.481	93.626						
9	.320	2.286	95.912						
10	.243	1.734	97.646						
11	.166	1.182	98.829						
12	.127	.908	99.737						
13	.027	.196	99.933						
14	.009	.067	100.000						

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.

Component Matrix[a]

	Component				
	1	2	3	4	5
x1	.329	.644	.465	.327	-.119
x2	.695	-.078	.092	-.430	-.114
x3	.949	-.135	-.014	.147	-.004
x4	.342	.734	.191	.223	.304
x5	.431	.457	-.480	-.056	-.216
x6	.952	.002	.027	.005	.066
x7	.657	.414	-.291	-.095	.196
x8	.279	-.237	.691	.314	.244
x9	-.471	.670	.058	.210	-.224
x10	.376	-.571	-.293	.445	.240
x11	.467	.168	.285	-.616	.323
x12	-.524	-.051	.413	-.092	.514
x13	.765	-.342	.184	.181	-.303
x14	-.012	-.142	.709	-.178	-.527

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.
a. 5 components extracted.

Rotated Component Matrix[a]

	Component				
	1	2	3	4	5
x1	.091	.886	.026	.061	.249
x2	.418	-.034	.637	.262	.214
x3	.860	.199	.309	.252	-.046
x4	-.004	.857	.214	.042	-.228
x5	.066	.240	.151	.743	-.194
x6	.741	.271	.471	.252	-.058
x7	.251	.365	.450	.445	-.373
x8	.488	.307	.056	-.621	.217
x9	-.608	.483	-.362	.149	.108
x10	.727	-.246	-.224	-.090	-.401
x11	.051	.139	.884	-.079	.030
x12	-.403	-.005	.059	-.741	-.079
x13	.847	.048	.109	.160	.321
x14	.037	.026	.074	-.180	.891

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.
Rotation Method: Varimax with Kaiser Normalization.
a. Rotation converged in 8 iterations.

Component Transformation Matrix

Component	1	2	3	4	5
1	.777	.262	.471	.324	-.027
2	-.493	.777	.131	.354	-.101
3	.053	.379	.180	-.643	.638
4	.388	.415	-.790	-.133	-.190
5	-.015	.105	.323	-.581	-.739

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.

Rotation Method: Varimax with Kaiser Normalization.

Variables Entered/Removed

Variables Entered/Removed[a]

Model	Variables Entered	Variables Removed	Method
1	fact 5, fact 4, fact3, fact 2, fact 1[b]	.	Enter

a. Dependent Variable: Y

b. All requested variables entered.

Model Summary

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.854[a]	.729	.617	2.93447

a. Predictors: (Constant), fact 5, fact 4, fact3, fact 2, fact 1

Coefficients[a]

Model	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
	B	Std. Error	Beta		
(Constant)	8.667	.692		12.530	.000
fact 1	.336	.712	.071	.472	.646

fact 2	1.408	.712	.297	1.978	.071
fact3	3.694	.712	.779	5.191	.000
fact 4	-.300	.712	-.063	-.421	.681
fact 5	-.748	.712	-.158	-1.051	.314

a. Dependent Variable: Y

Variables Entered/Removed[a]

Model	Variables Entered	Variables Removed	Method
1	fact3	.	Stepwise (Criteria: Probability-of-F-to-enter <= .050, Probability-of-F-to-remove >= .100).

a. Dependent Variable: Y

Model Summary

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.779[a]	.607	.583	3.06154

a. Predictors: (Constant), fact3

Coefficients[a]

Model	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	T	Sig.
	B	Std. Error	Beta		
(Constant)	8.667	.722		12.010	.000
fact3	3.694	.743	.779	4.975	.000

a. Dependent Variable: Y

Excluded Variables[a]

Model		Beta In	T	Sig.	Partial Correlation	Collinearity Statistics
						Tolerance
1	fact 1	.071[b]	.441	.666	.113	1.000
	fact 2	.297[b]	2.084	.055	.474	1.000
	fact 4	-.063[b]	-.393	.700	-.101	1.000
	fact 5	-.158[b]	-1.008	.330	-.252	1.000

a. Dependent Variable: Y

b. Predictors in the Model: (Constant), fact3

Appendix IV
Livelihood Development Output (Factor Analysis/Stepwise Multiple Regression)

Communalities

	Initial	Extraction
x1	1.000	.900
x2	1.000	.779
x3	1.000	.796
x4	1.000	.680
x5	1.000	.776
x6	1.000	.538
x7	1.000	.831
x8	1.000	.780
x9	1.000	.831
x10	1.000	.794
x11	1.000	.675
x12	1.000	.808
x13	1.000	.895
x14	1.000	.888
x15	1.000	.671
x16	1.000	.902
x17	1.000	.875
x18	1.000	.867

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.

Total Variance Explained

Component	Initial Eigenvalues			Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings			Rotation Sums of Squared Loadings		
	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %
1	9.090	50.501	50.501	9.090	50.501	50.501	5.310	29.500	29.500
2	2.277	12.648	63.149	2.277	12.648	63.149	3.365	18.697	48.197
3	1.660	9.222	72.371	1.660	9.222	72.371	3.254	18.077	66.274
4	1.261	7.006	79.377	1.261	7.006	79.377	2.359	13.104	79.377
5	.909	5.048	84.425						
6	.714	3.965	88.390						
7	.514	2.853	91.243						
8	.414	2.298	93.541						
9	.334	1.855	95.396						
10	.278	1.542	96.938						
11	.219	1.218	98.156						
12	.167	.925	99.081						
13	.081	.450	99.532						
14	.061	.342	99.873						
15	.013	.071	99.944						
16	.007	.038	99.982						
17	.003	.018	100.000						
18	1.425E-016	7.917E-016	100.000						

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.

Component Matrix[a]

	Component			
	1	2	3	4
x1	.468	.365	.653	-.350
x2	.500	.687	.237	.011
x3	.833	-.112	.059	.295
x4	.647	-.019	.351	-.371
x5	.793	-.292	-.162	-.187
x6	.548	-.473	.113	-.039
x7	.847	-.190	-.252	-.118
x8	.875	-.004	-.074	-.096
x9	.738	-.347	-.380	-.147
x10	.880	-.064	-.060	.110
x11	.439	-.613	.323	.048
x12	.750	-.150	.472	.008
x13	.722	.571	-.187	-.112
x14	.695	.611	-.027	.177
x15	.708	.033	.071	.405
x16	.826	-.036	-.222	-.411
x17	.679	.272	-.562	.158
x18	.612	-.121	.247	.645

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.

a. 4 components extracted.

Component Transformation Matrix

Component	1	2	3	4
1	.697	.410	.490	.325
2	-.399	.867	-.257	.151
3	-.454	-.248	.331	.789
4	-.385	.136	.764	-.499

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.

Rotation Method: Varimax with Kaiser Normalization.

Variables Entered/Removed[a]

Model	Variables Entered	Variables Removed	Method
1	fact 4, fact3, fact 2, fact 1[b]	.	Enter

a. Dependent Variable: livelihood

b. All requested variables entered.

Coefficients[a]

Model	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
	B	Std. Error	Beta		
(Constant)	1.084	.032		34.179	.000
fact 1	.185	.033	.686	5.682	.000
fact 2	.072	.033	.266	2.206	.046
fact3	.135	.033	.500	4.142	.001
fact 4	.037	.033	.139	1.147	.272

a. Dependent Variable: livelihood

Variables Entered/Removed[a]

Model	Variables Entered	Variables Removed	Method
1	fact 1	.	Stepwise (Criteria: Probability-of-F-to-enter <= .050, Probability-of-F-to-remove >= .100).
2	fact3	.	Stepwise (Criteria: Probability-of-F-to-enter <= .050, Probability-of-F-to-remove >= .100).
3	fact 2	.	Stepwise (Criteria: Probability-of-F-to-enter <= .050, Probability-of-F-to-remove >= .100).

a. Dependent Variable: livelihood

Model Summary

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.686[a]	.470	.437	.20272
2	.849[b]	.720	.683	.15212
3	.890[c]	.791	.747	.13603

a. Predictors: (Constant), fact 1

b. Predictors: (Constant), fact 1, fact3

c. Predictors: (Constant), fact 1, fact3, fact 2

Coefficients[a]

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	T	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	1.084	.048		22.679	.000
	fact 1	.185	.049	.686	3.770	.002
2	(Constant)	1.084	.036		30.223	.000
	fact 1	.185	.037	.686	5.024	.000

	fact3	.135	.037	.500	3.662	.002
	(Constant)	1.084	.032		33.799	.000
3	fact 1	.185	.033	.686	5.619	.000
	fact3	.135	.033	.500	4.096	.001
	fact 2	.072	.033	.266	2.182	.047

a. Dependent Variable: livelihood

Excluded Variables[a]

Model		Beta In	T	Sig.	Partial Correlation	Collinearity Statistics
						Tolerance
1	fact 2	.266[b]	1.523	.149	.366	1.000
	fact3	.500[b]	3.662	.002	.687	1.000
	fact 4	.139[b]	.751	.464	.190	1.000
2	fact 2	.266[c]	2.182	.047	.504	1.000
	fact 4	.139[c]	1.016	.327	.262	1.000
3	fact 4	.139[d]	1.147	.272	.303	1.000

a. Dependent Variable: livelihood

b. Predictors in the Model: (Constant), fact 1

c. Predictors in the Model: (Constant), fact 1, fact3

d. Predictors in the Model: (Constant), fact 1, fact3, fact 2

Appendix V

Canonical Correlation Analysis

Canonical Correlations

	Correlation	Eigenvalue	Wilks Statistic	F	Num D.F	Denom D.F.	Sig.
1	.979	22.703	.002	7.958	20.000	30.799	.000
2	.896	4.069	.057	4.362	12.000	26.749	.001
3	.828	2.178	.288	3.167	6.000	22.000	.022
4	.291	.093	.915	.	.	.	.

H0 for Wilks test is that the correlations in the current and following rows are zero

Set 1 Standardized Canonical Correlation Coefficients

Variable	1	2	3	4
SkillsAcquisitionandGrernerPasture	-.922	.246	-.209	.070
AgeandInsecurity	-.248	.173	.450	-.425
EducationalandLocationalAttraction	-.279	-.839	.149	.376
IncomeFactor	-.079	-.074	.781	-.167
RetirementandPolicyOrientedFactor	-.064	-.448	-.348	-.803

Set 2 Standardized Canonical Correlation Coefficients

Variable	1	2	3	4
FamilyEnhancementFactor	-.537	-.840	.078	.013
IncomeEnhancementFactor	-.550	.289	-.723	.302
WealthIndexFactor	-.346	.290	.639	.623
AssetsEnhancementFactor	-.537	.356	.250	-.723

Set 1 Unstandardized Canonical Correlation Coefficients

Variable	1	2	3	4
SkillsAcquisitionandGrernerPasture	-.922	.247	-.209	.070
AgeandInsecurity	-.248	.173	.450	-.425
EducationalandLocationalAttraction	-.279	-.839	.149	.376
IncomeFactor	-.080	-.074	.781	-.167
RetirementandPolicyOrientedFactor	-.064	-.448	-.348	-.803

Set 2 Unstandardized Canonical Correlation Coefficients

Variable	1	2	3	4
FamilyEnhancementFactor	-.537	-.840	.078	.013
IncomeEnhancementFactor	-.550	.289	-.723	.302
WealthIndexFactor	-.346	.290	.639	.622
AssetsEnhancementFactor	-.537	.356	.250	-.723

Set 2 Cross Loadings

Variable	1	2	3	4
FamilyEnhancementFactor	-.526	-.753	.064	.004
IncomeEnhancementFactor	-.539	.259	-.599	.088
WealthIndexFactor	-.339	.260	.530	.181
AssetsEnhancementFactor	-.526	.319	.207	-.210

Set 1 Canonical Loadings

Variable	1	2	3	4
SkillsAcquisitionandGrernerPasture	-.922	.245	-.209	.071
AgeandInsecurity	-.248	.174	.450	-.425
EducationalandLocationalAttraction	-.280	-.839	.149	.377
IncomeFactor	-.079	-.074	.781	-.166
RetirementandPolicyOrientedFactor	-.064	-.448	-.349	-.803

Set 2 Canonical Loadings

Variable	1	2	3	4
FamilyEnhancementFactor	-.537	-.840	.078	.013
IncomeEnhancementFactor	-.550	.289	-.723	.301
WealthIndexFactor	-.346	.290	.640	.622
AssetsEnhancementFactor	-.538	.356	.250	-.722

Set 1 Cross Loadings

Variable	1	2	3	4
SkillsAcquisitionandGrernerPasture	-.903	.219	-.173	.021
AgeandInsecurity	-.242	.156	.372	-.124
EducationalandLocationalAttraction	-.274	-.751	.123	.110
IncomeFactor	-.077	-.066	.647	-.048
RetirementandPolicyOrientedFactor	-.063	-.401	-.289	-.234

Proportion of Variance Explained

Canonical Variable	Set 1 by Self	Set 1 by Set 2	Set 2 by Self	Set 2 by Set 1
1	.200	.192	.250	.240
2	.200	.160	.250	.201
3	.200	.137	.250	.171
4	.200	.017	.250	.021